THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AND THE JOB SATISFACTION LEVELS OF EDUCATORS

BY

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Submitted in accordance with the requirements

for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

in the subject

EDUCATION MANAGEMENT

at the

UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA

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JUNE 2013

DECLARATION

I, (Peter Tsvara), hereby declare that this thesis; '**The relationship between the management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators'** is my own original work and that all sources have been accurately indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references. This document has not previously in its entirety or in part been submitted at any university in order to obtain an academic qualification. It is submitted for the degree of Doctor of Education at the University of South Africa.

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EDITOR DECLARATION

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to:

The Almighty God for His provision and support graciously bestowed on me during the course of study;

My one and only dearest wife, Irine, for her understanding, endurance, tolerance and encouragement during the entire period of my studies;

Mitchell, Melody, Moreblessing and Modester, my beloved daughters, who sacrificed generously and unselfishly, relinquished my attention during my studies;

All members of my extended family and the inspiration and example set by my late hardworking parents, Mr. A. P. Tsvara and Mrs. C. Tsvara.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am thankful to the Almighty God who gave me good health throughout the course of my PhD study. He provided everything I needed to complete this thesis and saw to it that I completed this program against all odds.

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to:

- My supervisor, Professor J. J. Booyse, who was my source of encouragement and inspiration at every stage of my research. I pay tribute to him for his informative comments, constructive advice, unwavering guidance and academic prowess. Many thanks for your unfailing support and guidance while challenging me to move beyond my intellectual comfort zones;
- Dr C. Denhere, Dr P. Mudhovozi and Dr T. Runhare for their professional support, encouragement and academic advice during the writing of the thesis;
- Mrs M. Botha, for transcribing all my interviews, typing the entire thesis, and formatting the thesis;
- Professor Eleanor Lemmer for editing the language and technical aspects of the document.
- My wife for all the love and patience and, most importantly, for encouraging me to complete this degree on time;
- My best friends, Patrick Mukumba, and Ronald Rateiwa for all their support and encouragement during the course of my studies;
- All the principals and educators who took part in this research, a big thank you
- Mashudu Tshikhudo for being my note-taker, how can I ever thank you enough for offering me your time to work and be with me throughout all my interviews;
- Last but not least, my all 2012 PhD classmates, friends and colleagues. Now I have achieved that 'whole in one'.

SUMMARY

South African schools have experienced a high rate of educator turnover which has led to greater school instability, disruption of curricular cohesiveness and a continual need to hire experienced and inexperienced educators, who may be typically less effective, as replacements for educators who leave. Unfortunately, principals of schools lack organizational capacity to provide the necessary management strategies that can enhance educators' job satisfaction. Since the principals are fully responsible for the proper functioning of the schools and their personnel, this study explored the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and the educators' job satisfaction levels within the context of South African schools. It examined how management strategies of principals impact on job satisfaction levels of educators in various school environments. The study explored literature from local and international perspectives on management strategies and the job satisfaction of educators. It described the background and findings of the relationship between management strategies of principals and educators' job satisfaction levels from an education management perspective. For the empirical inquiry the study adopted a qualitative research paradigm, and as such, a qualitative investigation of the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and the educators' job satisfaction levels in schools was conducted. Non-probability sampling methods were used to select a sample of six school principals and twelve educators. Individual and focus group interviews were used in data collection and were audio-recorded. Throughout the research study, ethical considerations were upheld. Data analysis involved a mix of content and thematic analysis instruments. The study findings determined the relationship between management strategies of principals and educators' job satisfaction levels. An understanding of human relationship is very important to school principals who have the responsibility of establishing an environment that not only motivates educators, but can also help to enhance their job satisfaction levels in a positive way. An understanding of educators' needs also helps school principals to devise management strategies to enhance the job satisfaction levels of educators. Based on the findings, recommendations to improve the management strategies of school principals in the enhancement of educators' job satisfaction were proposed.

KEY WORDS

- Constructivist theory
- Contingency theory
- Content theory
- Critical theory
- ERG theory
- Expectancy theory
- Equity theory
- Facilitative strategy
- Hierarchy of needs theory
- Hierarchical strategy
- Job satisfaction
- Management
- Management strategy
- Participative strategy
- Process theory
- Reinforcement theory
- Systems theory
- Transformational strategy

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ACE	:	Advanced Certificate in Education
CAPS	:	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
CPRE	:	Consortium for Policy Research in Education
DC	:	Disciplinary Committee
DoE	:	Department of Education
ERIC	:	Educational Resources Information Centre
FET	:	Further Education and Training
FGI	:	Focus Group Interview
GET	:	General Education and Training
HoD	:	Head of Department
NCP	:	National Council of Principals
NCS	:	National Curriculum Statement
OBE	:	Outcome-Based Education
RNCS/OBE	:	Revised National Curriculum Statement/Outcome-Based Education
R & R	:	Rationalization and Redeployment
SA	:	South Africa
SBM	:	School Based Management
SGB	:	School Governing Body
SMT	:	School Management Team
UNISA	:	University of South Africa

CHAPTER ONE

1. OVERVIEW AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

One of the main challenges facing South Africa is to improve the efficiency of the education system in the face of limited human resources. Abdo (2000:107-108) maintains that the lack of quality in education provision in many developing countries can be attributed to the poor quality of aspirant educators, high educator turnover, low educator morale and the quality of the educator's work life. Educators play an important role in the education system because 'resources are not everything' (The Sunday Times, 18 October 2009). Furthermore, the dilemma in South African schools can be traced back to the lack of legitimacy created by apartheid policies during the previous dispensation (DoE, 1996a:18; Gultig & Butler, 1999:26). The apartheid school system was characterized by inequality: racially, regionally and in terms of gender (DoE, 2000f:1). According to the DoE (1996a:19), the management in the previous dispensation was top-down where principals and educators were at the receiving end of policy; in this regulated work environment, principals were accustomed to receiving instructions from department officials (Gultig & Butler, 1999:49). This notion in schools led to poor management and a collapse of teaching and learning in the majority of schools (DoE, 1996a:18). Features of a poor culture of learning and teaching in schools include the following: poor school attendance; educators who do not have the desire to teach; tensions between various elements of the school community; vandalism; gangsterism; rape; alcohol and drug abuse; high dropout rate; poor school results; weak leadership, management, and administration; general feelings of hopelessness; demotivation and low morale; disrupted authority; and the poor state of buildings, facilities and resources (Chisholm & Vally, 1996:1).

Hendricks (2009:1) asserts that the education system needs a chalkboard, a dedicated educator and willing learners. He acknowledges that the level of motivation and job satisfaction of educators has dropped significantly. Educators' strikes, budget disputes, shortage of educators (through either unqualified or under-qualified), and unpopular rationalization and redeployment

(R & R) processes are observable causes and symptoms of low job satisfaction in educators. Although such factors have been identified as contributing to the poor performance of education in South Africa, current educational reform places a great premium upon the relationship between effective management strategies and educators' job satisfaction levels. Management strategies exercised by school principals may have a direct or an indirect but powerful influence on the effectiveness of educators and can aid in enhancing educators' job satisfaction levels. Ironically, management strategies of school principals may be one of the solutions for transforming ailing educators' job satisfaction levels to effective ones.

Educators are the most important resource in schools and a high quality education system depends on high quality educators. Kim (2000:35) asserts that the quality of school education basically depends on the professionalism and devotion of educators, and positive change in schools cannot be realized without educators' commitment to and participation in reforms- thus educators' quality and morale is important to the success of an education system. However, among the most important threats to the education system efficiency are apparent declines in educators' morale and rising educator turnover both of which are indicators of low job satisfaction levels.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

In view of what is discussed in the introduction section, the importance assigned by the present researcher to the consideration of the problem of educators' job satisfaction can be seen arising from two sources. Firstly, it arises from the extensive work experience of the researcher as a classroom educator, and secondly, from the preliminary literature study done by the researcher. During the past nineteen years, the researcher was exposed to the thrust of the study, which is, experienced low job satisfaction level as an educator and has, also observed widespread lack of job satisfaction among educators as well as poor and unvaried management strategies of principals. The low job satisfaction levels in educators were manifested in their' unwillingness to participate in school activities, late coming to work, lack of additional training (in-service courses), uncreative and non-stimulating teaching methods, lack of interest in school staff meetings, unhelpful attitudes when assistance is needed, occurrence of hold-ups because of deadlines not met, resistance to contributing more than what is required of them, developments

of arguments between colleagues, and total support to union activities. In some schools, there has been an unanticipated and unavoidable staff turnover. This is of great concern given the seriousness of the South African government to improve the education of its citizens.

The researcher has been able to trace some of the reasons for low levels of educators' job satisfaction to working conditions and organizational practices in schools. One might assume that, in the face of a changing educational environment in South Africa, many educators would feel demoralized, discouraged, demotivated and unsatisfied with their jobs. Such malaise would appear to be more pronounced among those who have been teaching for many years and have fewer options for alternative employment. Connolly (2000:56) contends that educators are prone to a loss of job satisfaction and leveling off of performance as they spend years in the same job-hence educators' job satisfaction begins to diminish sometime during their third year as they realize that they have little autonomy and that they are not really decision-makers.

Educators' job satisfaction has become a matter of concern as evidenced by the large volume of studies done on the subject (Brunnetti, 2001:49-74; De Jesus & Conboy, 2001:131-137; Evans, 2001:291-306; Mertler, 2002:43-53; Bull, 2005:120-143; George, Louw & Badenhorst, 2008:134-154; Roos, 2005:170-175; Van der Zee, 2009:90-94; Hendricks, 2009:1-3). Research in South Africa by Pager (1996:76) reported low levels of job satisfaction of educators; Lethoko, Heystek and Maree (2001:313) found that educators in South African dysfunctional schools had zero percent dedication and motivation to do their work efficiently. George, et. al. (2008:138) reported that significant indicators of job satisfaction which emerged from a study done by Mwamwenda (1995) in the Transkei included a positive relationship between educators and principals. Bull's (2005:138) study in South African schools reported that there is a strong and positive correlation between organizational commitment and job satisfaction among educators.

Previous studies in Zimbabwe (Kusereka, 2009:175); Kenya (Poipoi & Sirima, 2010:659-665); Saudi Arabia (Alzaidi, 2008:161-185); Namibia (George, Louw & Badenhorst, 2008:135-154) on educators' job satisfaction also attested to relatively low levels of job satisfaction. De Jesus and Conboy (2001:131) observed that many educators were not motivated and had low job satisfaction levels. They also reported that in Portugal, it is estimated that less than 50% of

educators desire to continue in the teaching profession; the majority would prefer to quit or change profession if given the chance. These findings were also collaborated by Mertler (2002:43-44) who reported that a noteworthy number of educators in the United States had low levels of job satisfaction; 34% of the educators in his study were of the opinion that, if given the opportunity to choose a career again, they would not choose to enter the teaching profession. Further support of low levels of educators' job satisfaction was offered by Boyer and Gillespie (2001:11) who maintained that 6% of all the educators in the United States leave the field of teaching each year, with an even higher 9.3% leaving at the end of their first year of teaching.

In South Africa, in the late 1990s the DoE implemented Outcome-Based Education (OBE) in primary schools (General Education and Training band) which reduced educators' job satisfaction. Educators who were teaching at that stage, especially those with 20-30 years of teaching experience found it difficult to understand the new curriculum and many resigned or took early retirement packages (Hendricks, 2009:2). Hendricks (2009:3) and the Daily Dispatch (April, 12. 2002:7 & May, 9. 2002:6) revealed that the DoE in 1998 introduced the 'Rationalization and Redeployment' (R & R) policy in which 10 000 educators in the Eastern Cape were declared in excess and 9 700 were redeployed to fill vacant posts elsewhere. The redeployment was a disaster and many educators sought counseling from doctors or psychologists because many who were redeployed refused to work at the schools they were posted, some took early retirement and some resigned prematurely. In the same study, it was revealed that DoE lost many experienced educators such as post level 1 educators, Heads of Departments, Deputy Principals and Principals. In 2005, the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) became an OBE infused curriculum for Grade 10-12. When many educators were still struggling with the NCS, in 2011 they were confronted again with the recent curriculum change, the 'Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (DoE, 2011). All these are negatively impacting on the job satisfaction of educators, hence the need to investigate how school principals can enhance the job satisfaction of these educators through their management strategies.

Nevertheless, the general consensus is that low job satisfaction is a significant phenomenon of educators' work life and this concept as well as strategies to improve it through school

management should be understood. Van Amelsvoort, Hendricks and Scheerens (2000:178) argue that it is widely claimed that the teaching profession is demoralized and suffering from diminished job satisfaction and decreased commitment, a situation that affects the quality of teaching and adequacy of educator supply in the long run.

Armed with these insights, the researcher has undertaken a study to explore the matter of educators' job satisfaction further. In particular, this study investigates how poor job satisfaction can be dealt with from school management point of view. According to a paper presented by Lashway (2002) at the Consortium for Policy Research in Education on 'Developing Instructional Leaders', school management has a range of strategies to choose from when dealing with educators in schools. These strategies range from transformational to hierarchical; facilitative to participative. This research is focused on these four strategies and how they can be used to improve educators' job satisfaction levels in schools. The research aimed to determine whether there is a relationship between management strategies of school principals and job satisfaction levels of educators.

1.3 MOTIVATION FOR THE RESEARCH

A noteworthy number of educators in many schools are not motivated and experience low job satisfaction levels. An investigation which can reveal the factors that affect educators' job satisfaction and the ways in which educators' job satisfaction levels can be enhanced would be beneficial to the South African education system as a whole. Such research would provide a great deal of insight into the management strategies school principals can utilize to improve the work circumstances of educators. Identification of these management strategies provided information necessary to target educators who experience low job satisfaction levels. The study has the capacity for shaping work contexts that match or are at odds with the individual educator's needs for raising his/her job satisfaction level.

Understanding what matters to educators, and in particular, knowing precisely the key factors which influence an individual educator's job satisfaction is crucial to effective school management. The study can contribute to that knowledge and understanding. The research can be extremely valuable for educational planners, managers, principals, educators, researchers and

the general public because it informed them of the management strategies that help enhance educators' job satisfaction levels in schools.

The researcher was also prompted by the paucity of relevant research on educators' job satisfaction in education in South Africa (Brunnetti, 2001:49-74; De Jesus & Conboy, 2001:131-137; Evans, 2001:291-306; Mertler, 2002:43-53; Bull, 2005:120-143; George, Louw & Badenhorst, 2008:134-154; Roos, 2005:170-175; Van der Zee, 2009:90-94; Lethoko, Heystek & Maree, 2001:313). The relationship between management strategies and job satisfaction has received very little attention from researchers. The literature on educators' job satisfaction primarily derives from metropolitan countries and this lacks insights into management strategies enhancing educators' job satisfaction in developing countries in general and in South Africa in particular. This study attempted to address this anomaly.

This research is, therefore, pertinent to education in the South African context since it provided relevant information to practicing educational managers and school principals as to the management strategies that can enhance local educators' job satisfaction levels. The main thrust of this research is to provide practical suggestions to school principals for the enhancement and sustenance of educators' job satisfaction in schools. Such information can make a significant contribution to the field of Education Management. The implementation of the recommendations would ensure high educators' job satisfaction levels and thus, the provision and retention of high quality and committed educators in our schools.

1.4 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Schools today must be able to motivate and retain educators with high levels of job satisfaction, but our current education system still fails to meet these demands resulting in many unresolved quandaries that lead to low levels of educators' job satisfaction. Most problems associated with low levels of educators' job satisfaction have a direct relationship with school principals' management. Today, due to increasing demands from all quarters of life, the traditionally recognized roles and responsibilities of educators have been redefined. In order to carry out these added roles and responsibilities effectively; educators' job satisfaction levels at the workplace should be an important factor for schools to consider in order to achieve quality teaching. The

issue surrounding educators' job satisfaction should be of utmost importance to school principals for retaining talented human capital. This is a challenge to principals who are overworked and under pressure to improve student achievement. Yet, educators' grievances should not proliferate into stumbling blocks between the interaction of school principals and educators.

In view of the above, the following main or primary research problem was stated:
- What is the relationship between the management strategies school principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators in their schools?

According to Leedy's (1993:13-14), to make the research problem more manageable, the researcher may divide the problem into sub-problems. Resolving these sub-problems would ultimately resolve the problem; thus, the nucleus of this research problem under investigation was best articulated by stating the following sub-problems:
- What does the concept management strategy mean?
- What management strategies are available for utilization by school principals for enhancing educators' job satisfaction levels in their schools?
- What does the concept job satisfaction mean?
- What comprises the job satisfaction of educators?
- What influence do management strategies have on the job satisfaction levels of educators?
- Is there a relationship between management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators?

1.5 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

In view of the main research problem and the sub-problems given above, the broad aim of the study was investigative: to determine or examine the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators. The empirical investigation was carried out with the following primary aim:
- To determine the relationship between different management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators.

In order to achieve this primary aim, the following secondary aims or objectives were identified:

- To explore and clarify the concept management strategy.
- To identify and describe the management strategies that can be used in school management.
- To examine and clarify the concept job satisfaction.
- To identify and explain what comprises job satisfaction of educators.
- To identify and describe the influence of management strategies on the job satisfaction levels of educators.
- To establish whether there is a relationship between the management strategies of school principals and job satisfaction levels of educators.

In order to achieve the above main aim and the objectives, a qualitative research study was undertaken. Data was collected to extend the body of knowledge about the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators.

1.6 ASSUMPTIONS OF THE RESEARCHER

The present study was based on the following assumptions:

- There are management strategies that can be used to enhance job satisfaction levels of educators.
- There are educators who do not experience an acceptable degree of job satisfaction levels in the teaching profession.
- The job satisfaction levels of educators can be enhanced or sustained by school principals' management strategies.

The study was, predicted upon the following practical assumptions:

- All participants would respond to the interview and that they would do so honestly and sincerely.
- It is possible to establish a relationship between management strategies of school principals and job satisfaction levels of educators using interview instruments.

1.7 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The Department of Education has repeatedly promulgated to achieve quality education and to create an education system that promotes educators' job satisfaction. This aim can only be realized if school principals focus on management strategies that expand their capacity and capability to face the challenges of the 21st century. As school education becomes more and more complex, good management strategies and educators with high job satisfaction levels are essential to bring about greater improvement and better student achievement. An examination of principals' management strategies in the context of emerging educational trends would allow current and future principals to examine the type of management strategies most effective in enhancing educators' job satisfaction levels in dynamic and ever-changing school environments. The purpose of this study was to identify various effective management strategies and traits of school principals which nurture and enhance educators' job satisfaction levels; to show how school improvement can be pursued by seeking ways to strengthen the management capacities of principals to ensure that educators are provided with professional opportunities for the enhancement of job satisfaction; and to investigate the relationship between principals' management strategies and educators' job satisfaction levels.

1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The significance and potential contribution of this study was discussed from both theoretical and practical standpoints. The study contributed to the theoretical enhancement of the current level of knowledge in the existing literature on the relation between educational management of schools by principals and educators' job satisfaction. This was achieved by developing a link between school management strategies of principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators based on the extensive literature study, and applying these strategies in the practical context of the South African schools. In terms of its practical contribution, the research findings of this study would be used to make specific management strategies recommendations on how to improve the job satisfaction levels of educators in schools.

The National Council of Principals (2005) acknowledged among its members that one significant factor contributing to disastrous educational scenarios is the management strategies of its own members. This statement stresses that proper management strategies by school principals helps

in improving job satisfaction levels of educators. Evidence from this study could serve as an empirical framework for the DoE to plan, reorganize and provide management training program for school principals and prospective principals. In addition, it could remind school principals to heed their management strategies and make management behaviors more sensitive to human interaction.

1.9 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This section discusses the research design and methodology that directs the research study (Ary, Jacobs & Razavich, 1990:32-33). Its prime purpose is to explain the rationale behind the methodology used and to indicate how the research was conducted. It further outlines the steps taken in data gathering and analysis and to ensure trustworthiness and implement ethical requirements in the study.

Figure 1.1 summarizes the research design, methodology, data gathering and data presentation and analysis of the study. Le Roux (2000:26) maintains that all studies require an outline of the research methods where the issue of research methodology is discussed, described, planned and determined on the basis of the nature of the study.

EPISTEMOLOGICAL AND ONTOLOGICAL PARADIGMS

- Phenomenological
- Exploratory
- Interpretivist

METHODOLOGICAL PARADIGM

- Qualitative design

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

SAMPLING

INSTRUMENTS

QUALITY CONTROL

ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Purposeful

Convenience

Individual interviews

Focus group interviews

Trustworthiness: Credibility, Dependability, Confirmability,

Voluntary participation, Anonymity, Confidentiality

DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

Content and Thematic Analysis: Transcription, Coding, and categorizing

TYPE OF DATA

Qualitative: Narrative, and Verbatim.

Figure 1.1:   Outline of the research design and methodology

The research design is a plan for the study, providing the overall framework for collecting data, outlining the detailed steps in the study and providing guidelines for systematic data analysis (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:221; Creswell, 2006:39; Welman & Kruger, 2001:46). Terre-Blanche and Durrheim (2002:29) also define research design as a strategic framework for action that links research questions to the execution or implementation of the research.

In this study, the research design is defined as a detailed plan, the visualization of data to be collected and how problems related to the utilization of such data are to be sorted out. In this case, it includes the description of the research approach, research sampling, research instruments, data collection procedure, ethical protocols, data analysis, trustworthiness, and pilot study. A research design provides the basic direction for carrying out a research so as to obtain answers to the research question. Considering all surrounding conveniences, the researcher chose to adopt a qualitative research design to conduct an investigation into the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction and this is now briefly elucidated.

1.9.1   Research approach

In this research a qualitative research approach was used to carry out the study. A qualitative research approach is an empirical research in which the researcher explores relationships using textual rather than quantitative data (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003:2; Nkwi, Nyamongo & Ryan, 2001:1). Creswell (2006:39) states that a qualitative research is research in which the researcher relies on the views of participants, asks broad-general questions, collects data consisting largely of words (or texts) from participants, describes and analyses these words for themes. Henning (2003:8) also affirms that qualitative research is a research that utilizes open-ended, semi-structured or closed structured interviews, observations and group discussions to explore and understand the attitudes, feelings and behaviors of individuals or group of individuals.

In other words, qualitative research is best used for depth, rather than breadth of information (Chisaka & Vakalisa, 2000:11; Welman & Kruger, 2001:46), discovering underlying job satisfaction, feelings, values, attitudes, and perceptions (Vishnevsky & Beanlands, 2004:3). Qualitative research is a way of knowing and learning about different experiences from the perspective of the individual. According to Polit (2001:12), qualitative research utilizes naturalistic paradigm based on the notion that reality is not predetermined, but is constructed by the research participants. These naturalistic methods aim at exploring the phenomenon in question by focusing on the individuals who experience it, with the assumption that understanding is maximized by minimizing the interpersonal distance between the researcher and the participant (Chisaka & Vakalisa, 2000:12). According to Polit (2001:13), researchers in the

naturalistic tradition stress the inherent complexity of humans, the ability of humans to shape and create their own experiences, and the idea that truth is a composite of realities. Thus, qualitative research allows researchers to explore social phenomenon and how they are meaningful in everyday life (Speziale & Carpenter, 2003:14, Burns & Grove, 2003:4).

This study is qualitative in its approach because the qualitative research methods are more suited to help in the understanding of human behavior and attitudes (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:16). Through this qualitative research approach, the relationship between management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction was investigated.

1.9.2   Research population and sample

In this research study, research population and the sample are of paramount importance in demarcating the research parameters. Alreck and Settle (1995:54) assert that the actual specification of a sample must start with the identification of a population to be surveyed. Alreck and Settle (ibid) further state that the researcher must anticipate decisions that are likely to arise during the actual sample selection and that respondents must possess the information and must have certain attributes or characteristics to make their responses meaningful.

For the purpose of this study, the target population consisted of all the principals and educators in the Dzindi Circuit of Vhembe District, Limpopo Province, South Africa. The researcher purposely and conveniently chose to focus on the Vhembe District. As resident and employee in this district, the researcher purposively and conveniently chose to focus the study in the Dzindi Circuit. The Dzindi Circuit has 13 secondary schools and 25 primary schools. Accordingly, the accessible population consists of all the educators and principals in the Dzindi circuit. Although school principals and educators in the Dzindi Circuit are not representative of all the principals and educators in the Vhembe District, they are typical of principals and educators in many districts and provinces throughout South Africa. They are representative of the teaching population's gender, age, working conditions, work group, post levels, academic and professional qualifications. The total number of educators for both primary and secondary schools in the Dzindi Circuit is 689 in all post levels, that is, from post level one to four. This

means there are 38 principals and 651 educators. These figures include both permanent and temporary teaching staff paid by either the Limpopo DoE or School Governing Bodies (SGBs).

As it is impractical to study the entire population, a selection of a smaller group (sample) was done with the purpose of drawing conclusions about the broader group and not just a sample. A sample is a subset of the population and a representative sample must have properties that best represent the population so as to allow for an accurate generalizability or transferability of results (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:88). In support of this opinion, Creswell (2006:20) posits that the sampling process involves taking a portion of the target population, investigating this smaller, manageable group and then generalizing or transferring to the larger population from which the sample is drawn.

Selecting a sample is important for two reasons, that is, it enables the researcher to deal with a smaller but representative group and drawing inferences about the larger population or broader group (Goodwin, 1995:105). In this study, it was impossible to interview all 651 educators and 38 principals in the selected Dzindi Circuit due to time and cost constraints. The ideal sample size considered acceptable for this research purpose as it provided the ability to transfer to the population in terms of a qualitative research is given below. This simple breakdown of sample according to the research instruments was used in data collection.

- Six individual interviews ⟶ six participants [principals (3 secondary & 3 primary)]
- Two focus group interviews ⟶ twelve participants [educators (6 secondary & 6 primary)]

In this study, six schools were sampled (three secondary and three primary schools) in the Dzindi Circuit. Principals of these schools were automatically selected to constitute those who were to be individually interviewed (6) and twelve educators who constituted focus group interview (2 groups of 6 educators each). These schools were chosen on the basis of their accessibility and willingness to be included in the research (Mazibuko, 2003:9).

The sample size was deemed suitable for qualitative research as the population was heterogeneous and this increased the chances of obtaining acceptable data. In total six principals, and twelve educators were purposively and conveniently sampled for inclusion in the study.

1.9.3   Sampling procedure

As mentioned earlier on in this study, purposive and convenient sampling was the procedure followed. Creswell (2005:203) states that in qualitative inquiry, the intent is not to generalize to a population but to develop an in-depth exploration of a central phenomenon. Thus, to best understand this phenomenon, the researcher purposefully or intentionally selects individuals and sites. The researcher used purposive and convenience sampling for the selection of participants and research sites as recommended by Babbie (2010:193). These are types of non-probability sampling in which the participants to be interviewed are sampled on the basis of the researcher's judgment and the convenience of locating participants who are the most useful or representative of the population. Babbie (2010:G7) says non-probability sampling is a technique in which samples are selected in some way which is not recommended by probability theory. Patton (1991:169 in Creswell 2005:204) contends that the standard in choosing participants and sites is their nature as 'information rich'. The Dzindi Circuit has been purposefully sampled out of the circuits in Vhembe District. Also, school principals and educators were purposefully sampled to meet the requirements for research participants.

The researcher utilized purposive and convenience sampling methods in this research because the educators and principals (participants) and schools (research sites) were considered ones that could enhance understanding of the concepts of job satisfaction and management strategy in management of schools (Creswell, (2005:205).

1.9.4   Research instruments

Many common qualitative research instruments can be used to collect qualitative data, including participant observation, in-depth interviews and focus group interviews. In this study, the researcher adopted two distinct research instruments, that is, the in-depth interviews and the focus group interviews. Each is particularly suited for obtaining a specific type of data. In-depth interviews are operational for collecting data on individuals' personal perspectives, perceptions,

and experiences, particularly when sensitive topics are being explored. Focus group interviews are effective in eliciting data on the cultural norms of a group and in generating broad overviews of issues of concern to the cultural groups or subgroups represented. In this way, different types of raw data were generated, usually in form of field notes, audio recordings and transcripts.

In this study, the appropriateness of these data collection instruments is that they afforded participants not to read questions and then enter their answers, instead they were asked questions orally to which they responded openly with minimum restrictions of their opinions (Babbie, 2010:274). Interviewing is a typically face-to-face encounter with the interviewee (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:395, Patton, 1989:57).

1.9.4.1 Semi-structured Interviews

The study used semi-structured interviews in its process of data gathering whereby participants were observed or spoken to by the researcher. Based on the review of the literature, professional and personal experiences, an initial interview guide was developed by the researcher. The guide was determined as an important a tool whereby the same information could be covered with each participant or each group of participants. However, the guide was only intended as a guideline, so as not to stifle the open-ended nature of the study.

These interviews were conducted with a fairly open framework that allowed for focused conversation in a two-way communication. The interviews were used for giving and receiving information. The role of the researcher in the semi-structured interview was to facilitate and guide rather than to dictate exactly what would happen during the encounter. An interview guide indicated the general area of interest and probed information from participants. The researcher asked questions, such as the following: *How do you describe your roles as a school principal in the management of a school? Based on what you have just said in the first question, may you describe work situations in which you exercised these management roles in managing your staff? Please provide practical examples.* According to Chisaka and Vakalisa (2000:23), such interviews are regarded as a flexible way of obtaining and exploring information.

1.9.4.2 Focus Group Interviews

The study also utilized focus group interviews in its data collection instruments. Perhaps these are the best-known and most widely used type of indirect interviews which are conducted with a focus group. These focus group interviews can be termed 'focus group discussions' (Heiskanen, Jarvela, Pulliainen, Saastamoinen & Timonen, 2008:153). Boddy (2005) and Nancarrow, Vir and Barker (2005) agreed that the choice of the term 'focus group discussion' reflects the group's interaction in creating new knowledge. By 'focus group discussions', they referred to a group of 4 to 12 people brought together to participate in the discussion of an area of interest.

A focus group discussion involves a group of people, jointly participating in an interview that does not use a structured question and answer method to obtain information from these people. A systematic review of recent focus group research in psychology yields an average of nine participants per session as conventional, with a range of six to twelve (Breakwell, Hammond & Fife-Schaw, 2000). However, Willig (2001:29) suggests that focus groups should consist of no more than six participants. This is to ensure that all participants remain actively involved in the group discussion throughout the data collection phase. Also, it is extremely difficult to manage or accurately transcribe a group discussion of more than six participants. In this study, the researcher used focus groups of 4-6 participants in the collection of research data.

One interesting distinctive feature of focus groups which the researcher was interested in was that they created research data by generating social interaction. This was done by assembling a group of participants to discuss a specific topic and by observing how the ensuing discussion evolves (Boddy, 2005 in Heiskanen, et. al. 2008: 154). The researcher's underlying assumption was that meaning is created in social interaction. Organized and focused group discussions provided a context for participants to articulate the meaning of their experiences and elaborate on them in a collective sense-making process. Focus groups were also used to obtain individual viewpoints; it was typical to instruct discussants that the aim was not to reach consensus, but to explore the different viewpoints that emerged. By observing, recording, and analyzing the interaction in the group, researcher also gained an understanding of how the participants approached the topic and what kind of language they used to frame the issues. The interaction

also allowed participants to pose questions to each other and to redefine their own views as the discussion evolved.

When conducting focus group discussions with professionals, the practical aspects of focus group discussions should be documented. Special attention was given to recruitment, the convenience of the facility used and the role of moderator. The researcher acted as moderator since he was presiding as an authority on the research in the field of the professionals. In all these focus group discussions, recordings were made to ensure the authenticity of data collected. Appendix H contains the focus group discussion schedule used in this study.

1.9.5   Pilot study

The study was piloted to ensure the validity and reliability of the interview questions (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2005:205; Sarantakos, 2000:291). A pilot study is defined in the New Dictionary of Social Work (1995:45) as the 'process whereby the research design for a prospective study is tested'. In this study, the pilot study was regarded as a small-scale trial run of all the aspects planned for use in the main study (Monnette, Sullivan & De Jong, 1998:9).

The semi-structured interview and the focus group interview were pilot tested with three principals and two groups of six educators who were purposefully and conveniently drawn from the sample considered in the study. The researcher personally carried out the interviews with both school principals and educators. The following was checked in the pilot testing: length of the interview, that is, the anticipated time for the interview. It was observed that individual interview's time allocation of 60 to 90 minutes was too long and the time allocation was reduced from 45 minutes to one hour. Similarly, the time allocation of the focus group interview which was 90 to 120 minutes was adjusted to two hours maximum. Ambiguity of question items and poorly worded items were also made reformulated, for example, the question that read: 'How do you see your role in the management of a school?' was rephrased to: 'Describe your roles as a school principal in the management of a school'. This was done taking cognizance of Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2005:260-261) who advise that in pilot testing questions, ambiguous items should made non-ambiguous, the items that lack discriminability should be dropped and

substituted by other items and sensitive and poorly worded items should be desensitized and re-worded respectively.

The study was piloted in English. The results of this pilot study assisted the researcher in finding out whether the interview guide could assist in getting the information required to come up with acceptable or trustworthy conclusions about the research question. In addition, the pilot study helped the researcher to fine-tune the study for the main inquiry (Mitchell & Jolley, 2001:13-14; Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000:155). Thereafter, the researcher went ahead to collect the research data as shall be discussed in the next section.

1.9.6   Data collection procedure

This entails the collection of data through individual interviews and focus group interviews. Creswell (2005:202) informs that qualitative data collection is more than simply deciding on whether you will observe or interview people. It consists of collecting data using forms with general, emerging questions to permit the participant to generate responses; gathering word (text); and collecting information from a small number of individuals or sites. The role of the researcher in all of this is to create an open environment (Poggenpoel, 1993:2) so that the participants can express themselves freely.

In this study, the researcher considered the choice of taking notes during the interview through a note-taker and tape recording the interview. The latter was preferred for a number of reasons. Firstly, it allowed the interviewer to focus on asking the main questions and probing questions. Secondly, it afforded the interviewer the opportunity to listen and respond to the interviewee without being distracted by trying to write down what was being said. The discussion flowed because the interviewer did not have to write down the response to one question before moving on to the next. Tape recording ensured that the whole interview was captured and provided complete data for analysis; including cues that could have been missed the first time were recognized when listening to the recording.

Besides tape recording, notes were taken during all the data collection procedures as a back-up to the audio recording. The note-taker was employed to prevent the interviewer from interrupting in the flow of conversation.

1.9.7   Ethical protocols

The ethical protocols in this study (qualitative research) denote gaining access to the sites or individual/group participants. The researcher obtained permission to carry out the study in schools from the UNISA's Ethics Review and Clearance Committee, the supervisor and the DoE (Vhembe District, Dzindi Circuit). After obtaining permission letters from all the relevant authorities, the researcher visited the school sites and individuals to negotiate the access to the interviewing process. Creswell (2005:208) stressed that of special importance is negotiating approval with review boards (UNISA) and locating individuals at a site who can facilitate the collection of qualitative data. In this study, the researcher with the help of a research assistant was solely responsible for the interviewing of the research participants.

1.9.7.1   Permission from the department of education

The researcher visited Vhembe District Department of Education and Dzindi Circuit offices to seek permission from the District Education Director and Circuit Manager to access information at the information desk from their offices to access all schools in the circuit and carry out interviews in the sampled schools. The nature and purpose of the research was explained to the District Education Director and Circuit Manager. A list of all schools indicating the school and the staff establishment according to gender was requested in order to use it in compiling information for sampling purpose.

1.9.7.2   Permission from research sites

Research sites are the actual schools and study sites where the interviews were conducted. In this research study, these were the schools where school principals and educators were interviewed. Maree (2011:34) defines research sites as 'where one will conduct the research'. According to this understanding, the researcher conducted the research in schools in the Dzindi Circuit. All sampled schools were visited by the researcher to discuss the nature and purpose of the proposed study with the school principals, to seek permission to carry out interviews with educators and

themselves and to negotiate terms of access. On each of the visits, the researcher asked for permission to meet with the educators for a few minutes in order to explain to them the nature and purpose of the study and to invite them to participate in the study. These meetings helped in developing rapport between the researcher and the educators.

1.9.7.3   Permission to record interviews

The researcher made appointments with the principals of selected schools to arrange dates for the administration of the interviews. On the agreed dates, the researcher visited the schools or the agreed venue and conducted the interviews. Both individual and focus group interviews were carried out as planned from November 2011 to April 2012. The educators and principals were informed about their right to give or withhold consent to participate in the study. The participants' privacy was respected and, in all cases, educators and principals were informed that they were voluntarily invited to participate and the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses were assured.

Interaction with participants was in form of face-to-face interviews with the help of an interview guide. During one-on-one interviews the researcher asked questions and recorded the responses from one participant at a time. This method was most suitable for principals because they are confident to articulate and share ideas. Focus group interviews were used with the groups of educators (4 to 6 participants).

1.9.8   Data analysis methods

In this study which is in line with a qualitative methodological paradigm, data was analyzed using a mix of content and thematic analysis approaches. These two approaches are inductive and interpretivist methods of data analysis in which written texts, phrases, sentences, paragraphs or spoken words or narratives are examined and broken down into meaningful units or bits of data. Attention was given to the different data sources or the participants' professional realities such as differential position power relations, organizational socio-economic and gender differences.

Qualitative data analysis as a process which involves a broad range of instruments such as content and thematic analyses for analyzing non-numerical information usually textual materials, allowed the researcher to do much of the following: observe patterns in the data; ask questions of those patterns; construct conjectures; deliberately collect data from specifically selected individuals on the targeted topic; confirm or refute those conjectures, then continue analysis; ask additional questions; seek more data; further the analysis by sorting; and question, think about, construct and test conjectures (Maree, 2011:297; Mayan, 2001:21). This qualitative data analysis followed three steps once the data was gathered: (i) data reduction (selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, transforming); (ii) data display (organizing and compressing); and (iii) conclusion drawing/verification (noting irregularities, patterns, explanations, possible configurations, propositions) (Miles & Huberman, 1994:131-132; Woodfield, 2009:20). Hindle (2004:594) supports this notion by identifying data analysis instruments as "methods for analyzing data irrespective of either the methodical cluster within which the technique is applied or the methods used to collect data". With this in mind, data analysis of this study followed the process of transcription, coding, analysis and presentation of results.

1.9.8.1   Content analysis

The content analysis used in this study is perhaps the most common method of qualitative analysis, that is, a systematic way of analyzing textual information in a standardized way that allows the researcher to make inferences about that information (c.f. Weber, 1990:9-12; Krippendorff, 1980:21-2). According to Hsieh and Shannon (2005:1278), content analysis is articulated as a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes and patterns. Neuendorf (2002) in Maree (2011:101) is quoted as saying that content analysis is a systematic approach to qualitative data analysis that identifies and summarizes message content. Also, Patton (2002:453) defines content analysis as a qualitative data reduction and sense-making effort that takes a volume of qualitative material and attempts to identify core consistencies and meanings. Using this method the researcher systematically worked through each transcript assigning codes, which were numbers and words, to specific characteristics within the text.

1.9.8.2   Thematic analysis

The thematic analysis which the researcher used in collaboration with the content analysis in this study is historically a conventional practice in qualitative research which involves searching through data to identify any recurrent patterns. Daly, Kellerhear and Glicksman (1997) cited in Fereday and Muir-Cochrane (2006:3) are of the opinion that thematic analysis is a search for themes that emerge as being important to the description of the phenomenon under study. This data analysis process involved the identification of themes through careful reading and re-reading of the data (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006:4; Rice & Ezzy, 1999:258). In this study, a theme was designated as a cluster of linked categories conveying similar meanings and usually emerged through the inductive analytic process which characterized the qualitative research paradigm. In the words of the researcher, it is a form of pattern recognition within the data where emerging themes become the categories for analysis.

1.9.9   Research quality assessment

In this study, the researcher took note of several measures to ensure that participants were trustworthy and truthful so as to achieve authenticity and trustworthiness of research findings. The measures included purposive and convenience sampling of research study sites and participants, application of appropriate data collection methods and data collection instruments, and the recommended ethical standards for carrying out research with human subjects.

It is important that results of a research remain similar (consistent), even when they are obtained on different occasions or by different forms of the same assessment or measuring mechanism (Maree, 2011:3). In other words, one needs to facilitate quality assurance (data verification) in a research study. Merriam (1998:205) says that replication in qualitative research is, however, not possible, as repeating the same research will not yield the same results because 'human nature is never static'. Therefore, in order to be taken seriously by the rest of the other researchers, the researcher assured quality assurance of the study on the basis of its findings' authenticity, confirmability, credibility, dependability, and trustworthiness.

1.9.9.1 Authenticity

In this study, to achieve authenticity, the researcher assured factual accuracy by audio-recording all the individual and focus group interviews conducted. This was also supported by reflective notes which were taken during all interview sessions. This was in line with the concern of most qualitative researchers of factual accuracy as other questions of authenticity are dependent on these facts (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2005:107) and the descriptions upon which qualitative research is built (Wolcott, 1990:27). To assure factual accuracy, other than audio-recording all interviews, tapes were transcribed verbatim and rechecked for accuracy.

1.9.9.2 Trustworthiness

To achieve trustworthiness in this study, the researcher employed triangulation of research instruments, verbatim transcriptions and selection of relevant participants. According to Lincoln and Guba (1989) in Malan (2001:35), qualitative research should be assessed in terms of trustworthiness and philosophically. In this case, the researcher believed and trusted that the research participants were the true experts on the topic under investigation. This comprised the first step to trustworthiness.

Prior to initiating this study, there were no preconceived ideas of where the data would lead. Since the researcher had identified his own biases and presuppositions before the interviews took place, he was able to refer to them and reflect on them to determine if they would influence his understanding and interpretation of the data. Through careful and systematic analysis of the raw data, themes and categories began to emerge which were subsequently confirmed by the participants at different stages throughout the analysis. Data from different sources, such as principals and educators, were compared and contrasted on related issues.

1.9.9.3 Credibility or truth value

Credibility or truth value in qualitative research parallels internal validity (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2005:346; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2005:108). In this study the researcher tested the accuracy in data analysis and interpretation by taking into account the context in which the data was gathered and making a clear distinction between the researcher's

interpretation and the actual views of the study participants. Credibility was enhanced through the exercise of critical reflexivity by the researcher in order to avoid bias and to make a distinction between participants' meanings and the researcher's interpretation. Additionally, the use of audio-tapes served as referential adequacy by capturing and holding episodes that could then be later critiqued for accuracy (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:301).

1.9.9.4 Dependability

Dependability in this study was enhanced by constantly examining the data, triangulating it between and among different sources which helped the researcher to uncover possible biases or values that could lead to false findings. Dependability in this research rested upon the methodology that was used to give consistent results. For the results to be reliable, certain conditions were fulfilled as laid down by Jesson (2000:10) and Schagen and Schagen (2005:312). One of the conditions was that data had to be collected from the individual participants or group of participants at the school level using proper instruments and appropriate 'contextualization' was required.

The researcher believed that the results of this study are reliable and valid because the data analysis instruments used were applicable and appropriate for the data structure and satisfied the conditions for analysis. The above conditions indicated that when the necessary conditions were met in order to explore the relationship between management strategies of school principals and job satisfaction of educators. This covers the second research objective.

1.9.9.5 Confirmability

To ensure conformability in this study which refers to objectivity (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2005:12; De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2005:347), the participants were informed of the researcher's professional background. Additionally, throughout the interviews, participants were repeatedly asked to/for more detailed explanations or probing questions which were used to clarify particular points. The researcher was able to enter the world of participants and suspended his. Since there are lengthy descriptions as well as direct quotes and expressions from the participants, the findings could be compared with the data. Also, there were detailed procedural notes which made audit of the analysis possible.

1.10   ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In this research study, several measures were taken to ensure that participants were protected in their participation in the study. This was so because the matter of ethics is an important one for any research (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2005:118, Maree, 2011:300, Strydom, 2002:63). According to Brink (2000:38), ethical considerations mean that the researcher has to carry out the research competently, manage resources honestly, acknowledge fairly those who contributed in the research, and communicate research findings accurately. To achieve this, the following measures were considered important: voluntary participation, anonymity, informed consent and confidentiality. The participants in the study were made aware of informed consent and that participation was voluntary. According to Terre-Blanche and Durrheim (1999) in Pillay (2006:45), consent concerns the requirement that participants receive a full, non-technical and clear explanation of the tasks expected of them so that they can make an informed choice to participate voluntarily in the research. In conducting the research, the researcher did the following with regard to ethics. To ensure anonymity and confidentiality, all notes and audio files were kept by the researcher at all times or in a locked vehicle or room; participants and non-participants were not allowed to view the notes at any time and content of the interview was not revealed to anyone. Again, all interview responses were only to be used for the research purpose. All the information included in the research report could not be used to identify any participant and voluntary consent was upheld at all times.

In this study, the researcher obtained permission from the DoE Limpopo through the Vhembe District Department of Education and Dzindi Circuit manager to conduct the study.

1.11   DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

Demarcation of the study in this research study meant establishing the boundaries of the research problem area within which the research progressed (Hoberg, (1999:190). Le Roux (2000:36) is of the opinion that, these boundaries are purposely put on the study, usually to narrow it down to ensure that the topic can be effectively researched. This demarcation was stated in terms of time, place and research subjects (participants). The study demarcation helped to make the study

manageable because the researcher focused on the aspects that were identified or demarcated. The study was demarcated as follows:

(i)   The study was restricted to a limited geographical area, that is, Dzindi Circuit in Vhembe District in the Limpopo Province of South Africa. The study focused on *the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators* in schools. The population for the study was school principals and educators in Dzindi Circuit of Vhembe District.

(ii)   Time, finances, limited resources and personal work commitments limited the researcher to study a selected number of schools sampled in Dzindi Circuit because he was familiar with the locality. According to Mazibuko (2003:8), the sample of schools chosen and participants interviewed were consistent with the principles of qualitative research. The small sample provided an in-depth understanding of the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction of educators as seen through the eyes of the participants.

1.12   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

In this study, the researcher's major concern was to determine *the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators* in the schools. Because this study was on human attitudes, feelings, actions and experiences, the researcher opted for human management and organizational theories which describe human attitudes and behavior in work places. The researcher also understood that in order to understand how the participants responded to the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction in the education system; it would be imperative to investigate their social and life experiences in their work places.

 For more than three decades, researchers in the field of human management, organizational behavior and sociology have inquired into the importance of management strategies within organizational structures. As early as 1938, management strategy in organizations was highlighted by Barnard (1932:16) who pointed out to the role of management in co-coordinating an organization's differing levels and components. Therefore, human management at work is a vital component of the management process. To realize the critical importance of people in the

organization it is imperative to recognize that the human element and the organization go together. The integration of human elements and the organizational interests is the manager's (principal's) job (Birkin, 2006:40). It is therefore the manager's job to understand what motivates the employees. One way of achieving this goal and to realize the importance of people in the organization is to keep them motivated and having positive job satisfaction. In the field of education management the key to understanding the process of motivation and job satisfaction lies in the meaning of, and relationship among needs, drives and incentives. Based on the two constructs in the research question, the various theories of management and job satisfaction make up the basis of the study's theoretical framework. These theories apply to managerial tasks and employees' behavior at workplace. They provide understanding to both principals (managers) and educators (employees) of how to motivate others as well as becoming involved in one's own motivation (Drafke & Kossen, 1998:273). However, in this section, the researcher focused on the concept management strategy and job satisfaction. A theoretical framework was given for examining management strategies and job satisfaction inclusive of the theories that backup these concepts and other dimensions related to them.

1.12.1 MANAGEMENT STRATEGY

The most common way to define management strategy can be to find the meanings of its root words. These words are: management and strategy. Management is a process of planning, organizing, leading and controlling the efforts of organizational members and the use of resources in order to achieve stated organizational goals. Authors agree that management can be referred to as all that is involved in making the most effective use of available resources, whether in the form of machines, money or people (Statt, 1999:98; Pearson, 2006:928). Williams (2008:4) contends that management is getting work done through others. Thus, management job is to create an environment where people do the job, do it right, do it right the first time and do so with some sense of responsibility and pride in what they do. The same author further elucidated that management is working through others to accomplish tasks that help fulfill organizational objectives as efficiently as possible and individual's job satisfaction (Williams, 2008:5).

Strategy denotes a series of actions for achieving something in an organization (Pearson, 2006:1528; Bantjes, Kerdachi & Kriel, 2006:130). Stoner, Daniel and Freeman (1995; 100) also acknowledge that strategies are broad programs for achieving the organization's objectives and thus implementing its mission. These strategies create a unified direction for the organization in terms of its many objectives and they guide the deployment of the resources that will be used to move the organization towards those objectives.

Thus, management strategy can be now defined as the 'art of getting things done through people' (Pearson, 2006:928). This phrase calls attention to the fact that people in management achieve their goals by arranging for others to perform whatever tasks may be necessary and not performing the tasks themselves. Thus, management creates results, attains goals and inspires others.

1.12.2 JOB SATISFACTION

Many definitions of job satisfaction have been formulated over the time, but all agree that it is a variable that has to do with an individual's perception and evaluation of his/her job. Locke (1976:1300) defined job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. More recently, Hirschfield (2000:256) explained that job satisfaction relates to the extent to which people like or dislike their jobs. Greenberg and Baron (2000:160) define job satisfaction as a personal evaluation of conditions present in the job or outcomes that arise as a result of having a job.

Having identified a few definitions of job satisfaction, it can be seen that job satisfaction is one of the most researched areas of organizational behavior and education management (Labuschagne, Bosman & Buitendach, 2005:26) and is gaining increasing attention from organizations these days due to its importance and pervasiveness in terms of organizational effectiveness. Yousef (1998:184) mentions that the reason for that relates to the significant association of job satisfaction with several variables which include positive association with life satisfaction, work commitment. It is, therefore, conceived imperative for school principals to be morally responsible for maintaining high levels of job satisfaction among their school educators for its impact on productivity, absenteeism and staff turnover as well as union activity.

1.12.3 THEORIES RELATED TO MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES AND JOB SATISFACTION

The theory of relativity helps physicists control an atom and through the laws of aerodynamics, engineers can predict the effects of a proposed change in air plane design. Similarly, theories of management make it easier for school principals to decide what they can do to function most effectively as managers of schools. Unfortunately, there is as yet no verified general theory of management that can be applied to all institutions but all principals have at their disposal many ways of looking at their organizations and at activities, responsibilities and satisfaction of people in their institutions.

The theories of management strategies are derived from the common theories of leadership and management. These theories of management are perspectives with which managers make sense of their world of experience (Stoner, Daniel & Freeman, 2003:31). These theories are important because it is the study of how to make all people in one's institution more satisfied and be productive. These theories were established as schools of thought and were propounded by various management thinkers. These include the following: Classical management theories which are associated with the works of Frederick Taylor (Scientific management theory, 1880-1892); Henri Fayol (Administrative management theory, 1900-1925); and Max Weber (Bureaucratic management theory, 1880-1911); Human relations/Behavioral management theories which are associated with the works of Mary Parker Follet (1929); Abraham Maslow (Hierarchy of needs, 1950); Frederick Herzberg (Two-factor theory, 1966); Clayton Alderfer (Existence, Relatedness and Growth theory, 1969/72); and David McClelland (Three need theory, 1967); Contingency theories which are associated with the works of Victor Vroom (Expectancy theory, 1963); Stacey Adams (Equity theory, 1971); and Burrhus Frederic Skinner (Reinforcement theory, 1939); Constructivism theory which is associated with the works of Piaget and Vygotsky (Developmental psychologists); Barlett and Brunner, and John Dewey (Educational philosophers) (De Vries, 2002:3, Slavin, 1994:225, Heard, 2007:7).

The propounders of the theories are of the opinion that knowledge is constructed thus: the theory emphasizes discovery, experimentation and open-ended problem solving to be applied in school

management; Critical theory which is associated with the works of Karl Marx (1950) emphasizes an examination and critique of society and culture, drawing from knowledge across the social sciences and humanities. According to Alvesson and Skoldberg (2000:127), critical theory does not have to be based on a fundamentally negative view of society, but perhaps on recognition that certain social phenomena warrant scrutiny based on an emancipatory cognitive interest. Also Maree (2011:2) adds that critical theory is concerned with critical meanings of experiences as they relate to gender, race, class and other kinds of social oppression; Systems theory is associated with the works of Ludwig Von Bertalanffy (General systems theory, 1901-1971); and Wiener (Cybernetics, 1884-1964). Systems theory focuses on the relations between the parts of an organization. Rather reducing an entity such as a school into parts, systems theory focuses on arrangements of and relations between the parts and how they work together as a whole. Contingency theory is associated with the works of Fiedler (1973), Hersey and Blanchard (1972) and Reddin (1970). Contingency theory is a class of behavioral theory that claims that there is no best way to organize an institution, to manage a school, or to make decisions. Instead, the optimal course of action is contingent (dependent) upon the internal and external situation. Contingency theory is a management theory that asserts that when managers (principals) make decisions, they must take into account all aspects of the current situation and act on those aspects that are important to the situation at hand. In this research certain of these identified theories were used in the research development.

1.12.3.1   MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Originally researches related to leadership and management centered on identifying the traits leaders or managers exhibit. During most of the recorded history, the assumption was that leaders (and principals as leaders) are born, not made. Managers were considered to have been born with certain traits and could acquire additional traits through learning and experience. Krietner (1983) in Bare and Oldham (1999:31) explains that the study of leadership and management has shifted from traits to patterns of behavior called leadership or managerial styles. He describes the shifting of leadership and management studies from "who the leader or manager is to how the manager behaves". In the same study by Bare and Oldham (ibid), Halpin (1966) a researcher from Ohio State University, described further the shift to two dimensions of leadership or management, that is, initiating structure and consideration. With initiating

structures, he meant the leader's effort to get things organized to get the job done, and by consideration, he meant the degree of trust, friendship, respect, and warmth that the leader extends to subordinates. These were further researched by Blake and Mouton (1978) in Bare and Oldham (ibid) who devised a managerial grid, which was refined into managerial styles. In the continued search for the best managerial styles (Hersey, Blanchard & Johnson, 1996:191), ended up with the conception of management maturity, in which the leader has the capacity to set high but attainable goals, a willingness and ability to take responsibility and experience of an individual or a group. As the individual or group begins to move into an above average level of maturity, Hersey and Blanchard (1977) explained, it becomes appropriate for the leader to move to management strategies. If principals are to be effective with subordinates, then it is essential that they recognize and adopt the appropriate management strategies to the maturity levels of the followers.

With the rapid shift in philosophy as evidenced by the opening perceptions of school leadership and management, especially if they search for the 'one best way' to manage schools, they have not found a universally accepted style of management. From the literature, four management strategies can be identified: Hierarchical strategy, Facilitative strategy, Transformational strategy and Participative strategy (Lashway, 1996:3-6). Each of these strategies has both important advantages and limitations, but together, they offer a versatile set of options for school management. In view of research studies in educational management, there is still a need to determine how these perceived management strategies of school principals relate to educators' job satisfaction.

In this study, the researcher concentrated on these management strategies and highlighted their relevance to the job satisfaction levels of educators.

1.13 EXPLANATION OF CONCEPTS

In order to gain a clear understanding of the management strategies of school principals and their enhancement of the job satisfaction of educators, certain concepts should be clarified (Ary, Jacobs & Razavich, 2002:494) in order to familiarize the reader with the concepts or explain concepts to which specific meaning has been ascribed in this study. Thus, the concepts:

management, strategy, management strategy and job satisfaction are defined and explained within the context of their usage.

1.13.1 MANAGEMENT

The concept management is a process of planning, organizing, leading and controlling the efforts of organizational members and the use of resources in order to achieve stated organizational goals (Bush & West-Burnham, 1994:12; Dean, 1995:21). Shovel (2007:915) defined management "as the control and operation of an organization". Statt (1999:98) and Pearson (2006:928) also agree that management refers to all that is involved in making the most effective use of available resources, whether in the form of machines, money or people. Williams (2008:4) defines management as getting work done through others. This means management job is to create an environment where people do the job, do it right, can do it right the first time and can do so with some sense of responsibility and pride in what they do. Management works through others to accomplish tasks that help fulfill organizational objectives as efficiently as possible and individual's job satisfaction (Williams, 2008:5). In this study, management is defined as way in which school principals effectively appropriate human and material resources in order to realize school objectives.

1.13.2 STRATEGY

The term strategy denotes a series of actions for achieving something in an organization (Pearson, 2006:1528; Bantjes, Kerdachi & Kriel, 2006:130). According to Shovel (2007:1478), strategy denotes a plan or method for achieving something especially over a long period of time. Stoner, Daniel and Freeman (1995:100) also acknowledge that strategies are broad programs for achieving the organization's objectives and thus implementing its mission. These strategies create a unified direction for the organization in terms of its many objectives and they guide the deployment of the resources that will be used to move the organization towards those objectives.

In other words, strategy refers to an intricate network of opinions, thoughts, knowledge, aims, skills, memories, perceptions and expectations that provide general guidelines for specific actions in quest of particular ends. In school management, this can be viewed as a pattern of

behavior designed to gain the co-operation of followers (educators) in accomplishing organizational goals.

1.13.3 MANAGEMENT STRATEGY

The concept management strategy can also be defined as the "art of getting things done through people" (Pearson, 2006:928). People in management achieve their goals by arranging for others to perform whatever tasks may be necessary and not performing the tasks themselves.

1.13.4 JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is defined as the extent to which people like (satisfaction) their jobs (Owens, 2001:327). The above definition suggests that job satisfaction is a general or global affective reaction that individuals hold about their jobs. Evans (2001:204) defines job satisfaction as a state of mind encompassing all those feelings determined by the extent to which an individual perceives his/her job related needs to be met. As Somech and Drach-Zahavy (2000:650) observe, job satisfaction relates to positive attitudes determined by the extent to which an individual perceives his/her profession or specific facts of the work as fulfilling his/her needs. Job satisfaction is the extent to which educators are happy with their jobs. In this study, job satisfaction is closely related to motivation.

1.14 DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The research on principals' management strategies and their influence on educators' job satisfaction levels is progressive and dynamic in nature and never-ending. The findings of this study are only one endeavor to address this issue. Therefore, the scope of this study is delimited to Dzindi Circuit in Vhembe District. The study included only public day primary and secondary schools.

1.15 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The primary goal of this research is to determine the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators from the perspective of school principals and educators. The study, however, demonstrated this relationship and limitations of the investigation. The primary limitation of the study relates to the use of a non-

probability research method and the small size of the sample typical of qualitative research (c. f. §4.4). This implies that the results coming from the research may not be confidently extrapolated to the population of educators and principals, as circumstances in other environments may differ from the sample size, unmatched gender ratio and the fact that the sample will not be randomly selected (De Vos, Strydom, Fouche & Delport, 2005:118). The research limited its focus to only the Dzindi Circuit of the schools' accessibility and the willingness of participants. The findings of this research cannot be generalized as only certain school principals and educators were involved in the research. Moreover, some participants (principals and educators) could not attend the interview sessions up to the end and this might affected the research negatively. The uniqueness of specific school cultures could also limit the findings in the sense that in some schools, only a spokesperson, for example, the principal was allowed to discuss issues pertaining to the school with the outsiders (researchers) and could also choose the educators who were interviewed on behalf of the school. As a result no attempt was made to generalize or quantify the findings. Data were presented in descriptive and narrative forms only.

1.16 ORGANISATION OF THE STUDY

The study is divided into five chapters as follows:

Chapter 1: Overview and background of the study

This chapter outlined the background to the problem, motivation for the research, the statement of the problem and sub-problems, aim and objectives of the study, assumptions of the researcher, purpose and significance of the study, the demarcation of the study, the delimitations and limitations of the study, the research design and methodology, explanations of concepts and organization of the study.

Chapter 2: A review of related literature

This chapter provided a comprehensive discourse and elucidation of the concept management strategy. Theories on management strategies that guided the study were explored. Finally, the current state of affairs in the management of schools with regard to educators' job satisfaction levels was highlighted.

Chapter 3: A review of related literature

This chapter provided a comprehensive discourse and elucidation of the concept job satisfaction. Theories on job satisfaction that guided the study were explored. Finally, the current state of affairs in the educators' job satisfaction levels was highlighted.

Chapter 4: Research design and methodology

This chapter dealt with the design of the empirical investigation. It covered the following issues: the research design, population selection and sampling instruments, data collection methods and procedures, data analysis and ethical considerations.

Chapter 5: Research findings

This chapter involved the presentation and discussion of the research findings. Here the application of the research tools was displayed. Discussion of the salient results emanating from the study and implications of the research findings were made.

Chapter 6: Literature control on emerging themes

This chapter involved the identification and discussion of data from the study in relation to the literature reviewed and findings from other studies.

Chapter 7: Summary of findings, recommendations and conclusions

This chapter dealt with the summary, recommendations and conclusions of the research results. Firstly, a summary of the research findings was given. Secondly, the contribution of the study was drawn. Thirdly, recommendations and suggestions for educational planners and policy-makers, for management practices and for future research were provided. Fourthly, the conclusion of the study was highlighted.

1.17   CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter provided a brief introduction to the topic, and an overview of the research study. The context and rationale of the study were set and the research questions, aim and objectives of the study have been expressed. The objective of this study was to determine the relationship between

management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators. The chapter was concluded by a description of the research design and methodology of the study. The next two chapters present the literature on management strategies and job satisfaction and a theoretical framework which includes the theories of management strategies and job satisfaction.

CHAPTER TWO

2   A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ON MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter one, the researcher presented and discussed the introduction to the study, that is, the background, motivation for the research, statement of the research question, aim and objectives of the study, assumptions of the researcher, the purpose and significance of the study. The research design and methodology, theoretical framework of the study, ethical considerations, delimitations and limitations of the study, and demarcation of the study were discussed. Also, the relevant research concepts were defined and subsequently, the outline of the research document chapters was given. This chapter two presents a comprehensive review and discussion of related literature review on management strategies and its theories as well as research findings on the topic under study. The review emphasized the management strategies of school principals and how these strategies can be used to influence job satisfaction levels of educators. In compiling information for this review, relevant sources were located by searching various library databases, education abstracts, education full texts, reference lists from other academic works and books from leading publishers.

2.2 THE CONCEPTS MANAGEMENT AND STRATEGY

The most common way to define management strategy is to find and describe the meaning of the two root words that make up management strategy: management and strategy. It is believed that out of the meanings of these two words, the proper understanding of management strategy will finally emerge.

2.2.1 THE CONCEPT MANAGEMENT

Management is the art, or science of achieving goals through people. This can be interpreted to mean literally 'looking over'- that is, making sure people do what they are supposed to do

(Oslum, 2004:2). Koontz and Weihrich (1990:4) state more broadly, management is the process of designing and maintaining an environment in which individuals, working together in groups, efficiently accomplish the selected aims and goals of an organization. In its expanded form, this basic definition would mean several things: first, as managers, people carry out the managerial functions of planning, organizing, staffing, leading, and controlling. Second, management applies to any kind of organization. Third, management applies to managers at all organizational levels. Finally, management is concerned with productivity and this implies effectiveness and efficiency. Hellriegel, Woodman and Slocum (1998:27) assert that management is regarded as "a dynamic process of obtaining and organizing resources and of achieving objectives through other people". Thus, management refers to the development of bureaucracy that derives its importance from the need for strategic planning, co-ordination, directing and controlling of large and complex decision-making process. Essentially, therefore, management entails the acquisition of managerial competence and effectiveness in the following key areas: problem solving, administration, human resource management, and organizational leadership.

First and foremost, management is about solving problems that keep emerging all the time in the course of an organization struggling to achieve its goals and objectives. Problem solving should be accompanied by problem identification, analysis and the implementation of remedies to managerial problems. Second, administration involves following laid down procedures (although procedures or rules should not be seen as ends in themselves) for the execution, control, communication, delegation and crisis management. Third, human resource management should be based on strategic integration of human resources, assessment of workers, and exchange of ideas between shareholders and workers. Finally, organizational leadership and management should be developed along lines of interpersonal relationships, teamwork, self-motivation to perform, emotional strength and maturity to handle situations, personal integrity and general management skills (Oslum, 2004:2-3).

In this study, the concept management comprises a process of planning, organizing, leading and controlling the efforts of organizational members and the use of resources in order to achieve stated organizational goals. In other words, management refers to all that is involved in making

the most effective use of available resources, whether in the form of machines, money or people (Statt, 1999:98; Pearson, 2006:928).

Williams (2008:4) also defines management as getting work done through others. This means the manager's job is to create an environment where people do the job, do it right, can do it right the first time and can do so with some sense of responsibility and pride in what they do. Management therefore comprises working through others to accomplish tasks that help fulfill organizational objectives as efficiently as possible and enhance individual's job satisfaction (Williams, 2008:5).

From the Italian word, *maneggiare* meaning to control and train with care and skill, management can be defined as the way principals guide, direct, structure and develop an organization (Thietart, Perret & Martin, 2001:1). Also, Ivancevich, Lorenzi, Skinner and Crosby (1994:10), define management as 'the process undertaken by one or more people(s) to co-ordinate the work activities of other people to achieve high quality results not attainable by one person acting alone'.

Brevis, Vrba and De Klerk (1999:11) maintain that management can be defined as the process of planning, organizing, leading and controlling the resources of an organization to achieve stated organizational goals as efficiently as possible. Commenting on this definition, Henri Fayol as early as 1916, in his most notable work General and Industrial Management cited in Williams (2008:5, 9) refers to what he calls management functions: planning which is determining organizational goals and a means for achieving them; organizing which is deciding where decisions will be made, who will do what jobs and tasks, and who will work with whom and for whom; leading which is inspiring and motivating workers to work harder to achieve organizational goals; and controlling which is monitoring progress toward goal achievement and taking corrective action when needed. Certo (1980:9) in the early 1980s viewed management as the process of reaching organizational goals by working with and through people and other organizational resources. If one collates all the definitions of management offered by several contemporary management thinkers, it appears as though management has the following three main characteristics: (i) Management is a process or series of continuing and related activities;

(ii) Management involves and concentrates on reaching organizational goals; and (iii) Management reaches these goals by working with and through people and other organizational resources. Management can therefore be defined as the process of achieving desired goals through efficient utilization of human and material resources. In other words, management in the context of the school consists of consulting and involving colleagues in decisions on the basis of their skills and experiences, encouraging them to make their contribution towards achieving a common goal (Robbins, 2000:36; Bell, 1988:45). This implies that principals should plan and guide the work of other people, generally by organizing and directing their activities on the job.

2.2.2 THE CONCEPT STRATEGY

The term strategy denotes a series of actions for achieving something in an organization (Pearson, 2006:1528; Bantjes, Kerdachi & Kriel, 2006:130). Stoner, Daniel and Freeman (1995:100) also acknowledge that strategies are broad programs for achieving an organization's objectives and thus implementing its mission. These strategies create a unified direction for the organization in terms of its many objectives and they guide the deployment of the resources that will be used to move the organization towards those objectives.

Ivancevich et al., (1994:202) define strategy as a broad plan of action for pursuing and achieving the institutional objectives and satisfying its mission and people. They argue that strategy is based on strategic thinking which can be defined as the determination of an institution's basic long term goals and objectives, the adoption of courses of action and the allocation of resources necessary for carrying out these goals.

According to Coffey, Cook and Hunsaker (1994:46) strategy refers to a rational management process to relate an institution's products and services to specific markets and customers. The understanding here is that a strategy provides an institution with purpose and direction, encompassing its mission and goals and classifying where it will focus its efforts and how it will gain competitive advantage.

In other words, strategy refers to an intricate network of opinions, thoughts, knowledge, aims, skills, memories, perceptions and expectations that provide general guidelines for specific

actions in the quest of realizing particular ends. In school management, this can be viewed as a pattern of behavior designed to gain the co-operation of followers (educators) in accomplishing organizational goals.

Strategy can be further defined as the direction and scope of an organization over a long period: which achieves advantage for the organization through its configuration of resources within a challenging environment, to meet the needs of markets and to fulfill stakeholders' expectations. In other words, strategy is about: where the organization is trying to get to in the long-term (direction); which markets an organization should compete in and what kind of activities such markets are involved in (markets, scope); how the organization can perform better than the competition in those markets (advantage); what resources (skills, assets, finances, relationships, technical competencies, facilities) are required in order to be able compete (resources); what external and environmental factors affect the organization's ability to compete (environmental); and what are the values and expectations of those who have power in and around the institution are (stakeholders).

2.3 THE CONCEPT MANAGEMENT STRATEGY

The most common definition of management strategy is a future oriented conception in which the relationship between an organization and the environment (pattern of adapting to the environment) is described and it forms the guiding principles for people in the organization for decision-making.

The concept management strategy can also be defined as the "art of getting things done through people" (Pearson, 2006:928). The Manager (2002:4) defines management strategy as an approach related to job opportunities and growth that help an organization meet its goals. This phrase calls attention to the fact that people in management achieve their goals by arranging for others to perform whatever tasks may be necessary and not performing the tasks themselves. Many theorists associate management strategy with inspirational politicians and humanitarians, with great leaders that share several qualities: vision, passion, commitment, influence, decisiveness, judgment, co-operation and optimism. They create results, attain goals and inspire others. The same seems to appear also in successful school management, where an effective

school principal was seen to have: a shared vision for what the school can be and communicate the vision regularly with the educators; strong interpersonal skills and place a high value on people as both assets and resources; uniting power rather than dividing; problem-solving skills and as an avid learner, should always seek answers and solutions; confidence that he/she can make a difference for educators; a focused emphasis on instruction, development, and enablement of his/her educators, and a deep passion to achieve and improve the work environment of his/her educators. As such Mathibe (2007:534-538), Mintzberg (1992:24), Werner (2002:373) and Hoy and Miskel (1991:216; 382) contend that one of the most important aspects in emerging and budding in schools as organizations is the appropriate guidance for optimum utilization of human potential. It appears that various activities (personnel planning, staff development and evaluation, appraisal, and maintenance of effective personnel relationships) in a school should be managed to enhance the effectiveness of school's personnel in job performance. Thus, the knowledge of management strategies is of vital importance to school principals because the challenge facing these principals is not only to acknowledge that educators have talents, needs, potentials, aspirations, but they should ensure that these talents, needs, potentials and aspirations are unfurled and utilized for the good of both the school and the educator.

2.4 THEORIES RELATED TO MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

The theory of relativity helps physicists control an atom and through the laws of aerodynamics, engineers can predict the effects of a proposed change in airplane design. Similarly, the theories of management make it easier for school principals to decide what they can do to function most effectively as managers of schools. There is as yet no verified general theory of management that can be applied to all institutions, but all principals have at their disposal many ways of looking at their organizations and at activities, responsibilities and at the satisfaction of people in their organizations.

Management theories are perspectives with which people make sense of their world experiences (Stoner, et. al. 1995:31-32; Homans, 1958:5). In other words, management theories are attempts to isolate and explain the key elements in the practice of management, in order to identify the most effective management strategies. The theories related to management strategies are derived

from the common theories of management. Theories of management are perspectives with which people make sense of their world experience (Stoner, et. al. 2003:31). These theories are important because they represent a study of how to make all people in one's institution more satisfied and productive.

There are a wide range of management theories which were established within the management school of thought propounded by different management thinkers. Some of these contemporary theories which tend to account for and help interpret the rapidly changing nature of today's organizational environments are: The Classical Management Theories comprising the works of Frederick W. Taylor's Scientific management theory (1856-1915); Henri Fayol's Administrative management theory (1841-1925); Max Weber's Bureaucratic management theory (1880-1911); the Human Relations/Behavioral Management Theories comprising the works of Mary Parker Follett's (1868-1933) Dynamic Administration; Abraham Maslow's (1940-1950) Needs theory, Frederick Herzberg's (1966) Two-factor theory; Clayton Alderfer's (1972) Existence, Relatedness and Growth theory; David McClelland's (1967) Three-Need theory; and the Contingency Management Theories which are associated with the works of Victor Vroom's (1963) Expectancy theory, Stacey Adams' (1971) Equity theory and Burrhus Frederic Skinner's (1939) Reinforcement theory.

These are some of the management theorists which are directly associated with the management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction of educators. All these theories differ in their assumptions about how individuals in organizations should behave, in what they see as the key goals of principals (managers), in the problems they emphasize, and in the solutions they suggest to these problems. These differences brought about the modern views of management which attempt to integrate these varying theories, that is, the Constructivism Theory, the Critical Theory of Max Horkheimer (1895-1973), The Systems Theory and Contingency Theories. In this section, some of these management theories and the success that they have achieved shall be discussed in detail.

2.4.1 CONSTRUCTIVIST THEORY

Constructivism is a very broad concept with many definitions, but most scholars (Maia, Machado & Pacheco, 2005; De Vries, 2002:3) adhering to constructivism agreed that this theory is grounded in the research of Piaget and Vygotsky (developmental psychologists), Bartlett and Bruner as well as the educational philosophy of John Dewey. According to Slavin's (1994:225) opinion, constructivism draws heavily on the works of Piaget and Vygotsky, who both emphasized that cognitive change only takes place when previous conceptions go through a process of disequilibrium in the light of new information. Heard (2007:7) emphasized that one of Vygotsky's basic premises was that all knowledge and knowledge making tools such as language and symbols inherent to a community, actually reside within a socio-historical context. In the social nature of learning, Piaget and Vygotsky suggested the use of mixed ability learning groups to promote conceptual change. However, constructivism emphasizes discovery, experimentation and open-ended problem-solving when applied in school management strategies.

In other definitions of constructivism, scholars have emphasized different aspects of knowledge and learning: constructivism is a theory which asserts that knowledge is actively constructed from the intersection of previously acquired understanding with new information (Per Fox, 2001:24); constructivism refers to the development of cognitive structures with their generally determined base continually being adopted and elaborated through individual life experiences, the active nature of learning, and the role of contradiction in enabling understanding (Watson, 2000:135); constructivism is a theory according to which each person builds knowledge from the inside, through his/her mental activity (Brewer & Daane, 2003:417); and constructivism is a philosophy of learning founded on the premise that by reflecting on our experiences, we construct our own understanding of the world we live in. Each of us generates our own 'rules and mental models' which we use to make sense of our experiences (Watson, 2000:135). Constructivism is thus a theory of knowledge used to explain how people know what they know. In this school of thought, knowing an object does not mean copying it. Instead, it means acting on an object (Confrey, 1994:196), that is, constructing a knowledge system of transformations that can be carried out on or with that object.

Despite these multiple definitions, there is greater overlap than there are variations. Constructivists believe that human reality is in a sense created by interpretations and dialogue processes (discursive practices) which people have and are bound and/or influenced by the context of their lives - hence the latter forms and modifies meanings (Jordaan and Jordaan, 1998:60; Pitsoe, 2001:135). In addition, people agree on how to interpret their ever changing world. Prawat (as quoted by Woolfolk, 1995:481) indicates that constructivist mentality involves a dramatic change in the focus of teaching and management, putting the learners or educators' own efforts to understand at the center of educational enterprise.

There is a considerable body of literature (Chism, Douglas & Hilson, 2008:3; Crotty, 2003:57; Prawat & Floden, 1994:37; Larochelle & Bednarz, 1998:3; Riesbeck, 1996:49; Jonassen, Myers & McKillop, 1996:94; Morrison & Collins, 1996:107; Jonassen, 1991:28) that perceives constructivism as a learning theory based on the assumption that knowledge is actively constructed by the learner. In other words, it is claimed that constructivism involves a process whereby the subjects (learners/educators) construct their own reality or at least interpret it on the basis of their perceptions of life experiences. According to Fleury (1998:157), constructivism comprises a range of ideas about the production of knowledge and its construction by groups or individuals. Kamii (cited in Aldridge 1999:1) says that knowledge is constructed from the inside, in interaction with the environment, rather than internalizing it directly from the outside. This process is commonly known as social constructivism and it embodies the idea that knowledge and disciplines are human constructs that are built up through ideologies, religion, politics, social status, and the exertion of power and economic self-interest. According to Richardson (2003:1624), this approach is formed around the aforementioned ways that exert influence on people's understanding and formal knowledge of their world.

According to Spivey (1994:314), constructivism, as a theory of discourse, portrays both comprehending and composing as the building, shaping and configuring of meaning. People construct meaning when they compose texts and when they read and hear texts. Whether in the role of recipient or comprehender (interpreter), they build their meanings on the basis of

knowledge that they bring to the task and organization, and develop when performing it in some context.

In the light of the above, the researcher is interested in the phenomenon of management whereby, according to constructivism, school principals should know certain things about educators and vice versa. This knowledge is not static and educators continue to build knowledge of their principal's school management style from what they already know- hence the need for the knowledge and application of constructivist theory in management strategies. To educators the meaning of the management strategies of school principals is rooted in and indexed by their daily experiences of these principals' ways of managing them. The assumption that knowledge is absorbed by a progressive structuring of experiences and evolving by means of an interactive process of construction, should help principals understand that any management strategy that they use to make educators realize job satisfaction, is generated by a radical interaction between them and their environment, depending on the structures previously existent in the individuals.

In this study, constructivism comprises a process whereby the educator constructs his/her own understanding, reality and knowledge of the world he/she lives in, through reflection on his/her experiences and through his/her interactions with the environment. According to Duit (1994:271), constructivism has a long-standing tradition in the philosophy and practice of education, and so principals of schools have to understand its benefits to management. However, like in learning, management constructivism implies that school principals should simply apply the process of adjusting the mental models of educators to accommodate new management experiences. Some of the guiding principles for school principals on this theory are the following: (i) Learning is a search for meaning. Therefore, management must start with the issues around which educators are actively trying to construe meaning; (ii) Meaning requires understanding wholes as well as parts. Parts must be understood in the context of wholes. Therefore, school management decisions must preferably focus on primary issues, not on isolated parts; In order to raise educators' job satisfaction levels, principals must understand the mental models that educators use to perceive school management strategies and the assumptions they make concerning management in general; and facilitation of group dialogue. In other words, managers are encouraged to create in staff meetings opportunities for educators to explore

element of issues under discussion with the purpose of leading to the creation of understanding and sharing of the organizational goals and objectives; (iii) Provision of opportunities for educators. Principals must facilitate opportunities for educators to determine, challenge, change or add to existing policies of the school, and development of educators' metawareness. Principals must staff develop educators to such an extent that they themselves and their professional roles in the teaching-learning processes of the school become compatible.

Benefits of the constructivist theory to principals in school management can also be found in the assumptions of this theory about knowledge. These assumptions, among others, include the following. (i) knowledge does not attempt to produce a copy of reality; instead it serves the purpose of adaptation. If management strategies in schools are directed at the provision of knowledge, it can help educators adapt to changes easily and effectively; (ii) knowledge is a legitimized way of making sense of experiences that have proven to be viable in guiding future actions, from the perspective of the knower. This notion helps both principals and educators to know that their future actions are a direct result of how they understand their past experiences. It may also assist in reduction of tension between educators and management, and create an environment conducive for the promotion of job satisfaction; (iii) Knowledge is actively built by recognizing people. This emphasizes the need for school principals to continue recognizing educators' efforts in order to boost their level of job satisfaction; and (iv) Knowledge is constructed from experiences.

According to Wood's research (1994:336), the alternative perspective that constructivism offers by defining learning as a process of personal construction of meaning offers a potentially powerful way to rethink educational management. Rethinking management strategies from a constructivist perspective has important implications for principals' roles and the nature of their school management. School management strategies compatible with constructivism are not new, but are the ones that enable principals to create safe and caring environments in which educators are more focused on their work than otherwise. In constructivist environments, principals' management strategies appear to be dictated by educators' needs, not by the principal's beliefs and preferences. Therefore, school principals are more like coaches, creating situations that are pleasant for educators to enjoy their teaching in the school.

A change in school management in accordance with constructivism suggests a refocus and redefinition of roles. In the constructivist tradition, the roles of school principals (planning, organizing, managing and controlling) seem to take on a new meaning. In their management, principals need to engage more in contemplating what management strategies could be used to create collaborative work environments in which educators are involved in most decisions made.

2.4.2 CRITICAL THEORY

Critical theory is another theory that has penetrated the management systems of schools. Critical theory was first defined by Max Horkheimer of the Frankfurt school of Sociology in his 1937 essay entitled 'Traditional and Critical Theory' (Horkheimer, 1937:218, 233, 241-8). The theory entails an examination and critique of society and culture, drawing from knowledge across the social sciences and humanities. The term has two different meanings with different origins and histories: one originating in sociology and the other in literary criticism and this has led to the literal use of 'critical theory' as an umbrella term to describe any theory founded upon critique.

Generally, critical theory is a broad theory challenging and destabilizing established knowledge. In a more focused sense, critical theory comes out of the German 'Frankfurt School', where it was called Critical Theory of Society or Critical Social Theory (Williams, 2009:5-8). The development of Critical Theory originated in reflections on Karl Marx's Historical Materialism (Chao-Shen, 2002:21). This theory, by means of self-reflection, tried to establish a sociological theory that was connected with an explanatory, normative, and practical living. The theory emphasizes that all knowledge is historical and biased, and that objective knowledge is illusory.

There are many diverse definitions of critical theory. Some of these definitions are given below: Critical theory can be defined as a multidisciplinary knowledge base established with the implicit goal of advancing the emancipatory function of knowledge. This definition implies that this theory is critical to the extent that it seeks human emancipation, to liberate human beings from the circumstances that enslave them (Horkheimer, 1982:244). Because critical theorists aim to explain and transform all circumstances that enslave human beings, critical theory provides the descriptive and normative bases for social inquiry aimed at decreasing domination and increasing

freedom in all forms of human employment. Critical theory promotes a language of transcendence that complements a language of critique in order to forge alternative and less oppressive social arrangements (McCarthy & Hoy, 1994:10). According to Macey (2001:74), critical theory is defined as being critical without giving a further specification of what it means to be critical. This definition implies that critical theory signify the critical dimension, the theoretical aspirations and political dynamics that strive to link theory and practice. Rush (2004:9) sees critical theory as the analysis of domination and inequality for fostering social change. It is a way of instigating social change by providing knowledge of the forces of social inequality that can, in turn, inform political action aimed at emancipation (or at least at diminishing domination and inequality). Honneth (2007:72) says critical theory analyses social relations of communication primarily in terms of the structural forms of disrespect they generate. In short, it focuses on the damage and distortion of social relations of recognition. Critical theory is concerned with critical meanings of experiences as they relate to gender, race, class and other kinds of social oppressions (Maree, 2011:21).

Several authors agree that critical theory has a general and a specific meaning (Macey, 2001:74; Payne, 1997:118; Maree, 2011:21). According to Fuchs (2009:2) and Leonardo (2004:11), Karl Marx (1950:10) provided a definition of critique that allows people to define critical theory not just as critique and analysis of capitalism, but of domination in general. In Marxist thought critique is achieved by being partial and not denying, but engaging in and showing the interconnection of academia and politics (Fuchs & Sandoval, 2008:121). Critique means to see all forms of domination and exploitation as repressive and to struggle against these conditions. From a positivistic notion, critique means to engage in a debate, to assess the arguments, and to form one's own opinion (Fuchs and Sandoval, 2008:121). Critical information theory as critique of domination in the context of communication corresponds perfectly to the understanding of critique given by Marx in the 'Introduction to the Critique of Hegel's philosophy of Right in 1844' (Marx, 1844a:385). According to Fuchs and Sandoval (2008:113-121), critical theory has both a general and specific reference. As a general term, critical theory refers to any form of social theory that is at the same time scientific, practical, normative and self-reflective. The scientific character of the critical theory refers to its rigor in its social science analysis. Its practical nature comprises the fact that its analysis of a situation of oppression frees agents to

address the sources of oppression As such; the term critical theory can be understood to apply to a range of thinkers and schools of thought, from Marx to the Frankfurt school and post-modernists.

In other words, it is a theory which is commonly known for its propensity for criticism, a tradition it arguably owes to its predecessors, like Marx and Kant (Ollman, 1993:10). Critical theory represents the collective work of the German Frankfurt school of thought, which is recognized for its interpretive approach combined with a pronounced interest in critically challenging social realities.

As a process, critical theory aims to produce a particular body of knowledge that seeks to realize an emancipatory interest, specifically through critique of consciousness and ideology. Its common theme and goal is 'human emancipation and transformation' and as such it has implications for the school management practice of principals. Some of the implications are as follows. In its approach, critical theory can contribute towards an evaluation of appreciative inquiry in both educators and principals as an emancipatory action research in school environments. Critical theory assists both educators and principals in drawing insights from the everyday, practical manner in which power is deployed and potential conflicts suppressed. Critical theory promotes the concept of conscientization and encourages members of the everyday community to develop new ways of seeing and thinking as well as new contexts of action in which they may express themselves and act (Alvesson & Deetz, 2000:155, 182).

According to Alvesson and Skoldberg (2000:127), critical theory does not have to be based on a fundamentally negative view of society. It can also be based on recognition that certain social phenomena warrant scrutiny resulting from an emancipatory cognitive interest. According to Burawoy (2007:30) critical theory has no intrinsic normative valences other than the commitment to dialogue raised in and by the society. This means critical theory is concerned with solving disparities in the life of a worker. Max Horkheimer (2002:218-229) earlier suggested that academic management should be based on: firstly, traditional theory and secondly, on the critical theory. In his words, the goal of critical theory would be the transformation of society as a whole (p219) so that a "society without injustice" (p.221) would

emerge that is shaped by "reasonableness and striving for peace, freedom and happiness" (p.222) in which an educator's action would no longer flow from a mechanism but from his/her own decision (p.229). Having reached such a state of affairs, it is believed that there would be no/very little low level of job satisfaction among workers in their work environments.

Given the potential of critical theory in emancipating workers, Horkheimer (2002:248-9) argues that critical theory would enhance the realization of all human potentialities and would not only aim at an increase in knowledge but on man's emancipation from low job satisfaction and promotion of the happiness and satisfaction of all individual workers. Basing on a comparison from Fuchs (2008: chapter7.3), the critical theory focuses on the analyses of phenomena in the context of domination, asymmetrical power relations, exploitation, oppression and control by people in management. Such analyses are necessary to be undertaken with all intellectual means in order to contribute to the establishment of participatory and cooperative work environments. As such, school principals have to understand that the rationality in the critical theory is a dimension that is not emancipatory and does not promise equality and justice, but greater control over human beings (educators). Taylor (1995:151), for example, stresses that school principals should protect the possibility of practical reason within the framework of a struggle for developing the reflective potential of human beings (educators) and their ability to articulate their world as a realization of their reasoning. However, a management strategy of this sort is conditioned by the possibility of developing people's (educators') competencies to demystify reality, decode its codes, and critically reconstructs the demolished potential for their solidarity, co-operation and the realization of their dialogical essence – hence; this acknowledgement might become a power for moral elevation for educators.

2.4.3 SYSTEMS THEORY

Systems theory has been proposed as a potential overarching framework for dealing with many issues in human behavior. Patton and McMahon (2006:153-166) acknowledge that contributors to the systems theory came from many diverse fields, including physics (Capra, 1982), biology, anthropology and psychology (Bateson, 1979). However, systems theory was proposed in the 1940's by biologist Ludwig Von Bertalanffy (1901 - 1972) and further by Ashby (1952, Introduction to Cybernetics) as a modeling device that accommodates the interrelationships and

overlap between separate disciplines. It was later developed into the systems theory of management in the 1950s as a compensation for the main limitations of classical theories: (i) ignoring the relationship between the organization and its external environment and (ii) focusing on one aspect of the organization at the expense of other considerations. To overcome these deficiencies, scholars in the field of management based their conceptions of organizations on a general scientific approach which they called systems theory. Thus, in management science, operational research and organizational development (OD), human organizations are viewed as systems (conceptual systems) of interacting components such as system aggregates, which are carriers of numerous complex processes (organizational behaviors) and organizational structures.

The systems theory has had a significant effect on management science and understanding of organizations. Systems theory focuses on relations between parts of a system. Rather than reducing an entity such as a school into parts, systems theory focuses on the arrangements of and relations between the parts and how they work together as a whole. The way the parts are organized and how they interact with each other determine the properties of that system. The behavior of the system is dependent on the properties of the elements. This is often referred to as the 'holistic' approach to the understanding of the phenomena (Oslum, 2004:17).

Systems theory is the 'intrans-disciplinary' study of the abstract organization of phenomena, type, or spatial or temporal scales of existence. It investigates both principles common to all complex entities and the (usually mathematical) models which can be used to describe them (Shahid, 2004:2). The term 'intrans-disciplinary' explains why the theory is very popular in many disciplines. It is because systems theory can provide a meta-language to address a problem regardless of the discipline (Bedeian, 1993:58).

According to its profounder (Bertalanffy, 1901-1971) cited in Bedeian (1989:59), a system may be defined as a set of interdependent parts that relate in the accomplishment of some purpose. The systems theory views institutions as systems that procure and transform inputs into outputs which are subsequently discharged into their external environment in the form of goods and services. Inputs can be in form of people, materials, money or information (c.f. Figure 2.1).
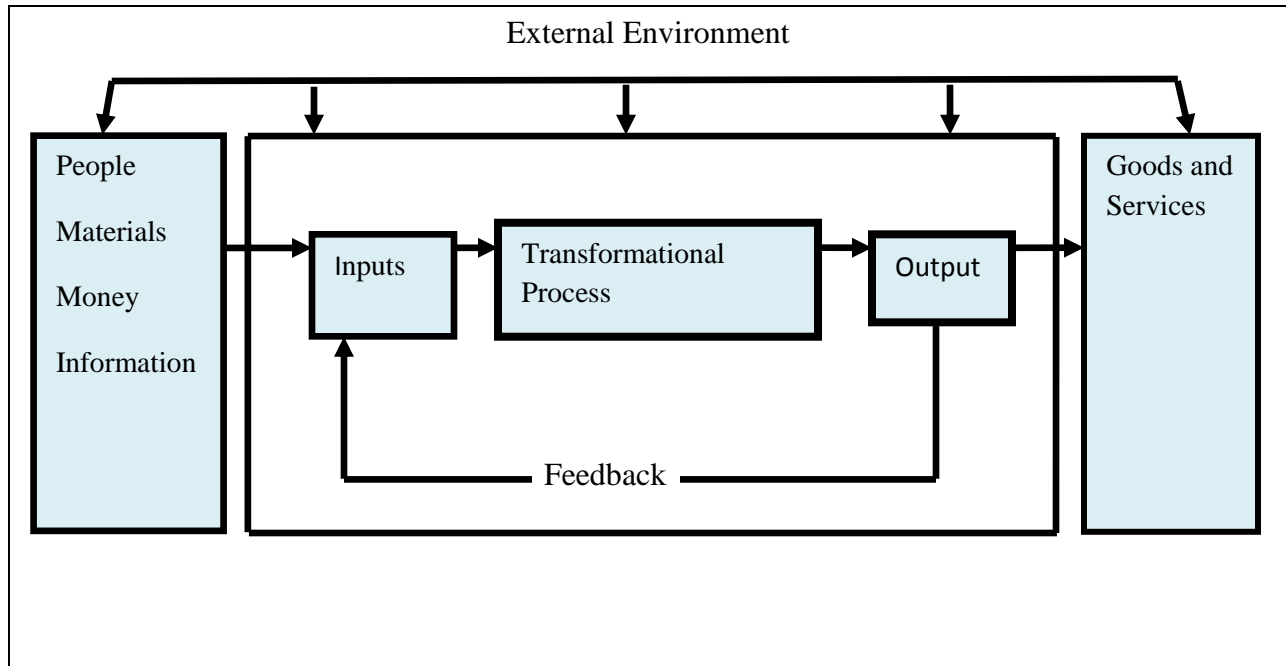
Figure 2.1:   Basic Systems Theory Model

Source: Bedeian (1989:59).

There are different versions of the systems theory which have a long history in the realm of human knowledge. Some track its inception to the works of Aristotle, but most scholars attribute the idea of holism (central to systems theory) to Hegel (a German philosopher) who stated that the whole was greater than the sum of its parts (Shahid, 2004:2). This idea comprises the view that systems consist of a number of interrelated and interconnected parts that, once put together, make the behavior of the whole different and distinct from the behavior of its individual parts. Holism asserts that one cannot understand the behavior of the whole by studying the behavior of its various components. Oslum (2004:17) defines a system as a collection of part unified to accomplish an overall goal. If one part of the system is removed, the nature of the system is changed as well. A system can be looked at as having inputs (e.g., resources such as raw materials, money, technologies, and people), processes (e.g., planning, organizing, motivating, and controlling), outputs (products or services) and outcomes (e.g., enhanced quality of life or productivity for customers/clients, productivity). Systems share feedback among each of these four aspects of the system. In the most general sense, system means a configuration of parts connected and joined together by a web of relationships (elements in a standing relationship).

Brevis, et. al. (1999:62) also defines a system as "a set of interdependent elements functioning as a whole". Bertalanffy (1969:252) defines system as a set of elements in interrelation among themselves and with the environment. In other words, system refers to the interaction of two or more elements to process energy and information to serve some function. These authors maintain that there are two types of systems: closed and open systems. Closed systems were described by Norbert Wiener (1948) and Ashby (1952) during their development of cybernetics. According to them a closed system can be described as a system that does not depend on other systems for its inputs. According to Owens (1981:63) a closed school system is defined as a school organization which tends to proceed as though unrelated to the larger real world in which they exist. Open systems were described by Bertalanffy (1940; 1950:142). An open system is described as a system that depends on other systems for its inputs. An open school system is described as a school organization that interacts with its environment (Owens, 1981:63).

According to Laszlo and Krippner (1998:54), the term system connotes a complex of interacting components together with the relationships among them that permit the identification of a boundary-maintaining entity or process. For the purpose of this study, a definition based on Ackoff's (1981:15 – 16) proposition is provided which states that "a system is a set two or more interrelated elements with the following properties: (i) each element has an effect on the functioning of the whole; (ii) each element is affected by at least one other element in the system; and (iii) that all possible subgroups of elements also have the first two properties". In the most basic definitions (Laszlo & Krippner, 1998:47; Macy, 1991:72) a system is a group of interacting components that conserves some identifiable set of relations with the sum of the components plus their relations (that is, the system itself) conserving some identifiable set of relations to other entities (including other systems). With these basic definitions of 'system', a systems theory can be conceived as a theory concerned with systems. According to Laszlo and Krippner (1998:51) it is a trans-disciplinary framework for a simultaneous and normative exploration of the relationship between people's perceptions and the environment they purport to represent.

According to Shahid (2004:4), there are three main differences between closed and open systems. As concerns relations with the external environment, an open system exchanges matter and energy with its surroundings focus on the interchange between a system and its environment. Institutions are open systems because they constantly evolve and adapt to the needs of their environment. Their behavior is a response to the threats and resources available in the environment in which they exist. In contrast, a closed system exchanges energy, but not matter, with its environments. As far as form of regulation or control is concerned, closed systems use error-controlled regulation. This is control after the fact. Open systems use anticipatory control. They regulate by anticipating errors before they occur and take corrective measures before the final output is provided. In open systems it may be fatal to wait for feedback after errors has occurred, hence their form of regulation or control is called feedback control. In regard to purpose of regulation, open systems, unlike closed systems, are not interested in returning to some predetermined stable state. In open systems the purpose of regulation is to adjust and move the system on a new, dynamic path. Open systems seek continuous improvement and not just stability (Shahid, 2004:4-5). In other words, open system theory is said to have the potential of achieving a dynamic equilibrium.

Like living systems, most organizations operate in constant interchange with their environment. They have many complex interactions and interrelationships within themselves which need to be sustained through proper management. To survive, an organization must grow and achieve a dynamic equilibrium rather than simply return to a steady state. For these reasons systems theory has come to be applied to the study of organizational phenomena such as the design of management strategies for the enhancement of educators' job satisfaction.

Systems theory makes provision for people to explore and characterize the system of their interest, its environment and its components and parts. People in the education system can acquire a systems view of management by integrating systems concepts and principles in their thinking and learning to use them in representing the world and their experiences. Systems theory empowers people to think of themselves, the environments that surround them and the groups and organizations in which they live in a new way. According to Banathy (2000:264), this new way of thinking makes it possible for people in the education system to explore,

understand and describe the: Characteristics of the school system which operate at several interconnected levels (e.g., institutional management, administrational, instructional and learning experience levels): Relationships, interactions and the mutual interdependencies of systems operating at various levels within school systems; Relationships, interactions and information/matter/energy exchanges between the school system and its environment; Purposes, goals and objectives of institutions as systems which are emerging from an examination of the relationship and mutual interdependence of the school and society; Nature of education as a purposeful and purpose-seeking complex of open systems operating at various interdependent and integrated system levels; Dynamics of interactions, relationships and patterns of connectedness among the components of the school system; Properties of wholeness and the characteristics that emerge at various levels as a result of systemic interaction and synthesis; and System processes, that is, the behavior of institutions as a living system and changes that are manifested in systems and their environments over time.

Systems theory generates insights into ways of knowing, thinking and reasoning that urge people on to apply systems theory in educational institutions. According to Shahid (2004:7-8) and Oslum (2004:18), the tremendous changes facing organizations and how they should operate, should compel educators and managers to face this new way of looking at things. In other words, the effect of systems theory in management is that it helps managers to look at the organization more broadly. It has also enabled managers to interpret patterns and events in the workplace - that is, by enabling managers to recognize the various parts of the organization, and in particular, the interrelations of the parts. Thus, systemic changes in schools will only become possible if managers and educators develop a systemic approach to education and apply the systems view in its approach to management. The systems theory provides underlying values, beliefs, assumptions and perspectives that guide managers and educators in 'defining and organizing in relational arrangements the concepts and principles that constitutes' systems theory in relation to management of a school system (Banathy, 2000:264). This systems theory guides school managers in developing, selecting and organizing management strategies that suit their school environments in the promotion of job satisfaction among subordinates.

Caine (2004:16) asserts that human beings are living systems, and education, again broadly conceived, is society's way of guiding what and how individuals learn and become. The challenge is to come to an understanding of how people learn naturally, and then to translate that understanding so as to inform and guide practitioners and others in their day-to-day practice of education. Application of systems theory in the education management system implies that principals by themselves cannot guide nor prescribe, but they can set the stage by informing educators of what to look for and how to think about teaching. For example, educators need to: (i) work with individual and social nature of learners; and (ii) help learners develop a feel for anything that needs to be mastered (Caine, 2004:17). With the appropriate application of systems theory in education, the individual needs, rewards, expectations and attributes of the people interacting within the system are considered in the process in order to create an effective and friendly environment in which employees can be happy. Thus, the emphasis with systems theory has shifted from parts to the organization of parts, recognition of interactions of the parts not as static and constant but as dynamic processes.

2.4.4 CONTINGENCY THEORY

The contingency theory comprises a type of behavioral theory that claims that there is no best way to organize an institution, to manage a school, or to make decisions (Brevis, et. al., 1999:48). According to Oslum (2004:18), the contingency (situational) theory asserts that when managers make a decision, they must take into account all aspects of the current situation and act on those aspects that are crucial to the situation at hand, the optimal course of action is contingent (dependent) upon the internal and external situation. The contingency theory includes a management theory that asserts that when managers make decisions, they must take into account all aspects of the current situation and act on those aspects that are important to the situation at hand. This theory is sometimes referred to as the 'it depends' approach to matters.

The contingency theory denotes an approach to management that believes that it is impossible to specify a single way of managing that works best in all situations. It can be viewed as an attempt to come up with an appropriate and applicable solution to the challenge of management at workplaces - hence modern management thinkers came up with what they called a contingency theory.

Advocates of this theory stress the varying effectiveness of different managerial techniques under varying conditions. Their approach is to spell out conditions of a task (scientific management), managerial job (administrative management) and people (human relations management) as parts of a whole management situation (systems emphasis), and integrate them all into an effective solution most appropriate for specific circumstances. Thus, contingency theorists believe there are many effective ways to perform the various managerial functions (Brevis, et. al., 1999:48-49).

The contingency theory is also based on the systems approach to management. According to Brevis, et. al. (1999:48), the system approach to management views an organization as a group of interrelated parts with a single purpose. The actions of one part influence the other parts and principals (managers) therefore, may not deal separately with individual parts. Consequently, principals (managers) should view the organization as a whole and anticipate the effects of their decisions on the other parts of the organization. Thus, contingency theory, when it was conceived, was based on the systems approach to management. The basic premise of the former approach is that the application of management principles depends on the particular situation that management faces at a given point in time - hence there is no single way to manage. A method highly effective in one situation may not work in another. Management has to decide whether to use the principles of, for example, a scientific, bureaucratic, administrative or behavioral approach or a combination of them. In other words, the contingency theory of management tries to direct the available techniques and principles of the various approaches to management towards a specific situation to realize the objectives of the organization as effective as possible.

The contingency theory recognizes that in any organization, every department or faculty is unique. Above all, every organization exists in an exceptional environment with unique workers (whose needs are unique) and distinctive goals. Although the contingency theory emphasizes a situational approach (it depends on a specific situation), it is important to stress that not all management situations are totally unique. Each situation has its own characteristics (contingencies) which principals (managers) can use to identify solutions. These contingencies are: the institution's external environment (its rate of change and degree of complexity); the

institution's own capabilities (its strengths and weaknesses); principals (managers) and educators (workers), and the technology used by the institutions (Brevis, et. al. 1999:48). These contingencies are illustrated in Figure 2.2.
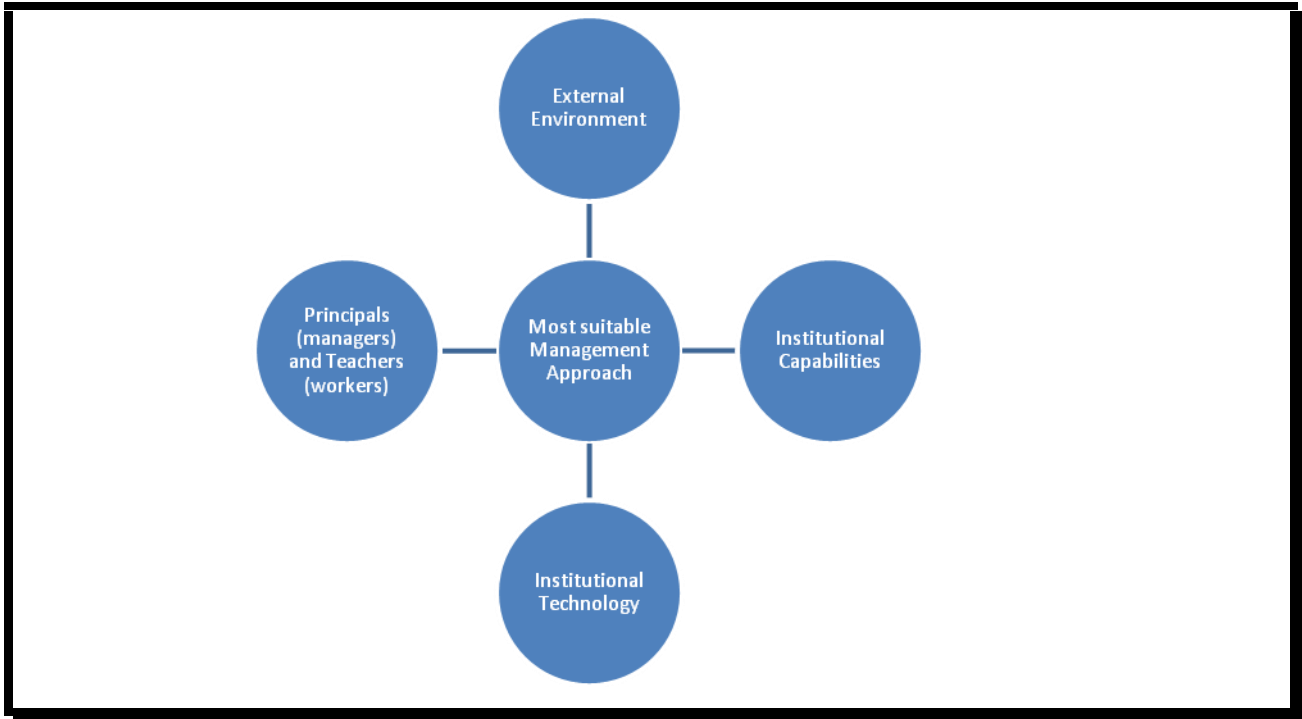
Figure 2.2:   Major Contingencies.
              Source: Brevis, et. al. (1999:50)

Contingency management theory helps principals to categorize the situation that has to be managed based on an examination of the contingencies depicted in Figure 2.2. For example, if a school principal intends transforming the school from a dysfunctional to a performing school, different yet potentially successful techniques may be available for similar management problems. In contingency theory, there is more than one way to reach the same goal - thus, if the principal desires to improve the pass rate of a school, he/she may decide to implement a new work method (a classical solution), a new motivational approach to be applied (a behavioral solution) or to reshuffle the educators' workloads (an administrative solution). School principals and aspiring principals must also utilize multiple ways to compete, motivate and manage in their schools in order to raise the job satisfaction of educators. This is precisely what contingency theory suggests - thus, the necessity of acting in accordance with the unique requirements

inherent in any situation. Owens (1981:139) asserts that contingency theory to job satisfaction suggests that efforts to get the maximum cooperation and effort from individual educators requires school principals to use those approaches particularly appropriate to specific situations.

Stoner (1978:54) provides yet another example of the contingency theory in action: where workers need to be encouraged to increase production, the classical theorist may prescribe a new incentive scheme. The behavioral theorist may create a physiologically motivating environment. The principal trained in contingency theory will ask: 'Which technique will work best here?' If the educators are struggling to, for example, meet their car or mortgage payments, then financial incentives may be effective. However, when educators are driven by pride in their abilities, a job enrichment program might be more effective.

2.5 MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES

Originally, research studies related to leadership and management centered on identifying the traits successful leaders or managers exhibit. Until recently the assumption was that leaders and principals [as leaders] are born, not made. Leaders or managers were considered to have been born with certain traits, but had to acquire additional traits through learning and experience. However, according to Krietner (in Bare & Oldham 1999:31), the White Paper 2 (1996b:46) and the Department of Education (1996c:25) the study of leadership and management has shifted from a focus on leader traits to patterns of behavior called leadership and/or managerial styles. He described the shifting of leadership/management studies from 'who the leader or manager is to how the manager behaves'. In a similar manner, Halpin (a researcher from Ohio State University), has described a shift to two dimensions of leadership or management, namely initiating structure and consideration (in Bare & Oldham 1999:31). Initiating structures refer to the leader's effort to get things organized to get the job done, and consideration to the degree of trust, friendship, respect, and warmth that the leader extends to subordinates. These aspects were further researched by Blake and Mouton (1978:11) and Bare and Oldham (1999:31) who designed a managerial grid, refined into managerial styles. In the continued search for the best managerial styles Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (1996:191) ended up with the notion of management maturity, according to which the leader has the capacity to set high but attainable goals, a willingness and ability to take responsibility and to take the experience of an individual

or a group into account. As the individual or group begins to move into an above average level of maturity, it becomes appropriate for the leader to move into management strategies (Hersey & Blanchard 1977:165-167). If leaders are to be effective with subordinates, then it is essential that they recognize and adopt the appropriate management strategies to the maturity levels of the followers.

Without undermining the negative effects that the apartheid system has had on the education system in South Africa, a systematic change in management strategies is required forthwith in order to improve the current poor academic performance of learners and low job satisfaction levels of educators (DoE, 1996c:28; Singh & Manser, 2002:56). Bureaucratic and other old management styles currently in vogue should make room for new management strategies that encourages inclusion and participation of educators (World Bank Consultancy, 1993:5). In spite of the rapid shift in philosophy as evidenced above, there has been no a universally accepted style of management found. Instead, four management strategies have become commonplace, namely the hierarchical, facilitative, transformational and participative management strategy. Each of these strategies has important advantages and a set of limitations as shall be elucidated in the unfolding sections of the study.

2.5.1 HIERARCHICAL MANAGEMENT STRATEGY

Historically, schools have been run as bureaucracies, emphasizing authority and accountability. The hierarchical strategy comprises a top-down approach in which school principals uses rational analysis to determine the best way or course of action and then assert their formal authority to carry it out. The principal becomes a 'technical planner' in which he/she acts as resource allocator, co-coordinator, supervisor, disseminator of information and analyst (Deal & Peterson, 1994:133).

Effective management of school networks requires a hierarchical management strategy in which school principals can dynamically delegate management tasks to their middle management team (school management team - SMT), lower level management team (Heads of Departments - HoDs), and shop floor workers (educators or subject committees). This management strategy goes beyond the traditional flat model of a single school principal communicating everything in

the school as the sole manager in the school setting. Hierarchical management strategies are attractive alternatives among school principals that need to be explored for school based management. The need for hierarchical management strategies is particularly acute in tactical school management networks. This management strategy requires that management information be summarized at each level of the hierarchy and allowed to flow upwards through school power echelons, that is, from peer to peer (subject educators + HoDs), to lower level management (HoDs), to middle management (SMT) and finally to top management (principal + deputy principals). Every stage in the hierarchy will have the ability to activate a net management function so that there is not a single point of failure.

The common management by delegation is a well-known strategy for implementing hierarchical management strategy, but often school principals are unable to take advantage of it because the delegation privileges of principals have not been integrated with the new management frameworks (Sethi, Pramod, Sherwin & Zhu, 1997:4-5).

The hierarchical management strategy (including the delegating system of management) enables school principals to offload routine management tasks to an intermediate manager (deputy principals) and facilitate user configurability of management information and control in a value-added manner (Sethi, et. al. 1997:4-5). The main objectives of hierarchical management strategies are to: introduce a powerful intermediate manager (deputy principals) who can enhance (but preserve) the existing levels of job satisfaction in workers; provide an environment that supports user configurability of management information; support basic primitives, events and operations by co-workers, and present an abstraction and interface that is easy to comprehend and use by the rest of the school system.

The major benefits of the hierarchical management strategies are that it permits distribution of control between school principals and deputy principals, SMT, and HoDs through the use of abstractions and it allows the dynamic creation of user defined views of managed objects, including relations between various school departments. Applied correctly in a school system, it relieves principals from some of the elementary lower-level chores of management thus allowing concentration on higher level tasks required by management application. Principals can

dynamically decide what actions are to be performed and how they are to be executed at each level of the management hierarchy with a higher degree of flexibility.

2.5.2 FACILITATIVE MANAGEMENT STRATEGY

In today's school environment there is an increasing demand for facilitation skills. The volatility and competitiveness of schools for good and quality results, and the need for school principals and educators to respond effectively to a range of new challenges such as new technology and curriculum changes, has provoked the need for a variety of responses from school management. In turn, this has resulted in a demand for a management strategy, which is less embedded in command and control styles and dependent on hierarchical structures, but which is more suited to flatter structures and high performance teams. A kind of management strategy is being called for which is about creating a climate conducive to integrated team activities and has a greater focus on the support and development of individual team members. Such a strategy can rise to new challenges with imagination and flexibility. It is characterized by an attitude of mind which is open rather than closed, tentative, curious and exploratory rather than definite and conclusive. These are all qualities of the facilitative management strategy (Lashway, 1995:1-3; Smylie, & Brownlee-Conyers, 1992:156-159).

The dictionary definition of facilitation is 'to make easy' or 'to remove obstacles' (McMillan, 2010:525). Essentially what it is attempting to remove are obstacles in an organization which hinder organizational effectiveness in performing organizational tasks. Chapman (1997:2) says "too often in work environments, there is enormous attention paid to the task in hand and too little to the process of how people are going about things, and it is often the 'how' that undermines the task and the performer". Petty rivalries or jealous in the organizations undermine its competitive functioning, poor communication between different parts of the organization or a failure to address the clear need for a structural change may all make the people less effective that they desire to be. And broadly speaking any management that can handle such diversity at workplace which encompasses a range of intrapersonal and interpersonal skills which are simple to describe but complex to practice and are often undervalued is none other than the facilitative management strategy.

The facilitative management strategy can be described as a strategy which inspires workers to look beyond self-interest and focus on organizational goals. According to Conley and Goldman (1994:35), it is the behavior that enhances the collective ability of a school to solve and improve performance. The facilitative management strategy involves the participation of workers at all the different levels of the organization. Prevailing views of school management suggest that principals' role should not be to direct others but to create a school culture and environment in which decisions are made collaboratively. The facilitative management strategy exercises power through others, not over them. Conley and Goldman (1994:193) define the concept facilitative management strategy as "the behaviors that enhance the collective ability of a school to adapt to solve problems and improve performance". This is accomplished by actively engaging educators in decision-making processes.

Traditionally, power was viewed as domination through formal authority, flowing from the top downwards and vesting decisions in a small number of people – often in only the school principal. The facilitative management strategy, in contrast, provides for a new role for the modern principal. This role is based on mutuality and synergy, with the power flowing in multiple directions in the school system. Thus, the principal's role in this strategy is not to solve problems personally but to see to it that problems are solved through others. The school hierarchy remains intact, but the principal uses his/her authority to support the educators.

Like the hierarchical management strategy, the facilitative management strategy invites its followers to commit effort and psychic energy to a common cause. Blasé, Anderson, and Dungan (1995:48) maintain that a facilitative management strategy offers educators a daily partnership in bringing the school vision to life. Principals following this strategy work in the background, and not at the center of the stage. Principals can be viewed as facilitators when they overcome resource constraints, build teams, provide feedback, coordinate, utilize conflict resolution management, create open communication networks, practice collaborative politics and model the school's vision. The facilitative management strategy creates a collaborative and change-oriented environment in which educators can develop better work ethics by pursuing common goals and produce democratic workplaces that embody high levels of job satisfaction.

However, the core value shift which a facilitative management strategy brings about is its movement from an expert model of management interactions to a model in which the principal is supposed to empower subordinates to take responsibility for their own efforts and solutions. Here the principal should resist the temptation to give advice. Instead, he/she should merely facilitate educators in their own problem-solving and work endeavors. According to Steyn (2002:267) school principals who incorporate facilitative management strategy involve educators, learners, parents and others in adapting to new challenges, solving problems and improving both educators' and learners' performance (Black, 1998:35). It also means that principals have to accommodate team meetings where they participate as members of a small group (Pretorius, 1998:105). Unfortunately, principals who have been trained under power-centered role expectations often lack the skills and knowledge necessary to practice facilitative management (Portin, Shen & Williams, 1998:6), hence the need for this study to highlight to school principals the management strategies that can enhance the job satisfaction of educators.

2.5.3 TRANSFORMATIONAL MANAGEMENT STRATEGY

Interest in the transformational management strategy over the past decades was a result of two main tendencies (Simic, 1998:50): Significant global economic changes from the early 1970s which followed on from 25 years of post World War 2 stability meant that many large Western companies, such as General Motors, had to consider radical changes in their ways of doing business. Factors such as rapid technological change, heightened levels of competition, a rising flow of products from newly developed countries, volatility in the Organization of Petroleum Exporting Countries (OPEC), pricing strategies and changing demographic structures created a turbulent, unstable and competitive environment in which significant organizational change was imperative. Change often included downsizing and the adoption of new forms of organizational management. These amendments took their toll on worker satisfaction and empowerment and broke "the old social contract of long term employment in return for worker loyalty" (Griffin, 2003:1). In this situation, companies were found in need to resolve the apparently contradictory challenge of finding new ways of effecting changes while simultaneously building employee job satisfaction - hence new approaches to management were needed, and the theoretical base of work on management that prevailed in the 1970s was founded in explorations of traits, behaviors

and contingency theories and had failed to account for some 'untypical' qualities of leadership and management.

The term transformational denotes a complete change or overhauling and therefore, transformational management means a complete change in the nature of management. The transformational management strategy then denotes a series of actions that can be used to change the whole nature of management. Given the above opinionated derivatives, transformational management strategy focuses on the importance of teamwork and comprehensive school improvement as an alternative to present day school management. It counts on authority, idealism, and rational stimulation, inspiring and encouraging workers through ethics, policies, conventions and mutual outlook of workplace.

Leithwood, as cited in Cashin, Crewe, Desai, Desrosiers, Prince, Shallow and Slaney (2000:1) asserts that transformational management redefines people's mission and vision, a renewal of commitment and restructuring of the system of accomplishment. It is a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents. Hence, transformational management must be grounded in moral foundations. Thus, transformational management is all about inspiring employees to look beyond self-interest and focus on wider organizational goals.

Transformational management strategy elevates workers from low levels of needs, and focuses on survival (following Maslow's hierarchy of needs) to higher levels and motivates them to transcend their own interests for some other collective reason (Feinberg, Ostroff & Burke, 2005:471). Typically the transformational management strategy helps workers satisfy as many of their individual needs as possible, appealing notably to higher order needs (to love, to learn and to leave a legacy). Barbuto (2005:28) claims that the transformational management strategy engenders trust, admiration, loyalty and respect amongst workers. Other researchers also conclude that in this strategy, workers are treated individually and differently on the basis of their talents and knowledge (Shin & Zhou, 2003:704) and with the intention of allowing them to reach higher levels of achievement than might otherwise have been achieved (Chekwa, 2001:5; Stone, Russell & Patterson, 2003:3).

In following the transformational management strategy, managers (principals) pursue three fundamental goals: Helping educators develop and maintain a collaborative and professional culture. This means the staff members talk, observe, critique and plan together. Norms of collective responsibility and continuous improvements encourage them to teach each other how to teach better. Principals who use this management strategy involve the educators in collaborative goal setting, reducing educator isolation, using bureaucratic mechanisms to support cultural and institutional changes, sharing school leadership and management with others by delegating power and actively communicating the school's norms and beliefs. This involves principals broadening and elevating the interests of educators, stir educators to look beyond their own self-interest for the good of the institution. Together, heightened capacity and commitment are held to lead to additional effort and greater productivity (Bass, 1990:26) fostering educator development. Leithwood (1992:10) asserts that in the transformational management strategy, educators' job satisfaction is enhanced when they internalize goals of professional growth. This process is facilitated when educators are strongly committed to the school's mission and vision. Principals can give educators the role of solving non-routine school improvement problems but should make sure the goals are explicit and ambitious but realistic - hence this strategy is aimed at raising educators' job satisfaction levels; and helping elevating educators from low levels of needs, focusing on survival (following Maslow's hierarchy), to higher levels. They may also help educators to transcend their own interests for some other collective purpose and help them solve problems more effectively (Feinberg, Ostroff & Burke, 2005:471).

Authors like Barbuto (2005); Hall, Johnson, Wysocki and Kepner (2002:2); Judge and Piccolo (2004), and Simic (1998) cited in Hay (2006:5-15) in the field of management and leadership proposed that certain factors make up transformational strategy. These factors are: (i) idealized influence which is characterized by charismatic vision and behavior that inspires others; (ii) inspirational motivation which involves the capacity to motivate others to commit to the vision of the organization; (iii) individualized consideration which involves coaching to the specific needs of followers; and (iv) intellectual stimulation which entails encouraging innovation and creativity. The use and importance of these factors have been confirmed in the empirical work of management by Bass, Avolio, Jung and Berson (2003:208).

Idealized influence (attributes and behaviors) is about building confidence and trust and providing a role model that followers seek to emulate (Bono & Judge, 2004:901; Simic, 1998:52; Stone, Russell & Patterson, 2003:3). Managers (leaders) are "admired, respected, and trusted" (Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003:208). Confidence in the manager provides a foundation for accepting (radical) organizational change. That is, followers who are sure of the virtues of their manager will be less likely to resist proposals for change from her/him, hence they get motivated by his/her way of managing the organization.

Inspirational motivation is related to idealized influence which involves motivating the entire organization to, for example, follow a new idea. The managers, who use transformational strategy make clear an appealing view of the future, offer followers the opportunity to see meaning in their work, and challenge them with high standards. They encourage followers to become part of the overall organizational culture and environment (Stone et al., 2003:3). This might be achieved through motivational speeches and conversations and other public displays of optimism and enthusiasm, highlighting positive outcomes, and stimulating teamwork (Simic, 1998:52; Yukl, 1989:221). Through these sorts of means, managers who use transformational strategy encourage their followers to imagine and contribute to the development of attractive, alternative futures (Bass et al., 2003:208).

Intellectual stimulation involves arousing and changing followers' awareness of problems and their capacity to solve those problems (Hay, 2006:7). Such managers question assumptions and beliefs and encourage followers to be innovative and creative, approaching old problems in new ways (Barbuto, 2005:28). They empower followers by persuading them to propose new and controversial ideas without fear of punishment or ridicule (Stone et al., 2003:3). They impose their own ideas judiciously and certainly not at any cost (Simic, 1998:52).

Individualized consideration involves responding to the specific, unique needs of followers to ensure they are included in the transformation process of the organization (Simic, 1998:52). People are treated individually and differently on the basis of their talents and knowledge (Shin & Zhou, 2003:704) and with the intention of allowing them to reach higher levels of

achievement than might otherwise have been achieved (Chekwa, 2001:5; Stone et al., 2003:3). This might take expression, for example, through expressing words of thanks or praise, fair workload distributions, and individualized career counseling, mentoring and professional development activities. Clearly then, besides having an overarching view of the organization and its trajectory, the managers who use transformational strategy must also comprehend those things that motivate followers individually (Simic, 1998:52).

Together, the four main dimensions of transformational management strategy are interdependent; they must co-exist; and they are held to have an additive effect that yields performance beyond expectations. Collectively, they do suggest a human being of remarkable capabilities. Nevertheless, on foundations provided by the four dimensions of the transformational management strategy and the various associated characteristics, managers who use transformational strategy are people who can create significant motivation in both followers and the organization through a focus on intangible qualities like vision, shared values and ideas, and relationship building (Hay, 2006:5-8). Griffin (2003:8) also adds that transformational management strategy fosters the modal values of honesty, loyalty, and fairness, as well as the end values of justice, equality, and human rights.

According to Leithwood (1992:8-12), transformational management strategy is valued by some because it stimulates educators to engage in new activities and put forth that 'extra effort'. It is believed that it helps principals use practices which primarily help educators to work smarter, not harder. Principals who use this strategy have a genuine belief that their educators, as a group, can develop better solutions than the principal alone.

The transformational management strategy makes provision for school principals to use some or all of the following techniques (Bryant, 2003:36-37; Carlson & Perrewe, 1995:834): classroom visits; assisting educators in classroom discipline; encourage educators to visit one another's classes; recognize the work of educators and rewarding special efforts; use of bureaucratic mechanisms to support educators, such as finding money for projects or providing time for collaborative planning during the workday; and protecting educators from the problems of limited time, excessive paperwork, and demands from other agencies.

Through school principals who have charisma, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation, transformational management strategies have great potential to promote job satisfaction beyond expectations and to effect enormous changes within individuals and organizational institutions. It seems to be a form of school management strategy well-suited to times characterized by political interferences, health uncertainties, global economic turbulences and work instabilities (Sanders, Hopkins & Geroy, 2003:29). Black (1998:35) and Steyn (2002:267) agree school principals who use transformational management strategy motivate, inspire and unite educators on common goals. Armstrong and Armstrong (1996:23-24) support the idea by saying that such principals also have the ability to achieve productivity through people. Thus, according to Burns (1996:35), school principals have organizational potential to change the behavior and beliefs of educators in the school and unite them behind a new vision of the school's future. According to Hoy and Miskel (2001:414), principals using transformational strategy are expected to define the needs for change; create new visions and master commitment to the visions; concentrate on long-term goals; inspire followers to transcend their own interests to pursue higher goals; change the organization to accommodate their vision rather than work within the existing ones and mentor followers to take greater responsibilities for their own development and that of others in the institution. Glover and Law (2000:26) concur that with transformational management strategy, school principals are classified as people-oriented because they be able to build relationships with educators in the school and help them develop goals and identify strategies rather emphasize tasks and performance. Thus, these strategies will allow the principals to motivate, inspire, and unite educators and other stakeholders in the school towards common goals (Black, 1998:35).

In conclusion, it can be noted that through idealized influence, individualized consideration, intellectual stimulation and inspirational motivation, managers who use transformational strategy have great potential to promote job satisfaction and performance beyond expectations and to effect enormous changes within individuals and organizations.

2.5.4   PARTICIPATIVE MANAGEMENT STRATEGY

The participative management strategy is widely perceived as an attribute of socially responsible institutions, with participation in decision-making in the workplace seen as central to a democratic vision and basic to a good society (Ngubane, 2005:8; Sagie & Kowslosky, 2000:231. In other words, this type of management strategy requires workers at all levels to be encouraged to contribute ideas towards identifying and setting organizational goals, problem-solving, and other decisions that may affect them. It is sometimes referred to as the 'consultative management strategy'.

The theories behind the participative management strategy are associated with Elton Mayo's (1880-1949) human relations theory and Frederick W. Taylor's (1856-1915) scientific management theory. It is believed that Mayo (1933) explored Frederick W. Taylor's (1856-1915) scientific management principles and hinged his theory on a top-notch quality management system, better worker relations and integrated design and production teams.

The participative management strategy addresses the relationship between the organization and its workers (Branch, 2002:1). It addresses fundamental issues of governance within organizations and the role of workers on all levels of organizational decision-making as well as appropriate relationships between workers and their supervisors. Applied correctly to a school management system, this participative management strategy can help principals deal with the fundamental challenges facing public servants (educators) in today's dynamic and competitive work environment and at the same time maintaining high levels of effectiveness, productivity, innovativeness and job satisfaction. It offers principals the possibility of resolving contradictory interests through individual negotiation and/or collective bargaining rather than imposition of authority (Commission on the Future of Worker: Management Relations, 1995:38). The commission saw the participative management strategy as a feasible form of governance for schools which create flexibility and worker commitment.

According to Bloom (2000:5), a philosophical belief that people have the right to be involved in making decisions that affect their work lives is embedded in the participative management

strategy. This is accompanied by a belief that people who are in decision-making positions have a greater stake in carrying out those decisions than those who are not involved. Bolle de Bal (1992:603-610) asserts that there are core values that are reflected in five different approaches to the purpose and rationale for worker participation in institutions. These are as follows. (i) The management approach is inspired by productivity and efficient goals. Participation is organized at a low level of management in order to relieve worker dissatisfaction and morale problems. This approach reflects the emerging viewpoint that institutional design and management effectiveness can provide significant job satisfaction. (ii) The humanist psychological approach is inspired by human growth and development goals. Participation is a way to enhance the well-being of the individual by promoting individual creativity, self-esteem and ego-strength. This approach reflects the movement led by Elton Mayo (1933), followed by the work of McGregor (1960), Likert (1961), Argyris (1989), and other behavioral theorists. It acknowledges the social function of the workplace and the benefits of participatory restructuring of the workplace, given the central role it plays in the job satisfaction of individuals. (iii) The industrial relations approach is inspired by democratic goals. Participation is not only a means to an end in itself, but also a way to create strong democratic work institutions characterized by active and participative educators. Participation in the workplace is seen as contributing to high levels of job satisfaction. (iv) The political approach is inspired by revolutionary goals. Participation is seen as a means to change the overall structure of schools and to educate educators regarding their role in school decision-making. (v) The psycho-sociological or anthropological approach is inspired by synthetic and multi-dimensional goals. Participation is perceived as a way of acculturation, of pushing educators to internalize the socio-economic norms of their institutions, of emphasizing the fundamental aspects of human nature and getting the best out of the workers. It also, emphasizes fundamental social interactions in the workplace and the role of participation in addressing issues of resistance, engagement and job satisfaction.

Ngubane (2005:8) asserts that participative management strategy is good for South African schools. Due to the legacy of apartheid, educators were dogmatically oriented to being the recipients of instructions and decisions and to view management as the prerogative of only the principals. To counter this, the South African Schools Act (DoE, 1996c:28) envisaged the school

management approach with the responsibility that rests heavily on school principals, their school management teams, educators, and school governing bodies.

The implication of the participative management strategy is that giving workers decision-making opportunities or involving them in management functions boosts their morale and levels of job satisfaction (Lawler, 1993:174-177; Bloom, 2000:10; McLagan & Nell, 1995:44). Figure 2.3 demonstrates idealized management strategies that can be utilized by school principals in their endeavor to raise the levels of educators' job satisfaction in their schools.
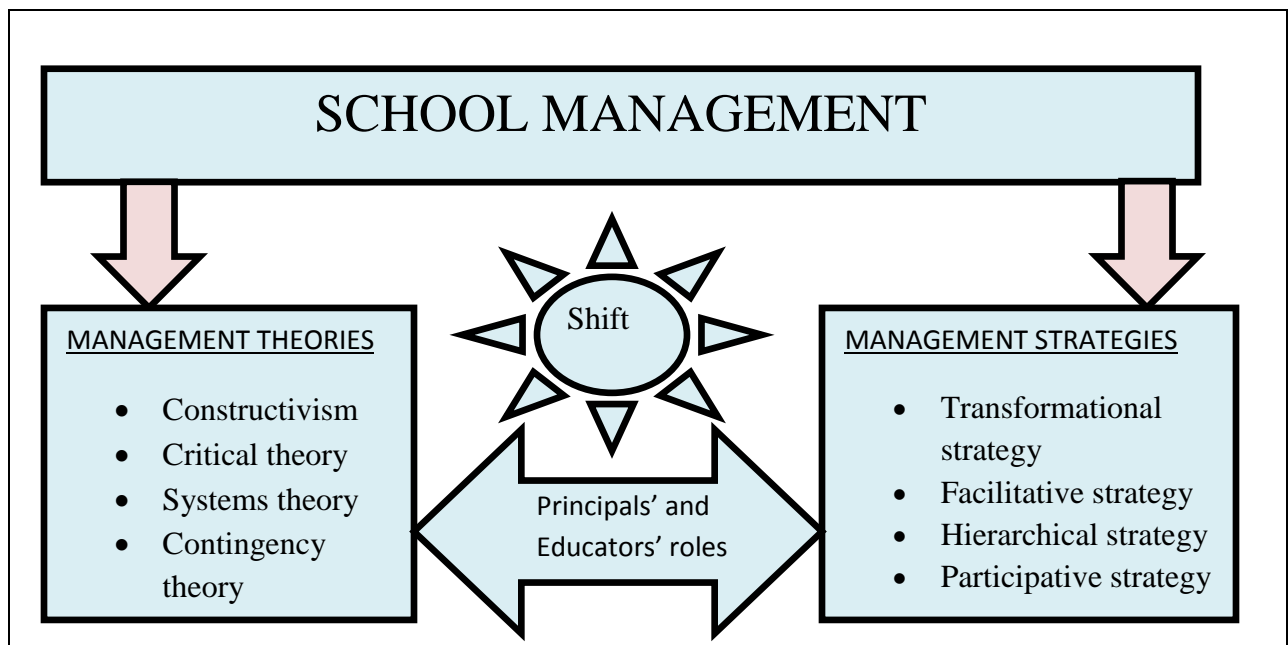
Figure 2.3:   Relationship between management theories and management strategies
Source: Stoner, et. al. (1995:31)

Figure 2.3 indicates a policy and a practice of school management. Modern theories of management (Stoner, et. al., 1995:31-32) assume that there should be new way of managing schools. Thus, for the successful improvement on educators' job satisfaction levels in South African schools; this study holds that new management strategies with conceptual key features have to be developed.

Regardless of which management strategies are used, there should be a focus on the key tasks of principals in managing teaching and learning (Bush, 2007:404). Former Minister of Education, N. Pandor (in DoE, 2007) noted the extreme inequality in learning achievements and criticized the 'hundreds of school principals and educators throughout the country who appear satisfied with mediocrity'. The Task Team set up by the South African government shortly after the first democratic elections in 1994 argued that addressing such attitudes needs new management strategies: improving the quality of learning requires strategies which focus on change at school and classroom levels. Managers (principals) can no longer simply wait for instructions or decisions from government. The pace of change and the need to be adaptable and responsive to local circumstances requires that school managers develop new skills and ways of working (DoE, 1996b:13-14). Improving the learning outcomes of education in schools requires an approach to management development which focuses on job satisfaction of educators. This means attempting to change the mind-set of principals to regard the process of teaching and motivation as central to their role rather than simply leaving such matters to educators themselves.

This study, however, is designed to address the conceptual relationship that should exist between management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction of educators surrounding the study and practice of educational leadership and management. By discussing the main management strategies, it is hoped that a contribution has been made to the process of demystifying the field and crafting a route to greater understanding of school management.

2.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter explored the definitions of management, strategy and management strategy. It discussed findings related to management strategies. The chapter also presented well-known and authoritative theories pertaining to management strategies. Finally, the literature review was conducted in order to determine how management strategies in schools can be utilized and/or can be seen from a different perspective.

The study revealed that the school principals have a number of management strategies they can use order to enhance the job satisfaction of educators. However, pressure resulting from the changes taking place in the teaching profession worldwide sometimes makes it difficult for the school principals to perform their management roles effectively. This has a negative impact on the job satisfaction of educators in general. Therefore, the school principals need to acquire the necessary management strategies in order to adapt to the changing work environments of educators.

The next chapter focuses on the literature review related to the concept job satisfaction and its theories and factors of educators.

CHAPTER THREE

3. A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ON JOB SATISFACTION

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In chapter two the researcher presented and discussed management, management strategies, and the theories relating to management strategies. This chapter describes a comprehensive literature review and discussion of job satisfaction, theories of job satisfaction, factors of job satisfaction and the findings on the topic under study. The review will emphasize the job satisfaction of educators. It will also consider factors that influence job satisfaction levels of educators and how best can school principals deal with instances of low job satisfaction levels of educators in certain school environments. In compiling information for this review, relevant sources were located by searching various library databases, education abstracts, education full texts, reference lists from other academic works and books from leading publishers.

3.2 THE CONCEPT JOB SATISFACTION

Job satisfaction is one of the most researched areas of organizational behavior and education (Labuschagnne, Bosman & Buitendach, 2005:26) and is gaining increasing attention from organizations these days due to its importance and pervasiveness in terms of organizational effectiveness. Levy-Garboua and Montmequette (2002:1) mention that many economists consider self-reported job satisfaction as a fascinating variable which recently resulted in a number of studies in the empirical analysis of well-being especially in job satisfaction. Job satisfaction has been investigated in several disciplines such as psychology (Argyle, 1989), sociology (Hodson, 1985; Kalleberg & Loscocco, 1983), economics (Hamermesh, 1977, 2001; Freeman, 1978), and management sciences (Hunt & Saul, 1975). Yousef (1998:184) mentions that the reason for this trend can be found in the association of job satisfaction with several variables which include positive association with life satisfaction and work commitment. It is therefore regarded as imperative for school principals to be morally responsible for maintaining high levels of job satisfaction among their school educators, among other things, to enhance productivity, prevent absenteeism and staff turnover, and to reduce the need for union activity.

There are many definitions of job satisfaction that have been formulated over time, but most authors appear to agree that it is an aspect that has to do with an individual's perception and evaluation of his/her job. Hoppock (1935:47) and Scott, Swortzel and Taylor (2005:103) define job satisfaction as any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that causes a person truthfully to say, 'I am satisfied with my job'. Locke (1976:1300), for example, defines job satisfaction as a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. Schneider and Snyder (1975:318) also define job satisfaction as a personal evaluation of conditions present in the job. Shovel (2007:812) asserts that job satisfaction is the feeling that one has when he/she enjoys his/her job. Job satisfaction does not only have a bearing on an individual's perception and evaluation of his/her job, but this perception may also be influenced by a person's unique circumstances like needs, values and expectations. People may evaluate their jobs on the basis of factors which they regard as being important to them (Sempane, Rieger & Roodt, 2002:23).

According to Labuschagne et. al., (2005:27) job satisfaction is a complex matter influenced by situational factors in the job environment as well as by dispositional characteristics of an individual. Following this line of argument, job satisfaction can be described as an effective or emotional reaction to the job resulting from the incumbent's comparison of actual outcomes with the required outcomes (Lok & Crawford, 1999:595, Greenberg & Baron, 2000:160).

Hirschfield (2000:256) explains that job satisfaction relates to the extent in which people like their jobs. Hirschfield's research (2000:257) has shown that the different aspects of job satisfaction can be classified into extrinsic and intrinsic job satisfaction. According to Hirschfield, extrinsic job satisfaction refers to satisfaction with aspects such as salary, working conditions and co-workers, whereas intrinsic job satisfaction refers to aspects such as variety and autonomy. Labuschagne, et. al. (2005:27) concur with Hirschfield, and identify more common aspects of job satisfaction which included, "work, salary, promotion, recognition, benefits, working conditions, work conditions, management (supervision), co-workers, and institution".

Greenberg and Baron (2000:160) also define job satisfaction as a personal evaluation of conditions present in the job or outcomes that arise as a result of having a job. According to

Hirschfield (2000:258) workers seek to achieve and maintain correspondence with their environment. This means that workers will experience job satisfaction if they feel that their individual capabilities, experiences and values can be utilized in their work environment and that the work environment offers those opportunities and rewards (Roberts & Roseanne, 1998:258). Sempane, et. al. (2002:24) emphasize that workers who are satisfied with their jobs are likely to be better ambassadors for their institutions and show more organizational commitment.

Since job satisfaction involves workers' emotional feelings, it has major consequences for their lives. Hirschfield (2000:256) maintains that job satisfaction has an effect on the physical health, longevity and mental health of workers and on the interaction between workers and the feelings of workers toward their jobs and social lives. Locke (2000:76) opines that work can have an important effect on the total quality of life of the worker behavior. Job satisfaction may be an indicator of the extent in which an individual will be effectively connected to an institution, merely comply with directives or be prepared to do something extra, or consider quitting (Ma & McMillan, 1999:39).

Principals ought to have some understanding of the factors that influence educators' job satisfaction within their work lives and the impact this satisfaction has on educators' involvement in their schools, especially when educational changes are being implemented.

3.3 THEORIES CONCERNING JOB SATISFACTION

In order to understand job satisfaction, it is important to understand what motivates people at work (Wiley, 1995:263-280; Bull, 2005:28; Drafke & Kossen, 1998:273). There are numerous theories attempting to explain the nature and effect of job satisfaction, but two of these seem to be more prominent in the literature than the rest (Nicholson, Schuler, Van de Ven, Cooper & Argyris, 1995:330-332; Vroom, 1995:4; Wiley, 1995:263; Gruneberg, 1979:9). These theories can be divided into two categories: content (needs) theories and process (cognitive) theories (Barnabe & Burns, 1994:171; Rowley, 1996:12; Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn, 1997:87; Wevers, 2000:22; McKenna, 2000:92,101) The first category, that is, content (need-based) theories, suggests that job satisfaction occurs when the individual's needs for growth and self-actualization are met by the individual's job. They explore the factors that influence behavior

and emphasize the needs that motivate people (Carr, 2005:23). These needs translate into internal drives that give rise to specific behavior intended to fulfill these needs. In the similar vein, Steyn (2002:89-90) illustrates that the content theories attempt to identify factors within individuals and their environments that energizes and sustain behavior.

The second category is often referred to as process (cognitive) theories and this attempt to explain job satisfaction by looking at how well the job meets one's expectations and values. According to Steyn (2002:89-90), these process theories attempt to explain how environment factors are moderated by personality factors and psychological states to energize and sustain behavior or how to stop behavior (Barnabe & Burns, 1994:171; McKenna, 2000:101). These process theories appear to be more analytical in approach as they give an account of the manner in which factors such as values, needs and expectations (Davies & Wilson, 2000:323-347) interact with other factors in the job to produce job satisfaction (Xaba, 1996:10; Van der Westhuizen, 1998:2; Swanepoel, Erasmus, Van Wyk & Schenk, 1998:351). Each of these theories have been explored and reviewed by countless theorists. These leading theorists include the following: Maslow (1970), Herzberg (1966), Vroom (1964), McClelland (1961), Alderfer (1972), Skinner (1939, 1971), and Adam (1965). These job satisfaction theories are not only important for the conceptualization of motivated behaviors of educators, such as productivity, but they are also a demonstration of the fact that schools (the context in which teaching and learning takes place) play an essential role in bringing about job satisfaction, if not job dissatisfaction, of educators (Steyn, 1990:145). Subsequently, the purpose of this section is not to provide an exhaustive review of job satisfaction theories. Instead, only the main theories will be briefly discussed in order to provide clarity, relevance and direction to this study of educators' job satisfaction.

In order to understand theories of job satisfaction, it is important to understand what motivates people at work. The relationship between people and their work has long attracted psychologists and other behavioral scientists as evidenced above. Their work dealt with measurement of aptitudes and abilities to improve the job satisfaction of workers. It is this very interest that compels researchers to still value the importance of their theories in reviewing job satisfaction of employees. Thus, the study of job satisfaction and motivation now forms an integral part of both

industrial and vocational psychology. However, in both fields, concepts like needs, motives, reinforcements, incentives and attitudes are appearing with greater frequency than are the concepts of aptitudes, ability and skill (Vroom, 1995:4). These theories are relevant in this study in three ways (Nicholson, et. al. 1995:330-331): (i) motivation and job satisfaction are inferred from a systematic analysis of how personal, task and environment characteristics influence behavior and job satisfaction; (ii) motivation and job satisfaction are not fixed traits. They refer to dynamic internal state resulting from the influence of personal and situational factors. As such, job satisfaction may be influenced by changes in personal, social and other factors; and (iii) motivation affects behavior, rather than performance. Initiatives designed to enhance job satisfaction by increasing employee motivation may not be successful if there is a weak link between job performance and employees' efforts.

Worker job satisfaction can be studied through several broad theories: (need-based) theory, process (reinforcement) theory and situational theory. These personality-based perspectives of work motivation provide the main support of the research reported here. Personality-based views emphasize the influence of enduring personal characteristics as they affect goal choice and striving. These personality-based theories include theories, such as Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory, which asserts that workplace behavior is posited to be determined by a person's current need state in certain universal need categories; Clayton Alderfer's Existence, Relatedness and Growth (ERG) theory which stresses the role of individual differences in the strength of achievement motives; and Stacey Adams' Equity Theory which emphasizes the conditions that arouse the motive and its influence on behavior (Nicholson, et. al. 1995:330-333; Bowdicht & Buono, 1997:89, 103; Wiley, 1995:265). Hanson (2003:191) categorized job satisfaction theories into either content theories or process theories.

3.3.1   CONTENT (NEED-BASED) THEORIES

Content theories attempt to explain what drives individuals to act in a certain manner based on a universal understanding that all human beings have needs to satisfy. As such, it is important for organizational managers to know what employees need and also their needs will evolve over time while bearing in mind that needs differ considerably among employees (McShane & Glinow, 2000:74). Hanson (2003:191) acknowledges that content theories are based on factors

that influence job satisfaction. Content theories are usually associated with the works of: Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1970); Herzberg's two-factor theory (1966); Alderfer's ERG theory (1972), and McClelland's achievement theory (1961).

The content theories, sometimes called the need-based theories, explain these desires. They explain job satisfaction primarily as a phenomenon that occurs intrinsically, or within the individual. According to Hanson (2003:191) content theories assume that needs initiate, channel, and sustain goal-oriented behaviors; behaviors that result from needs are initiated when an equilibrium imbalance or a deprivation is felt; needs are prioritized into higher and lower levels; when a need is fulfilled it is no longer motivating; and all human beings basically share the same prioritization of needs. Hanson (2003:198) emphasized that content theories which can be viewed as '*What turns me on? Or what prompts people to behave as they do?*' are best described as theories of job satisfaction.

3.3.1.1   MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS THEORY

Abraham Maslow was an American Psychologist who conceived the need theory which is commonly known as Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory in 1940-50s in USA. Abraham Maslow was born in New York in 1908 and died in 1970, although various publications appear in Maslow's name in the later years. He did his PhD in Psychology in 1934 at the University Wisconsin which formed the basis of his motivational research, initially studying rhesus monkeys. He worked at New York's Brooklyn College.

His hierarchy of needs theory remains valid today for understanding human motivation, management training and personal development. Indeed, Maslow's ideas surrounding the hierarchy of needs concerning the responsibility of employers to provide a workplace environment that encourages and enables employees to fulfill their own unique potential (self-actualization) are today more relevant than ever. His publications *'Motivation and Personality'* published in 1954 (2nd edition 1970) introduced the hierarchy of needs and he extended his ideas in the other work, notably his later book '*Towards a Psychology of Being'* of 1968 (a significant and relevant commentary which was revised in recent times by Richard Lowry, who is a leading academic in the field of Motivational Psychology).

Abraham Maslow's (1970) need-based theory of motivation is the most widely recognized theory of job satisfaction and perhaps the most referenced of the content theories. According to Maslow (1943:372; 383; 1989:374-382), within every person there exists a hierarchy of five levels of needs (Maslow, 1954:35-47). Hanson (2003:194) writing on this theory assumes that a person has five fundamental needs (physiological, security, affiliation, esteem and self-actualization) that must be satisfied before a person can act unselfishly. Like Maslow (1968:153), Van der Westhuizen (1991:196-197) identified these five levels of needs as the physiological needs (at the lowest level), the need for security, the social need, the need for esteem and the need for self-actualization (the highest level). In Maslow's (Maslow, 1954:35-47) conceptual understanding, these are called 'deficiency needs' as illustrated in Figure 3.1 below, and the 'gratification of one basic need opens consciousness to domination by another'. Steyn (2002:90) says that the principle behind the hierarchy is that needs at each level (see figure 3.4) have to be satisfied to some extent before needs on the next higher level can be satisfied.

Figure 3.1:   Maslow's hierarchy of needs
Source: Griffin (2008:438)

Maslow's hierarchy of needs range from lower order to higher order needs (Maslow, 1954:35-47). The physiological needs are obvious; they are the literal requirements for human survival such as food, clothing, shelter or physical relaxation or rest (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:196). They are the very basic needs which include the need for air, water and food (metabolic requirements for survival); shelter and clothing (provide environment protection), salary, good and comfortable work conditions (Cole, 1996:33, Steyn, 1996:6). Without these needs being satisfied, workers are unlikely to be productive in their work. It is important to note that when the physiological needs have been satisfied, needs found on the higher level of the hierarchy

immediately come into play. Undisturbed rest will need security (at the second level). This is supported by accepting others as colleague (at the third level) which in turn gives self-confidence (at the fourth level) followed by self-actualization (at the fifth level) of the individual hierarchy of needs. When these are not satisfied, people may feel sickness, irritation, pain, discomfort and these feelings motivate people to alleviate them as soon as possible to establish homeostasis.

For proper existence, a safe and secure physical environment which is free from threats is essential for human beings (Xaba, 1996:12). Thus, the security needs have to do with establishing stability and consistency in a chaotic society. Such security needs include the need for safety, fair treatment, protection against threats, and job security (Cole, 1996:33; Steyn, 1996:6; Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1993:155; Kusereka, 2009:36). These individuals' security needs take precedence and dominate behavior once the physical needs are relatively satisfied. According to Maslow (1989:374), safety needs especially for employees can be perceived in such instances where there is common preference for a job with tenure and protection, where there is desire for savings, insurance, medical, dental, unemployment fund, disability pension fund and freedom to unionize. Owens (1981:112) also contends that important to educators as civil servants, is job security which provides life tenure and a guaranteed pension. These factors motivate and to some extent lead to job satisfaction in their profession.

Affiliation needs are social needs which include the need of being loved, accepted as part of a group, and friendship (Lunenberg & Ornstein, 1991:90). Maslow (1989:376) proposed that since the affiliation needs include love and affection, these do not exclude giving and receiving love. Human beings have a desire to belong to groups: clubs, work groups, professional organizations, sports teams, religious groups, gangs, or social connections (family members, intimate partners, mentors, close colleagues, confidants). People need to feel loved (sexually and non-sexually) by others, to be accepted by others and to be needed by others (Cole, 1996:33, Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1993:155). In the words of Owens (1981:112) and Lunenberg and Ornstein (1991:90) these needs apparently include affection, interaction and approval by others or significant others such as the senior staff like principals. In the absence of these elements, many people become susceptible to loneliness, social anxiety, and clinical depression which will impact on their work life as well as their job satisfaction disposition.

Maslow (1989:378) finds the need for esteem as the desire for a stable, firmly based high evaluation of oneself, especially for self-respect or self-esteem, and the esteem of colleagues. According to Van der Westhuizen (1991:196), self-esteem relates not only to pride, power and achievement, but also to prestige, career status including self-confidence or autonomy. Lunenberg and Ornstein (1991:90) also propose that organizations may satisfy these needs by instituting recognition and reward programs, publishing articles in newsletters and newspapers, giving promotions and bestowing prestigious titles. Therefore, esteem needs include the need for recognition, respect, achievement, autonomy, and independence. These esteem needs are on two types (Maslow, 1943:381-382). First are self-esteem needs which result from competence or mastery of a task. Second, there is the attention and recognition that comes from others. This is similar to the belongingness level, but desire for admiration has more to do with the need for power. Usually, people who have all of their lower needs satisfied often possess very expensive properties or drive expensive cars because doing so raises their level of esteem.

Finally, self-actualization needs which concerns the need to become what one is capable and includes needs relating to personal growth and development to achieve one's potential and self-fulfillment (Swanepoel, et. al. 1998:345). This is the highest in the level of Maslow's needs theory (Maslow, 1989:380) and includes realizing one's full potential or self-development *(the pinnacle of one's calling)*. This need for self-actualization is the desire to become more and more what one is, to become everything that one is capable of becoming. People who have everything can maximize their potential. They can seek knowledge, peace, esthetic experiences, self-fulfillment, and oneness with God. Griffin (2008:439) suggests that managers can help foster an environment where attaining self-actualization is possible for instance empower employees to make decisions about work and providing opportunities for self-development. Xaba (1996:13) also contends that organizations may satisfy this level of need by involving employees in decision-making. Participation in decision-making is important for employees in planning job designs as well as doing assignments that call for unique skills and relaxing structures to nurture personal growth and development per se (Lunenberg & Ornstein, 1991:91; Theunissen & Calitz, 1994:100-116).

Using the categories in Maslow's hierarchy of needs depicted in Figure 3.4, once a need is satisfied it is no longer a need, and the person will look forward to the next need in the next level up the hierarchy (1989:381-382; Owens, 1995:111-112; Stoner, et. al., 1999:100; Brevis, et. al. 1999:308-310; Bush & West-Burnham, 1994:231). Thus, needs have the greatest influence over employees' actions and job satisfaction. As such every human being has a potential need, but that need vary among individuals.

Critics of Maslow's theory argue that not all people have the same five levels of needs and actually needs are more unstable and variable than what Maslow believed them to be (Van Fleet, Griffin & Moorhead, 1991:61). Other points of criticism against Maslow's theory include the following: There is little research evidence to support the theory. The five needs have not been verified empirically; the theory has been inadequately substantiated; Maslow's theory is too rigid and systematic movement up the hierarchy does not seem to be a consistent form of behavior for many people; the conceptual nature of the theory defies testing and its logic is casual, and constructs such as self-actualization are not adequately defined (Bush & West Burnham, 1994:231; Cole, 1996:34; Hofmeyr, 1992:15-16).

Despite criticism, Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory continues to exert a significant influence on current thinking about motivation and job satisfaction. Certainly some of its basic ideas have some valid managerial implications (Owens, 1981:114; Stoner, 1978:417-418): Managers should always identify the most important needs of their workers and link satisfaction of these needs to desired performance. For example, if a worker's need for recognition (esteem needs) has been identified, opportunities offering such gratification should be made available and contingent on performance. Awards such as floating trophies, celebrations and certification of excellence can be given to deserving workers and are especially noted for satisfying workers' needs in effective and sometimes spectacular ways; Managers should be aware that people's needs are likely to change from time to time and from situation to situation. Thus, in Maslow's terms, people can be at different levels of the hierarchy at different times; Failure to provide work related opportunities for needs-satisfaction can be a big setback that leads to workers' frustration and less job satisfaction. Workers should be given opportunities "to achieve feelings of professional self-worth, competence and respect, to be seen increasingly as people of achievement,

professionals who are influential in their workplaces, growing persons with opportunities ahead to develop even greater competence and a sense of accomplishment" (Owens, 1995:53); and transformational management strategies promote higher order needs, such as achievement and collaborative decision-making (Ingram, 1997:424).

Maslow's theory provides a useful framework for understanding the variety of needs that educators may experience at work. An awareness of the concept of needs is important for understanding the behavior of people in the work situation (Drafke & Kossen, 1998:273). A greater understanding of needs of staff members will also facilitate attempts of managers (principals) to motivate them hence raise their job satisfaction levels (Reeve, 1996:2). The value of the theory lies primarily in its capacity to sensitize school principals to specific factors and processes that can have an important bearing on job satisfaction in the workplace. The main strength of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Theory to school management is the identification of individual needs for the purpose of motivating behavior. By appealing to an employee's (educator's) unfulfilled needs, managers (principals) may influence behavior and job satisfaction (Wiley, 1995:265). For these above and many other reasons, Maslow's hierarchy of needs is supported by Herzberg's two-factor theory.

3.3.1.2   HERZBERG'S TWO-FACTOR THEORY

The two-factor theory (motivation-hygiene theory) is an extrapolation by Herzberg (1966) which states that all variables that make people feel either good or bad about their job can be divided into two distinguishable sets of work factors, that is, motivators (satisfiers) and hygiene factors (dissatisfies) (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1956:87-90; 1959:113; Syptak, Marsland & Ulmer, 1999:2). Also see Figure 3.5. Motivators include those factors that lead to job satisfaction and these are intrinsic factors such as achievement, recognition, the work itself, responsibility, professional growth and advancement. Hygiene factors include extrinsic factors such as status, security, organizational policy, administration, remuneration, supervision, interpersonal relations (with senior staff, management, peers and subordinates) and working conditions (Syptak, et. al. 1999:2-5; Durbin, 1998:78; Kaya, 1995:2).

Fredrick Herzberg (1923-2000) was a clinical psychologist and pioneer of 'job enrichment' and was regarded as one of the great original thinkers in management and motivational theory.

Frederick Herzberg was born in Massachusetts in 1923 and died in 2000. Herzberg's book '*The Motivation to Work*', written with research colleagues Bernard Mainer and Barbara Bloch Snyderman in 1959, first established his theories about motivation in the workplace (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959:113-119). He further expanded his work on 'motivation theories' in his subsequent books: '*Work and the Nature of Man'* (1966); '*The Managerial Choice'* (1982); and '*Herzberg on Motivation'* (1983). According to the Institute for Scientific Information (1984), Herzberg's theory of motivation has produced more replications than any other research in the history of industrial and organizational psychology; and is very relevant to modern understanding of employer/employee relationships, mutual understanding and alignment within the 'Psychological Contract'. Herzberg worked most of his life at the University of Utah where he held the position of Professor of Management in the College of Business.

Herzberg was an influential management consultant of the modern postwar era who conceived '*Herzberg's Hygiene and Motivational Factors'* commonly known as; *Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory'* of 1966. He was probably best known for his critical thinking on work and motivation. One of his publications which is widely read is '*Work and the Nature of Man' of* 1966. The two-factor theory of Herzberg (1966) takes interest in how best to satisfy workers at work. The envisaged two-factors are motivators (motivating) and hygienic (maintenance) factors. These motivators (satisfiers) include: recognition, achievement, advancement, growth, responsibility and job challenge; whilst hygiene (maintenance) factors include: working conditions, policies and administrative practices, salary and benefits, status, job security, co-workers and personal life.

Herzberg carried out several studies to explore the aspects that lead to workers being satisfied with their jobs. These studies led him to conclude that those factors that lead to job satisfaction are not identical to the factors that lead to job dissatisfaction (Herzberg, et. al. 1959:113-114). Therefore, he regarded job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction as independent variables. He referred to those environmental factors that cause workers to be dissatisfied as hygienic factors, such as work environment, type of supervision, salary and fringe benefits, job security, attitudes and policies of administration and status. The presence of these factors, according to Schultz, Bargraim, Potgieter, Viedge and Werner (2003:60) and Griffin (2008:440), does not cause

satisfaction and consequently fail to increase performance of workers in their jobs. He further identified motivating factors as those that make workers work harder. He found these ones to be associated with job content or what people actually do in their work and classified them as follows: achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement. Achievement is represented by the drive to excel, accomplishment of challenging tasks and attainment of a certain level of excellence. The individual's need for advancement, growth, increased responsibility and work itself are said to be motivating factors as summarized in Figure 3.2 (Owens, 1981:112, Griffin, 2008:440).

Increased effort and effectiveness, possibly accelerating as the motivation-	'A fair day's work' with little prospect for either increase or decrease until motivation-	Constricted effort and effectiveness, possibly declining as the conditions' dissatisfaction
Satisfaction	Neutral	Dissatisfaction
Motivators (Satisfiers) Feeling of achievement, Opportunities for growth and advancement, The work itself (meaningful and challenging),		Hygiene (Dissatisfiers) Factors Work environment (e.g. organizational climate and physical conditions). Working conditions, Type of supervision,

Figure 3.2:   A model of Herzberg's motivation-maintenance theory.

Source: Owens (1981:122)

According to Herzberg (1966), the key to understanding his theory is to recognize that, he believed that satisfaction is not the opposite of dissatisfaction. He concluded that the opposite of job satisfaction is not job dissatisfaction. According to Figure 3.2, motivators produce real motivation which leads to job satisfaction (Drafke & Kossen, 1998:282). Although, according to Figure 3.2, hygiene factors are not motivating, they are a prerequisite for motivation which leads to job satisfaction (Owens, 1995:56; Eimers, 1997:126). Kaufman (1982) in Low and Marican (1993:12) distinguished between educators as both motivation seekers and hygiene seekers and

found that motivation seekers are associated with high job satisfaction and they showed greater commitment to teaching than hygiene seekers.

Herzberg's theory, as depicted in Figure 3.5, suggests that it is not possible to motivate people at work through hygiene (maintenance) factors alone (Herzberg, et. al. 1959:113-114; Griffin, 2008:440). According to Owens (1981:121; 1995:56), reducing class size for educators, developing a more amiable atmosphere and improving the fringe benefits may well do two things: (i) reduce or eliminate the dissatisfaction of educators, and (ii) create conditions wherein they may be motivated. But these kinds of efforts in themselves are not motivating. It does not follow, however, that the maintenance factors are unimportant: there are minimum levels that must be maintained if we are to avoid so much dissatisfaction that motivators will not have to their expected effect. For example, failure to keep the working environment at a level educators think is reasonable or threats to recognition can generate such dissatisfaction that educators cannot respond to opportunities for professional growth, achievement, or recognition. Thus, although maintenance factors are not (in themselves) motivating (or do not lead to job satisfaction), they are prerequisite to motivation.

Herzberg's theory is based on the same foundation as the other needs theories, namely the assumption that individuals are born with certain needs that must be satisfied. However, it differs from Maslow's (1970) five factor theory in that it proposes that all individuals have two basic sets of needs, that is, hygienic needs and motivator needs.

According to Hanson (2003:197), hygienic needs are maintenance needs and may resemble those elements that provide a healthy environment. In the work environment they include salary, security, good management, general working conditions and institutional policies (rules and regulations). These are extrinsic to the job itself. Motivator needs are higher order growth needs, unique to humans and distinguishable from anything else. They seem to be related to some innate characteristics of individuals that require them to seek challenge, stimulation, and autonomy and are satisfied by things like responsibility at work, independence and recognition. These needs are satisfied by things that are part of the work itself (intrinsic), rather than the context in which the work gets done. Landy (1989:378) contends that as a result of Herzberg's theory, variables are

more clearly understood, the operations involved in measuring important variables are more reasonable, and people are thinking more of an explanation of job satisfaction than before.

Nonetheless, commitment to teaching and workplace have been found to be enhanced by psychic rewards (acknowledgement of teaching competence), meaningful and varied work, task autonomy and participatory decision-making, positive feedback, collaboration, administrative support, reasonable workload, adequate resources and pay, and learning opportunities that provide challenge and accomplishment (Hanson, 2003:198; Herzberg, et. al. 1959:113-117; Steyn, 1996:39). These extrinsic factors evolve from the working environment while the actual satisfiers are intrinsic and they encourage a greater effectiveness in educators (Cole, 1996:34-36; Owens, 1995:55; Steyn, 1996:8; Van der Westhuizen, 1991:199-200). Ukeje, Okorie and Nwagbara (1999:269) hold the opinion that however highly motivated to perform an educator may be, he/she needs to possess the necessary ability to attain the expected level of performance. Nevertheless, it is hoped that if school principals can understand educators' job satisfaction needs, they can design a reward system both to satisfy educators and meet the educational goals in their schools.

The two-factor theory has generated a great deal of criticism from researchers. The following are the principal criticisms that are often mentioned in existing literature: The theory is rigid and too simplistic to address the complex issue of job satisfaction of workers. It portrays an oversimplified version of reality (Hofmeyr, 1992:23; Sergiovanni & Starrat, 1993:76). The theory is method-bound. The results are supportive of the theory only when the full Herzberg interview techniques and analysis are used (Bush & West-Burnham, 1994:232).

Although there are some criticisms about the present status of Herzberg's two-factor theory, certain implications of the theory merit consideration from a management perspective. The theory suggests that an individual can be both very satisfied and very dissatisfied at the same time. An educator, for example, may love his/her job but be very unhappy with the salary at the end of the month. Principals often wonder why the educators in their schools seem unsatisfied. The traditional response of principals to job satisfaction problems has been to alter school rules and regulations. However, they achieved little results in this manner. Improved hygienic factors

may not strike the root cause of job dissatisfaction among the staff. The theory suggests that job satisfaction can be realized by designing job workloads to provide opportunities for achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement and personal growth to fellow educators in a school. In this regard, Herzberg's two-factor theory is direct, simple and persuasive in teaching.

In the late 1950s Herzberg interviewed a group of workers in order to determine exactly what it was that led to satisfaction and dissatisfaction in their jobs respectively. He posed two essential questions: (i) When did they feel especially good about their jobs and why? , and (ii) When did they feel especially bad about their jobs and why? On the basis of these interviews, Herzberg later developed the theory that there are two dimensions to job satisfaction, namely motivational factors which can lead to job satisfaction, and hygienic (maintenance) factors. These factors must be sufficiently present in order for the motivational factors to come into play. They can block motivation, not yielding any level of job satisfaction, when they are not sufficiently present. According to Herzberg (1966), hygiene issues do not motivate workers but can minimize levels of job dissatisfaction, if handled properly. In other words, they can only lead to dissatisfaction if they are absent or mishandled. Hygienic factors that are applicable to schools may be school rules and regulations, supervision, interpersonal relations and working conditions related to the worker's environment. Motivational factors, on the other hand, may create satisfaction by fulfilling individual needs for meaning and personal growth.

In conclusion, while there is no one right way to manage people, all of whom have different needs backgrounds and expectations, Herzberg's theory (1966) well applied offers a real starting point for enhancing educators' job satisfaction. By creating an environment that promotes job satisfaction, one will be developing educators who are motivated, productive and fulfilled. This, in turn, will contribute significantly to higher quality job satisfaction. According to Herzberg et. al. (1959:131 – 132), managers should avoid placing strong emphasis on fulfilling hygiene needs as this will result in employees relying too heavily on extrinsic rewards and may pose impediments to the long term success of the organization. Instead, managers should focus on designing more intrinsically challenging task, provide recognition and empowering employees when certain level of ability is demonstrated which are the true motivators, when fulfilled, contribute to long-term positive effect on employees' job satisfaction. In another study, Van der

Westhuizen (1991:200) argues that removing dissatisfiers (hygiene factors) from a job is not a recipe for job satisfaction. Conversely, for motivational factors to operate as motivators, the hygiene factors must be evident. In fact, while hygiene factors are necessary they are insufficient prerequisites for a motivated employee (DuBrin, 1998:201). Kreitner and Kinicki (1995:154) recommend that once minimal hygiene factors have been provided to the members of the organization, job enrichment should serve as a strategy for providing motivation to the workers. Job enrichment of educators, for example, should be concerned with making staff members' formal roles (e.g., chairing a staff meeting) more interesting, meaningful, fulfilling and challenging.

According to Herzberg (1987:29-32), the relevance of the theory to this study is that the manager's job is to provide opportunities for people to be motivated to achieve since satisfying job opportunities come from the intrinsic elements of the job such as achievement, recognition and the work itself. Herzberg' two-factor (motivation-maintenance) theory which parallels Maslow's theory remains a powerful explanation of educator motivation in schools and has far reaching implications in educators' job satisfaction. Owens (1995:56) concludes by saying that education managers (school principals) should be concerned with ensuring that both the causes of dissatisfaction are removed and that opportunities for satisfaction are increased.

3.3.1.3   ALDERFER'S EXISTENCE, RELATEDNESS, GROWTH (ERG) THEORY

Clayton Paul Alderfer (born September 1, 1940 in Pennsylvania and worked at Yale University) is an American psychologist who further expanded or modified Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs by categorizing the hierarchy into his ERG theory (Existence, Relatedness and Growth). Alderfer (1972) proposed a modified version of Maslow's (1970) hierarchy of needs theory and reorganized Maslow's five hierarchical levels into three. His publications '*Existence, Relatedness and Growth: Human Needs in Organizational Settings*' published in 1972 and his other article '*An Empirical Test of a New Theory of Human Needs: Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*' of 1969 introduced his ERG theory.

Alderfer's paradigm termed the (ERG) theory suggested the following categorization of basic needs: (i) the lower order needs (Physiological and Safety) into the Existence category. These

Existence needs are concerned with the physical existence (survival) of an organism. They are material needs and are satisfied by environmental factors. They include basics such as the need for food, clothing, and shelter, and the means provided by work organizations to attain these factors such as salary, fringe benefits, safe working conditions and job security. (ii) Maslow's interpersonal love and esteem needs were fitted into the Relatedness category. These Relatedness needs deal with social interaction and the external facets of esteem (recognition and status from others) and have a bearing on how people relate to their surrounding, social environment and deal with maintaining interpersonal relatedness with significant others, both on and off the job. (iii) The Growth category focus on the desire to achieve and develop a person's potential and internal facets of ego-fulfillment (success and autonomy) and contain Maslow's self-actualization and esteem needs (Wiley, 1995:265). These needs are thought to be of the highest order and include the needs for personal development and improvement. They are met by developing those abilities and capabilities that appear important to the individual. They comprise all the needs that have a creative or productive effect on the individual and the environment when they are fulfilled, like an individual whose existence needs (physiological and safety needs) are not met will not escalate to fulfill the next layer, that is, relatedness needs (social needs); instead will motivate oneself to persevere until the currently recognized need is satisfied (McShane & Glinow, 2000:67).

According to Hanson (2003:194), ERG needs are less fixed to a hierarchical arrangement and to some extent all three of the levels can be activated simultaneously. For example, a lowly paid educator who is worried about making the monthly house payment, or even not having enough money to buy food at the end of the month, can still maintain a high interest in ties of friendship with other educators as well as pursuing new knowledge for intellectual stimulation. However, Alderfer also recognized a frustration-regression process, that is, if a higher level need is thwarted, the individual will seek greater satisfaction at a lower level. For example, if intellectual growth needs are for some reason denied to an educator, that individual will seek to expand upon the satisfaction found in social relationships.

Alderfer also proposed a regression theory to go along with the ERG theory. He said that when needs in a higher category are not met then individuals redouble the efforts invested in a lower

category need (see Figure 3.3 p111). For example if self-actualization or self-esteem is not met then individuals will invest more effort in the relatedness category in the hope of achieving the higher need.

Alderfer offered a key modification of Maslow's hierarchy of needs that allows for movement between levels of needs. He developed what he termed satisfaction – progression principle and frustration – regression principle (see Figure 3.3). According Alderfer (1989) cited in Rosenfield, Culberston and Magnusson (1992:13): (i) the satisfaction – progression principle shows that unsatisfied needs are the most important because the next higher level does not become active until the level below it is satisfied. If a person who is able to satisfy relatedness need might progress to the existence need with a desire to satisfy it as well until he/she reaches growth need level; (ii) the frustration – regression principle shows that if a higher level need is not satisfied, needs that are lower may increase in strength. If a person who is unable to satisfy relatedness need might regress to the existence level where he/she might have successfully satisfied the need.

Clayton Alderfer's ERG Theory

Existence Needs → Relatedness Needs → Growth Needs

Satisfaction → Progression
Frustration ← Regression
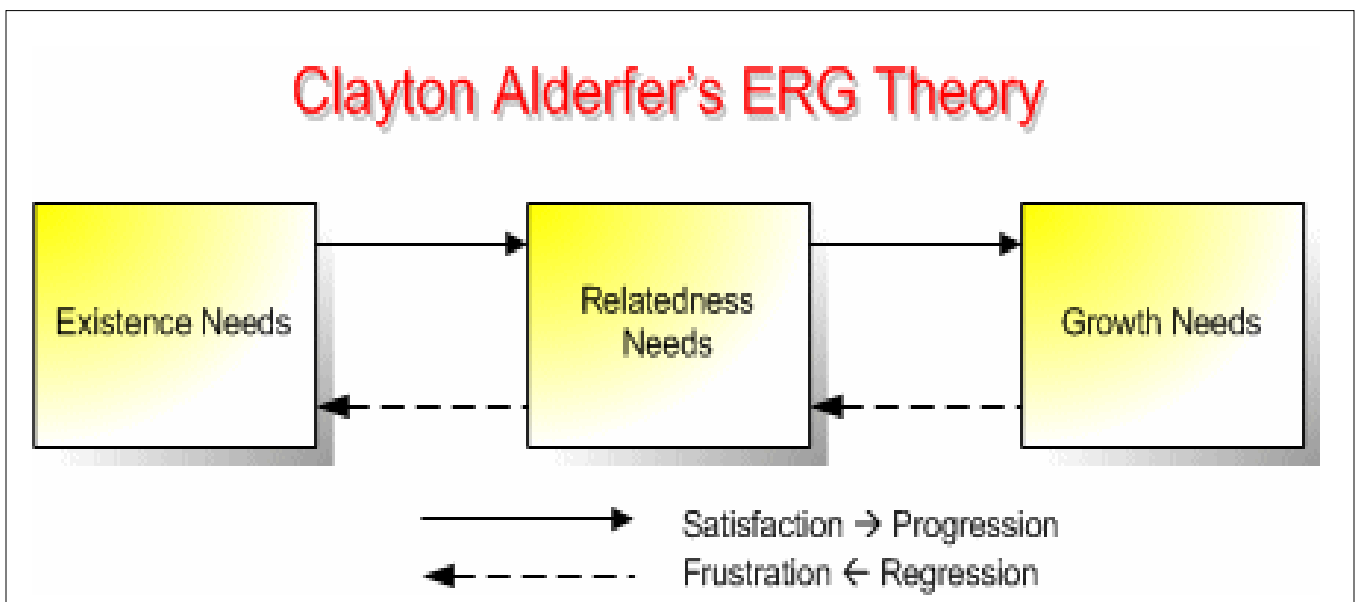
Figure 3.3:   Alderfer's ERG Theory

Source: McShane and Glinow (2000:68)

Unlike Maslow, Alderfer contends that an individual may be motivated by two or three need categories at the same time where one need appears more dominant than the other. McShane and

Glinow (2000:68) confirm that the above situation is what they would call the 'frustration-regression' where an individual who is unable to satisfy the growth need will regress to relatedness need which continues to be a strong motivator.

3.3.1.4 MCCLELLAND'S THEORY OF NEEDS

McClelland Clarence David (1917 – 1998) was an American social psychologist who is well-known for his work in the field of 'motivation' and especially his theory of people's 'need for achievement' conceived in 1967 in USA. His theory became one on the list of content theories related to job satisfaction and became popularly known as the 'Three-need' theory of McClelland (1967) or McClelland's Socially Acquired Needs Theory (Wiley, 1995:265).

David Clarence McClelland was born in Mt. Vernon (New York) in 1917 and died in 1998. He worked most of his time at Harvard University. He published a series of influential books on motivation, including: '*Studies in Motivation'* (1955), '*The Achieving Society'* (1961), '*The Roots of Consciousness'* (1964), '*Power: The Inner Experience'* (1975) and '*Human Motivation'* (1988). In his writings, McClelland provided an alternative to the standard personality and intelligence assessments used for the evaluation and promotion, helping companies to hire more effectively and helping individuals to find a career and level of responsibility that best suits them and through which they can best contribute to the larger society.

In McClelland's book, '*The Achieving Society'* (1961:158), he asserts that human motivation comprises three dominant needs: The need for achievement (N-Ach), the need for power (N-Pow) and the need for affiliation (N-Affil) (Moore, 2010:25, Lussier and Achua, 2007:42). This theory is sometimes referred to as the 'Achievement' theory and is based on the assumption that achievement-oriented people share three major needs which are not innate, but acquired through learning and experience. Daft (2008:233) asserts that McClelland's needs (Achievement, power and affiliation) are acquired during an individual's lifetime. According to Brevis, et. al. (1999:314) and Moore (2010:25), McClelland's theory postulated that people are motivated in varying degrees by their need for Achievement, need for Power, and need for Affiliation and that these needs are acquired or learned an individual's lifetime. According to Wiley (1995:265), McClelland's Socially Acquired Theory proposes that people are influenced by a need for

achievement, power, or affiliation and that the strength of that particular need will vary according to the situation. The theory emphasize that a person's motivation and effectiveness in certain job functions are influenced by these three needs. Thus, the importance of a particular need depends upon the position of that individual in society and family.

(a) Need for Achievement (n-Ach)

McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell (1958:181) define the need for Achievement (n-Achievement) as success of an individual's concern over competition with a standard of excellence which enables one to identify the goal sought as an achievement goal. In their words (McClelland, et. al. 1958:180-182) as well as Lussier and Achua (2007:42) went on to describe that competition with some standard of excellence was most notable when an individual was in direct competition with someone else although it can also be evident in the concern for how well one individual performs a task, regardless of how someone else is doing. In other words, the need for achievement (n-Ach) is the extent to which an individual desires to perform difficult and challenging tasks successfully. It is characterized by the wish to take responsibility for finding solutions to problems, master complex tasks, set goals, and get feedback on level of success. People with a high need for achievement: desire success and positive feedback that is related to their performance on tasks; seek to excel and thus tend to avoid both low-risk and high-risk situations; and like to work alone or with other high achievers.

(b) Need for Affiliation (n-Affil)

McClelland (1961:160) defines the need for affiliation by stating, "affiliation as a need for establishing, maintaining, or restoring a positive affective relationship with another person. The relationship is most adequately described by the word friendship". Therefore, the need for affiliation is the unconscious concern for developing, maintaining, and restoring close personal relationships (Lussier & Achua, 2007:43). Also, Daft (2008:233) defined the need for affiliation as the desire to form close personal relationships, avoid conflict, and establish warm friendships. It is characterized by a desire to belong, an enjoyment of teamwork, a concern about interpersonal relationships and a need to reduce uncertainty. Thus, people who exhibit the need for affiliation seek interaction with other people. Therefore, the need for affiliation (n-Affil) may be best described as the desire for harmonious relationship with other people. People with high

need for affiliation: want to be liked and feel accepted by other people; tend to conform to the norms of their work group; prefer cooperation over competition; and enjoy being part of a group. High affiliated need individuals prefer work that provides significant personal interaction, and depends on successful relationship with others such as customer service. They are concerned with whether people like them more than whether they are doing a good job. McClelland (1961:160) regarded a strong need for affiliation as paramount in the objectivity and decision-making ability needed in management.

    (c)   Need for Power (n-Pow)

McClelland (1961:167) defines the need for Power as a concern with the control of the means of influencing a person. It is characterized by a drive to control and influence others, a need to persuade and prevail. Lussier and Achua (2007:42) described it as the unconscious concern for influencing others and seeking positions of authority. Similarly, Daft (2008:233) expressed it as the desire to influence or control others, be responsible for others and have authority over others. Generally, the need for power (n-Pow) is a desire for authority, to be in charge. This desire usually takes two forms: those who desire personal power want to direct others and this need often is perceived as undesirable; and those who desire institutional power (also known as social power) to organize the efforts of others to further larger goals such as those of the organization.

According to McClelland, the presence of these motives or drives in an individual indicates a disposition to behave in certain ways. Therefore, from management perspectives, recognizing which need is dominant in any particular individual affects the way in which that person can be motivated in order to enhance his/her job satisfaction level. The individuals who are directed through recognition of McClelland's need theory are more likely to respond positively when they are being directed toward the larger goal (Wiley, 1995:265).

McClelland (1961:158-167) notes that people generally have all three needs; one, however, tends to be dominant. This dominance will depend both on their internal make-up, their personality, and also is learned through experience. It is assumed that adults possess all the three needs to one degree or another, however, one of the needs is usually dominant. Managers need to identify

what motivates subordinates and to create appropriate motivating conditions for them in order to enhance their job satisfaction. People with achievement needs are motivated by standards of excellence, delineated roles and responsibilities and concrete, timely feedback. Those with affiliation needs are motivated when they can accomplish things with people they know and trust. Those with power needs are motivated when they are allowed to have an impact, impress those in power, or beat competitors.

3.3.2 PROCESS THEORIES

In contrast to the content theories that focused on the identification of human needs, the objective in process theories is to answer the question: What is in it for me? The latter theories focus on how job satisfaction can be achieved or attained. The emphasis is on the process of individual goal setting and the evaluation of satisfaction after the goal has been achieved or attained. The three process theories that have generated most interest among scholars interested in the phenomenon of job satisfaction are Vroom's expectancy theory (1964, 1966), Adams' equity theory (1963, 1965) and Skinner's reinforcement theory (1939, 1971). What all process theories have in common is the emphasis on cognitive processes in determining workers' levels of need satisfaction.

3.3.2.1 VROOM'S EXPECTANCY THEORY

The expectancy theory by Vroom is one of the process theories which provide an explanation of why individuals choose one behavior option over others (Vroom, 1964:14-15; Tarrant, 1991:36). The basic idea behind the theory is that people will be motivated because they believe that their decision will lead to their desired outcome (Redmond, 2009). The theory is important in that it explains how educators (like all other workers) perceive their performance in a school situation.

In 1964, Victor H. Vroom developed the 'Expectancy theory' through his study of the motivations behind decision-making. His theory is relevant to the study of management. Vroom is an authority and international expert on the psychological analysis of behavior in organizations, particularly on leadership and decision-making. Vroom is a native of Canada, born in Montreal in 1932 and is a business school professor at the Yale University School of Management. He is an author of nine books and over fifty articles. His 1964 book, '*Work and*

Motivation', is regarded as a landmark in that field and continues to be widely cited by scholars as breakthroughs in the study of organizational behavior. Other publications include: '*Motivation in Management'* which he co-authored with Edward Deci in 1971 (revised in 1992); '*Leadership and Decision-Making'* co-authored with Phillip Yetton in 1973; the '*New Leadership: Managing Participation in Organization'* co-authored with Arthur G. Jago in 1988.

Vroom's Expectancy Theory proposes that a person will decide to behave or act in a certain way because they are motivated to select a specific behavior over other behaviors due to what they expect the result of that selected behavior will be. According to Lewis, Goodman and Fandt (1995:502), the expectancy theory of Victor Vroom is the most comprehensive theory on job satisfaction that seeks to predict or explain task-related effort. It holds that people are motivated to behave in ways that produce desired combinations of expected outcomes (Van Fleet, Griffin & Moorhead, 1991:66-67). Swanepoel et. al. (1998:361) maintain that the expectancy theory holds that the tendency for workers to act in a certain way depends on the strengths of the expectation that the act will be followed by a given outcome and on the degree to which the person desires that outcome. This theory is based on two fundamental assumptions that: human beings behave according to the perception that certain types of behavior will lead to certain outcomes, and how much they value the outcome of such types of behavior (Brevis, et. al. 1999:318; Lawler & Porter, 1976:207-216).

Vroom (1964:14-15) defines motivation as a process governing choices among alternative forms of voluntary activities, and as a process controlled by the individual. The individual makes choices based on estimates of how well the expected results of a given behavior are going to match up with or eventually lead to the desired results. Motivation is a product of the individual's expectancy that a certain effort will lead to the intended performance, the instrumentality of this performance to achieving a certain result, and the desirability of this result for the individual, known as valence. Thus, Vroom's expectancy theory is based on the view that motivation is determined by three guiding principles: (i) Expectancy (E), (ii) Instrumentality (I), and (iii) Valence (V). These three principles are important behind choosing one element over another. They are usually defined as: effort-performance expectancy (E>Expectancy),

performance-outcome expectancy (P>O expectancy) respectively (Cole, 1996:41-42; Ghazanfar, Chuanmin, Khan & Bashir, 2011:124).

(a) Expectancy: Effort ➔ Performance (E ➔ P)

Expectancy refers to the linkage between effort and performance. It is the belief that a person will receive a reward if the performance expectation is met. Thus, it represents the strength of one's belief that such-and-such effort will result in such-and such performance outcome. It is the belief that one's effort (E) will result in attainment of a desired performance (P) goals, usually based on an individual's past experience, self-confidence (self-efficacy), and the perceived difficulty of the performance standard or goal. Factors associated with the individual's Expectancy perception are self efficacy, goal difficulty, and control. Self-efficacy is the person's belief about their ability to successfully perform a particular behavior. Goal difficulty happens when goals are set too high or performance expectations that are made too difficult are most likely to lead to low expectancy perception. Control is one's perceived control over performance. In order for expectancy to be high, individuals must believe that they have some degree of control over the expected outcome. For E- P to be positive, the employee must possess the appropriate skills, education, experience and necessary training to perform (Cole, 1996:41-42).

(b) Instrumentality: Performance ➔ Outcome (P ➔ O)

Instrumentality refers to linkage between performance and reward; that is, the strength of one's belief that certain kind and level of performance will lead to a particular reward. This reward may come in the form of pay increase, promotion, recognition or sense of accomplishment. Instrumentality is low when the reward is given for all performances given. Factors associated with the individual's instrumentality for outcomes are trust, control and policies. If individuals trust their superiors, they are more likely to believe their leaders promises. When there is a lack of trust on leadership, people often attempt to control the reward system. When individuals believe they have some kind of control over how, when, and why rewards are distributed, Instrumentality tends to increase. Formalized written policies impact the individuals' instrumentality perceptions. Instrumentality is increased when formalized policies associates

rewards to performance. The P - O expectancy will be positive if the employee believes good performance will result in a promotion or pay rise (Cole, 1996:41-42).

(c) Valence: V(R)

Valence: refers to the attractiveness or utility of the reward to the individual and the value the individual places on the rewards based on their needs, goals, values and sources of motivation. Factors associated with the individual's valence for outcomes are values, needs, goals, preferences and Sources of Motivation Strength of an individual's preference for a particular outcome.

The valence refers the value the individual personally places on the rewards.

-1 →0→ +1-1= avoiding the outcome 0= indifferent to the outcome +1=welcomes the outcome

In order for the valence to be positive, the employee must prefer attaining the outcome to not attaining it or the manager must determine the kinds of available rewards the employee values the most.

These three factors interact together to create a motivational force for an employee to work towards pleasure and avoid pain. The formula for this force is: Valence of outcome x Expectancy act will result in outcome (Instrumentality) = Motivation force. This Vroom's Valence – Expectancy – Instrumentality model of job motivation and job satisfaction is illustrated in figure 3.4 below.
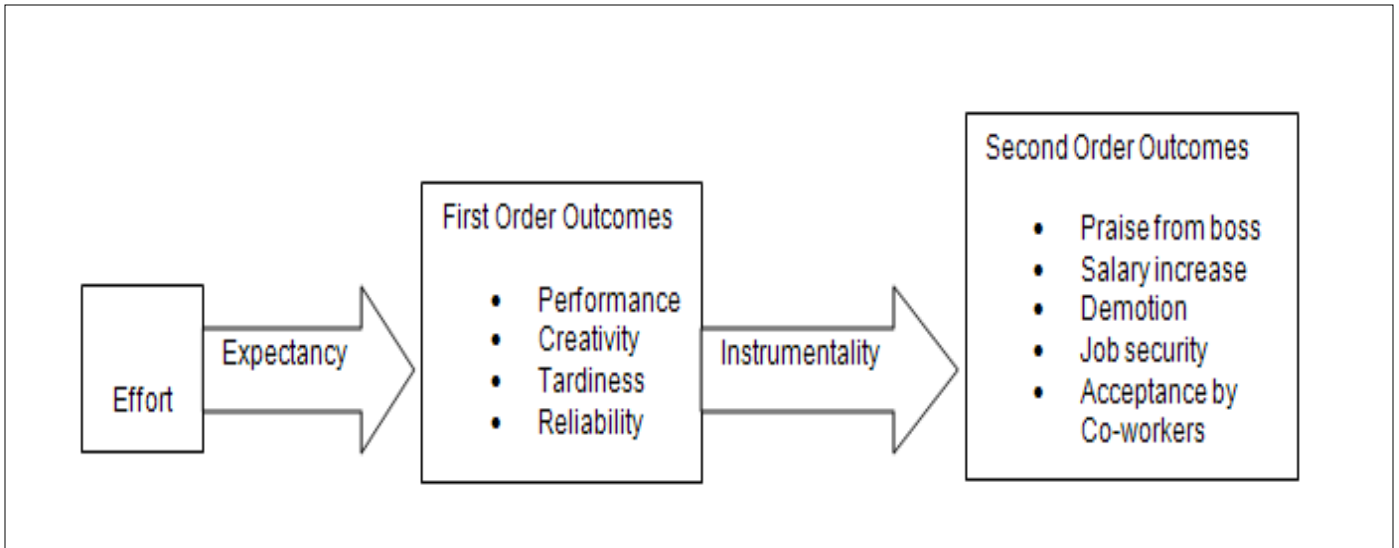
Figure 3.4:   Vroom's Valence-Instrumentality-Expectancy Model of Job Motivation and Job Satisfaction

Source: Beck (1983:382)

First Order Outcome is the behavior that results directly from the effort an employee expends on the job. Second Order Outcome is anything good or bad that results from a first-order outcome. This phenomenon is demonstrated in figure 3.5 below.
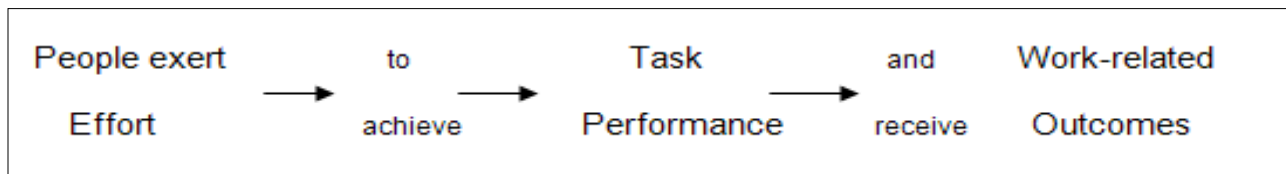
Figure 3.5:   Determinants of individual performance, satisfaction and motivation
                        Source: Walker (1980:181).

According to Holdford and Lovelace-Elmore (2001: 8), Vroom asserts, "Intensity of work effort depends on the perception that an individual's effort will result in a desired outcome". Vroom suggests that "for a person to be motivated, effort, performance and motivation must be linked" (Droar, 2006: 2). Three factors direct the intensity of effort put forth by an individual, according to Vroom; expectancy, instrumentality, and preferences (Holdford & Lovelace-Elmore, 2001: ibid).

In order to enhance the performance-outcome tie, managers should use systems that tie rewards very closely to performance. Managers also need to ensure that the rewards provided are deserved and wanted by the recipients. In order to improve the effort-performance tie, managers should engage in training to improve their capabilities and improve their belief that added effort will in fact lead to better performance. They should emphasize: self-interest in the alignment of rewards with employee's wants and the connections among expected behaviors, rewards and organizational goals (Van Fleet, et. al. 1991:69).

Expectancy Theory of motivation can help managers understand how individuals make decisions regarding various behavioral alternatives. Figure 3.6 shows the direction of motivation, when behavior is energized. Perceptions also play a vital role in expectancy theory because they emphasize cognitive ability to anticipate consequences of behaviors. Generally, the expectancy theory can be used to predict behavior in any given situation in which a choice between two or more alternatives must be made. For instance, it can be used to predict whether a worker will quit or stay at a job, whether a worker will attend to a task with substantial or simply the minimum effort (Bedeian, 1989:402-403). Vroom's theory comprises of an expectancy model seen in Figure 3.6.
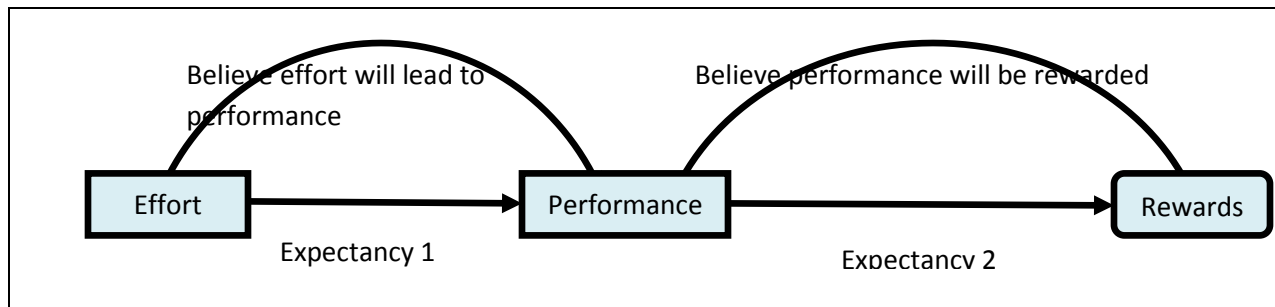
Figure 3.6:   Vroom's Expectancy theory model
                            Source: Bedeian (1989:403).

As revealed in the above summarized version of Vroom's expectancy theory, the theory advocates that job satisfaction is present only when employees perceive a positive correlation that effort leads to job performance and job performance leads to rewards (Griffin, 2008:444). To put it simply, if the strength of either expectancy or instrumentality or valence is zero or insignificant, there will be no motivation. If an employee who has the ability to perform well

does not expect a reward or does not find the reward attractive, then he/she will not be so motivated to the job.

Steyn and Van Wyk (1999:37-43) report for a given reward, reward value and the effort-reward probability combined multiplicatively determine an individual's motivation. At times, if these determinants are either low or non-existent, then the individual may not be motivated. An educator may value promotion but at times may not see any relationship between hard work and promotion. For this educator, promotion does not serve as a motivator instead, for the motivation to be present, the educator must have both reward value and effort-reward probability orientations which can only be enhance by his/her manager (Gruneberg, 1976: xi).

In general, the expectancy theory underscores the realization that different people have different desires, and that they are likely to have different perceptions of the connection between actions and the fulfillment of desires. The theory appears to suggest that in order to optimize motivation, education managers should seek to give appropriate rewards for individuals' performance and give attention to intervening variables such as abilities, traits, organizational procedures and support facilities, which might affect performance (Bush & West-Burnham, 1994:235). According to Callahan and Fleenor (1988:75), according to expectancy theory, school managers can positively influence the motivation and job satisfaction of their staff members in the following ways: (i) identify the type and amount of behavior that will be used to judge good performance. For example, the principal may determine that an increase of 10% in the mathematics scores of matriculants in a poorly performing school will be judged as good performance; and (ii) principals need to determine whether staff members have the appropriate skills and knowledge to do their work effectively. A closely related theory to the expectancy theory is the equity theory.

3.3.2.2   ADAM'S EQUITY THEORY

The other process theory related to job satisfaction was popularized by John Stacey Adams (1963:422-435; 1965) who is a workplace and behavioral psychologist who asserted that employees seek to maintain equity between the inputs that they bring to a job and the outcomes of others (Cole, 1996:42; Robbins, 1994:457; Coldwell & Perumal, 2007:197). Adam's equity

theory focuses on the concept of fairness (Anderson & Kyprianou, 1994:64; Schermerhorn, et. al. 1997:94; Drafke & Kossen, 1998:288). The theory holds that people do not work in a vacuum. They work alongside others; therefore, they make comparisons between their perceived efforts and concomitant rewards, and the exertions of others and those rewards.

John Stacey Adams, professor, is a faculty member at the Humphrey School, University of Minnesota. He is a behavioral psychologist who has written several publications which include '*Inequity in social exchange*' (1965); and '*Towards an understanding of inequity*' (1963).

Adams' theory is generally referred to as the equity theory. Adam's equity theory (Adam, 1963, 1965) focuses on the issue of fairness and equal treatment in organizations and the effects of perceptions of equities and inequities in inputs and outputs on specific workplace behavior (Van Fleet, et. al. 1991:64; Coldwell & Perumal, 2007:199). In other words, the theory is used to explain how employees judge the fairness of rewards received in proportion to resources invested for the completion of the task by assessing one's own investment-reward ratio, and compare it against the ratio of another colleague holding a similar position (McShane & Glinow, 2000:79). The belief in equity theory is that people value fair treatment which causes them to be motivated to keep the fairness maintained within the relationships of their co-workers and organization. Cosier and Dalton (1983:312) assert that the key to equity theory is the ratio of inputs to outcomes. Inputs include all factors (education, effort, experience) that a person perceives as relevant in obtaining some return. Outcomes include all factors seen to be returns on the individual's job investment. The value of the exchange to the individual, then, is a function of the outcomes to input ratio. Thus, it is from this ratio that the formulation of equity and inequity arises. The structure of equity in workplace is based on the ratio of inputs to outcomes.

Adams' theory suggests that people working in organizations form notions of the fairness or otherwise of their treatment in a four step process (Moorhead & Griffin, 1998:145-147; Coldwell & Perumal, 2007:199). First, employees assess how they perceive themselves to be treated by their organization. Second, they form a view of how others with whom they measure themselves are treated by their organization too. Third, they compare their particular circumstances with a referent that might be a specific individual or some persons or a generalized group which leads to

specific perceptions of equity or inequity. Finally, feelings of inequity or equity may lead (depending on their type and intensity) to specific behavioral outcomes (Coldwell & Perumal, 2007:199-200).

According to Adams (1963:422-435), the equity theory is mainly built with three terms: equity, inputs and outcomes/outputs. Equity entails fair treatment. An individual will consider that he/she is treated fairly if he/she perceives the ratio of his/her inputs to his/her outcomes is equivalent to those around him/her. Thus, all else being equal, it would be acceptable for a more senior colleague to receive higher compensation, since the value of his/her experience (an input) is higher. The way people (educators) base their experience with satisfaction for their job is to make comparisons with themselves to the people (educators) they work with. If an employee (educator) notices that another person (educator) is getting more recognition and rewards for his/her contributions, even when both have done the same amount and quality of work, it would persuade the employee (educator) to be dissatisfied. The idea of equity theory is to have the (outcomes) rewards be directly related with the (inputs) quality and quantity of the employee's contributions (Walster, Traupmann & Walster, 1978 in Mohamed, 2010:3).

Inputs are defined as each participant's contributions to the relational exchange and are viewed as entitling him/her to rewards. The inputs that a participant contributes to a relationship can be either assets or liabilities. The entitlement to rewards or costs ascribed to each input varies depending on the relational setting. In social settings, assets such physical beauty and kindness are generally seen as assets entitling the possessor to social rewards. Individual traits such as boorishness and cruelty are seen as liabilities entitling the possessor to cost (Walster et al., 1978 in Mohamed, 2010:3). Inputs for educators which need rewards and recognition are generally include time, education, effort, loyalty, hard work, commitment, ability, adaptability, tolerance, determination, trust in superiors, skill, experience and the like.

Outcome or output may refer to anything that an employee might receive, such as money, praise, and recognition. These are positive and negative consequences that an individual perceives a participant has incurred as a consequence of his/her relationship with another. When the ratio of

inputs to outcomes is close, then the employee (educator) should have much satisfaction with their job. Outputs can be both tangible and intangible (Walster et al., 1978 in Mohamed, 2010:4). Typical outcomes include any of the following: job security, esteem, salary, employee benefit, recognition, reputation, sense of achievement, responsibility and praise.
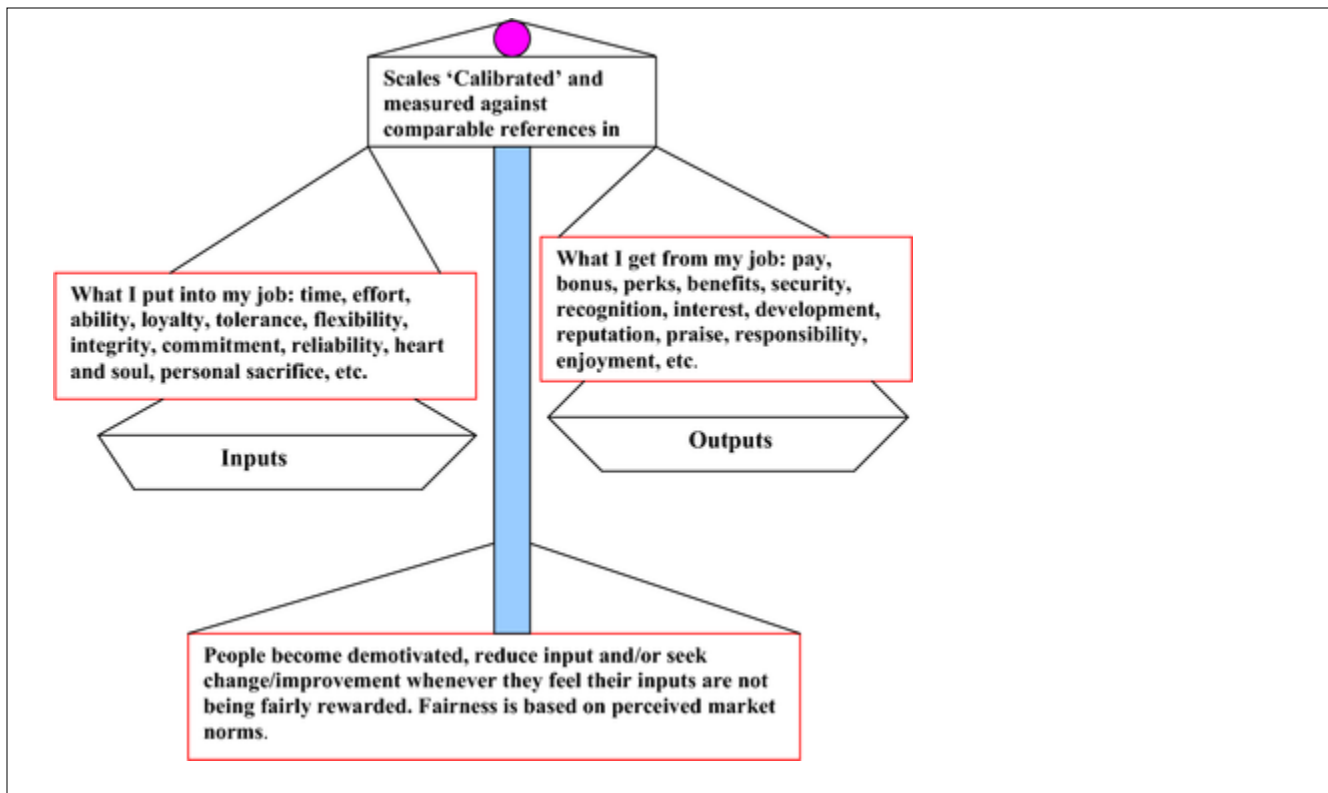
Figure 3.7:   Adams' Equity theory diagram-job satisfaction

Source: Chapman (2001:4)

Since Adam's equity theory attempted to explain job satisfaction with outcomes and predict resulting changes in work behavior of employees. Equity theory matches the notion of a 'fair day's work for a fair day's pay (see Figure 3.7). Simply, equity theory attempts to explain relational satisfaction in terms of perceptions of fair/unfair distribution of resources within interpersonal relationships (Mohamed, 2010:2). Thus, it is considered as one of the justice theory ever developed by Adams. According to Lewis, et. al. (1995:502), equity and fairness in the workplace have been found to be major factors in determining job satisfaction. As such, equity theory assumes that one important cognitive process involves people looking around and observing what effort other people are putting into their work and what rewards follow that

effort. This social comparison process is driven by people's concern for fairness and equity. McKenna (2000:112) also believes equity theory to be one of the most useful frameworks for understanding job satisfaction in workplaces, because: (i) people are not only interested in rewards as such, which is central point of expectancy theory, but they are also interested in the comparative nature of rewards. Thus, part of the attractiveness of rewards in the work context is the extent to which they are seen to be comparable to those available to the peer group (Cole, 1996:43); and (ii) people compare the inputs they bring to the job in the form of education, experience, expertise, loyalty, training and effort with the outcomes or rewards they receive in the from of pay, status, recognition, social relationships, prestige and promotions, as compared to those of other employees on comparable or similar jobs (Hofmeyr, 1992:26; Steyn, 1996:20-21)

The equity theory is difficult to implement because feelings of equity and inequity are based on perceptions that people have, and are not easy to either determine or control. However, this theory of equity underscores some importance to school principals and educators: (i) Educators desire equitable distribution of resources such as material and time at workplaces. Thus, school principals should be aware that formal, visible rewards like resources, promotion, pension arrangements, recognition and other fringe benefits are more likely to figure into educators' equity perceptions than are invisible rewards (Flee, et. al. 1991:66); (ii) Educators make conscious equity comparisons that influence their behavior and job satisfaction and such comparisons are usually based on subjective perceptions and not objective realities. So whatever school principals do should be aware of its equitable or inequitable implications to the staff and remember that different educators have different senses of what constitute a reward. Thus, principals should be wary of the dangers of being perceived as favoring some educators over others, and the best way to avoid such problems is for the organization to make all educators aware of the basis for rewards (Fleet, et. al. 1991:66); and (iii) principals should seek to assess the relationship between inputs and outcomes (outputs) of educators when financial rewards are limited and satisfaction need to be engendered in different ways (Bush & West-Burnham, 1994:263).

Simelane (2004:18) envisages that the nature of job satisfaction also derives its meaning from the equity theory. Thus, if employees put the same inputs of time, effort and preparation into their

job, they expect to receive like others in a similar environment similar rewards or equal treatment (Swanepoel, et. al. 1998:359). Equity theory focuses on the relationship between individual and work environment variables and has a lot for school principals. Another closely related process theory of motivation and job satisfaction of educators which warrants attention is reinforcement theory.

3.3.2.3   SKINNER'S REINFORCEMENT THEORY

Burrhus Frederic Skinner was an American psychologist (1904 – 1990) who coined his Operant Conditioning into the Reinforcement theory which was seen as primary in shaping of behavior (behavior modification). Burrhus Frederic Skinner was born in Susquehanna Pennsylvania in 1904 and died in 1990. He worked at the Harvard University as the Edgar Pierce Professor of Psychology from 1958 until his retirement in 1974. Skinner invented the Operant Conditioning Chamber, innovated his own philosophy of science called Radical Behaviorism, and founded his own school of experimental research psychology. He was a prolific author who published 21 books and 180 articles. Some of his books include: '*Walden Two*' (1948); '*Contingencies of reinforcement: A theoretical analysis*' (1969); '*Beyond Freedom and Dignity*' (1971).

This theory which is largely based on the work of Burrhus Frederic Skinner (1939, 1971), is sometimes known as Skinner's behavior modification theory (Lai, 2009:11) which was built on the model of operant conditioning that uses stimuli such as reinforcement, punishment or extinction to elicit acceptable behavior and curtailing undesirable behaviors. Its guiding principle is that human behavior is a function of its consequences. According to Cole (1996:45) the underlying assumption behind the theory is that people are there to be controlled or manipulated, and that management's task is to provide the 'right' conditions to encourage and enhance job satisfaction. In other words, the theory is known as the 'operant learning theory' which proposed that a person engages in a specific behavior because that behavior has been enforced by a specific outcome (Wagner & Hollenbeck, 1998:85; Drafke & Kossen, 1998:286).

The theory of Skinner is based upon the idea that learning is a function of change in overt behavior. The theory concentrates on the link between behavior and consequences. Its also reiterate the fact that changes in behavior are a result of an individual's response to events

(Stimuli) that occur in the environment. Thus, the Stimulus – Response pattern when reinforced (rewarded), the individual is conditioned to respond. It does not recognize that employees are motivated by needs or a process of motivation; instead, it deals with how an employee's future actions are based on consequences of the past actions. Dessler (2008:474) acknowledged this notion when he stated that behavior associated with rewarding consequences tends to be repeated and other behaviors that evoke unfavorable consequences are likely to be avoided.

On this theory, Skinner (1938:90) and Naylor (1999:549) define reinforcement as any effect that causes behavior to be repeated or inhibited and can be either positive or negative. In other words, reinforcement is anything that strengthens the desired response. It could be verbal praise, a good grade or a feeling of increased accomplishment or satisfaction. In the theory, negative reinforcers were discussed, that is, any stimulus that results in the increased frequency of a response when it is withdrawn. The theory also relates to the idea of conditioning which proposes that if pleasant consequences follow a certain behavior, that behavior will persist whereas; if unpleasant consequences follow a certain behavior that behavior will stop.

However, basing on the above understanding, reinforcement theory can be said to be pivoted on two paramount assumptions: (i) Human behavior is determined by the environment, and (ii) Human behavior is subject to observable laws and can be predicted and/or changed. The reasoning behind this involves three components: (i) Stimulus which is an event that leads to a response; (ii) Response which is a unit of behavior that follows a stimulus; and (iii) Reinforcement which is a consequence of a response (Van den Aardweg & Van den Aardweg, 1993:201; Steyn, 1996:11-12).

The three components of the reinforcement theory can be illustrated as in Figure 3.8.
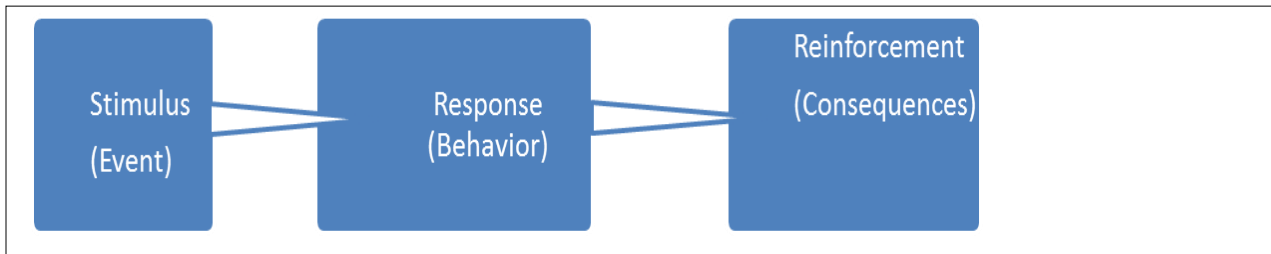
Figure 3.8:   Three components of Skinner's Reinforcement theory
                  Source: Wagner & Hollenbeck (1998:86)

The relationship between the components represented in Figure 3.8 indicates that a stimulus (event) leads to a response (behavior) that is reinforced (by a consequence). According to behavior modification, a person's current behavior is solely determined by the past history of reinforcement, thus, if a particular stimulus-response pair is followed by a desirable consequence, it will be more likely that the stimulus involved will prompt the same response in the future. Conversely, if the consequence is undesirable, the response will be less likely to recur. In summary, the consequences of a person's behavior are made dependent upon his/her response to a stimulus and determine the likelihood of the behavior to recur (Dessler, 2008:474).

From a management point of view, there are various types of reinforcements available to modify worker behavior at work. These are: (i) positive reinforcement which is a type of reinforcement that strengthens behavior by providing a desirable consequence when a desirable behavior occurs; (ii) avoidance learning reinforcement which is a type of reinforcement that strengthens behavior by teaching individuals to respond in ways that avoid undesirable consequences; (iii) extinction reinforcement which is a type of reinforcement that weakens behavior by withholding a desirable consequence when an undesirable behavior occurs; and (iv) punishment which is a type of reinforcement that weakens behavior by providing an undesirable consequence when an undesirable behavior occurs (Stoner, 1978:423-424; Gordon, 1999:94).

The reinforcement theory carries some viable implications for management: (i) it is important for educators to be told which behaviors are desirable and can be rewarded. Which behaviors are not tolerated and will not be rewarded. If educators are to be rewarded for the achievement of high-

quality results at matriculation level as opposed to quantity per se, this needs to be clearly communicated to them at the beginning of the year; and (ii) Rewards should be based on performance. If identical rewards, such as across-the-board pass rates are given to educators for all grades, above-average performance will be weakened, and average and below-average performance will be strengthened. If rewards are not equated to performance, they therefore encourage educators to do nothing more than the minimum necessary to keep their job (c.f. Callahan & Fleenor, 1988:75).

In conclusion, the various theories related to job satisfaction bring forth the complex nature of people at workplace. According to Bedassi (1990:151-152) every theory has its merits and applicability to a certain degree to certain individuals and certain situations. Therefore, when looking at these theories of job satisfaction, one should remember that not only is every situation unique, but also every individual in that situation. Thus, the various theories discussed above are contextual and can only be substantiated by factors that influence the job satisfaction of educators in general. Exploring these attitudes that employees hold concerning what motivates them to work is important to creating an environment that fosters employee job satisfaction (Schneider, Ashworth, Higgs and Carr, 1996:695). These employee attitudes surveys (Bellows, 1949 in Wiley, 1995:266) constitute a useful means and a direct approach to finding out what employees perceive as job-related motivational factors. With the results of such surveys, an organization is likely to gain information that can be used by managers (principals) to improve employee motivation and job satisfaction (Kovach, 1980:57) and if a company knows what drives employees to work, it is in a better position to stimulate them to perform well (Kovach, 1987:58).

The various theories of work satisfaction bring forth the complex nature of human beings. Therefore, when considering the theories regarding job satisfaction, one should remember that every situation is unique as well as every individual in that situation. In order to put the theories into context of this research study, it is therefore necessary to briefly look at the current state of affairs in the South African education system.

3.4 THE SOUTH AFRICAN EDUCATION SYSTEM WITH RESPECT TO EDUCATORS' JOB SATISFACTION

After the publication of the Grade 12 results of 2006, the focus was once again on the schools that had not performed satisfactorily academically (Van der Westhuizen & Van Vuuren, (2007:431). Amongst other factors, this brought into limelight the performance of school principals. In this regard, Hindle (Director-General of the DoE) said in an interview: 'this year (2007) it will be back to school not only for learners, but for principals as well' (The Star, 2007:1). The current voluntary certificate course in school management would eventually become a compulsory requirement for all current and aspiring principals". This statement suggests that South Africa, like any other nation, looks up to school principals to improve the teaching and work environments of educators through the utilization of their management skills. However, South Africa lags far behind in the formal management training and certification of school principals although there is an awareness that roles and task of principals have changed irrevocably since independence. The question now is no longer whether the principal has a management or leadership task, but rather how the principal should be trained or prepared for the task of principalship (Van der Westhuizen, 1988:378; Gallie, Sayed, & Williams, 1997:460-465; Hallinger, 2006:1; Van der Westhuizen, & Van Vuuren, 2007:434)

During the past twenty to thirty years, there has been a major shift towards greater self-management and self-governance in educational institutions throughout the world (Botha, 2006:341). This trend has occurred in many countries, such as, Australia, Canada, New Zealand, Britain, and some other parts of the United States of America (Hart, 1995:11; Mosoge & Van de Westhuizen, 1998:73). Likewise, in South Africa, education policy since 1994 by the DoE, such as the Report of the Task Team on Education Management Development (DoE, 1996b) and the legislation, such as the South African Schools Act of 1996, focus inter alia '… on the need for all stakeholders in education who can work in democratic and participative ways' (RSA, 1996:2). At the core of these policy initiatives and legislation is a process of democratization in the ways in which schools are to be governed and managed (DoE, 1996c:27). The participative management strategy required through the school-based management (SBM) structures means that authority is delegated from higher to lower levels (Mosoge & Van de Westhuizen, 1998:74)

and entails major changes of roles. The customary role of the school principal has therefore changed under school management as decision-making is shared among stakeholders. The current position of the principalship renders not only authority but also management responsibility to the incumbent. As more and more countries worldwide implement SBM, principals are empowered and given more authority over what happens in their schools. School principals in these countries increasingly find themselves with the power to make on-site decisions, such as how money should be spent, where educators should be assigned, and even what should be taught in the classrooms. Provincial education departments no longer tell schools and school principals what to do, but instead try to help them accomplish what they decide independently to do. School management therefore demands more of the school principal, specifically in terms of principal leadership and management (Mosoge & Van der Westhuizen, 1998:74; Dimmock & Wildley, 1999:298; Squelch, 1999:128; Bush & Heystek, 2003:127; Marishane, 2003:20).

Although there are other factors, the management role of the school principal is widely regarded as the primary factor contributing to a successful relationship between school management and educators' job satisfaction and it is therefore an essential dimension of successful school management strategies of principals. According to Herman and Herman (1993:92), the school management literature is consistent in describing the school principal as the "key player in the decentralization and restructuring process". Van der Westhuizen (1997:187) also touches upon this redefined management role of the principal when referring to principal management as the ability of a principal "to convince, inspire, bind and direct followers to realize common ideals". The culture of a democratic order displayed in school management requires school principals to exercise management that fully promotes participation of all stakeholders.

According to Van der Westhuizen (1997:28), authority in school management tends towards collaborative setting of management strategies such as transformational, hierarchical, participative and facilitative (Mosoge & Van der Westhuizen, 1998:78). This indicates therefore not only the importance of principal management, but also a change in leadership roles of the school principal under a management system. Effective management by the school principal in school management is now widely regarded as a pivotal and essential dimension contributing to

a successful relationship between management strategies and the job satisfaction levels of educators (Botha, 2006:341-353). The Commonwealth Secretariat (1996:2), for example, refers to this issue as follows: 'The management role of the school principal plays the most crucial role in ensuring effectiveness in school management". Gurr (1996:27) argues in this regard: "The role of the school principal under school management has become more pivotal in providing the professional management required to provide positive learning environments".

Job satisfaction of educators has been the focus of considerable attention all over the world (Steyn, 2006:82). In South Africa, Professor Kader Asmal, the then Minister of Education (Asmal, 2002), stated that educator morale in all communities in South Africa is low (DoE, 1999:3) and several factors have been attributed as underlying causes of low morale in the teaching profession. Causes of low job satisfaction or high job satisfaction among educators are complex and may vary in different institutions (DoE, 1999:3; Atkinson, 2000:46). Evan's study (2000:176) of educators' morale, motivation and job satisfaction in the United Kingdom indicated that diversity among educators depended on the quality and range of circumstances and other related issues. The individual's need fulfillment underpinned this diversity (Low & Marican, 1993:14; Owens, 1995:52; Hung & Liu, 1999:14; Evans, 2000:176). It is therefore important to recognize that educators are motivated and their morale affected by different factors: age, length of service, their qualifications and experience, the resources available in the school, their aspirations with respect to career development and the priorities they attach to achievement and social factors (Culver, Wolfle & Cross, 1990:342; Low & Marican, 1993:15; Rowley, 1996:14).

The demands made on educators have grown over the years here in South Africa (Yong, 1999:7) and these demands have led into the deterioration of educators' job satisfaction and morale at workplace. A report issued by the National Professional Tearchers' Organization of South Africa (NAPTOSA) (2002) in George, et. al. (2008:138) highlighted the following regarding educator morale and job satisfaction: (i) one in every four educators has a sense of low morale and job satisfaction towards the profession; (ii) there was a perception that a further 33, 7% of colleagues had an indifferent level of morale and job satisfaction towards the profession; and (iii) 38, 2% had a negative morale and low job satisfaction. The factors which have led to the above scenario

in education which had negative effect on educator morale and job satisfaction, included the following: (i) poor management strategies of both school and provincial departments (65,5%); (ii) lack of quality support received from school principals and Department officers (63,2%); (iii) continuous change in educational methodology and policy (60%); (iv) poor salary packages (58,1%); (v) poor quality of communication by the principals and their staff and by the Department with its schools (53,4%); (vi) lack of promotion prospects (50,8%); (vii) amount of paper work (49,3%); (viii) lack of educational resources in the classroom (43,7%) (ix) Limited amount of authority given by the Department of Education to both principals and educators to take own initiative (41, 1%); (x) low educator-learner ratio (37, 4%); and (ix) teaching learners who have a low morale (37, 4%) (NAPTOSA, 2002; George, et. al., 2008:138).

Media attention increasingly focuses on educational issues, such as poor learner performance, the poor conditions in many schools and the inferior quality of education in general raise concern regarding the attitudes of educators towards their jobs (Steyn, 2006:83). The South African education system has also experienced radical transformation since 1994. Educators have been confronted by many changes: integration of schools with regard to language and cultural groups; rationalization of the education system regarding staff reduction and redeployment of educators; implementation of outcomes-based education; and the institution of a lengthened school day for educators (Wevers 2000:5), the shift from the OBE to the current CAPS. These changes have affected the attitude and performance of educators. If educator performance in schools is to be improved, it is necessary to pay attention to the kind of work environment that enhances educators' sense of professionalism and increases their motivation and job satisfaction. By identifying the factors that enhance the motivation and job satisfaction of educators, educational managers can implement and execute effective strategies to ensure that educators, in the midst of the changes, will perform their duties in an effective, enthusiastic and motivated manner. Educational managers, however, need to recognize that different motivators are appropriate for different staff member and good management strategies consist of recognizing and working with individual differences (Rowley 1996:11). Thus, the school principal as a human resource manager needs to set up mechanisms (management strategies) for nurturing and unfolding of educators' potential in order to enhance effective teaching and job satisfaction (Mathibe, 2007:523). To this end, Reitzug (2002:3); Lenyai (2000:3); Terry (1999:28) and Mathibe (2007:

523-524) assert that where the necessary motivation and job satisfaction are lacking among educators, principals need to develop a multiple of management strategies to enable educators to fulfill their roles effectively. School principals should be exposed to management strategies in order to ensure that schools are managed and led by principals who understand the notion of optimum utilization of educators' potential and their job satisfaction.

3.5   FACTORS OF JOB SATISFACTION

Given the above scenario, the impact of job satisfaction on employees is undeniable. As Smith (2007b) in Bucheli, Melgar, Rossi and Smith (2010:1-2) argued, a job is not only a main source of income, but also an important life domain in other ways. "Work occupies a large part of each worker's day, is one's main source of social standing, helps to define who a person is, and affects one's health both physically and mentally. Because of work's central role in many people's lives, satisfaction with one's job is an important component in overall well-being". As such Castillo and Cano (2004:65) insisted that "managers, supervisors, human resource specialists, employees and citizens in general should be concerned with ways of improving job satisfaction". Judge, Hanisch, and Drankoski (1995:576) advise that it is imperative for managers to be aware of those aspects within an organization that might impact most employees' job satisfaction and to enhance these aspects because in the long run the results will be fruitful for both the organization and the employee.

Mwamwenda (1995:84) describes job satisfaction as one's willingness and preparedness to stick to one's work as a professional, despite the minor discomforts and desire to leave teaching for a better job. However, a number of factors in schools contribute significantly to the level of job satisfaction of educators. Some of these factors are important enough to be discussed, because they relate not only to the management strategies of principals and the quality of educators, but also to the academic achievement of learners. Since job satisfaction includes judgments of the job as a whole, possibly including multiple factors such as the work itself, supervision, working conditions, and work group. As such, there is some doubt whether job satisfaction consists of a single factor or a number of separate factors. Some workers may be satisfied with some aspects of their work and dissatisfied with others. There does, however, appear to be a positive correlation between satisfaction levels in different areas of work. It seems there is no one,

general, comprehensive theory which explains job satisfaction (Spector, 1997:51, Williams, 2004). Furthermore, Lawler (1977:361) contend that the employees' decision about whether they will go to work on any given day and whether they quit are affected by their feelings of job satisfaction.

Today, job satisfaction is still considered by a number of critics to be complex and difficult to measure objectively. A wide range of variables relating to individual, social, cultural, organizational and environmental factors affect the level of job satisfaction. Individual factors include personality, education, intelligence and abilities, age, marital status and orientation to work (Steyn & Van Wyk, 1999:37). Social factors include relationships with co-workers, group working and norms, opportunities for interaction and informal organization. Cultural factors include underlying attitudes, beliefs and values. Organizational factors include nature and size, formal structure, personnel policies and procedures, employee relations, nature of work, technology and work organization, supervision and styles of leadership, management strategies and working conditions (Steyn, 1988:40, 80). In this regard, Steyn (1988:57) regards organizational factors as motivators or satisfiers (see also Herzberg's two-factor theory). Environmental factors include economic, social, technical and governmental influence (Castillo & Cano, 2004:65-66). These factors affect the job satisfaction of individuals in a given set of circumstances, but not necessarily in others.

Besides the above analysis, Locke (1976:1300) developed a summary of job dimensions that have been assumed to contribute significantly to job satisfaction. The particular dimensions represent characteristics associated with job satisfaction. These dimensions include: (i) the work itself, (ii) supervision, (iii) work group and (iv) working conditions. According to McCormick and Ilgen (1985:309), these factors influence workers' opinions of "how interesting the job is, how routine, how well they are doing, and in general, how much they enjoy doing it". However, Arvey, Carter and Buerkley (1991:377) contend that there is confusion regarding which person variables should be examined because a formidable array of person variables have been discussed as possible determinants of job satisfaction in the literature. But for purposes of this research, Locke's summary given above shall be discussed.

3.5.1   THE WORK ITSELF

According to Castillo and Cano (2004:65) the work itself denotes the actual job performance related to job satisfaction. Xaba (1996:56) and Simelane (2004:44) postulate that work itself refers to the daily tasks, creativity and autonomy. Landy (1989), Larwood (1984), Luthans (1992), Moorhead and Griffin (1992) cited in Bull (2005:33-34), and Owens (1995:55-57), contend that the nature of work performed by employees has a bearing on their level of job satisfaction. The work itself denotes the nature of work performed by workers and has a bearing on their levels of job satisfaction. It refers to the employees' liking or disliking of their job and explains whether the job of an employee is enjoyable or not. Workers derive satisfaction from the work that is interesting and challenging, and a job that provides them with status. Work that is interesting to individual workers is likely to contribute to the overall job satisfaction. This view is supported by Tarrant (1991:34) who found that the work itself highly motivating. The challenge of the work itself appears to motivate people and is, therefore, associated with job satisfaction as proposed by Herzberg and his colleagues (Owens, 1995:55).

Similarly, research (Campoy & Hoewisch, 1998:11; Tarr, et. al. 1993:45; Van der Westhuizen, 1991:204) suggests that task variety may facilitate job satisfaction. This is based on the view that skill variety has strong effects on job satisfaction, implying that the greater the variety of skills that workers are able to utilize in their jobs, the higher their levels of job satisfaction. Van der Zee (2009:61) concluded that the single most important influence on a person's job satisfaction experience comes from the nature of work assigned to him/her by the organization. He claimed that if the job entails adequate variety, challenge, discretion and scope for using one's own abilities and skills, the worker doing the job is likely to experience high levels of job satisfaction.

According to Wayne and Sparrowe (cited in Bull, 2005:34), their research involving 337 employees and supervisors found that desirable job characteristics increased job satisfaction. Similarly, Culpin and Wright (in Bull, 2005:35) in their research on job satisfaction among expatriate women managers found that they enjoyed the expansion of their job responsibilities. These women's job satisfaction increased as they saw the significant impact of their job on their subordinates. Reskin and Padavic (1994:95) claim that workers value authority in its own right

and having authority increases workers' job satisfaction. Robbins (1998:152) confirmed that under conditions of moderate challenge, most workers will experience pleasure and satisfaction.

3.5.2   SUPERVISION

There are various interpretations of the term supervision, but typically is a management activity and supervisors have a management role in the organization. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993:38) regard supervision as a process designed to help educators and supervisors learn more about their practice, to better able to use their knowledge and skills to better serve parents and schools and to make the school a more effective learning community. They (p4) argue that supervision is a paramount role and function in the management of schools; this is seen in the form of supervision, the substance of supervision, how educators feel its influence and its effects on teaching. Supervision refers to the act of monitoring work done by subordinates, usually relying on prescribed rules and regulations or procedures. Castillo and Cano (2004:65) suggest that this aspect has more to with the supervisor's willingness or unwillingness to delegate responsibility and/or willingness to teach subordinates. Wiles and Bondi (1996:8) refer to supervision as an act that involves thinking, planning, organizing and evaluating processes. Dagley and Orso (1991:73) also refer to supervision as a developmental process that includes efforts designed to improve the instructional behaviors of individual educators. In other words, supervision is regarded as an act of overseeing the actions or work of others, managing, controlling and directing the execution of tasks.

Scholars in the field of management are generally in agreement that the qualities of the supervisor-subordinate relationship have a significant, positive influence on the workers' overall levels of job satisfaction (Bull, 2005:38). It is also likely that individuals will experience high levels of job satisfaction if supervisors provide them with support and co-operation in completing their tasks. Staudt (1997) and Chieffo (1991) also found that supervisors who allow their subordinates to participate in decision-making processes in their jobs experience high levels of job satisfaction. A study done by Morris (2004) in Bull (2005:39) concluded that educator's job satisfaction is affected by the work environment and strong principal leadership skills and management strategies. In other studies which explained the relationships among supervision and job satisfaction done by Cumbey and Alexander (1998:40-43) and Mudor and Tooksoon

(2011:43) verify the relationship between RN (Registered Nurse) job satisfaction and effective supervisory. In their results affirm that the effective supervisory of employee (Registered nurse) has positively effect on job satisfaction. Bradley, Petrescu and Simmons (2004:2) and Mudor and Tooksoon (2011:43) also investigated the impact of supervision related to job satisfaction. They employed supervision as independent variable and job satisfaction as dependent variable. The results gave the idea about supervision, the workers preferred to have close supervision of work since they enjoyed some visual assessment of their performance, suggesting that monitoring is desirable. Therefore, their study results reaffirm that there is positive association between supervision and job satisfaction. Again, Thobeng (2007) in Mudor and Tooksoon (2011:43) measured the extent to which supervision experienced by agricultural education educators in Iowa was related to job satisfaction and the intention to remain in the teaching profession. They selected some components of supervision such as observation, conferencing, supervisor support and supervisor guidance and the results demonstrated that the supervision provided a positively correlation with job satisfaction. In addition, Harmon, Scott, Behson, Farias, Petzel, Neuman, and Keashly (2007:10-12) confirmed that the control over work practices which is supervision significantly correlated with increased job satisfaction among workers. Fao (1976:100) corroborated that expectations individuals have about the nature of supervision form management affect their levels of satisfaction.

Based on the above said impact of supervision, it follows that the way management (principals) work with the educators on a daily basis has a bearing or effect on enhancing the educators' job satisfaction (Manese, 2001:32). The principals of schools are seen to have significant impact on job satisfaction of educators in that educators who have positive interactions with their principals are generally more satisfied at work. Positive interactions between these two groups may include constructive feedback, effective communication, and a focus on quality rather than quantity (Worrell, 2004:32). It appears that the level of job satisfaction can be enhanced in schools by giving assistance to improve performance and to make the necessary amenities available to enable educators to do their best. It has been envisaged that some supervisory practices create some favorable approach to job satisfaction and play a crucial role to enhance job satisfaction of employees. This is true especially when the authority expresses appreciation of the work done by

educators (Simelane, 2004:31). Thus, an organization, such as the school, needs to consider job satisfaction in the workplace in order to reduce turnover and retain educators.

It can be concluded that the management strategies of school principals are related to job satisfaction. It appears as though the quality of educator-principal relationship generates high levels of job satisfaction among educators, and greater educator participation in decision-making also contributes to their job satisfaction. Bull (2005:39) maintains that educators who receive much social support from their principals tend to be less stressed than those who do not receive any social support. It is also claimed that setting up shared decision-making structures in schools, such as disciplinary, subject, sports and tours committees, allow educators to participate in school processes rather than feel subordinate to their principals and coerced into participating in school and educator responsibilities. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993:104) maintain that improving schools by helping educators to reflect on their practice, to learn more about what they do and why, to strive to improve their practice is at the heart of what supervision seeks to accomplish. However, Olivia and Pawlas (2001:40) on the other hand, argue that by providing supervision, it is assumed that educators are not completely free to run their own classrooms as they see it fit. In some instances, some supervision practised by many supervisors is not only non-professional, it is dehumanizing and unethical (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993:59). This emphasizes the need for this research to find the relationship between management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction.

3.5.3   WORK GROUP

According to the Manager (2002:5), a work group is a group of people who work together on a regular basis to produce results. Work groups include: (i) employees in a structured reporting relationship, such as in an institution or a department; and (ii) an ad hoc team brought together to carry out specific tasks to develop or refine a service or a product or produce another result. Weiss, Davis, England and Lofquist (1967) cited in Labuschagne, et.al. (2005:27) argue that workers seek to achieve and maintain correspondence with their environment, and thus, job satisfaction relates to individuals' perceptions and evaluations of their jobs. There is empirical evidence that co-workers relationships are an antecedent of job satisfaction (Morrison, 2004:43). Much of the conceived job satisfaction of workers is related to the workers' opportunities for

interaction with others on the job. An individual's level of job satisfaction might be a function of both personal characteristics and that of the group to which he/she belongs. The social context of work is also likely to have a significant impact on a worker's attitude and behavior – hence relationships with both co-workers and supervisors have far reaching effects on the levels of job satisfaction of individuals in any given organization (Marks, 1994 cited in Bull, 2005:41).

Hodson (in Bull, 2005:41) suggested that social relations constitute an important part of the social environment within the workplace and provide a setting within which workers can experience meaning and job satisfaction. Work groups characterized by co-operation and understanding among colleagues tend to influence the level of job satisfaction. When cohesion, pandemonium and apathy are evident within a work group, it usually creates negativity which will end up impacting on job satisfaction. Tsvara's (2005:23) perspective as an educator expressed in an earlier study was that the greatest need of educators centers on interpersonal group relationships. He argued that good relationships with fellow workers and school principals increase levels of job satisfaction. Waskiewicz (1999:159) also understood work group as co-workers with their interpersonal relationships as a set of characteristics of relationships that arise where people interact in the performance of their jobs. These relationships may be between the management and the educators or amongst educators in the workplace. Manese (2001:1) stresses that it is important for an individual to have positive relationship with co-workers, while Simelane (2004:33-34) summarizes the importance of educators' relationships with co-workers as follows: (i) as educators compare themselves with others, they work harder and are more successful in their teaching. In addition, they will be able to realize or actualize their full potential as educators; (ii) educators who happen to experience uncontrolled disputes, stress and quality burnout at school, may absent themselves from work and subsequently fail tom produce good results; and (iii) a pleasant and a relaxed relationship with staff members benefits all those associated with the school, including learners and parents. Mwamwenda (1995:85) reported that Canadian educators expressed satisfaction with co-workers who were said to be helpful and cooperative. Thus, it could appropriate to assume that educators' job satisfaction in any school is enhanced by the support and cooperation of co-workers and principals should be on the look out for strategies that would promote such conditions in a work group.

3.5.4 WORKING CONDITIONS

Working conditions denote physical working environment, facilities, and quality of work as related to job satisfaction (Castillo & Cano, 2004:65). According to the USA National Center for Education Statistics, Statistical Analysis Report (1997:97-471), working conditions refer to environmental characteristics of the teaching situation. Against this background, the teaching situation relates not only to the physical conditions of the work environment, but also to the overall aspects of the school as an organization. In other words, the working conditions and the policies of the organization are spelt out in terms of school management, interpersonal relationship, and stakeholder participation in decision-making and organizational climate. Syptak, et. al. (1999:3) and Lester (1987:227) still contend that the environment in which people find themselves working has a tremendous effect on their level of pride in themselves and in the work they do.

According to Josias (2005:57) and Steyn (1990:42;146) working conditions refer to such aspects as lighting, noise, ventilation and the general work environment for both personal comfort and for facilitating good job performance. They maintain that the school grounds and classrooms play an important role in the job satisfaction of educators as they perform their duties there. Simelane (2004:31-32) affirms that if the school grounds and classrooms or school buildings do not satisfy an aesthetic need for educators in terms of appearance and cleanliness, then execution of tasks cannot be easily promoted. Apparently aesthetic sense has an influence on job satisfaction and task performance in an environment like a school. Kusereka (2009:77) also says that working conditions concern salary, fringe benefits, the physical environment and administrative support. Manser (2000:6) asserts that working conditions, care, concern and an understanding of what makes an individual motivated should always remain paramount in the appraisal of an educator's soul. According to studies conducted in South Africa by Pager (1996:85) and Hofmeyr (1992:63, 76), educators indicated that an improvement in working conditions was one of the most important factors in improving educators' job satisfaction. If people work in a clean and friendly environment, they will find it easier to come to work. If the opposite should happen, they will find it difficult to accomplish tasks. Teaching loads, changes in timetables, timetabling, changes in the school system of management and lack of discipline among learners contribute greatly to the job satisfaction levels of educators (Josias, 2005:51). In

other words, the working environment of educators determines to a very great extent their attitudes and behaviors at workplace.

According to Kusereka (2009:63), many educators especially in rural areas and semi-urban areas work under onerous conditions. Educators are faced with large classes, often overcrowded and with poor facilities, without enough textbooks and/or enough furniture. These schools, in most cases, consistently display higher repetition and dropout rates, have a high deficiency of basic instructional inputs, such as textbooks, libraries and other didactic materials, and may have a substandard infrastructure (McEwan, 1999:850; Nyagura & Reece, 1990a:32). According to Nyagura and Reece (1990b:39), these school environments usually have class sizes which are too large to permit the use of learner-centered strategies which demand greater competence to maintain discipline and to create a conducive and orderly classroom environment. Given the above assertion, working conditions correlate well with the job satisfaction levels of educators.

Working conditions of employees contribute to the job satisfaction levels of employees. If educators work in a quarrelsome environment with working conditions extremely poor, they develop low levels of job satisfaction. In a school where allocation of resources is not fair, communication channels are not fair and are not followed, recognition and praise are absent educators tend to develop low levels of job satisfaction. Consequently, it is deemed necessary for school principals to know that they count in the creation of good and healthy working conditions in any given school environment with a view to the promotion of educators' job satisfaction. Thus, working conditions per se can either positively or negatively affect the job satisfaction of educators in their work environments (Kusereka, 2009:77; Pager, 1995:85; Bedassi, 1990:12; Noe, Hollenbeck, Gerhart & Wright, 1994:293) and principals should know how to utilize them in order to enhance the job satisfaction levels of their educators.

Gazioglu and Tansel (2002:3) found that job satisfaction is as good indicator of perks as salaries. For this reason, it is useful to study the personal determinants of job satisfaction. A review of literature shows that numerous variables have been investigated in their relationship to job satisfaction. These variables include data on the demography (age, gender, educational level).

For the purpose of this study, aspects of job satisfaction and age, educational level, gender, tenure, and occupational level shall be discussed.

3.5.5   AGE

Research has often focused on age as a determinant influencing job satisfaction (Robbins, 2001:19; Bull, 2005:43, Gazioglu & Tansel, 2002:6). In research by Blood, et. al. (2002 cited in Bull, 2005:44) it was reported that older workers in nursing seem to experience higher levels of job satisfaction than younger workers. In the same study, it was mentioned that this conclusion was consistent with the findings of other researchers (Gazioglu & Tansel, 2002:5-6; Clark, et. al., 1996:67) who focused on the job satisfaction of school personnel, health-care and business workers.   Spencer, Copper and Donald (2001) in Bull (2005:44) also found that age has an influence on the job satisfaction and mental well-being of their sample of managers. Blood, et. al. (2002) cited in Bull, 2005:44) formulated the following pronouncements with regard to job satisfaction and age: (i) Older workers are often more comfortable with and tolerant of authority and may therefore learn to expect less from their jobs (Bakker & Schaufeli, 2000); and (ii) Older workers may have jobs that use their skills better, work under better conditions, and benefit from advancements, promotion and appropriate fringe benefits more than younger and less experienced workers.

In studying the relationship between job satisfaction and age, it was found that personality, in particular, has a high enduring influence on job satisfaction. Schultz and Schultz (in Roos, 2005:52) and Warr (in Roos 2005:52) agreed that personality factors they assessed in adolescents, predicted high job satisfaction levels in them.   They elaborated on a number of personality characteristics they believed impacted on job satisfaction. In general, it appears that job satisfaction increases with age and possible reasons include the following (Josias, 2005:63-64; Okpara, 2004:65-90): (i) Dissatisfied younger people drop out of their jobs or move around frequently in search of a new job; (ii) A sense of resignation develops as one gets older, which often results in one either giving up pursuing fulfillment on the job, or finding it elsewhere; (iii) Many older people have greater opportunities for fulfillment on the job: they often have better jobs than young people, and as their age and experience increase, it often brings increased confidence, competence, esteem and responsibility. These characteristics bring about a greater

sense of accomplishment and achievement; and (iv) Older people tend to value different things at work, for example, they may be less interested in task variety than younger people. To conclude: older workers have reduced aspirations as they realize that they face limited alternative choices. Consequently, as they get older, their levels of job satisfaction increase. This is attributed to the fact that job expectations become more realistic as workers become more mature. The fact that this trend usually change to show a relative decline in satisfaction after the age of 55 may possibly be linked to aspects such as decreased physical energy and enthusiasm that accompany the aging process (Jewell, 1990 in Worrell, 2004:7).

3.5.6   GENDER

According to the United Nations Development Program (2003:8), gender refers to the roles and responsibilities of men and women and the relationship between them in any work environment. Gender does not simply refer to men and women, but to the way their qualities, behaviors and identities are determined through the process of socialization in the work environment. These roles and responsibilities are cultural–specific, can change over time, and can be seen as the social construction of men's and women's roles in any given culture, location or work environment.

In regard to the relationship between gender and job satisfaction, some studies have reported that there are considerable variations between males and females. Murgui (1999) in Carr (2005:47) states that differences in the levels and nature of job satisfaction levels between males and females are expected based on a few assumptions. Firstly, the Needs Fulfillment theory postulates that job satisfaction is determined by the biological, psychological and social needs of an individual. These needs are believed to influence the behavior of an individual on the job. As males and females differ at least on the biological aspects, the possibility of differences in job satisfaction in terms of this theory can be expected. Secondly, the Social Learning theory accentuates environmental factors as opposed to individual factors. In line with this, societal norms and interactions could lead to males being reared with expression of aggression being encouraged and achievement being rewarded; whilst females might be reared being docile and behavior supporting others is rewarded. This could, however, be used to explain the gender differences in job satisfaction.

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According to a study done by Souza-Poza (cited in Bull, 2005:45), women's job satisfaction declined substantially during the first twenty years whilst men's job satisfaction remained fairly constant. Another survey by the British Economic Research Centre (2002:5) indicated that women were more satisfied (or very satisfied) with various aspects of their jobs compared to men. According to Gazioglu and Tansel (2002:3), these studies were done in Britain by Gazioglu and Tansel (2002) using British Household Panel Data (BHPD97) and the British Employees Workplace Employee Relations Survey of 1997 (BEWERS97) and Clark (1996) using British Household Panel Data (BHPD91) in education and health sectors. Some plausible explanations given for these observations/findings by Gazioglu and Tansel (2002:5) are as follows: (i) Men and women have different expectations from their jobs; (ii) The types of jobs that men enjoy are different from those women enjoy doing, and require different qualifications as well, and (iii) The different circumstances through which people pick on their career paths brings differential job satisfaction levels among gender. But another study done by Richard Anker of the International Labor Organization (ILO) summarizes the views of many: "occupational segregation by sex occurs everywhere, causing labor market rigidity and economic inefficiency, wasting human resources, preventing change, disadvantaging women, and perpetuating gender inequalities" (Anker, 1997:315). Thus, one is forced to deduce that the job satisfaction of women should be lower in the female dominated jobs into which they are crowded and vice-versa. Despite this anticipation, the evidence to date from the United Kingdom (Clark, 1997:342; Sloane & William, 2000:473; Bender, Donohue & Heywood, 2005:480) actually suggests that the job satisfaction of females increases as the female share of the workplace and work titles increases. In other words, women in male dominated jobs have higher expectations for job satisfaction which explains the common assumption of increased job satisfaction of women when the female share in the workplace and work titles increase.

This gender issue as a determinant of job satisfaction has attracted much attention in research fields. It has been examined extensively in many different countries inclusively of the United Kingdom (Clark, 1997:342; Sloane & William, 2000:473); in Kenya (Mulinge & Mueller, 1998:2181); in China (Loscocco & Bose, 1998:91-109); and Kuwait (Metle, 2001:311-332). Some of these studies were conducted in different occupations and it was found out that women tend to be more satisfied than their otherwise equal male counterparts as clergy (McDuff, 2001),

scientists (Dhawan, 2000:121-131), attorneys (Hull, 1999:687-702), doctors (Bashaw, 1999), and educators (Bull, 2005; Bender, Donohue & Heywood, 2005:482-483).

3.5.7   OCCUPATION LEVEL

Literature (Wevers, 2000:124; Van Rooyen, 1984:30; Steyn, 1990:147; 2002:256; Mentz, 1990:135; Brokke, 2002:179) suggests that the position a person occupies in an organization influences his/her attitudes towards the job and subsequently his/her job satisfaction level. Rousseau, (1978:533) concluded that job satisfaction appeared to be linked to position an employee has in the organization (job position). In other words, the effect of job satisfaction on a worker's attitude and behavior appears entirely attributable to the position of the job he/she performs.

Seniority at work breeds job satisfaction and men and women who occupy senior positions in an organization tend to report higher levels of job satisfaction as compared to those in junior positions. Several investigations, as mentioned by Bull (2005:47), indicated a positive association between job levels and job satisfaction which they attributed to the fact that higher level positions tend to be more complex and have better working conditions, remuneration, prospects of promotion, supervisory tacit, autonomy and responsibility. Therefore, it can be concluded that occupational level can be a reliable predictor of job satisfaction with workers at top ranks than those at the bottom.

Some researches on job satisfaction and occupational level conducted in several countries revealed that occupational level has job complexity and responsibility attached to the hierarchical levels in an organization. Possible explanations could be that increased responsibility and authority, as well as more prestige, more promotion and socialization opportunities at work and better remuneration that comes with differences in the levels of education result in differing levels of satisfaction. Kline and Boyd (in Roos, 2005:73) conclude that upper level workers' job satisfaction is affected mostly by decision-making and jurisdiction, whereas that of subordinates is influenced primarily by the opportunity to establish themselves as successful and competent, and the resultant feelings of contentment. Workers, who have high levels of education and occupy higher levels of employment, usually have better opportunities to satisfy their needs for

greater autonomy, challenge and responsibility at work. These have great value in building self-esteem and self-actualization, which, in return, boost satisfaction.

3.5.8   TENURE

According to Shovel (2007:1542), tenure refers to the period of time during which an individual has worked for an organization (length of service). Josias (2005:32) defines tenure as the length of employment for which an employee has worked for an organization. Job tenure (the amount of time a worker has spent in his/her job or career) affects job satisfaction in that less tenured workers tend to be more satisfied with remuneration and less by praise and recognition as compared to those of more years at the work. According to Okpara (2004:70), tenure which is the number of years one has spent in an employment can be classified either as permanent or temporary. In some studies (Turnipseed & Murkison, 2000:281-303), a longer tenure is normally associated with a positive feeling towards work, high degree with employee identification and ownership with the organization, which in turn cause them to render meaningful contributions to the organization by reducing turnover and absenteeism (Masri, 2009:51). As tenure increases within the organization, so does the employee's potential for both formal benefits, such as promotion, and informal benefits, such as status as compared to less tenured employees. This employment status is highly valued by most educators. Job satisfaction tends, therefore, to be low among educators who are on temporary appointments. In South Africa, Nepal, and other countries only slightly more than half of all educators have permanent job status and are not frustrated by the R and R process. As Devcotta (2005:6) notes the difficulty of getting promoted to permanent status is a major source of frustration for many South African educators, many of whom have waited years for a permanent position. From this perspective, tenure has a curvilinear relationship with job satisfaction, in that workers' job satisfaction levels generally start off quite high in their careers when they have little job experience, decline for a period of time as they gain job experience, and then later rise again towards mid and later career, when they reach higher levels of job mastery due to more experience (Bennel, P. & Akyeampong, 2007: 26-35).

Research by Staw (1995) revealed that workers with longer tenure seem to have a greater propensity to be satisfied with their jobs than workers with shorter tenure. From this, it can be

concluded that satisfaction increases with time and that those benefits that increase in time (such as security and experience) are likely to have an important influence on worker's job satisfaction.

3.5.9   EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Different research projects have reached different conclusion with regard to the relationship between job satisfaction and educational level. Some research projects, such as the ones completed by Lerwood (1984); Saal and Knight (1988), and (Rogers (1991:123-126) found job satisfaction to be positively related to educational achievement. They also concluded that the higher an individual's qualifications (educational level), the higher that individual's job level is and so too, the individual's degree of job satisfaction (Okpara, 2004:71).

However, Roos (2005:27) contends that certain authors have also found that job satisfaction decreases as educational levels increase. One possible explanation offered by these researchers for their findings was that further educated people tend to expect more from their jobs in terms of fulfillment and responsibility, and that these expectations are often deflated by the inability of most jobs to live up to these expectations on a sustainable basis. This disillusionment then leads to the relatively low job satisfaction levels some highly educated people experience.

In a study by Ritter and Anker (cited in Roos, 2005:27), it was found that high educational qualifications were consistent with considerably higher levels of job satisfaction. The authors suggested that the relationship here probably reflected the composite effect of the positive relationship between education and income earnings on the one hand and that between income and job satisfaction on the other (Rogers, 1991 cited in Okpara, 2004:71).

3.6   CHAPTER SUMMARY

The chapter explored the definitions of job satisfaction and investigated findings related to job satisfaction. The chapter also presented well-known and authoritative theories pertaining to job satisfaction. The literature study revealed that the levels of job satisfaction of employees including educators are to a large extent influenced by various factors. Inasmuch as educators experience some degree of job satisfaction, school managers should familiarize with these factors as they may help to enhance the job satisfaction levels of these educators in their schools.

The next chapter shall focus on the research design and methodology that shall be used to execute the research.

CHAPTER FOUR

4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous two chapters reviewed literature on the management strategies of school principals and the educators' job satisfaction. From the theoretical background, it was deduced that a relationship may exist between these two constructs. This chapter discusses the research design and methodology that directed this research survey. The purpose of this section is to explain the rationale behind the methodology to be used and to indicate how the research was conducted. It further outlined and justified the steps that were taken to ensure responsible data gathering and analysis, trustworthiness of the study and compliance with various ethical considerations. This section presented and justified the methodological paradigms that were used for data collection, analysis and interpretation that culminated in the research findings that are outlined in the last chapters of this research study.

In this research, to come up with the relevant research design and methodology for data collection, the researcher was guided by his research questions and objectives which sought to investigate the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction. The researcher chose to integrate the phenomenological, exploratory and interpretivist approaches as the epistemological and ontological paradigms that guided the research design, methodology, data collection and data analysis procedures.

This chapter begins with a discussion of the research approach to be adopted for this study and is followed by the research design. In other words, the main steps in the data collection for this research are described in this section as well as the rationale for the methods of data collection and analysis used. Lastly, final part of this chapter explained the research quality assurance assessment through data authenticity and ethical considerations.

4.2 EPISTEMOLOGICAL AND ONTOLOGICAL PARADIGMS

In this study, phenomenological, exploratory and interpretivist approaches were chosen as epistemological and ontological paradigms to underpin the research data collection and analysis processes. This consideration was made because any research is undertaken within the realms of a given philosophical interpretation of reality and how that reality is understood and presented as a form of knowledge. The knowledge which researchers generate cannot be viewed and explained in a vacuum as evidenced by Ambert, Adler, Adler and Detzner (1995:881) when they indicated that '... whereas methods are procedures or techniques, epistemologies constitute one's view of the world, one's assumption about how to know the social and apprehend its meanings, or what may be called one's philosophical orientation'.

Because the research study sought to investigate the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction, the researcher adopted for the above mentioned epistemological and ontological paradigms. These phenomenology, exploratory and interpretivism all view reality and knowledge as flexible rather than rigid, subjective rather than objective, multifaceted rather than uniform, contextual rather than general, qualitative rather than quantitative. This was supported by Seamark and Lings (2004:814) who posit that 'interpretative phenomenological analysis is interested in the participant's experience of the topic under investigation and as such does not attempt to produce an objective statement. It is an attempt to unravel the meanings in the participant's account through a process of interpretative engagement with the interviews and transcripts'.

In this study, the phenomena which all the sampled participants experienced were management strategies for school principals and job satisfaction for educators respectively. The researcher contended that the way or manner in which these different participants gave meaning to these phenomena (management strategies and job satisfaction) could differ because of their social and professional positions and professional experiences.

4.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

In this current research, a qualitative research approach is used. Bodgan and Biklen (2003:2) regard qualitative research as an empirical research approach in which the researcher explores relationships using textual rather than quantitative or numerical data. McMillan and Schumacher (2001:395) posit that qualitative research approach is an inquiry in which researchers collect data in face-to-face situations by interacting with selected persons in their settings. According to Creswell (2006:39) and Johnson and Christensen (2004:30), qualitative research is a type of research in which the researcher relies on the views of the participants, asks broad, general questions, collects data consisting largely of words (or texts) from participants and analyses these words for themes. Strauss and Corbin (1990:17) also express the term as any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification. Henning (2003:8) affirms that qualitative research is a research that utilizes open-ended, semi-structured or structured interviews, observations and group discussions in an attempt to explore and understand the attitudes, feelings and behavior of individuals or group of individuals. Qualitative research can take many forms such as ethnographic studies, field studies and phenomenological studies (Chisaka & Vakalisa, 2000:10; Vishnevsky & Beanlands, 2004:3).

Qualitative research is best used for depth, rather than breadth of information (Chisaka & Vakalisa, 2000:11) and discovering underlying feelings (such as job satisfaction), values, attitudes, and perceptions (Vishnevsky & Beanlands, 2004:3). It is a way of knowing and learning about different experiences from the perspective of the individuals who are involved, themselves. According to Polit (2001:12), qualitative research utilizes a naturalistic paradigm which is based on the notion that reality is not predetermined, but is constructed by the research participants. These naturalistic methods aim at exploring the phenomenon under study by focusing on the individuals who experience it, with the assumption that understanding is maximized by minimizing the interpersonal distance between the researcher and the participant (Chisaka & Vakalisa, 2000:12). According to Polit (2001:13), researchers in the naturalistic tradition stress the inherent complexity of humans, the ability of humans to shape and create their own experiences, and the idea that truth is a composite of realities. Thus, qualitative research

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allows researchers to explore social phenomenon and its meaning in everyday life (Speziale & Carpenter, 2003:14, Burns & Grove, 2003:4).

The study is qualitative in its approach because the qualitative research methods are more suited to help in the understanding of human behavior and attitudes (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:16). Maree (2011:51) also adds that qualitative research as a research methodology typically studies people or systems by interacting with and observing the participants in their natural environment (in situ) and focusing on their meanings and interpretations and the emphasis is on the quality and depth of information and not on the scope or breadth of information provided. In this study, the researcher solicited for views from respondents on management strategies and how these strategies could be utilized to enhance the job satisfaction levels of educators. In essence, management strategies are forms of human behavior and job satisfaction can be described as part of human attitudes, hence qualitative research is regarded as the most suitable approach to be used. Through qualitative research, an attempt was made to discover, describe and discuss the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction.

Babbie and Mouton (2001:270) describe the primary goal of qualitative research as, first, describing, and then understanding, as opposed to merely explaining social action. Furthermore, the qualitative researcher perceives concepts and constructs as meaningful words that can be analyzed to provide an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon. Qualitative research emphasizes description rather than observation (Miller, 1991:5). Barker (cited by Niemann 2005:183) explains that qualitative research is often carried out to investigate important concerns to be found in some parts of the human view. It can therefore be concluded that qualitative research can be explained as context specific and the data attained from such studies may be transferred and/or applied to related contexts for comparative or other purposes.

To be able to determine the appropriateness of qualitative research methodologies for this study, it was important to identify the advantages and disadvantages of qualitative research methodology. Some of the advantages of qualitative research are: (i) It allows the researcher to view opinions in natural environments without artificiality (Opdenakker, 2006:5); (ii) It can

intensify a researcher's depth of understanding of the phenomenon under investigation (Wengraf, 2001:194); and (iii) It is flexible and allows the researcher to practice new ideas of concern (Pollock, 2004:4). On the other hand, some of the disadvantages of qualitative research are that: (i) the sample sizes are commonly too small such that it does not allow the researcher to generalize the data beyond the sample selected for the specific study. Therefore, it is often conducted primarily for enlightening and operationalizing concepts; (ii) Ensuring reliability of data that could pose difficulties in qualitative research since a single observer will be describing unique events. The researcher is in close contact with participants, which may result in a loss of objectivity; and (iii) if qualitative research is not properly planned, the study may produce nothing of worth and therefore the researcher who uses qualitative methodology has to make particular provision to focus on the key issues in the research study.

It was considered apt for this study to follow a qualitative approach because it had the potential to increase understanding concerning management strategies to enhance the job satisfaction levels of educators in South African schools. Moreover, this approach was considered advantageous because it is adaptable and accepts the practice of new ideas that might appear during the course of data analysis. Such flexibility was important for this study because if new ideas arose during the research, the study could be adapted to provide more meaningful results.

The researcher has attempted in the foregoing to justify why he chose the qualitative research approach for the data collection as well as its subsequent data analysis and interpretation. Having done this, the following section presents and discusses the research design adopted in this study.

4.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

In this study, a qualitative research design was adopted. This research design is expressed a plan for the study, providing the overall framework for collecting data, outlining the detailed steps of the investigation and providing guidelines for systematic data collection (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004:21; Creswell, 2006:39). The research design can also be described as the specific procedures involved in the last three steps of the research process: data collection, data analysis and report writing (Creswell, 2005:51). According to Terre-Blanche and Durrheim (2002:29), research design is a strategic framework for action that links research questions to the execution

or implementation of the research. The definition that the research designs is a plan that guides arrangements for collection and analysis of data, because it specifies how the research is going to be carried out in such a manner that it answers research questions. De Vos, Strydom and Schurink (2001:77) also view a research design as a blueprint or a detailed plan of how a research study is to be conducted. This includes a description of the procedure for selecting a sample, collecting and analyzing data (Babbie, 2010:93).

In other words, a research design refers to the exposition or plan and structure of the investigation and has the objective of planning, structuring and executing the research concerned in such a way that the validity of the findings are maximized. According to Booyse (1993:23), a research design is defined as the consideration and creation of means of obtaining reliable, objective, generalized and valid data of which formal announcements about the phenomenon may be confirmed or rejected. Mouton (2001:276) maintains that the aim of a research design is to plan and structure a given research project such that the validity of the research findings are maximized. Other authors think of research design as: (i) a basic plan, which guides the data collection and analysis phase of the project. It is a framework, which specifies the type of information to be collected, and the resources of the data collection procedure (Lokesh, 2007:26); (ii) the strategy for a study and the plan by which the strategy is to be carried out. It specifies the methods and procedures for the collection, measurement and analysis of data (Lokesh, 2007: 26); (iii) A plan for collecting and utilizing data so that desired information can be obtained with sufficient precision or so that a hypothesis or an objective can be tested properly; (iv) a plan outlining how information is to be gathered for an assessment or evaluation that includes identifying the data gathering method(s), the instruments to be used or created, how the instruments will be administered, and how the information will be organized and analyzed and (v) the overall plan for collecting and analyzing data including specifications for enhancing the internal and external validity of the study (Polit & Hungler, 1991:653)

Terre-Blanche and Durrheim (2002:29-30) maintain that the aim of research design is to provide a framework for action that will enable the researcher to draw coherent and acceptable conclusions or inferences from the observations made. McMillan and Schumacher (1993:31) state that research design ensures that the study fulfills a particular response, as it provides

answers to research questions that will stand against criticism and ensure that the design has an impact on the validity and correctness of research findings.

There is no simple classification of research designs that covers all the variations found in the real world of research. According to Alison (2000:4), a research design includes the planning of the research procedure as well as the procedure for data collection and analysis. In line with this opinion of research design, Table 4.1 summaries the whole research design and methodologies adopted in this research.

Table 4.1: Overview of research design and methodological processes

ASSUMMED PARADIGMS	
Epistemological and Ontological paradigms	Phenomenological, exploratory, interpretivist approaches.
Methodological paradigm	Qualitative research design
SELECTION OF PARTICIPANTS	
Purposeful sampling	Selection of 3 primary school principals, 3 secondary school principals, 6 primary school educators and 6 secondary school educators who have hands-on experience in phenomena of management of schools and job satisfaction of educators.
Convenience sampling	Selection of 2 schools for the focus group interviews of educators as information rich sites.
DATA COLLECTION	
Data collection instruments	Individual interviews; focus group interviews and the researcher as an instrument.
Data documentation procedures	Verbatim transcription and reflective notes.
DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION	
Content and thematic analysis of data, transcription, data coding, free quotations and links; Thematic and content interpretation.	
RESEARCH QUALITY ASSESSMENT	
Confirmability, credibility, dependability, transferability, and trustworthiness (authenticity).	
ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS	
Anonymity, confidentiality, informed consent, and voluntary participation	

Source: Alison (2000:4)

However, it must be noted that a research design is not a method of data collection itself. Design is independent of method in that the design incorporates the research methods most suitable to

gather the required data and answer the original research question. Thus, a research design is a logical structure that ensures that all collected evidence helps eliminate bias when evaluating theories and arriving at a conclusion (Willis, 2010).

A research design provides the basic direction for carrying out an investigation so as to obtain answers to research questions. According to Hair, Babin, Money and Samouel (2003:57) a researcher should choose a design that will: (i) provide relevant information on research questions, and (ii) will also, do the job most efficiently. Considering all surrounding conveniences, this research shall adopt an exploratory research design.

According to Babbie (2010:92) and Babbie and Mouton (2001:79), a large proportion of social research is conducted to explore a topic or to provide a basic familiarity with that topic. Thus, the research design adopted in this study is exploratory in the sense that the research takes place to explore the topic in real world setting and the researcher does not intend to manipulate the phenomenon of interest, for example, participants, relationships and interactions (Patton, 2002:39). Following Wiersma's (1991:219) point of view, the researcher in this study was not concerned with generalizability of results to a wide population but only accurate and adequate description of the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators.

Babbie (2010:92; 2002:79) argues that exploratory studies are most typically done to develop new objectives about an existing phenomenon. This reason, in particular, is applicable to this study, as this study is expected to develop a new understanding of existing management strategies and its relationship to the enhancement of the levels of educators' job satisfaction in schools. Additionally, research design considerations that apply to this research, as postulated by Miller and Brewer (2003:302) are the need to follow an open and flexible research method and using methods, such as literature reviews, interviews and the interrogation of informants, which may lead to additional insights and a better comprehension of the phenomenon.

4.5 RESEARCH POPULATION AND SAMPLING

In this study, research population was determined and sampling was done. Alreck and Settle (1995:54) assert that the specification of a sample must start with the identification of a population to be surveyed. The researcher must anticipate decisions that are likely to arise during the actual sample selection; participants must possess the information; and must have certain attributes or characteristics to make their responses meaningful.

Welman and Kruger (2001:46) define population as the study object which may be individuals, groups, or organizations. De Vos, Strydom and Schurink (2001:189) refer to the population as the total collection of the elements under investigation or on which the researcher wishes to make inferences. Also, Bless and Higson-Smith (1995:85) view population as the entire set of people, events or objects which is the subject of research and about which the researcher wants to determine some characteristics.

It is not possible, nor is it necessary, to collect information from the total population. Instead, a smaller sub-group of the target population or a sample is usually selected for the purpose of study. Benkele (in Pillay 2006:50) defines sampling as the act, or technique of selecting a suitable sample, or a representative part of a population for the purpose of determining parameters or characteristics of the whole population. In other words, sampling is the strategy of selecting a smaller section of the population that will accurately represent the patterns of the target population at large.

The main purposes of sampling are to: draw conclusions about a population from a sample, which enable researchers to determine a population's characteristics by directly observing only a portion (or sample) of the population; use the resources required for collecting and managing data more effectively; and improve the quality of data.

According to Cooper and Schindler (2003:179), some advantages of sampling are: data gathered on a sample is less time consuming, especially when the population is spread over a large geographical area; dealing with samples instead of the whole population is less expensive; and it

is a practical way of collecting data when the population is extremely large (Bless & Higson-Smith, 1995:86).

According to Hair, Babin, Money and Samouel (2003:211), the major sampling method in qualitative research is non-probability sampling. Hair, et. al. (2003:217) claim that in non-probability sampling, the selection of elements for the sample is not necessarily made with the aim of the sample being statistically representative of the population. This study made use of non-probability sampling techniques, that is, convenience and purposive sampling. Partington (2002:107) and Maree (2011:176-177) confirmed that there are three types of non-probability sampling, namely convenience, quota and judgment sampling. As the names imply, these types of sampling involve a selection of participants on the basis of the researcher's convenience and judgment. Purposive sampling involves the selection of elements in the population for a specific purpose (Hair et. al., 2003:217). Denscombe (2005:15-16) posits that this sampling is applied to those situations where the researcher already knows something about the specific people or events and deliberately selects particular ones because they are seen as instances that are likely to produce the most valuable data.

Quota sampling is a sampling method of gathering representative data from a group. It involves designating characteristics to include on the choice of participants (Maree, 2011:177). These characteristics might be age, place of residence, gender, class, profession and marital status. This allows the researcher to make an effort to have the same proportions of units of analysis an important stratum such as sex and age in the population but obtaining the units of analysis in any particular stratum accidentally (Welman & Kruger, 2001:63).

In this study, the target population consisted of 38 principals and 651 educators in the Dzindi Circuit of Vhembe District. The Limpopo Province has five districts: Capricorn, Mopane, Sekhukhune, Vhembe and Waterberg (c.f. Table 4.2). The researcher focused on the Vhembe District. This district was purposively and conveniently sampled by the researcher. By the time of the study, the Vhembe District had twenty-seven circuits (c.f. Table 4.2). Out of these 27 circuits, the researcher focused on the Dzindi Circuit which has 38 schools: 13 secondary schools and 25 primary schools. This circuit was also purposively and conveniently sampled by the

researcher. Accordingly, the study population comprised all the educators and principals in the conveniently chosen Dzindi Circuit. In qualitative research, it is not imperative to work with representative populations and samples (Polkinghorne, 2005:139; Hancock, 2002:8; Runhare, 2010:116). Thus, participants were selected on the basis that they could provide a substantial contribution to expanding on the structure and character of the experience under study. Thus, this sampling is all about experience, not individuals or groups (purposively and conveniently sampled). Although school principals and educators in Dzindi Circuit are not necessarily representative of all the principals and educators in the Vhembe District, they are typical of principals and educators in many districts and provinces throughout the whole country. As far as could be determined, they are more or less representative of the teaching population's gender, age, working conditions, work group, post levels, academic and professional qualifications. The total number of educators for both primary and secondary schools in the Vhembe District is 13 161 in all post levels, that is, from post level one to four. Of the 13 161 educators, 6 697 educators are females and 6 464 males. There are 933 principals and 12 228 educators in the district. These schools are staffed with both permanent and temporary teaching staff paid by the Limpopo Department of Education or School Governing Bodies respectively.

Table 4.2 Circuits of Vhembe district in Limpopo Province of South Africa.

LIMPOPO PROVINCE

DISTRICTS

CAPRICORN   MOPANE   SEKHUKHUNE   VHEMBE   WATERBERG

CIRCUITS

Dzondo   Hlanganani   Mudaswali   Nzhelele   Tshiramba
          South   East   Vhumbedzi
              Malamulele Matshindudi   Tshaanane   Vhuronga 1
              East
                  Mvudi   Nzhelele   Soutpansberg
                           West   West
                                                          Sibasa
Hlanganani   Malamulele   Niani   Sambandou
Central   North
    Luvuvhu   Vhuronga 2
                                  Sekgosese
                                  North

Dzindi   Hlanganani   Malamulele   Soutpansberg
          North   West   East

              Malamulele   Soutpansberg
              Central   North

There are many reasons for conducting the research in the Vhembe district of the Limpopo province, especially in the Dzindi circuit. The Dzindi circuit comprises of schools with diverse cultural groups, such as the Vendas, Tsongas, Pedis and Shonas. The various school principals

were considered to operate in a diverse cultural environment. Educators in these schools have diverse cultural backgrounds too. The area where Dzindi Circuit is found is not an affluent part of the province; hence people do not necessarily desire to work there. The benefit of choosing this area is that the schools are in a culturally dynamic environment, reflective of the transformation taking place in the management strategies of many schools in South Africa. Thus, in this study, the selection of the main research site was informed by three factors, namely, the possible richness of data, unfamiliarity and suitability (Neumann, 2001:19). According to Patton (1991:169), information-rich cases for a study are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research. Merriam (2002:12) agrees with Patton and asserts that information-rich cases can be achieved by purposive sampling of the population. It is believed that participants who can provide relevant descriptions of such an experience are primarily those who have had or are having the experience. In this case, principals and educators were chosen on the basis of being professionals in the field of teaching and their convenience to the researcher.

Earlier it was mentioned that convenience and judgment sampling were used. These sampling methods were utilized because principals and educators in the sample were conveniently situated from a geographical perspective and the researcher had easy access to them as they lived in close proximity to the researcher.

In this study, three primary schools and three secondary schools were purposively and conveniently sampled. Although the educators employed in those same schools could also have been interviewed without compromising the trustworthiness of the results, the researcher decided to select six other schools, three primary and three secondary schools, with a view to interviewing educators. Thus, a sample of six schools were selected, the principals of which automatically qualified to be interviewed, and two of these six schools were selected in which educators had to be selected for focus group interviews. Thus, a sample of six schools was selected for the study. Two educators per selected six schools were included in the focus group interviews (2 groups comprising 6 educators each).

4.6 RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

In accordance with the qualitative research design, the researcher used a combination of individual and focus group interviews. These instruments were chosen in order to achieve data saturation and data triangulation by widening the participants' perceptions. Although, the most common qualitative research instruments are participant observation, individual interviews, focus group interviews, and the researcher as an instrument, this research as mentioned above utilized individual and focus group interviews as well as the researcher as an instrument. Each of these research instruments is particularly suited for obtaining a specific type of data: (i) Individual interviews are perfect instruments for collecting data on individuals' personal perspectives, perceptions and experiences, particularly when topics are being explored; (ii) Focus group interviews are very effective in eliciting data when participants are in groups in which they can discuss together the topic under study, and (iii) Researcher as an instrument focuses on the researcher's responsibility in initiating and controlling the interviews through the role of a moderator.

In this study, interviews were considered the most appropriate data collection instruments. Semi-structured interviews were utilized in which the researcher asked some questions that were closed-ended and some that were open-ended (Babbie, 2010:598). According to Babbie (2010:274) the interview is a convenient and 'alternative' method of data collection. Rather than asking participants to read questions and enter their own answers, researchers had a face-to-face encounter with the interviewees (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:395, Patton, 1989:57). These two sets of interviews used were: individual interviews and focus group interviews which were pilot tested before data collection.

4.6.1   PILOT STUDY

Before pilot testing the research instruments of this study, the interview schedules were sent for moderation by the supervisor as a way of ensuring trustworthiness and authenticity of the procedures and data to be collected. After moderation by the supervisor, the interviews were pilot tested with three principals and two groups of educators for focus group interviews. These participants were purposively and conveniently sampled from the population considered in the

study. According to Gray (2004:205) interview questions must be accurate, simple and unambiguous because it is a 'one-shot' attempt to gather data. The researcher was of the opinion that the interview questions of the study should be pilot tested to reduce the incidence of non-response to the research questions. Thus, the researcher decided to pilot test the research questions.

The researcher personally conducted both the individual interviews and focus group interviews with principals and educators respectively. The pilot study was done in November 2011 to determine the management strategies of school principals and job satisfaction of educators as well as the extent to which these management strategies were being and the extent to which these management strategies were being applied in the enhancement of the job satisfaction of school educators in the various school environments.

In this study, pilot testing was meant for the researcher to check the following applicability of the research instruments: the duration of the individual and focus group interviews, ambiguity of questions, and poorly worded or sensitive questions. It was observed that individual interview's time allocation of one hour to one and half hours was too long and so the time allocation was reduced to forty-five minutes to one hour. Also, time allocation of focus group interview which was one and half hours to two hours was adjusted one hour forty-five minutes to two hours. Ambiguity of question items and poorly worded items were also made non-ambiguous, for example, the question that read: 'How do you see your role in the management of a school?' was rephrased to: 'Describe your roles as a school principal in the management of a school'. This was done taking cognizance of Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2005:260-261) who advised that in pilot testing questions, ambiguous items should made non-ambiguous, the items that lack discriminability would be dropped and substituted by other items, and those sensitive and poorly worded would be desensitized and re-worded respectively.

The results of this pilot test assisted the researcher to determine whether the: interview schedules would indeed succeed in generating the information required; and the information that would be generated would lead to acceptable and trustworthy conclusions about the research questions. Finally, the pilot test improved the effectiveness of the interview schedules.

4.6.2   INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEWS

In this study, interviews were used to gather data from school principals as a common method of collecting data in qualitative research (Chism, Douglas & Wayne, 2008:23; Fontana & Frey, 2005:705; Marshall & Rossman, 1999:108). This interviewing may be regarded simply as a conversation with the purpose of gathering information (Berg, 2004:75). These interviews allowed the researcher to observe two tasks that needed to be carried out in the interview process. First, the researcher had to follow a specific line of inquiry; that is, an appreciative inquiry. Appreciative inquiry is expressed as a cooperative search for the best in people, their organizations and the world around them (Cooperrider & Whitney, 1999:10; Newman, Murrel & Fitzgerald, 2002:2; Watkins & Mohr, 2001:198). Further, appreciative inquiry involves systematic discovery of what gives a system a 'life' when it is most effective and capable in human terms. Put simply, appreciative inquiry refers to the art and practice of asking questions that strengthens a system's capacity to heighten positive potential. Second, it was necessary to ask questions in an unbiased manner yet serving the needs of the inquiry. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2001:271) stresses that the strength of data collection through interviews is that it focuses directly on the research topic and is insightful.

Since gathering data is, among other things, a process whereby participants are observed and the researcher guided by his/her prior review of the literature, professional experience and personal experiences, an initial interview schedule was developed (c.f. Appendix H). These schedules were regarded as very important tools by means of which information on the same topic collected from each participant. According to Cassell and Symon (2004:15), these research interviews were generally used as interview guides, that is, listing the topics which the interviewer should attempt to cover in the course of the interview and suggesting probes which may be used to follow-up responses and elicit greater detail from the participants. However, the schedules were only intended to be guides so as not to stifle the open-ended nature of the study.

Once the guides were developed, an expert was requested to review them and provide input. They were also taken to the supervisor of this study for moderation and control purposes. After the revision of the guides in accordance with the supervisors and expert's comments, they were modified accordingly and then the data gathering process proceeded thereafter.

Individual interviews were conducted with a fairly open framework that allowed for focused, conversational, and two-way communication. They were used for giving and receiving information. The role of the researcher in an open-ended interview was to facilitate and guide rather than to dictate exactly what would happen during the encounter. An interview schedule merely indicated the general area of interest and provided general information to participants. Therefore, the researcher asked questions such as the following: How do you see your role as a principal in the management of a school? Please give practical examples. What do you do if you want to implement a change in the day-to-day running of the school? How would you approach this matter? According to Chisaka and Vakalisa (2000:23), such interview questions are regarded as a flexible way of obtaining and exploring information.

The accuracy in data collection for all the interviews was ensured through the use of a digital voice recorder which had the capacity to capture voices to a radius of six meters. Before starting the interview, the researcher reminded participants about their consent to allow audio-recording of the interview. After the audio-recording, the voice recording was later transferred to the researcher's computer to prevent any loss of raw data. This voice recording added data truthfulness to the research findings because the transcription from voice to written script presented a one-on-one word correspondence of what was said and what was written.

In this study, individual interviews were adopted because of their advantages as given below (Niemann, 2005:191; Fontana and Frey, 2005:706): The researcher initiated dialogue with a real person and engaged the interviewees as human beings, not as a study subject. The interview schedule did not suggest the terms in which participants should answer a question. It merely aimed at eliciting subjective, idiosyncratic responses that allowed deeper understanding of the phenomena under study. The participant was usually well motivated because of the personal contact. The participant was motivated to cooperate based on the idea that his/her responses were

valued highly enough by the researcher to warrant personal attention. There was a high question completion rate because of the personal contact due to the fact that participant was less likely to ignore a person sitting with him/her than a written questionnaire by itself. Most individual interviews were conducted in a private setting with one person at a time so that the participant would feel free to express himself/herself fully and truthfully (Van Dalen, 1979:1590. Also, when interviewed individually participants revealed more information about the topic, as they were not threatened by the presence of others. The researcher, therefore, felt that individual interviews were an appropriate data collection method for eliciting data from the school principals. As was indicated in chapter one (c.f. § 1.9.4.1), school principals were interviewed individually, this was because they might have unique problems and experiences and be reluctant to share these should other principals be present as well as they have different and varied school climates and environments they create. It would have also been very expensive, cumbersome and time consuming to have assembled them as they are from different schools. Moreover, interviewing them individually was useful as it enabled them to talk freely about the research topic.

The researcher conducted these individual interviews with three secondary school principals and three primary school principals of Dzindi circuit schools. The researcher and the participants agreed on times, dates and venues for the interviews. This was in accordance with what Streubert and Speziale's (2003:28) suggestion that it is good practice to conduct the interview in a space and time that is most comfortable for the participants.

4.6.3   FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEWS

In this study, focus group interviews were the other major research instrument used because it involved many participants at one time to discuss the topic under study. A focus group interview is a technique that brings together a small homogenous group of participants for a discussion under the moderation of the researcher to ensure adequate focus on the research question (Speziale & Streubert, 2003:29; Heiskanen, Jarvela, Pulliainen, Saastamoinen and Timonen, 2008:153). Beside this focus group interview becoming a useful instrument for soliciting information about the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction, Hess-Biber and Leavy (2006:197) are of the opinion that focus

groups are an important tool for accessing the experiences and attitudes of people including professionals.

 A focus group is called a 'focus' group because the moderator (researcher) keeps the individuals in the group focused on the topic being discussed (Johnson & Christensen, 2003:185). These focus group interviews involved a group of people, jointly participating in an interview that did not use a structured question and answer method to obtain information from them. Wilkinson and Birmingham (2003:90) maintain that focus group interviews are used to gather rich, descriptive data in a small group format from participants who have agreed to focus on a topic of mutual interest. Focus group interviews were used by researcher in the hope that participants could stimulate each other since the topic under discussion was familiar to all of them although they were having their own individual attitudes, perspectives, perceptions, interests, and assumptions about the topic.

 A systematic review of recent focus group research in psychology yields an average of nine participants per session as conventional, with a range of six to twelve (Breakwell, et. al. 2000). However, Willig (2001:29) suggests that focus groups should consist of no more than six participants. Rubin and Babbie (1997:573) contend that these participants are chosen for the focus group on the basis of their relevancy to the topic under study. This is to ensure that all participants remain actively involved in the group discussion throughout the data collection phase. Patton (2002:386) maintains that unlike in individual interviews, focus group participants get to hear each other's responses and to make additional comments beyond their own original responses as they hear what other participants have to say. Thus, focus group interviews were used for groups of educators, but as Patton (2003:386) suggests, participants were not expected to agree with each other or to reach any kind of consensus. These focus group interviews were conducted because the researcher felt that it would have been time consuming to conduct individual interviews with so many participants. Also, it was extremely difficult to manage or accurately transcribe a group discussion of more than six participants.

A distinctive feature of focus groups is that they create research data by generating social interaction. This was done in this study by assembling a group of participants to discuss a

specific topic and then observing how the ensuing discussion evolved (Boddy in Heiskanen, et. al. 2008: 154). The basic assumption was that meaning is generated in social interaction. Group discussions that are organized and focused allow participants to express the meaning of their experiences and elaborate on them in a collective sense making process. Focus groups are also used to obtain individual viewpoints and it is advisable to instruct discussants that the aim is not to reach consensus, but to explore the different viewpoints that emerge. The method was good because through observing, recording, and analyzing the interaction in the group, the researcher gained an understanding of how the participants approached the topic and the kind of language they used to frame the issues.

Focus group interviews as a form of data collection allow participants more latitude than other comparable methods (Kitzinger & Barbour in Heiskanen, et. al. 2008:154). Because of the qualitative nature of the research, in this study the participants were encouraged to come up with views and opinions on the concepts themselves. Since the discussion was conducted in groups, participants had the opportunity to learn from each others' comments. These focus group dialogues also supported collective sense-making processes; thus, the viewpoints gained were more well-thought-out and also highlighted lay experience, rather than lay people's ignorance, and could make positive contributions to policy-making (Cunningham-Burely, Kerr, & Pavis in Heiskanen, et. al. 2008:154).

One critical aspect of a focus group interview is the success of the moderator on the topic of interest. The moderator's job is to focus the group's discussion on the topic under study. To accomplish this, in this study the moderator explained to the group the operational procedures to be used, the group's purpose and why the group was being recorded. Rapport with the group was established and the topic was introduced. The participants felt relaxed and often the moderator helped this to happen. Once the participants were comfortable, the moderator kept the discussion on track while not influencing how the discussion proceeded. The researcher made sure that there was synergy among group members and that the group members talked to each other, not with the moderator.

The researcher conducted separate focus group interviews with six primary and six secondary school educators from the two chosen schools. Thus, a total of twelve educators participated in the focus group interviews. All the focus group interviews took place at the time, date and venue agreed upon by the researcher and the participants as in accordance with the submissions of Streubert and Speziale (2003:28). In all these focus group interviews audio-recording was an ongoing process in order to enhance the quality assurance assessment in the research study.

4.6.4   RESEARCHER AS AN INSTRUMENT

In this study, the researcher paid overt attention to his role as an instrument. This was so because the researcher is seen to have direct effects on the research design, findings and interpretations of a study (Lankshear & Knobel, 2004:74). This implied that the role of the researcher as a research instrument is an integral part in qualitative research. Therefore, the researcher was not only to understand his role but also to acquire skills to perform this role. In the opinion of Maree (2011:298), the role of the researcher entailed being an active participant as interviewer, which included the researcher forming a vital part of data. According to Stake (2000:372), the researcher upheld constant participation 'from conscience, from participants and from the research community' in order to avoid ethical issues from arising. Leedy and Ormrod (2005:133) and Patton (2002:14) assert that qualitative researchers believe that the researcher's ability to interpret and make sense of what he/she sees is critical for an understanding of any social phenomenon. Johnson and Christensen (2004:188) further maintain that the researcher is said to be the data collection instrument because it is the researcher who must decide what is important and what data are to be recorded. Leedy and Ormrod (2005:96) further attest that the researcher is regarded as an instrument because the bulk of their data collection is dependent on his/her personal involvement (interviews) in the setting.

Glesne and Peshkin (1992:112) are of the opinion that some of the researcher roles may worry the researcher, while other roles may be attractive but perplexing in relationship to the data collection goal. Therefore, it is advised that the researcher should begin with his/her research knowing the role that he/she needs to play quite well. In this research, the researcher entered the world of the people he planned to study, got to know them, be known and be trusted by them and systematically kept a detailed written record of what was heard and observed (Bodgan & Biklen,

2003:2). During the face-to-face interview, the role of the researcher was to observe and listen carefully to participants. According to Welman and Kruger (2001:180) what the researcher observed is not the reality but an interpreted reality.

In this study, the nature of the relationship between the researcher and participants had an impact on the data gathering and data analysis and interpretation. As a result participants in qualitative research are not subjects per se but they are colleagues. Therefore, the researcher had the support and confidence of those individuals to complete the research (Burns & Grove, 2003:375). The researcher strived to build a relationship of reciprocal trust and rapport with the participants. In view of the above understanding, the researcher as an educator had personal and professional contact with both educators and principals. As a graduate student, the researcher had the opportunity to participate in many discussions about job satisfaction of educators and management roles of school principals.

However, the researcher acknowledged the presumptions and bias brought to this study. The first presumption was that not all educators have high or low degrees of job satisfaction; although it is desirable for educators to have high degrees of job satisfaction. The second presumption was that not all school principals use the same management strategies or view enhancement of educators' job satisfaction as achievable through management strategies, although principals desire to have educators who have high degrees of job satisfaction. The third presumption was that the management strategies of school principals is a controversial and misunderstood phenomenon that is camouflaged with myths, misconceptions, personality and ambiguity that muddle job satisfaction of educators in schools. The fourth presumption was that the DoE has not adequately met the needs of the entire teaching fraternity.

In this study, the role of the researcher as an instrument entailed the role as a transcriber and data analyst with regard to the interviews as well as triangulation of data. In addition, the researcher fulfilled the role of designer and analyzer of the questions of the interview. The researcher was also involved in organizing time to carry out the interviews (Maree, 2011:299).

4.7 DATA COLLECTION

The research concerned the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction in South Africa. The aim of the study was to examine if there is a relationship between different management strategies of school principals and educators; job satisfaction. Therefore, the sampling process started with the identification of the six schools that would be relevant to the study. As soon as the schools were identified, the selection of research participants at each school was undertaken by means of convenience and purposive sampling. Once, participants were identified, data collection commenced.

In this study, data collection was done through individual and focus group interviews on school principals and educators respectively (Marshall & Rossman, 1999:105). Bogdan and Biklen (2003:109) regard data as any kind of information that researchers can identify and collect from the world they are studying in order to answer their research problems. Data collection as a research tool involves applying the measuring instrument to the sample selected for the investigation (Mouton, 1996:67). The data collection tool that was used in this study was the interview type. For these interviews, interview schedules were developed around the themes relating to the sub-problems mentioned in Chapter 1.4. As such, an interview became a data collection tool that was used for data analysis and interpretation. The purpose of the interview was to find and record information obtained from school principals and educators and to use it with the evidence from the literature study to advance knowledge. The data collection through an interview was primarily aimed at acquiring information from educators and principals about the management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction of educators in general.

In theory interviewers have a choice of whether to take notes of participants during the interview or to tape record the interview (Hancock, 2002:14). A combination of these two forms of record taking was preferred for a number of reasons. The interviewer was enabled to concentrate on listening and responding to the interviewee and was not distracted by trying to accurately write down in detail what was said. The discussion flowed smoothly because the interviewer did not have to write down the response to one question before moving on to the next. Tape recording ensured that the whole interview was captured and provided complete data for analysis. Cues that could have been missed the first time could be recognized when listening to the recording.

Besides tape-recording, note-taking was undertaken during the interviews by a note-taker who assisted the researcher with this service. According to Wellman and Kruger (2001:187), note-taking by the research assistant was quite important. It served the following purposes: (i) provided back up for technical failure of recording instruments; (ii) served as a manner of checking the recorded data; (iii) focused the researcher's attention on themes or repeated patterns that appeared in group discussions; (iv) reminded the researcher of things to look out for during future interviews, and (v) cautions against pitfalls.

As elucidated above, qualitative data collection usually involves direct interaction with individuals on a one to one basis or in a group setting. Data collection methods are time consuming and consequently, in this study, data was collected from smaller numbers of people than would usually be the case in quantitative research such as a questionnaire survey. According to Creswell (2005:202), qualitative data collection is more than simply deciding on whether one will observe or interview people. It consists of collecting data using forms with general, emerging questions to permit the participant to generate responses; gathering word (text); and collecting information from a small number of individuals or sites.

Since, the concern of most qualitative researchers is factual accuracy of the data (Wolcott, 1990:27) and as such, to assure factual accuracy, all interviews were audio taped and then transcribed verbatim and rechecked for accuracy. Creswell (2003:179) maintained that the data collection methods chosen have a dramatic influence on the procedures to be followed in the study. In this study, individual interviews and focus group interviews were chosen and the rationale for choosing these data collection methods was given. Table 4.2 summarizes the type data collection instruments used, when the data was collected and who the target participants were.

Table 4.3: Research instruments and data collection schedule

	Limpopo Province		
	Vhembe District		
	Dzindi Circuit		
Instrument	Targeted participant	Facilitators	Date
Interview 1	Sec. sch. principal	Researcher & Note-taker	02/11/2011
Interview 2	Sec. Sch. Principal	Researcher & Note-taker	07/11/2011
Interview 3	Sec. Sch. Principal	Researcher & Note-taker	08/11/2011
Interview 4	Prim. Sch. Principal	Researcher & Note-taker	11/11/2011
Interview 5	Prim. Sch. Principal	Researcher & Note-taker	20/12/2011
Interview 6	Prim. Sch. Principal	Researcher & Note-taker	20/11/2011
FG 1	Prim. Sch. Educators	Researcher & Note-taker	18/11/2011
FG 2	Sec. Sch. Educators	Researcher & Note-taker	16/12/2011

4.7.1 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN DATA COLLECTION

Throughout the data collection process in this study, great care was taken to make sure that confidentiality and privacy of participants were upheld. All participants were not identified by their names; instead name codes were assigned each time participants were interviewed. In order to gain the consent of participants, the researcher first explained the objectives of the interviews and entertained questions to clear any suspicions.

4.8 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

As mentioned in chapter one (c.f. 1.9.8), data analysis in this study was done using a mix of the content and thematic analysis approaches. These two approaches are inductive methods of data analysis in which written texts, sentences, phrases, paragraphs or narratives are examined and broken down into meaningful units or bits of data. Brink (2000:178) is of the opinion that data analysis is a process of describing data into meaningful terms, developing categories and making comparisons. In this study, the process by which data analysis was undertaken was important in determining the credibility of the research findings. According to Ryan, Coughlan and Cronin

(2007:742), data analysis essentially involves the transformation of raw data into a final description, narrative, or themes and categories. Marshall and Rossman (1999:150) acknowledge that data analysis is a process of bringing order, structure and interpretation to the mass of collected data. Vishnevsky and Beanlands in Ryan, et. al. (2007:742) acknowledges that there is considerable variation in how this analysis is undertaken, depending on the research question and the approach taken.

The process of data analysis in this study followed the collection of data mainly by means of individual and focus group interviews. It involved coding (reducing) the data, then presenting it as an integrative diagram (organizing), and drawing out themes and concepts (patterns). In order for relationships between themes to be identified and collated into a thematic conceptual matrix (Miles & Huberman, 1994:131-132), the researcher used a mix of the content and thematic analysis approaches simultaneously.

The researcher applied thematic analysis in this study. When data is analyzed by theme, it is called thematic analysis. This approach emphasizes the generation of themes, whereby the broken bits of data should be understood in the context of themes. Thematic analysis is a conventional practice in qualitative research which involves searching through data to identify themes and any recurrent patterns (Robberts & Pettigrew, 2007:363). According to Braun and Clarke (2006:79), thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analyzing and reporting patterns (themes) within data. This type of analysis is highly inductive, that is, the themes emerge from the data and are not imposed upon it by the researcher. A theme is a cluster of linked categories conveying similar meanings and which usually emerges as a result of an inductive analytic process which characterizes the qualitative paradigm. Braun and Clarke (2006:82) also hold the opinion that a theme captures something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents a patterned response or meaning within the data set. Since analysts move back and forth between new concepts and the data, all research involves processes of induction and deduction, especially thematic analysis whereby induction creates themes (main ideas developed or repeated) and deduction verifies them.

In this type of data analysis the themes emerged from the data and were not imposed by the researcher. The data collection and analysis took place simultaneously because after every interview, the researcher was engaged in basic data transcription, studied the interview notes and developed ideas and impressions that came to mind from the data. Background reading which constituted part of the analysis process, was done to help explain any emerging theme. This method was particularly useful in this data which was generated from individual interviews and focus group discussions.

The method of analysis aimed to represent a view of reality via systematically working through text to identify topics that are progressively integrated into higher order themes, via processes of de-contextualization and re-contextualization. This method of data analysis (thematic) followed identifiable steps outlined below, concurrently with content analysis. The latter involved coding and memoing (recording reflective notes about what one is learning from the data), breaking down raw data into meaningful units or themes and categories which were summarized into research findings. According to Hesse-Biber and Leavy (2006:358), coding helps to reduce data and memoing assists with thinking about how to organize the data into meaningful categories and patterns. Content analysis in this study was understood as: (i) A research method for the subject interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005:1278); (ii) An approach of empirical, methodological controlled analysis of texts within their context of communication, following content analytic rules and step by step models, without rash quantification (Mayring, 2000:2), and (iii) Any qualitative data reduction and sense-making effort that takes a volume of qualitative material and attempts to identify core consistencies and meanings (Patton, 2002:453).

This content analysis in this study also involved data coding and classifying, that is, categorizing or indexing of data. The basic principle in this process was to identify from the transcripts the extracts of data that were informative in some way and to sort out the important messages hidden in the mass of each interview. With this method and the thematic approach, the researcher systematically worked through each transcript following the outlined steps below, namely data preparation, exploration and specification.

4.8.1 DATA PREPARATION

The data preparation for analysis involved creating database in which all the transcribed data were to be kept. After every interview with research participants, the researcher created a memo in which non-verbal information like emotions, gestures and even the atmosphere observed during the interview was recorded. The interview notes, memos and the transcription of the interviews helped the researcher to be grossly involved with his data. The listening to interview recordings, reading and re-reading of transcribed documents, and thinking about the relevance of the data to the study questions and objectives helped the researcher to be intensely involved in his data and came up with meaningful units or themes and categories which could be summarized into research findings. The researcher personally transcribed his data word for word from oral into written text. To check transcription consistency, the researcher sought the services of a professional transcriber who also independently transcribed each audio interview from oral into written text. The researcher then listened to the interviews again and compared the two English transcriptions in order to check accuracy and consistency. Where the researcher found some discrepancies, the process was repeated until a word consensus was found. With the repetition of listening to audio tapes and reading the written transcripts (Braun & Clarke, 2006:87), the researcher was able to identify and understand some of the hidden meanings in the data (Bird, 2005:227; Poland, 2002:632).

4.8.2 DATA EXPLORATION

According to information provided by Braun and Clarke (2006:88), this step in this study began when the researcher read and familiarized himself with the data, generated an initial list of ideas about what was in the data and what was interesting about them. In this stage, initial codes from the data were derived to identify a feature of the data that was of importance to the researcher for the study. Boyatzis (1998:63) refers to this initial coding as the most basic segment or element of the raw data or information that can be assessed in a meaningful way.

The researcher, in this stage was expected to work systematically through the entire data set, giving full and equal attention to each data item with the aim of identifying interesting aspects in the data that may become themes (repeated patterns) across the data set. Once these repeated patterns (themes) are identified, initial coding was effected. On this point, the coding of data was

done manually; the following steps were adopted: (i) written notes on the text being analyzed in the margins; (ii) use of highlighters to indicate the potential patterns; and (iii) use of post-it notes to identify segments of data. This manual coding on each transcript involved analyzing it word for word, line by line, phrase by phrase and paragraph by paragraph in order to identify emerging concepts and then latter turn them into themes, categories and sub-categories (Table 5.1). In this process of data exploration, the researcher with the use of coding was able to critique, infer and conceptualize the data by repeatedly reading and questioning the data. The researcher was able to summarize the main ideas with a reflection on what happened during interview time. Categories of data were developed from the general patterns or concepts that emerged from what participants said in the interview transcripts.

4.8.3   DATA SPECIFICATION

This step took off when all the data had been initially coded and collated. Also, this was the final stage of data coding involving further scrutiny of data into sub-categories which had more detailed inductive concepts on the raw data (Hesse-Biber & Leavy, 2006:352). This stage involved the sorting of the different codes into potential themes and collating all the initially coded data extracts within the identified themes. Braun and Clarke (2006:89) are of the opinion that this was the beginning of analyzing codes and considering how different codes may combine to form an overarching theme. In this stage it was also important to look out for differences in similar patterns of data and similarities in different patterns of data. For example, the views of principals and educators from different interviews were compared and contrasted to create sub-categories.

At this stage, the interview notes became very important because they enabled the researcher to go beyond transcribed data in the clarification and exploration of generated concepts from the text and participants' perspectives. The interview notes and transcripts helped the researcher to re-construct the data to enhance deduction of meaning from it. The data themes and categories which were generated were further explored to make conclusions from the study and to compare them with findings from other related studies discussed in chapters two and three. Thus, content and thematic data analyses shaped the way the researcher presented and discussed the narrative data that emerged from this study.

In conclusion, the qualitative data analysis used in this study followed basically three steps: data preparation, data exploration and data speculation. In simpler terms, it comprised of data reduction (selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, transforming); data display (organizing and compressing), and conclusion drawing/verification (noting irregularities, patterns, explanations, possible configurations, propositions) (Woodfield, 2009:20). The researcher firstly organized the raw data from the interview questions into categories (defining concepts, management strategies, and factors of job satisfaction of educators as deduced from the interviews. These categories became the main categories. The data categories were then divided into sub-categories with a question attached to each sub-category. Thereafter, the data was divided into groups that were more or less similar. Each utterance by the research participant was accounted for since the sample size was not too big. The rest of the data obtained from interview which had no meaning or relevance to the study was classified as miscellaneous.

4.9 RESEARCH QUALITY ASSESSMENT

In this study, research quality assessment was achieved through the use of data authenticity to measure conformability, credibility, dependability, transferability and trustworthiness of the collected data and research findings (Moss, 2004:362; Runhare, 2010:135; Lincoln & Guba, 1985:300, 317). Thus, the researcher addressed some of the concepts in authenticity and trustworthiness (Muhammad, Muhammad, & Muhammad, 2008:43) of qualitative research such as: (i) Triangulation, that is, a multi-method strategy which was followed in data collection and analysis; (ii) Participant language and verbatim accounting which entailed obtaining literal statements of participants and quotations from interview documents; and (iii) Mechanically recording data which involved the use of both a tape recorder and field notes in a reflexive journal.

4.9.1   TRUSTWORTHINESS

To achieve trustworthiness in this study, the researcher used several measures that included triangulation of research instruments and participants, audio-recording, interview notes and thick descriptions of data in the form of verbatim transcriptions (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:235; Malan, 2001:35). The researcher's underlying assumption in this study was that the research participants (principals and educators) were the true experts on the topic under investigation. As such, the

researcher approached the investigation with no preconceived ideas of where the data would lead. He deliberately attempted to identify his personal biases and presuppositions before the interviewing take place. He believed that he would be able to refer to these biases and presuppositions and deliberately reflect on them to determine if they had an influence on his understanding and interpretation of the data. Through careful and systematic analysis of the raw data, themes and categories began to emerge at different stages of the analysis. The triangulation which took place in comparing the transcribed interviews with field notes, research journals, and other observations also enhanced the trustworthiness of the study.

4.9.1.1   CREDIBILITY OR TRUTH VALUE

Credibility or truth value in this study which parallels internal validity in quantitative research was defined in the literature as: (i) faithfulness to the description of the phenomenon under study (Ryan, Coughlan &Cronin, 2007:743); and (ii) adequate representation of the constructions of the social world under study (Bradley, 1993:436). To achieve this in this study, the researcher utilized multiple data collection instruments (individual and focus group interviews) and a variety of data sources (triangulation).

Triangulation involved the use of different methods of data collection such as individual interviews and focus group interviews (Johnson & Christensen, 2004:255; Shenton, 2004:65; Golafshani, 2003:603; Patton, 2002:247; Barbour, 1998:353). All these researchers reiterate the assumption that triangulation strengthens a study through the combination of several kinds of data sources. Different types of triangulation which were identified from existing literature on research methodology (Bitsch, 2005:84; Richards, 2006:91; Patton, 1990:186-189; Denzin, 1978:291-307; Yin, 2003:97-99) and used in this research are: Data triangulation which referred to using a number or variety of data sources instead of relying on a single source (individual-school principals and focus group interviews- educators) (Johnson & Christensen, 2004:255). In this study, it ensured that the research question was addressed by juxtaposing analysis of different data types and methods to illuminate the same question (Richards, 2005:140). Investigator triangulation which meant employing more than one researcher or research team to balance predispositions (Taylor & Bodgan, 1998:80), and this helps to reduce the potential bias that comes from single person doing all the data collection and provides the means of more

directly assessing the consistency of data obtained (Patton, 2002:560). In this regard, the researcher had a note-taker, had to have the data transcribed by an independent transcriber, and had the opinion of independent reviewers as indicated in the acknowledgement. Location triangulation involves collecting data at multiple sites in order to minimize and understand any differences or biases that might be introduced by participants in each of the institutions (Brown, 2005:32). In this study, the researcher interviewed participants in different study sites, that is, six different schools for principals and two different schools for educators.

Furthermore, the transcription from audio to written scripts was done word for word where participants were quoted in the final report, this was done verbatim. The researcher also shared his research instruments, data collection methods, audio and transcribed raw data, detailed notes on interpretation with the supervisor and interested colleagues so that they could help check out any contradictions and detect biases the researcher might have made as a researcher per se. besides comments from the researcher's supervisor, the researcher also sought for the services of professional editor to edit the thesis and a critical reader for every section of the research document.

4.9.1.2   TRANSFERABILITY

Bitsch (2005:85) defines transferability as the extent to which findings are applied in other contexts or with other participants, the similarity between sending and receiving context. Thus, transferability can be seen to be concerned with the extent to which the findings of one study can be applied to other situations (Shenton, 2004:69). This study involved only six schools for school principals and two schools for educators; these numbers are too small for generalization but suited transferability of the research findings to schools of similar environments as those studied. Since the goal of this study was not to generalize to other populations, but rather to explore findings specific to the sample population, the issue of transferability was not a major priority. But through interpretation of the meaning of the participant's words, provision of thick descriptions and purposive sampling, the researcher has provided some understanding of the context of the study and its feasibility in transferring the conclusions to other scenarios. The provision of the boundaries of the study which the researcher gave was another attempt to provide transferability of the research results. The researcher has attempted to provide

opportunities to readers to be able to transfer the results to other situations through the provision of the following: (i) the type of people who participated in the research; (ii) the number of participants involved in the research; (iii) the data collection methods that were used in the research; and (iv) the number and length of the interview sessions conducted for the research.

4.9.1.3   DEPENDABILITY

Dependability pertains to the question whether findings can be replicated if the same instruments and data collection procedures were conducted in other studies with a similar research sample and research conditions. McMillan (2007:395) asserts that dependability denotes a situation in which something always work in the way that you expect it to. The dependability of a study can be increased through systematic and detailed analysis. By constantly examining the data, triangulating it between and among different sources, the researcher is more likely to uncover possible biases or values that can lead to false findings (Bliss, 1999:44).

Lietz, Langer and Furman in Runhare (2010:138) advise that data inquiry help to achieve dependability. Taking advantage of the advice, a careful selection, description and application of research instruments and data collection procedures to suit the research questions, objectives and the peculiar circumstances of data sources were made. The data analysis process, interpretation and memoing (i.e., recording reflective notes about what you are learning from your data) were done simultaneously, and from memoing, themes, categories and conclusions were developed which ended up being findings of the research.

Again, through a careful review of the literature and the development of an interview guide, an attempt was made to ensure, among other things, continuity between interviews and the dependability of results.

4.9.1.4   CONFIRMABILITY

In this study, confirmability is regarded as research objectivity. The data gathered and findings formulated truly represented the participants' views and opinions rather than that of the researcher. McMillan (2007:308); Runhare (2010:138) and Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:133) advise that to ensure objectivity in research, it must be achieved through the honesty,

depth, richness and scope of the data collected, the participants approached, the extent of triangulation and the "disinterestedness" of the researcher.

Furthermore, the verbatim transcription of audio taped interviews to written scripts was another way by which the researcher ensured confirmability of the researcher findings. This would show that the views of participants were truly captured and reflected as they were without alteration or the researcher's biases.

4.10 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Qualitative researchers frequently face ethical dilemmas and make decisions to resolve these in order to continue the study. Some records are kept of the decisions, the person who was involved, the decision that was taken and the impact on the study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:413). In the words of Taylor and Bodgan (1998:36), ethical considerations involve one's personal sense of what is right and ought to be done. As a result any researcher has to choose among several of moral alternatives and responsibilities when carrying out a research.

4.10.1 INFORMED CONSENT AND VOLUNTARY PARTICIPATION

In this study, the researcher visited the DoE (Vhembe District and Dzindi Circuit) to seek permission to access information on the circuit to be included in the study as well as to access the relevant schools in that circuit and to carry out interviews in the sampled schools. Thus, permission was secured from the DoE (Vhembe District, the Circuit Manager, sample school principals and educators). They acknowledged and gave permission in that regard.

All the six sampled schools were visited by the researcher prior to making appointments for interviews. The purpose was to discuss with the school principals, the nature and purpose of the proposed study, to seek permission to conduct interviews with their educators and themselves, and to negotiate terms of access. In all cases, permission was granted and secured. On each of the visits, the researcher asked for permission to meet with the educators (where focus groups were sampled) for a few minutes in order to explain to them the nature and purpose of the study and to invite them to participate in the study. These meetings helped in developing rapport

between the researcher and the participants. During the process, the researcher observed ethical standards involved in research.

The researcher then made appointments with the principals of the selected schools and arranged for dates to interview the educators in their schools. On the agreed dates, the researcher visited the schools and conducted the interviews. Both individual and focus group interviews were carried out as planned. The educators and principals were informed about their right to give or withhold consent to participate in the study as recommended by Bennett, Glatter and Levacic in Runhare (2010:140). The participants' privacy was respected, thus, in all cases, educators and principals were informed that their participation is voluntary and that the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses will be assured.

4.10.2 ANONYMITY

Anonymity, according to McMillan (2007:52) refers to a situation in which the name of a participant who has given information is not known or is kept secret. Cohen, et. al. (2002:61) asserted that the essence of anonymity is that information provided by participants should in no way reveal their identity. In other words, the names of the research participants were to be kept secret and not be identified in the presentation of the research findings. In this study, the names of participants were neither used even during the interview sessions nor linked to a particular response in the research document (Babbie, 2010:67). As mentioned earlier on, before the interviews were undertaken, the participants were assured that the information they were to give was going to be used for research purposes only and their names would not be revealed in whatsoever way. Again, during the interview, the participants were given codes to use rather than their real names.

4.10.3 CONFIDENTIALITY

According to McMillan (2007:307), confidentiality referred to a situation in which important information should be kept secret. Babbie (2010:67), Gay and Arasian (2003:586) and Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2002:62) unanimously advised that confidentiality can only be guaranteed by the researcher who knows the participants who provided the information or who can be able to identify participants from their responses but confides in himself that in no way

would he make the connection openly known. Confidentiality also includes among other things, utilizing information provided by participants for the intended purpose only. Participants in this study were told that their names would not be referred to in the thesis and the findings would be presented in such a way that they will not be identified.

4.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the research design and methodology in preparation of the empirical investigation utilizing a qualitative method in the study of THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE MANAGEMENT STRATEGIES OF SCHOOL PRINCIPALS AND THE JOB SATISFACTION LEVELS OF EDUCATORS in schools in Dzindi Circuit of Vhembe District in Limpopo Province. More specifically, the research design, the research sample, and research methods. It also, described the methods of data collection used, namely individual interviews and focus group interviews; data analysis techniques, the research protocols and ethical considerations used in this study.

In the following chapter, the researcher presented and discussed the research findings of the data gathered from the sources of the empirical investigation.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. RESEARCH FINDINGS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The key focus of this chapter is to provide a detailed account of data analysis and interpretation of data obtained from educators and school principals. This chapter presents the data generated during individual interviews and focus group interviews. This includes individual interviews with six school principals and two focus group interviews with twelve educators. Certain of the characteristics of participants in the study are not included in order to protect their identity.

The data from the two types of interviews was interpreted using content and thematic data analysis techniques. The analysis is based on themes, categories and sub-categories that emerged from data. The transcribed data was corroborated with observations recorded in the reflective notes made during the interviews. By means of content and thematic analysis techniques, the researcher was able to compare and contrast the views of the participants according to the study sites, and also with research findings from the literature review.

The forthcoming sections (c.f. § 5.2 to 5.3), present significant themes which emerged from the interviews. As mentioned earlier (§ 45 and 4.6), interviews were conducted in English. The researcher used the participants' words verbatim and no alterations were made to correct the language usage. Quotations are presented, any comments within quotations are indicated between square brackets and all quotations are presented in *italics.*

5.2 CHARACTERISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS

This section presents a summary of selected personal characteristics of participants (principals and educators). The following were the categories of participants who participated in this study from each of the study sites.

5.2.1   The school principals

Six school principals were interviewed in this study. In presenting the findings, based on the principals' responses, the codes P1 to P6 are used to distinguish the participants. All the principals except one (P1) had more than seven years of experience in their posts of principalship. It can therefore be assumed that most of the principals were fairly familiar with the management of schools, educators and changes that are taking place in the education system in general. These changes come with new roles that school principals should perform in order for the school to realize its goals (c.f. DoE, 1996c:14-22; Mazibuko, 2003:77). Thus, their years of experience should not only have put them in a better position to understand their "new" roles, but also to perform these new roles in practice. All the principals have been educators for a long period of time before being appointed to the position of principal, hence it can be inferred that they were also familiar with the impact that a principal's management practices have on educators' job satisfaction in schools. Therefore, they should have been able to differentiate between an educator with a low level of job satisfaction and one with a high level of job satisfaction. These principals were assumed to be aware of their roles in motivating educators in their schools, and to be knowledgeable about the relationship that exist between their management strategies and the job satisfaction levels of educators.

5.2.2   The School educators

Two focus group interviews were conducted with a total of twelve educators. The first group was for primary school educators and the second group was for secondary school educators. In presenting the findings based on their responses, the following codes were used to distinguish these participants: R1 – R6, FG1 (apply to primary school educators), and A1 – A6, FG2 (apply to secondary school educators).

In both focus groups, there were males and females with varied years of experience in education system and in the present school. These educators teach various grades at their schools. However, these variables did not seem to be particularly important as far as the phenomenon of job satisfaction is concerned.

The majority of educators had vast teaching experience. It was assumed that they were familiar with school systems and therefore found themselves in a position to understand the roles of principals in school management, especially those that have the potential of enhancing the job satisfaction of educators. The majority of these educators maintained that they know what roles principals should play and that they also knew what made them feel satisfied at work (c.f. R1, FG1:6; R2, FG1:6; R3, FG1:7; R5, FG1:8; R6, FG1:8 & A2, FG2:2; A3, FG2:3; A4, FG2:3; A5, FG2:3). They categorically stated that principals had specific roles to play in the enhancement of their job satisfaction.

5.3 THE EMERGING THEMES AND CATEGORIES

In the qualitative analysis of the data, the two themes that were investigated (management strategies and job satisfaction) were subdivided into categories and sub-categories as corresponding ideas surfaced. Table 5.1 summarizes the themes, categories and sub-categories that emerged from the data collected.

Table 5.1:   Emerging themes, categories and sub-categories

Themes	Categories	Sub-categories
Management roles of school principals	Executing management in the school.	Planning school program.
		Organizing school activities.
		Leading the school activities.
		Controlling the school activities.
	Promoting communication in the school	Communication with educators
		Communication with learners
	Promoting discipline in the school	Discipline of educators
		Discipline of learners
	Promoting interpersonal relations in the school	Principal-educator relationship.
		Educator-educator relationship.
		Principal-learner relationship.
		Educator-learner relationship.
	Promoting changes in the school	Curriculum changes in the school.
		Work allocation in the school.
Job satisfaction	Experiencing job satisfaction	What makes people happy at work?
		Symptoms of high job satisfaction at work.
		What makes people unhappy at work?
		Symptoms of low job satisfaction at work.
	Promoting job satisfaction at school.	Consultation in decision-making processes in the school.
		Rewarding educators at the school.
		Work allocation by school management.
		Management support to educators in the school.
		Empowering educators in the school.

5.3.1   The management roles of school principals

In this theme, the researcher identified and reported on the management roles of school principals from the views and opinions presented by principals and educators who participated in

this study. The theme describes the management roles that can be used by school principals in enhancing job satisfaction levels of educators.

According to the respondents [principals and educators], school principals occupy a crucial management position in South African schools (c.f. R1, R2, FG1:6; A2, A3, A5, FG2:2-3; P1:2; P3:2-3; P5:2). The management roles they are expected to play in schools is important for educators to be able to cope with the expectations of their profession. In this regard, some of the identified management roles were: Holding staff meetings and workshops in the school (R2, FG1:6; P1:2; P2:2,3), Outsourcing resources for the school (R3, FG1:7; P1:3; P2:3; P5:2), Disciplinary role (R5, FG1:8; P1:4), Leading role (R3, FG1:7; A2, FG2:2; P2:2; P5:2), Controlling (R5, FG1:8; A2, FG2:2; P2:2; P5:2), Motivating and inspiring educators (P3:3), Supporting and assisting educators (R6 FG1:8; P2:2; P6:3), Planning (R3, FG1:7; A2, FG2:2; P2:2; P3:3; P5:2), Delegation (A3, FG2:3; P3:4), Communication (A2, FG2:4), Empowerment (P3:4), Consultative (R1, R2, FG1:6; P3:4; P5:5), Monitoring (R2 FG1:6; P4:2), Supervisory (R2, FG1:6; R4, FG1:7; P4:2), and staffing (A3, A4, FG2:3; P6:3). From the above analogue, it is observed that both educators and principals were in agreement on some the roles of school principals in a school.

5.3.1.1   Executing management in schools.

For the school to function effectively and properly, all educators should know the roles of their principals. Some of the participants in the study had a common understanding with regard to the management roles of school principals (P1:2-3; P2:2-3; P3:2-6; P5:2-4; R2, FG1:6; R4, R5, R6, FG1:7-8; A2, A3, A4, A5, FG2:2-3). Some of these participants maintained that schools need strong and visionary principals (A2, A5, FG2:3), especially with regard to what happens to educators for their motivation and to learners for learning to take place. All principals interviewed in this study maintained that they have to ensure that the school runs smoothly. These principals were uncompromising that one of their main responsibilities was to make sure that '…*learners are learning, educators are educating, managers are managing…' (P1:2; P2:2; P5:2)*

The principals asserted that although they 'have full control of everything happening in the school', they acknowledged that they do this with the help of staff members, especially members of the School Management Team, Heads of Departments and subject or school committees. In line with this finding, P1:2-3 and P2:2 expressed it as follows: '….*everyday when I come to school ... my role is to work with the HoDs, checking what is happening in the class. But as a manager, I sometimes move around and check what is happening with the educators and the HoDs, especially in controlling and checking their work …'* In support of this idea, R2, FG1:2 also expressed that even the decisions taken unless otherwise educators are consulted and their views are taken into account.

On the other hand, the educators who participated in this study concurred with the principals on the management roles of school principals. The educators in Focus Group 1 and 2, for example, stated that all the management roles of school principals primarily have to do with teaching and learning in a school. R1, FG1:6 expressed the view that; *'the role of the principal nowadays is to sit down and share ideas with educators'.* A2, FG2:2 had the following to say; *'I view the principal of a school as a school manager. So I see his role to be that of ... a planner, a monitor, a controller, and a leader'.* These educators maintained that these roles which school principals play are very important in their welfare as educators in a school system.

 From the above findings, this category consists of four sub-categories that report on the execution of management in schools. These are deduced as: planning, organizing, leading and controlling school activities.

5.3.1.1 (a) Planning school activities
The principals interviewed in this study held the opinion that planning is an important role of every principal. Principals have to plan school activities for the whole year divided into four quarters and then into weeks. For example, P2:2 expressed that the principal has '*to plan meetings with the SMT and prepare agendas for meetings…" He has to decide on how educators are going to work during the course of the year [and how to remain focused] on teaching, imparting of knowledge to learners and also controlling and giving support to the teachers'.* He

further expressed that '*everything that has to be done in the school is prepared in the beginning of the year*' (P2:3).

The other participants in the principal-interviews expressed the importance of planning as a management role of principals. They mentioned that they have year plans for all the school activities and they establish committees to facilitate the implementation of these year plans (P3:3). The main task of principals appears to be the planning of efforts to effectively use the available resources to achieve stated organizational goals. Principals also have to plan who will be teaching what subject to which grade (P2:9) or who should lead a particular committee (P3:6). This shows that principals need to plan 'what needs to be done, when and how it needs to be done and who is to do it'. It includes determining the future position of the school regarding educators' involvement.

The educators in this study expressed that planning forms the basis of all the management roles of principals. In order to organize, lead or control the activities of the school, effective principals should plan these activities. For example, R2, FG1:6; R3, FG1:7; R6, FG1:8-10 indicated that principals play the management role of planning when they plan work to be done by different educators at different levels in the school, plan workshops to be held for supporting educators, and staff meetings. Some of the participants in the focus group discussions (A2, FG2:2) expressed the same planning responsibilities of school principals. It appeared as though most of the educators who participated in this study shared the same feelings regarding the planning role of school principals.

5.3.1.1 (b) Organizing school activities

All participants placed much value on the centrality of this role in the management of schools by school principals. One principal said that *he organizes his deputy principal and HoDs so that they can get to know and accept their responsibilities expected from them; and educators so that they can work as a team* (P1:1-2). P3:3 talked about organizing his school into various established committees so that it could be easy for him to manage the work. Some of the committees he mentioned include; building committee, finance committee, and welfare committee. This idea was discussed in almost all the interviews conducted with principals. They

acknowledged that their schools are organized into a particular structure which provides for Deputy Principals, HODs, a SMT, subject educators, class register educators, and various committees in the school. Thus, principals through their organizing role in management decide where decisions will be made, who will do what job and tasks, and who will work with who in the school (P5:7).

Educators who participated in the study also maintained that organizing is one of the roles of principals. In their opinion, school principals are the ones responsible for the school structure, bureaucratic arrangement and order of communication flow in the school system. Some of the participants held that school principals are responsible for: organizing workshops for educators in the school (R2, FG1:6; R3, FG1:7); organizing class visits to help educators (R6, FG1:8); and organizing staff meetings (R5, FG1:8; A2, FG2:6). Thus, many of these educators in these FGIs were supportive of the role of principals in organizing the activities of the school for the sake of school operation and the achievement of its goals through its personnel.

The common idea that the researcher identified from the above participants is that some participants seemed to have a high regard for organizing as one of the management roles of school principals. The statements could indicate that some educators consider seriously the organizational role of school principals in their schools. This could imply that educators with such perceptions are likely to be assisted in enhancing their job satisfaction at work.

5.3.1.1 (c) Leading educators

Interviews with participants (principals and educators) of this study revealed that leading is an important management role of the principals (P2:2; P5:2; R3, FG1:7; A2, FG2:2). One of the principals acknowledged the following: '*My role is to lead educators so that they can do their work. My role is to see to it that I help the learners through the parents, through the educators so that they can acquire knowledge because I think that is the best that we can do as a school with myself being the principal* (P2:2). This understanding went down well with one of the educators who said that he '*views principals as leaders with a leading role'* (A2, FG2:2).

Educators on the other hand also complemented the views of school principals on leading role of school principals. One of the educators had this to say: *'if I didn't set a standardized paper, the principal will call me and show me the direction that I must reset it like this. Can even hold some workshop [to staff develop us on that]'.* (R3, FG1:7).

With regard to this leading role of the principal, there was an opinion that principals should educate and orient educators in important aspects of the school. One educator illustrated the point as follows: *'...you should orient educators. You [principal] say, 'this is what we do here in this situation. These are the standards we expect'.* (A6, FG2:3).

From this study, it emerged that leading was a phenomenon which the participants seemed to implicitly condone as a social mechanism meant to uphold the job satisfaction of educators. Both principals and educators felt that leading by school principals would influence and inspire educators so that they can accomplish the vision and mission of the school.

5.3.1.1 (d) Controlling school activities

Controlling is monitoring progress towards goal achievement and then taking corrective measures or actions when progress isn't being made. All principals asserted that although they have full control of everything happening in the school, they acknowledged that they do this with the help of other staff members especially the SMT, HoDs, and Subject committees or School committees. P2:3 expressed that *his role is to work with the HODs, checking what is happening in the class but as a manager he sometimes move around and check what is happening with the educators and the HoDs especially in controlling and checking their work'.* P1:2 had the following to say: *'my other role is mainly is to make sure all educators perform their expected responsibilities. In other words I must take the educators through in-house workshops where everybody will know the role that he had to play in the organization'.* Another principal who participated in the interview on the issue of controlling expressed the following: *'on the issue of controlling, I have a lot of monitoring tools; to monitor the work that is being done by subordinates (educators) so that is why you see a lot of files. ... if I want to monitor the work of HODs, there is a file for that, monitor extra-mural activities, monitor the classroom management and the like, so management has to do with controlling'* (P3:3). In agreement with the view that

controlling is an important role to the school principals, P4:2; and P5:2 also emphasized that, *'everyday when one gets to the office, one makes sure that educators have come over to the office to clock-in and that assures you that all the staff members are in …'* Thus, school principals can control the coming-in and the going out of educators in the school.

Educators who participated in this study also held the opinion that principals control all that takes place in the school, that is, human resources and material resources. Some of the educators expressed that school principals should be human resource managers to control human resources in their schools (A2, FG2:2; A3, FG2:3; A4, FG2:3). R2, FG1:6 added that; *'school principals monitor the work of educators, find out whether the work is done, not done or is properly done. If not so, there are workshops to guide the educators so that they can do their work perfectly'.*

Both these principals and educators regarded controlling as one of the major roles of a principal. In their responses both groups of participants showed that the various roles they distinguished in executing management in schools are not applied in isolation but in harmony with many other roles. Thus, school principals can be understood to be responsible for a variety of roles pertaining to the effective functioning of the school as well as to the professional well-being of educators.

5.3.1.2   Promoting communication in the school

This category outlines the different participants' level of understanding of communication in a school situation. The first sub-category presents their views on communication with educators, and the second sub-category focuses on communication with learners.

The participants in this study all maintained that communication is central to sound relations in a school. All principals interviewed asserted that their communication role is crucial for the survival of their schools. They expressed that this communication takes into account the manner in which information, policies, and changes are communicated not only to educators but also to learners. Therefore, proper communication channels should be created so that information flows smoothly in the organization. Most principals asserted that they use proper channels of communication.

5.3.1.2 (a) Communication with educators

To promote and maintain a positive staff relation requires continuous open communication (P4:2). Thus, if all the members of the school community are to be involved in a successful collaborative process, it is believed that attention must be paid to the systems of communication within the school. The adoption of a collegial approach ensures that all educators feel valued and their contribution appreciated. In this study, most participants expressed how communication with educators is done in the different schools. They described communication through morning assemblies and morning briefing (P1:5; R2, FG1:10-11; R6, FG1:10; A1, FG2:4; A3, FG2:5), staff meetings (P1:5; P2:3), department meetings (P1:3), workshops (P1:2). Some of the educators acknowledged the following: '*the school follows the formal protocol for communication, that is, an educator presents his/her problem to his/her HoD who also presents it to the Deputy Principal and the Deputy Principal presents it to the Principal who will [if there is still a problem] convene an SMT to come up with workable solution to the problem'* (R1, FG1:10; A1, FG2:4). Other educators expressed the same communication in the following way: *'educators can use their teacher representative in the SMT who presents their requests/problems in the SMT meetings'* (R1, FG1:10; R2, FG1:10; A1, FG2:4).

Further, other educators revealed the following ways that school principals use to communicate with their educators: morning briefing where educators are assembled for at least five minutes and information is passed to them before they start their teaching sessions (R2, FG1:11); Information (communication/circular) book is circulated with information intended for educators' consumption for the day (A5, FG2:5).

In agreement with the views of educators on the forms of communication used, some of the school principals repeated and affirmed that they communicate with their educators through regular staff meetings and SMT meetings (P1:4; P2:3,8; P3:4; P4:2). One of the principals also mentioned that he uses cellphone to communicate with educators when [they] are away, maybe on holidays or weekends (P2:8).

The descriptions of communication of school principals with educators were found to be similar at both educators and principals. It can be understood that if all members of the school community are to be involved in a successful collaborative process, attention must be paid to the system of communication within the school. One educator also agreed that principals are integral in the school communication system. He even added that the adoption of a collegial approach to communication ensures that all educators feel valued and their contribution appreciated. He, therefore, argued that: *'for the principal to increase the rate of communication or effective communication, he/she must use both channels of communication, that is, formal communication: staff meetings must be held frequently so that everyone (educators) know what is happening in the school and if there is a problem it could be detected early and people discuss it and put down proactive action before it is a disaster'* (A2, FG2:6).

The researcher found these statements to be important to this study because if schools exhibit such communication with educators they feel valued in their institutions. Thus, if procedures and policies of most principals are openly discussed and every educator is empowered to hold his or her point of view without feeling that he/she can be ostracized or intimidated even if his/her view point is contrary to the principal's perspective, they become enthused in their profession as educators. Therefore, the researcher interpreted the described communication with educators to mean that the communication with educators itself could bring happiness at work which can go a long way to positively affect the job satisfaction levels of educators.

5.3.1.2 (b) Communication with learners

Related to the described communication with educators, there is communication with learners in the school. Communication with learners in the school is observed as vital for the dissemination of information from both the school management and educators to both learners and parents. In this study it was evident from the participants' responses that communication with learners was done in various ways. The following appeared to be the most commonly used platforms to communicate with learners: school assembly where general information about issues that concern learning and discipline is given to the whole school; classroom announcements and at times bulletins on notice boards. This was illustrated by one educator who expressed that:

'mostly he communicates during the assembly, that is, morning assembly or he even sometimes go to classes' (A3, FG2:5).

Similarly, additional form of communication done with learners was reiterated by another educator who said that: *'verbal, mostly verbal communication. He [principal] calls them [learners] into his office during school hours or even after school hours…'* (A5, FG2:5).

In the same vein, another educator also accepted that: *'…he [principal] can use the assembly. …use a formal meeting or parents meeting during the weekends where they can deliberate issues pertaining to learners'.* (R6, FG1:10).

Other participants also confirmed the same views on communication with learners. P2:4 and P3:7, 8, 14 held the opinion that their most effective way of communicating with learners was classroom visits making the necessary announcements to them or for their parents. Besides announcements, the participants also mentioned that they discuss with learners some issues concerning their conduct at school in their various classrooms. To substantiate this view, one of the principals said: *'…if you check here, there is a code of conduct for learners [basic things] but there are also codes of conduct for each and every class. These codes of conduct are discussed with learners together so that they know what must not be done in class, must be done at school or must not be done at school in general'.* (P3:7).

The common idea that the researcher got from the expressed views of the above cited participants on this sub-category was that the communication with learners is usually done through the morning assemblies, classroom announcements and at times through parents meetings. These statements could indicate that the communication done with learners is also open to educators as well. As such, this could imply that educators are likely to appreciate this transparency in communication from their principals when pursuing their job gratification.

5.3.1.3 Promoting discipline in the school

It emerged that discipline is essential for maintaining order and harmony in a school and for providing a climate in which learners can learn and educators can teach free from disruption and

chaos. The paramount concern of every school principal is to ensure that educators and learners are disciplined for the achievement of school goals through effective management. This requires knowledge and application of good strategies. To a large extent, ensuring discipline in a school depends on the ability of the principal of the school to intelligently utilize the various skills and approaches of staff to discipline.

Having seen the importance of discipline, some participants indicated that discipline in a school is done through use of school disciplinary committee (R6, FG1:12), and policy legislation for SASA about educator discipline (P1:6). Therefore, in this category, two sub-categories were presented as educators' discipline and learners' discipline respectively.

5.3.1.3 (a) Educators' discipline

In this study, the participants said that indiscipline behavior among educators manifest in truancy/absenteeism lateness/late-coming, non-attendance of lessons/absconding classes, selling of goods during school hours, contacting personal businesses during school hours, non-compliance to deadlines, inadequate work, unpreparedness, and paying attention to personal businesses during school contact time (R3, FG1:17; P1:6; P3:8; P5:10). One of the school principals supported this understanding when he said that; *the transgressions [indiscipline behavior] are categorized. We've got serious misconducts and less serious misconducts…the more serous ones like when an educator administered a corporal punishment, like when an educator is having an affair with a learner, like tampering with marks or disregarding examination rules… All these are considered to be major or serious offences whereas the ones like late-coming, absconding classes. These are less serious and that is where the principal is empowered to deal with them (P1:6).*

According to P1:6; P2:5; P3:8, the discipline of educators did not create problems because there is a stipulated code of conduct (rules and guidelines) for educators and the Educators' Employment Act sections 17 and 18. To confirm this fact, P2:5 said that: *'we've got a code of conduct for educators which we [principals] always remind them [educators] of the do's and don'ts that we have to follow at work'.* With this code of conduct, when an educator commits an act of indiscipline, according to one of the principals; '*you can call the educator and counsel him*

so that he could see the importance of complying with the regulations of the DoE. If he does not comply… the case is referred to the district via the circuit manager (P1:6). R4, FG1:12 and A2, FG2:13 added that disciplinary issues of educators are given first to the SGB; the principal call the undisciplined educator for counseling and then if not resolved, it goes to the Circuit Manager up to the District Senior Manager (DSM) where there is the disciplinary committee for educators.

Some of the principals interviewed mentioned that there is a *code of conduct for educators* from the professional teachers' unions were these educators are affiliated as members (P3:8). Given the responses from (P3:8; P4:7) the interviews, it can be concluded that educator discipline is not much of a problem in the schools that took part in this study.

All the responses given in this sub-category illustrate that educator discipline is guarded by using the educators' employment act/code of conduct for educators. It can be now understood that in order to ensure effective discipline in schools depends on the ability of the school principal to intelligently utilize the various approaches of staff discipline provided by the DoE in order to ensure compliance and good behavior.

5.3.1.3 (b) Learners' discipline

Educator authority and educator-learner relationships appear to be integral in the management of discipline in schools. Learners also need to be disciplined if a school intends achieving its objectives. According to principal-respondent P1:4,6 learners' discipline has always been a problem in schools: '*for example, when I started here one of the problems was that learners will just come to school as they want, around 8 or 9 while other schools had already started. … learners assault members of the community and educators, bunking of lessons, coming late to class, fighting in classrooms, making noise*'. Another principal-respondent P2:4 indicated that '*children are naughty and he punishes them by making them scrub the [classroom] floors, water flowers, pick papers and beautify the school surroundings*'. These statements revealed that learners' indiscipline has a negative impact on the job execution of educators.

The participants (P1:6; P2:5; R4, FG1:12) indicated that to handle the discipline problems of learners they work with committees such as the disciplinary committee (DC) which deals with most of the cases of learners' discipline in the school. One of the principals (P2:5) said that the DC at his school is composed of four members. In his words, he said, *'I work with the HoD, also another member who is part of the disciplinary committee and another lady; we are four in the committee'*. This indicates that DCs are composed of all stakeholders (HoDs, educators and Principals) in the school for the maintenance of learners' discipline. In line with the views of this principal (P2), one of the educators (R4, FG1:12) revealed that in their school DC looks into all disciplinary issues emanating from learners.

In their operations, these DCs as an arm of school management, they (on behalf of the school staff) develop school policy in line with school governance policy (SASA) on learners. For example, A6, FG2:11 say, *'when it comes to disciplinary policy, consider all stakeholders but it should be in line with SASA because that policy should be known by parents, teachers and school learners'*. Some principals (P2:5; P3:7) were in agreement that learners' discipline is made easier because of the involvement of educators and parents in school discipline. P3:7 stated that *'there are some cases where we call the parents to come to school and we share with them what the child is doing as misbehavior. Can't you assist us by talking to your child? ... in some cases, we receive positive responses ...* One of the principals (P3:8) also mentioned that they involve both educators and parents [the SGB] when reviewing the learners' code of conduct. This process for the establishment of a code of conduct in schools is in line with Section 8 of SASA. When scrutinized, these views convey the idea that through multi-stakeholder involvement it can be ensured that the interests of all stakeholders (educators and SMT) in the school are served and that all involved collectively own the means through which learners' discipline would be enforced.

When the researcher analyzed these responses from both principals and educators, it appeared that disciplinary committee acts as an impartial tribunal in the hearing of the charges brought against learners. The committee is made up of some educators and the members of the SMT. In its execution of its duties the DC makes use of the code of conduct for learners which have earlier been derived from classroom rules, ground rules, parents' rules and school rules as given

by the DoE. Based on what was actually revealed in this sub-category, the researcher concluded educators can be enthused in their job satisfaction if there is proper implementation of learners' discipline procedures by school principals.

5.3.1.4. Promoting interpersonal relations in the school

This category consists of four sub-categories that report on interpersonal relations in schools where this study was conducted. First is the principal-educator relationship. Second is the principal-learner relationship. Third is the educator-educator relationship and the fourth one is the educator-learner relationship.

5.3.1.4. (a) Principal-educator relationship

Generally principal-educator relationships vary greatly among schools and even among educators in the same school. These relationships usually affect the job satisfaction levels of educators in a particular school. This dimension of interpersonal relationship was very important to both principals and educators. Interviews with participants (principals) of this study revealed that their involvement in this phenomenon (interpersonal relations) is instrumental in promoting principal-educator relationships. The welcoming and orienting of new educators (A6, FG2:3), promoting a climate of openness and fun at work (R2, FG1:13; A5, FG2:3; A1, FG2:4; A3:11), and initiating social activities both inside and outside of the workplace (R4, FG1:13; P1:10; P2:13; P6:7) may add value to this kind of relationship.

From this study, most of the schools where this research was conducted were experiencing good interpersonal relations between the principals and their educators. The study revealed various reasons for this relation in the school. This was illustrated by one principal who was resolute to maintain good interpersonal relations because he felt that: *'he really associate with them [educators] ... eating together during break-times, and talk about social things, how teams have played during the weekend; we laugh and exchange jokes'* (P1:10). Similarly, another principal had the following response: *'sometimes, if one of our members has [death in the family] I usually receive them and support them so that they can see that we are together. If somebody is having maybe a birthday party, I usually go there. Sometimes during their birthdays I tell them happy birthday' (*P2:8*).* P5:13 emphasized that there is good interpersonal relations between him and

his staff. His opinion was that: '*consultation with teachers, you don't take them for granted. They are adults, they are qualified people in their areas of teaching, and they are mature. Inasmuch as one is the manager in the school, it is very important that we consult with teachers and that I make sure I do'.*

Other principals concurred on the fact that in their schools they organize social events which encourage mutual relationships. This was illustrated by saying: '*we have a syndicate where we eat together during break-times, we organize end of year tour for educators where we evaluate our work effectiveness and then plan for the following year'* (P3:13)*. 'We honor people's [educators] birthdays and support them during their times of adversity'* (P6:6*).*

Similarly, educators who participated in this study held the same perception with principals regarding interpersonal relations between the two. Some of them [educators] confirmed that there is a mutual relationship the principals and educators. Making reference to her opinion, one educator reiterated that: '*there is a mutual relationship between the principal and teaching staff according to what I see because whatever challenge you come across you consult. We are not in friction. If you are in need of resource from him you get it. So he tries with his level best to assist according to what you are in need of' (*R2, FG1:13*).* Another educator supported the same idea of a mutual relationship (A2, FG2:4).

All these extracts reveal the idea that most school principals acknowledge the importance of interpersonal relations in the work of educators. Thus, these principals held the opinion that all these on-the-job friendships foster valued interpersonal relationships which promote job satisfaction in the educators. It is in this relationship where principals said they were able to set a positive tone for educators' interactions and make collaboration possible by creating a schedule that allows educators to work with those who teach the same subjects and learners (P2:9; P3:6). They also said that given such a relationship between them and educators, they can go an extra mile to arrange for professional workshops and inform educators about opportunities for educator learning and differentiated roles (P1:2; P4:4). Given such a positive relationship, principals said that they support educators by working collaboratively with them and learners to

develop norms for acceptable behavior and a system of discipline to reinforce teaching-learning situation in the school (P2:5; P3:7).

The common idea that the researcher got from the above cited participants' verbatim is that principals seemed to have positive attitudes towards educators' well-being. These statements could indicate that there are some efforts from principals to support and create conditions in the school to encourage high job aspirations in educators.

From this study it can be concluded that interpersonal relationships could be promoted through school principals when they examine contextually and demographically antecedents to workplace relationships to better understand what influences the likelihood that educators develop positive relationships at school. The participating principals were unanimous in their views that they promote interpersonal relationships in the school in various ways which include the promotion of a climate of openness and friendship among the staff, setting positive examples of desired workplace relationships (c.f. P1:10), providing educators with opportunities to socialize (P1:10, P2:7, P3:13) encouraging them to act friendly towards one another and to seek each other for emotional support (c.f. P1:11).

5.3.1.4. (b) Principal-learner relationship

It emerged that there is a mutual relationship between principals and school learners. This is revealed by one educator who insisted that: *'he communicate well, very well especially female learners. He is open to these girls, he treats them like his daughters' (A5, FG2:5).* The aforementioned principal usually calls learners into the office during school hours and even after school hours.

5.3.1.4. (c) Educator-educator relationship

Educators to educator relationships are crucial in the teaching profession. The school principals who participated in this study held the opinion that in their schools there are poor educator-educator relationships. This was supported by one principal who had the following to say: *'You find an educator who is struggling with Natural Sciences when there are some other educators who can assist in some other areas in the same subject' (*P1:2). To this principal, this was a sign

that there is bad relationship among educators themselves, but he continued to mention that this situation needs the principal to improve these relations through his/her management strategies.

Apart from principals, some educators concurred with the view that there is poor relationship among them. One of the educators said that: *'... in our school the relationship between teachers is not good and even relationship with management is not good. There is no good relationship because there are camps; there are those who are for the principal and there are those against the principal. There is no good communication between these different camps'* (A3, FG2:14).

However, other educators expressed that there is mutual relationship among them. This was supported by educators who maintained that: *'If one has a problem with another teacher [educator], he/she just calls him/her and discusses the issue and then shakes hands. We are not in friction. If you are in need of resources from anyone you get it'* (R1, FG1:13, R2, FG1:13).

There is another educator who concurred with the view that there is a mutual relationship. The educator reiterated that: *'We do respect each other honestly. Even if I go to [any educator] and ask him [educator] something, he will try his level best to help me. And myself, even if he comes to me in need of help I try my level best to help'* (R5, FG1:14). In the same line of thinking, R3 (FG1:14) confirmed that: *'if there is death in somebody's [educator] family, we go there or even if there is happiness, maybe it's a birthday ...'*

In this study, both types of participant (principals & educators) often reported that educators are isolated from their colleagues and have little time to talk about their practices or to collaborate in preparing curriculum or instructional strategies. They also reported that the contact time required by the DoE on educators deprive them of effective methods of communication or joint planning time with other educators or para-professionals with whom they work with. A lack of collegiality increases feelings of isolation and elevates the stress levels of educators which, in turn, lead to low job satisfaction levels at work.

5.3.1.4. (c) Educator-learner relationship

This sub-category refers to the communication and understanding that should exist between the educator and the learners. In this study, educator-participants described learners as distracted, resentful and apathetic adolescents. They acknowledged that they are often treading on water in a sea of adolescent misbehavior and parental mistrust. One of the educators mentioned that, for example, '*Educators operate in a culture of challenge and second-guessing ... one that has an impact on their ability to teach and maintain order. ...you find in a school, some teachers are respected by the students but some are not respected'.* (A6, FG2:10).

It also emerged that the relationship between educators and learners is affected by the use of corporal punishment by some educators. Other educators said: *'some teachers are using corporal punishment as an alternative ...'* (A6, FG2:11). *'Corporal punishment has been abolished, but you know sometimes we will be forced to beat the learners because they are misbehaving and will be also forced to use the words that are not acceptable to the learners...'* (R3, FG1:11).

The issue of nutrition obviously affects learning in the classroom and disturbs the educator negatively towards learners. According to A3 (FG2:9) 'the learners come to school to get food. *And when the teacher stands in front of them they will be sleeping because they have over eaten, you can't control them ... when you tell them to wake up , they will you that they have got rights'.*

Another educator expressed the same sentiments. In this regard, she illustrated that: '*Instruction becomes ... the minimal piece ... The learners are not focused on getting an education. Instead they are mainly concerned with the nutrition program that the government introduced in schools. But there is also a wider dread that poisons life all over the school. We have learners that just terrorize other learners and yet the school can't get rid of them and they know this'.* (R6, FGI: 11).

In the same vein, one of the principals with regard to educator-learner relationship concurred with the view that there is bad relationship between these two groups. His version was that: *'... some of the educators here were stabbed, assaulted by learners. They [educators] are afraid of their safety ... they are disrespected by the learners'.* (P1:4, 12).

From what the educators and principals described, the researcher concluded that the behavior of learners make the work of the educators difficult and frustrating, deteriorating into segments of low job satisfaction. But educators felt that these relations between educators and learners can be improved significantly with just a few adjustments in the way schools can be organized and the way educators can be empowered through school principals' management strategies.

5.3.1.5. Promoting changes in the school

Changes in the new system of governance and curriculum in schools have brought frustrations on both school principals and educators (DoE, 1996a:18). Principals, educators, learners and parents may also experience difficulty in adapting to various school changes but the system of education looks up to the school principals to be the champions in promoting changes in schools. Thus, one of the roles of the principals in any public school in SA today is to manage change.

In this category, two sub-categories emerged from the study. First is curriculum changes were found to have an impact on job satisfaction of educators. Second, it appeared that another factor that has an impact on job satisfaction of educators is the work allocation [subject allocation] done by the school management.

5.3.1.5. (a) Curriculum changes

Interviews with participants of this study revealed that curriculum changes are viewed as changes that have to do with school subjects that learners study or on how the science and art of teaching should be directed. The curriculum change is a phenomenon that is unexpected, unprepared for and it could change and even disrupt the career dispositions and aspirations of educators. Principals exposed the fact that hast changes that are currently taking place in schools which affect the job satisfaction of educators. The first and foremost change that was identified was the change from RNCS/OBE to CAPS. This change has created discomfort in educators. One of the principals (P2:10) said: *'... so with the changing of the syllabus from NCS/OBE to CAPS it is always a challenge to the educators and sometimes you find that we don't get good results that we want'.* Similar curriculum change effects were also reiterated by other principals (P3:4; P4:4) who said that the curriculum changes from NCS/OBE to CAPS was really a burden

to both educators and principals. P1:13 acknowledged that: *'one area which is contributing to educators' frustration is curriculum change. They say they bring these things [new changes] while they are still to master this one [NCS], another new one [CAPS] comes'.*

These principals were also in a position to express their involvement in assisting educators in this dilemma. One principal said that this change required him to first discuss the intended change with the management (SMT) and then with the educators. He had the following to say: *'For instance, if may be the change in curriculum, you know we are moving from that RNCS, now we are coming into the CAPS. What we did is that as I together with the management we discussed it first ...there is nothing new that I will discuss with educators before I discuss it with the SMT'.* (P3:5).

Another principal mentioned that: *'the best thing is to help them with workshops, seminars and show them the new method or approach of doing things. ... I always hold workshops for them; I know that is the better way of starting to help them [educators] because as a coach if you don't support them you will find you are having disaster at the end. So to avoid that you run workshops and teach them and support'. (P2:10).* They all seemed to have used the same method of internal workshops to empower their educators on the new approach to teaching.

P5:6 understood change as something that educators do not take easily especially if it comes with extra duties or something that is new. He therefore voiced his opinion that: *'for that change to take place, one has to make sure educators are convinced that the change is important: discuss it first and foremost with the SMT, then hold a staff meeting with the whole staff and finally hold an internal workshop for the staff to know how to implement the change'.*

Educators also had the notion that curriculum changes create a state of discomfort in them. One educator confidently said that: *'I am not stable because today you find that you must do this in this way. Tomorrow change the style, the day after tomorrow they come to the first stage. Then I am lost'.* (R1, FG1:15).

All these extracts reveal that curriculum changes are really a militating factor on the job satisfaction but principals can work around it to better that position of educators with regard to these changes. Especially, the method of holding internal workshops which help to empower the educators on the new approach to teaching will help educators to realize their potentials.

5.3.1.5. (b) Work allocation

It emerged that another area that creates an impact on the job satisfaction of educators was work allocation. With the focus on work allocation, principals revealed that they are the ones (with the SMT) who are responsible devising a mechanism for consideration on how educators are allocated work according to subjects or grades in the school. They asserted that the school management, especially the school principal has to see who teaches what in which grade so that the relevant teachers can put all their energy and expertise into the job. One of the principals exposed the following: '*the designing of work by the management is very important because you have to see who teaches what in which grade so that he can put his energy, his whole energy and also his ability to get good results; because if you take a teacher who doesn't understand Mathematics and make him teach Mathematics that will bring a lot of unhappiness to him. You are not going to get production. So you also check the capability of the educator, if the educator is good in Mathematics you take him to the Mathematics side. If he is good in languages, you take him to the languages when you are allocating work concerning the curriculum, then it will be easy for him to work on something that he knows. So he will be happy and produce good results for the school'.* (P2:9).

In this regard, P3:6 also mentioned that: '*now I have identified educators who are good at something, who can also be of help to others and assign them to specific subjects and grades to teach. ... this one is good in English I want to pair these ones [educators] so that they work in the same grade. I know this one is good in this and will assist the other because the weaknesses of the other person can be strength of another person'.*

These principals were of the opinion that well-considered work allocation can and should be followed by internal workshops to empower educators in doing their work. Thus, P2:10 stressed that: '*I always hold workshops for them…'*

Educators who participated in this study, they also concurred with the idea that principals are central in the work allocation concerning curriculum matters. One of them had the following to say: *'classification, when coming to classification [work allocation], I think the principal must look, must know his/her staff well. He must know teacher so and so can teach those subjects…'* (R6, FG1:9).

In addition to the above version, another educator mentioned that: *'before the principal do these classifications [work allocation], it's better for him to check the teachers' qualifications … and ability, it would be better'. (R5, FG1:10).*

When analyzed, it appeared that work allocation by school management has an impact on the job satisfaction of educators. Both participants of this study were of the same opinion that school principals can affect positively educators' feelings towards their job which in the long run will boost their job satisfaction. Based on what was actually obtained from the responses of participants, the researcher concluded that work allocation is quite significant in influencing the job satisfaction levels of educators.

5.3.2. Job satisfaction

In this theme the researcher reported on the participants' views on job satisfaction. The theme came up with two categories namely; experiencing job satisfaction and promoting job satisfaction. The views of participants were interpreted on the basis of concepts like needs, motives, goals, incentives and attitudes which are important when we people to understand the expectations and frustrations of a worker.

5.3.2.1. Experiencing job satisfaction

In this category, an analysis of the research findings resulted in the identification of four sub-categories that have a bearing on educators' experience of job satisfaction as explained by educators themselves and school principals. Initially principal and educator participants clarified what they thought would make people happy or unhappy at work. Thereafter, the same sample of

participants described what they thought were symptoms of high or low job satisfaction in educators.

In this regard, two different opinions were expressed by the principals. The first group was convinced that their educators were experiencing job satisfaction. These were: P2:8 said, *'I think this one is 100% because they are all coming here to work and they are enjoying working here. They sometimes stay behind after working hours doing their work. I think they are satisfied with what they are doing as far as teaching is concerned here';* P4:7 had this to say: *'I think so. If they were not happy they would communicate that to me';* and P6:6 emphatically said, *'yes they are happy'.*

The second group was not sure if it could unequivocally be said that their educators were experiencing job satisfaction. According to them, some were definitely not experiencing job satisfaction. P2:11, for example, explained that: *'that one is still quite a challenge here ...';* P3:14 said that: *'not all of them because I sometimes hear some grumbling especially when it comes to salaries but when it comes to the issue of working conditions, it is only those few people [educators] that I talked about who are somehow lazy, ... and some say the workload...';* and P5:14 said: *'to some extent. To some extent you will appreciate that job satisfaction is not only about salary, there are other things ...'*

Educators also expressed their opinions on the issue of experiencing job satisfaction. The majority maintained that they were not experiencing any at the moment (A1, A2, FG2:17; A3, A6, FG2:17; R3, R5, R6, FG1:16; R1, FG1:17; R2, FG1:18). A few confirmed that they are experiencing job satisfaction (R4, FG1:16; A5, FG2:18).

From participants' responses it seemed as though all participants were in agreement regarding what actions are observable when educators are experiencing job satisfaction. This shall be further discussed in detail.

5.3.2.1. (a) What makes people happy at work?

In this sub-category, both principals and educators claimed that they know what makes people happy at work. They mentioned the following aspects: salary (P1:12; P5:14; R5, R6, FG1:16), working environment (P1:12; R3, FG1:16), type of learners (P1:12); good communication (A6, FG2:18; P3:15), management support to educators (A6, FG2:18); working conditions (P1:12; P3:14), workload, fair work allocation (P2:8; A4, FG2:18), fair treatment from management (supervision) (P3:14); accommodation (P5:14), electricity (P5:14), access to clean water ((P5:14)); a reward system and recognition (A3, FG2:19; P3:15; P4:8). One of the principals said: *'sometimes when we have meetings for the department, we don't face problems of educator attendance. Sometimes you find that another person [educator] is engaged, you call another and this one is engaged can you please attend the meeting. The teacher is going to attend the meeting happily. If we are having work on Saturdays [on weekends]... I delegate and they agree and they come even if the principal is not there. That seems to me that they are happy, they enjoy doing their work even over the weekend'.* (P2:9).

From the extracts, it appears as though both principals and educators involved in this study are well aware of what can make people happy at work. They did not regard it as a new phenomenon in schools. In their mentioning of what makes people happy at work, several principals hinted at their professional understanding of job satisfaction in general.

In more or less the same vein, the educators who participated in the study spelled out what makes people happy at work. The symptoms mentioned among them were: achievement of learners (R4, FG1:16) and working environment (P1:12; R3, FG1:16). They strongly emphasized that they become happy at work if they are involved in all the activities of the school. To them [educators], participation is a cornerstone of his job satisfaction and of their effective functioning in a team. One of the respondents, for example, mentioned that '*if I've got an idea I have to tell it so that it can be endorsed in the SMT meeting and then taken from there to the educators in a staff meeting' (R2, FG1:10-11).* The other respondents mentioned that promotion at work and recognition (A1, FG2:14; A6, FG2:15) are things that would make them happy at work. They also alluded to the working environment and achievement of learners.

5.3.2.1. (b) Symptoms of high job satisfaction at work

In this category, the researcher reported the symptoms of high job satisfaction at work which participants of this study revealed. The participants in this study were actually aware of the symptoms of high job satisfaction levels among educators. The principals highlighted the following symptoms: coming to work on time (P1:12; P5:14; P6:4), giving adequate written work to learners (P4:7), engagement and reflective commitment (P1:13; P2:9; P4:7; P5:14; P6:6-7), constructive contributions in staff meetings (P2:9), willingness to be involved in school activities even during weekends, especially on Saturdays (P2:9), observing school contact time (P2:8; P4:7), and collegiality among educators (P4:7). These principals talked of those symptoms which they have observed are always present in their schools. Some of them expressed the following: *'when educators are satisfied you cannot miss that. You will see them coming to school on time, they will servicing their kids [learners] as they should, and they study tasks quite often… and he will go beyond the stipulated minimum amount of informal work.'* (P1:13).

Similarly, P4:7 concurred with others' viewpoints: she stated that: *'if a person [educator] is at work, he is coming every day, if you see him with learners, communicating, giving work, doing his work, contact time at work is being observed, when they are eating together, they call meeting… for me they are satisfied at work'.*

Another principal said that: *'these are the signs for somebody, the signs that you can see. Somebody would come to work on time, somebody who goes to class on time, somebody who marks their children's [learners] work, real marking not just going through books. Real marking making meaningful comments…'* (P5:14).

The common idea that the researcher got from the above cited participants is that most of the principals are aware of the symptoms of high job satisfaction. These statements could indicate that most of these principals seem capable of identifying symptoms of high job satisfaction. This could imply that these principals with such knowledge are in a position to enhance the job satisfaction levels of educators in their schools.

The educators who took part in this study were in agreement with the views of school principals. In addition, they identified the following as symptoms of high job satisfaction among educators; coming to work on time [dedication to work] (A5, FG2:18), giving learners enough tasks and producing results (A2, FG2:12; A3, FG2:16), involvement and engagement in constructive decision-making processes (A2, FG2:17). One of the educators said: *'that's why I say at first I was very happy and that's why I was producing results [passing learners] (A3, FG2:16).* Another educator had this to say: '*like in my case when I started teaching grades 11 and 12 I was producing very good results'* (A3, FG2:16).

From these extracts, the researcher concluded that both principals and educators are quite aware of the symptoms of high job satisfaction among educators. This conclusion concurred with A6 (FG2:19) who stated that: *'I think to be happy, and all these you are saying, rests with the principal'.*

5.3.2.1. (c) What makes people unhappy at work?

In this sub-category, it emerged that the participants were aware of what makes people [educators] unhappy at work as well. The principals mentioned the following aspects: workload (P3:14), working environments (P1:12; P5:15), bullying (P4:7), learner discipline (P1:12), and quality of learners (P1:14; P2:9).

Concerning workload, one of principals who participated in this study revealed that some educators were always complaining about workload. He elaborated it in the following manner: *'the ones who are always grumbling about the workload'.* (P3:14).

Other principals, when looking quality of learners [failure of learners]; the first one revealed that, *'... as an educator if you have not yet reached 100%, you cannot be happy. So you will not be happy if you cannot acquire a 100% when it comes to the results of the learners'.* (P2:9-10). The second one expressed that: *'I think one of the contributory factors to unhappiness, I remember in the first term learners had failed in great numbers. As we were doing post mortem…I saw quite a number of hands being raised up each of them were saying the type [quality] of learners we are teaching'.* (P1:13).

One of the female principals talked about bullying as a factor that creates unhappiness at work. She gave a more elaborate description of the condition in the following manner: *'... when you tell them to do this, they will just say, haa, I cannot do that. But if they are happy they [will desire to] do it ...'* (P4:7).

The aspects that make people [educators] happy at work which were described by school principals, some of them were also confirmed by educators. These were: working environment, and quality of learners. Speaking from their experiences, one educator said she had observed that working environment could make people unhappy: *'... working environment in which we are teaching ... you see we don't have decent classrooms ... we don't have flush toilets to satisfy us'.* (R3, FG1:16).

In agreeing with the aspect that quality of learners could adversely affect the state of happiness [satisfaction], they [educators] talked about them in terms of: indiscipline (A2, FG2:17); failure of learners (A1, FG2:17; R5, FG1:17). One of the educators said he observed that: *'failure rate is too high'.* (R5, FG1:17).

Other aspects revealed by educators different from principals were: curriculum [instructional] changes, overcrowding and promotional posts. Concerning curriculum changes, one of the educators said that: *'... that's why you hear dissatisfaction because even the department is coming with different things day after day, we are struggling. We are complying so that we can be working here [but we are not happy]'.* (R6, FG1:15).

On promotional posts as causes of unhappiness at work, one educator had the following revelation: *'I was teaching grades 11 and 12... and I was producing good results. I even got the best teacher award and when it came to promotion I was not shortlisted. Again, somebody from outside [from another school] was appointed. Then I decided to withdraw my services. Now I am teaching lower grades (8 & 9)'.* (A3, FG2:16).

The researcher found these statements to be important to the study because they help to unveil to management the need to analyze needs, drives and aspirations of educators as they execute their management roles. Thus, the described aspects that make people unhappy at work could negatively affect the educators' zeal to teach which would in turn offset job satisfaction levels.

5.3.2.1. (d) Symptoms of low job satisfaction at work

Related to the symptoms of high job satisfaction at work, there was also an informed understanding by most participants that there are also symptoms of low job satisfaction at work. Some of the symptoms of low job satisfaction at work were described by principals as: coming to work late (P4:6; P6:5), absenteeism, disengagement and deflective attitudes (P1:14), non-commitment to school duties and programs (P1:14), complaints and grumbling (P3:4, 14), and failure rate (P1:13).

In view of these symptoms, some of the principals described them in the following manner: coming to school late, P4:6 demonstrated that by saying, *'coming late, he or she must write the correct time [arrival time]. He/she must not write earlier time or any other time except to write the time that he/she came to school'.*

Similarly on disengagement and deflective attitudes, and non-commitment to school duties and programs, one of the principals expressed his observations as follows: on non-commitment, he said, *'... like I am saying in the first month an educator was still having only two tasks, it means the HoD was not checking if the educators were doing their work or not. We were able to pick it up at the end of the month'. (P1:14)* and on disengagement and deflective attitudes, he said, *'you see them [educators] coming a bit late to service the learners in the subject that they are specialized. You have to go and remind an educator that you have got a lesson to attend. ...when I do my rounds, there are times when you find an educator is at school, has also honored the class time but when you get there, he is not teaching. He is sitting somewhere there in the middle of the class doing some other things and you can see he is at school because he is complying; he is in class, he is complying but he is not doing what he should be doing there'.* (P1:111, 12).

Making reference to his own school observation, one of the principals confirmed some of the educators in his school always complain and grumble about their work. He commented that: *'so most of them are very much interested but very few are negative about this [work] and they don't perform well. ..., these are very few maybe 10% of the whole staff'. ..., there are those who are having challenges in their work. Some of these challenges are external factors. They are not ready for the work. These ones are always grumbling and complaining about the workload because they are lazy to their work'.* (P4:4, 14).

The educators who participated in this study had their own ways of expressing the observable symptoms of low job satisfaction at work. In their contributions, they highlighted absenteeism, coming to school late, high failure rate, irritability, and non-commitment. These symptoms were illustrated by a number of educators who were cocksure that these [symptoms] were quite observable on educators. On absenteeism, one educator had the following to say, *'[an educator] is always absent from school because he is not satisfied'.* (R3, FG1:17).

Another educator expressed the symptom of coming to school late and non-commitment. She responded that: *'symptoms of ... are now obvious; coming to school late, just being absent with fictitious reasons, not thinking when you know that the time is for you to go to class [absconding classes], not marking or monitoring your work, ...even disrespecting the principal, your HoD...'* (A2, FG2:13).

Similarly, other educators showed that high failure rate, irritability and non-commitment are some of the symptoms which can be observed as behavior of educators. R5, FG1:17 acknowledged that: *'failure rate is always too high. He [educator] is always angry with himself and other educators'.*

On non-commitment, another educator accepted that: *'he [educator] cannot submit what is wanted on time and cannot operate with the SMT or the principal'.* (R6, FG1:17).

All these extracts of school principals and educators reveal that symptoms of low job satisfaction are observable through the way educators conduct themselves at work. The statements indicated

that symptoms of low job satisfaction in educators can be observed by either principals or other educators and even both groups of people.

5.3.2.2. Promoting job satisfaction at work

In the previous category, the researcher reported on the views of the study participants that revealed some symptoms of either high or low job satisfaction at work. In this category, the researcher presented the participants' views on the promotion of job satisfaction at work. The category has five sub-categories namely: consultation in decision-making; rewards and recognition; work allocation; management support and empowering educators.

5.3.2.2. (a) Consultation in decision-making

Principals and educators in this study demonstrated their understanding of the sub-category that emerged from the empirical study. They described the creative use of consultation in decision-making in the school. Some of the principals (P3:4; P5:5) regarded the notion of participative management as the cornerstone of teamwork and the effective functioning of SMTs.

In support of consultation in decision-making, one of the principals acknowledged the following: '*We have regular meetings, where we sell the ideas that we have for the organization so that they let out of the loop. We always flock together, there are general meetings that we have (staff meetings, SMT meetings, strategic meetings) where we have meetings for those people who are to drive the program that we will be having at a particular time. For example, if we are saying discipline, we must have a strategic meeting where we talk about how we are going to look after that aspect of the school'*. (P1:5).

Another principal narrated the same management consideration which was similar to the one stated above. He gave a more elaborate description of the use of consultation in the following manner: '*...each and every idea that comes from my mind throw it to the SMT. We then discuss it. If they agree on the issue, I go with it to the governance section where we have the SGB. I give them the idea that we are thinking of doing this ... Then we go to the staff and introduce the idea to the staff...* (P2:3).

Further, the use of consultation in decision-making was described by yet another principal shared his experience in school management. He recounted the following experience: *'the issue of changes you see. What I know is that if changes are introduced and in consultation with all of those who are affected, then it becomes easy to implement it…'* (P3:4).

These descriptions showed that most of the time, they (principals) have meetings where educators are informed about various views, new ideas and the mission of the school. During such meetings educators are given the platform to make an input concerning how they think they can turn things around in the school. In those meetings they interact with the view of coming up with agreeable solutions on most things and how they can move forward as one organization. The principals who were participants in this study expressed that most meetings were held with this notion in mind. The meetings showed high levels of free and open debate within a participative climate among members of staff. In agreement with this view, another principal also repeated the view by saying that: *'… one would have to discuss first and foremost with the SMT… For example, we introduced a new subject at A-level. So before the change came they wanted to make sure that it was important … the management team called for a staff meeting where we could meet with teachers'.* (P5:7).

The educators who participated in this study also shared their views about consultation in decision-making in schools. The focus group discussions with educators revealed the same opinion that consultation has been used for the good of educators and for better decision-making process. This was explained by one educator who said that: *'… so consultation is then something that's seen as one reducing problems. We are used to be informed and we are consulted. We are not just taken by surprise'.* (R2, FG1:6). In the same vein, R1 (FG1:6) stated that: *'even the decisions taken unless otherwise, we are consulted, we are given opportunity to give our views… We are given a voice and we have got a listening ear'.* R1 (FG1:6) also supported this notion by saying that: *'the role of the principals nowadays is good because we can sit down and share ideas'.*

From what principals and educators said, it appears that consultation in decision-making is viewed to be necessary prerequisite when making decisions in a school environment. It appears

educators were happy with the idea of being consulted whenever decisions are being made by management.

5.3.2.2. (b) Rewards and recognition

The focus on rewards which emerged from this study is indicative of the fact that both principals and educators were conscious of the need for rewarding educators in order to enhance their job satisfaction. However, school principals showed that they found it difficult to implement the reward system in their schools. P2:7; P4:8 and P6:7 acknowledged that they use rewards as a form of encouragement and motivation for their educators. As P2:7 puts it, '*I usually have days in which we sort of give prizes or awards to learners, so I take the advantage also of giving teachers' awards on that day. And when we have parents meetings, I also give those awards and when we give those awards, usually I don't tell them. I just make a certificate with the HODs for the teachers that have shown good work in the year. The teacher who was coming early, the teacher who produced the good results in Mathematics, the teacher who produced good results in English and teacher who is having a classroom which is the cleanest because we encourage the teachers to be with learners'.*

P6:7 also talked about incentives to educators so as to encourage them to enjoy their work. She was not aware of how to afford these incentives, but had money, certificates of appreciation and some textbooks as incentives in her mind. According to her, '*the certificate, it will serve as history to them that during this year I did things like these and you can see this certificate'.*

Another principal, in support of recognition of educators in his school, said that: '*there are some other areas where we don't have HoDs, so we use their [educators] services to manage those departments and they seem to be enjoying it saying that they are recognized for the experience that they have. ...they feel happy that I recognize that they can play certain roles...'* (P1:9).

The above statements seem to lay emphasis on principals as evaluators of educators in order to present them with rewards and afford them ground to be recognized for work well done. Thus, P2; P4 and P6 believed that principals are the initiators of such systems in their schools but should always do this in collaboration with the SMT.

The educators who participated in this study considered rewards and recognition as an important aspect in their welfare. They also thought that rewards had to be given as a way of motivating them to enjoy their work. These rewards have to include promotion at work (A1, FG2:14); certificates of merit (A6, FG2:16); and arranging a party for the performing department or educators (A3, FG2:14; A6, FG2:16).

In support of the above understanding, one of the educators revealed that: *'the school let's say each year they have to compile information and analyze the department which would perform better… so the department which is producing something [results] we have to do something to motivate them. Nowadays there is technology in the schools, you can just issue a notice and say today we are celebrating the results, so this department has produced the best results for the past two years and so this is their certificate of merit to their HoD'.* (A6, FG2:16).

Some other educators viewed recognition as a way expressing status, seniority (A1, FG2:16) and appreciating work well done (R1, FG1:13). With regards to recognition, one of the educators said that: *'I liked my job. I was very passionate with teaching but things changed when there was a promotion post in the school where I was supposed to be recognized and rewarded with the post. They took somebody from outside the school … so this means they were not recognizing me'.* (A1, FG2:16). In support of recognition, another educator mentioned that: *'for a school to run smoothly, it must always recognize its teachers'.* (A3, FG2:19).

All the above extracts seem to suggest that both principals and educators are aware of the importance of rewards and recognition in the work of educators. The findings seem to indicate that educators look up to school management to do a fair job when it comes to rewards and recognition system in the school.

5.3.2.2. (c) Work allocation by management

The views of participants which are presented in this sub-category seem to suggest that principals are quite central in the work allocation to educators. As mentioned earlier, work allocation by managers has far reaching effects on promoting job satisfaction on educators.

Principals felt that educators become happy if they are required to teach the subject or grade the various educators feel acquainted with and in which they can do justice to both the learners and the learning matter. For several principals work allocation provide a platform for professional development in educators. For P2, work allocation contributes to instill a spirit of competition and a sense of achieving in educators.

In view of the above understanding, one of the principals who participated in this study said that: *'work allocation by the management is very important because you have to see who teaches what [subject] in which grade so that he can put his energy, his whole energy and also his ability to get good results because if you take a teacher who doesn't understand Mathematics and make him to teach Mathematics, that would bring a lot of unhappiness to him. You are not going to get production. So you also check the capability of the educator, if he is good in Mathematics you take him to the Mathematics side, if he is good in languages, you take him to the languages when you are designing the curriculum, then it will be easy for him to work on something that he knows… So he will be happy and produce good results for you'.* (P2:9).

Similarly, another principal illustrated his opinion by saying: *'… allocate work according to their [educators] abilities and interests taking into consideration gender equity'.* (P3:2).

P6:3 concurred with other participants when asked about work allocation and described his opinion in the following manner: *'…let me say the subjects which need to be taught by the educators, I tell the educators what to do. The one who is good let's say in Mathematics then that educator must be responsible for Mathematics. The one who is good in English [must be responsible [teach] for English'.*

From what was said about work allocation by principals, the researcher observed that if work allocation is properly done it has lasting effects on the satisfaction of educators in their work. Some of these principals revealed that educators' abilities and interests are quite essential when doing work allocation.

The educators also felt that the allocation of work by their line managers is very important. Just like principals, these educators reiterated the same importance of work allocation in the work-life of educators. In support of this view, one of the educators provided the following sentiments: *'...when coming to classification [work allocation] I think the principal must look, must know his staff well. He must know teacher so and so can teach those subjects well in which classes. ... I think he must consult. Ask them [educators], if I can put you here can you deliver, can you feel free because what I know is that a teacher is free when he/she is able to deliver well'.* (R6, FG1:9).

The same view was shared by another educator who also pointed that: *'...before the principal do this classification [work allocation], its better for him to check the teachers' qualifications, their ages and even their abilities'.* (R5, FG1:10).

When the researcher analyzed the responses of principals and educators on work allocation, it appeared that qualifications, abilities and interests seemed to match the provisions for work allocation by school management. It can be concluded that work allocation could be influence by the assessment of educators' qualifications, abilities, and interests. These attributes have a bearing on the educators' job satisfaction at work.

5.3.2.2. (d) Management support

It emerged that one way for promoting job satisfaction in educators in their work environment was the support from management. Most of the principals who participated in this study (P1:2; P2:2; P3:14; P5:4; P6:2) agreed that a need exists for management support in promoting the job satisfaction of educators in schools. The kind of support principals identified included supporting educators with the formulation of team teaching strategies, facilitation of in-house workshops for subject matter (P1:2); buying teaching resources that educators ask for and allocating equitably the resources that come from the DoE (P2:2; P5:4; P6:2); and creating good interpersonal relations in the school (P3:14).

There is support which assists educators with the formulation of team teaching strategies and facilitation of in-house workshops. This was illustrated by one of the school principals, who said

that: *'…is to make sure that all educators perform their expected responsibilities. In other words, you must take them through in-house workshops where everybody will know the role he/she has to play in the organization. … you find an educator who is struggling with Natural Sciences when there are some other educators who can assist in some areas in the same subject. So I then called a meeting for the Natural Sciences educators so that we can see how we can find some other educators who are taking [teaching] Physical Sciences in Grade 12 to see if there are no other sections where they can assist the [struggling] educator …'* (P1:2).

This was supported by another principal who felt that management support should be done as a way of raising the morale of educators at work. He said, *'… and giving support to teachers because as they will be working they need my support. I also need to check as to how they are doing their work in the classroom and also how they are assisting the learners in their different learning areas'.* (P2:2).

It emerged that there is support which is given through buying teaching resources that educators ask for and allocating equitably the resources that come from the DoE. One principal confirmed this support by saying that: *'as a school we get coffers from the government and we buy resources that the teachers ask for and that they will use them right through the year. So when we buy them resources to help them with their teaching…we also try and use DoE resources so that we can try and improve learners' work because they also get free workbooks free books for different learning areas. So we always make it a point that we support them on that'.* (P2:2-3).

In the same vein, another principal described his experience on this kind of support in his school. He said that: *'when we sit down as management and come up with a budget, we make sure that we look at our pupil [learner]textbook ratio and then we come up with funds that we set aside for textbooks… The same goes for the teaching and learning materials. So after these have been budgeted for, and the department that does procurement has done so, then these are taken to the HoDs who in turn take these [material resources such as books, chalks, dusters, charts, highlighters, and marking pens] to the teachers and teachers take them to classes. So one is assured that this is done …. And they [educators] even compliment the management that teaching and learning materials are available'.* (P5:4-5)

One of the principals saw the support they give to educators as a way of creating good interpersonal relations in the school and among different stakeholders. He expressed his opinion in the following manner: *'...you see, like the support that I give when I do class visits [supervision through lesson observation] I do it for support. When I evaluate their work, I check where they need support and I will not be there for fault finding. They know that once I am there [in their classrooms] at the end they will benefit from me. So that is the way in which you can see, they can see that I am doing all that to make them happy when they are at work so that they can deliver services to the learners. This is the impact I am doing'.* (P3:14).

To confirm that management support is important in promoting job satisfaction as affirmed by school principals, educators who participated in this study mentioned their perceptions towards this view. One of the educators emphasized the support educators received from various school managers when the latter monitor educators' work. She believed that: *'the role that the principal can play is to monitor our work, to find out whether the work is done, not done or properly done. Before it's properly done or not properly done there must be workshops to guide us so that we can achieve our aims to do things perfectly'.* (R2, FG1:6).

Another educator expressed the paramount importance of management support by saying that: *'in my view I see the principal as an overseer of the running of a school in the sense that he is there to us [educators] support and also to motivate us in different spheres of teaching. Maybe in the classroom, relationships with learners, and relationship with the parents; he is there to give us support, to help us and to show us the way. Maybe inside the classroom there are times the principal has to do class visits if he can come ....and find out that there are no teaching aids or the way I have prepared the lesson is not the way it should be, he can help us on that. Or maybe I prepared my lesson in a way that is not a good way; he can support me or conduct a workshop. Or I am neglecting some of the issues in the classroom, the way I handle the learners, the way I interact with fellow educators, if I misbehave in the community or in an organized event he can call me to order'.* (R6, FG1:8).

Most educators held the opinion that monitoring and supervision by management should not be a fault finding exercise. Instead it should lead to intervention and empowerment. In line with this

kind of thinking, one educator said: *'... I think when you supervise you intervene…you are there to assist and not be a fault finder'*. (R2, FG1:6).

All the extracts which were presented from the both groups of participants showed that management support is important to educators. When the researcher analyzed these responses on management support, it appeared that it is valued by both principals and educators. Based on these findings, it can be concluded that management support has an influence on the job satisfaction of educators.

5.3.2.2. (e) Empowering educators

In the previous sub-category the researcher reported the views of the study participants that revealed the importance of management support in influencing job satisfaction of educators. In this sub-category the researcher presented participants' views on empowerment. Empowering educators means that educators become knowledgeable regarding the expectations their superiors have of their work. According to research findings, this can be achieved by creating work teams, committees and presenting internal workshops for the benefit of these educators. One of the principals acknowledged the following: *'when you with your subordinates [educators] you must find a way of empowering them in such a manner that they carry their responsibilities to the expected level'*. (P1:1).

Another principal in support of empowering educators, he had the following to say: *'...the teachers are going to do this and you find out that they don't know it, you have to take the lead and show them how it must be done or this is how it is done. This is the kind of stuff you must do when you are preparing your lessons in the classroom. I always hold workshops for them. I know that is the better way of starting to help'*. (P2:10).

The same principal (P2) narrated how he used delegation to build on educator's expertise and strengths, for example, by allocating academic responsibilities to academically inclined educators. He said: *'I once had a problem with an educator who could not prepare properly. He was preparing but he couldn't understand the format that we wanted. So I handed him over to the peer teacher who teaches thee same subject with him. He was guided and helped by that*

teacher. He did it but later on changed and went back to the old ways of doing things. I send him to the HoD and then [the HoD] solved the problem with him but there was no change. ...I called him and the HoD; I inducted him on LOs and ASS. I feel I must help and support all the educators because if he is under-qualified there is nothing I can do ...I need only to help him so that he can do his work professionally like other educators'. (P2:6).

For one of the principals (P3:4), distributing leadership helped to prepare educators for promotional posts so that when they apply for senior posts and get promoted they won't feel underpowered. Most principals stressed that they delegated among their SMT members such duties as chairing SMT and staff meetings as well as finalizing the agenda for meetings.

Some of the educators, who participated in this study, had similar understanding of empowerment with the principals. One post-level one educator was once delegated to act as the Deputy Principal for a day. He confirmed it when he said, *'...I still remember one day when I was a Deputy Principal for a day here; he [Principal] told me that one day when I retire I will say that I was once a deputy Principal to control the school for a day'.* (R1, FG1:10).

Again, another educator narrated how he witnessed an educator who had the know-how, skill and expertise was incorporated into the SMT as an expert and would in future attend all the deliberations of the SMT. He added that: *'...because here in our institution, we have SMT, so this SMT has got a teacher representative. So if there is something I need to get special attention, I can do it formally by writing a letter and give it to this teacher representative to take it to the SMT meeting'.* (R2, FG1:11).

These statements were found to be important because empowering educators is largely done by school principals. This empowerment seems to stir zeal and stimulate educators towards their work satisfaction.

5.4   THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THEMES AND CATEGORIES

In order to distil collected data into findings of the study, the researcher applied networks to display the nature of relationships that emerged within the themes, categories and sub-categories

that were identified. Networks are visual images that present a summary of the relationship between ideas emerging from the collected data (Smit, 2002:31, Runhare, 2010:213). Figures 5.1 and 5.2 constitute the network relationship diagrams that the researcher designed to summarize the participants' views and the relationships that were assigned to them. These relationships were described using the following symbols:

= =   : is associated with

= >   : is cause of

With the use of these symbols, the researcher was able to deal manually with the collected data to identify and distil the relationships.

Figure 5.1 Network relationships on the responses of participants to the management roles of school principals
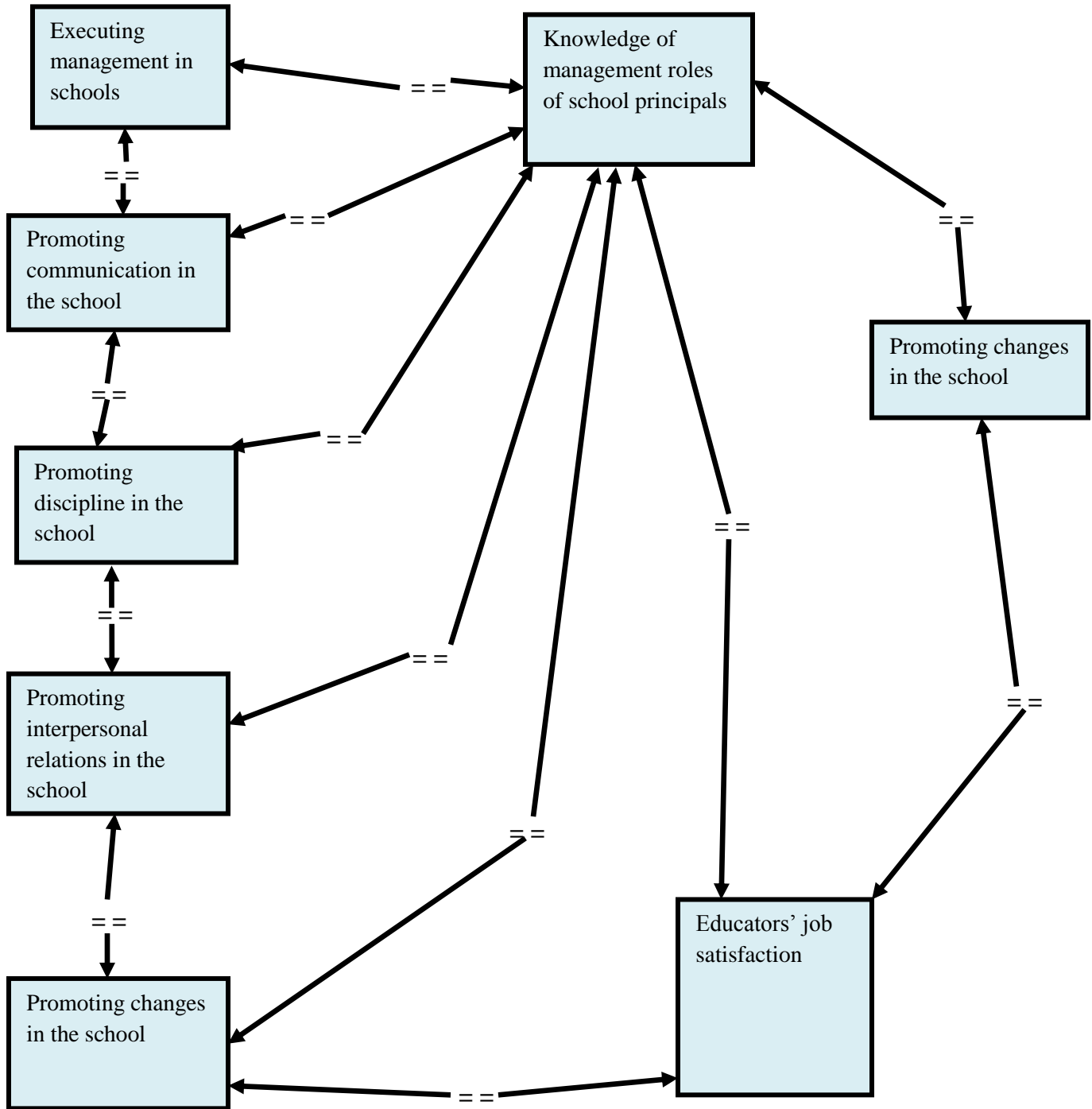
Figure 5.1 shows that knowledge of management roles is inter-related to all the sub-categories in different ways. For example, promoting management in schools, promoting communication in schools, promoting discipline in the school, promoting interpersonal relations in the school, and promoting changes in the school had a casual relationship with the participants' knowledge of management roles of school principals. From the network relationships, the researcher concluded that improving participants' knowledge of management roles of principals will most likely improve the job satisfaction of educators in their work environments.

Figure 5.2 Network relationships on the responses of participants to factors of job satisfaction.

Experiencing job satisfaction	==	Knowledge of what comprise job satisfaction of educators	==	Promoting job satisfaction

What makes people happy at work?

Symptoms of high job satisfaction

What make people unhappy at work?

Symptoms of low job satisfaction

Rewarding and recognition of educators in the school

Work allocation by management

Management support to educators

Empowering educators
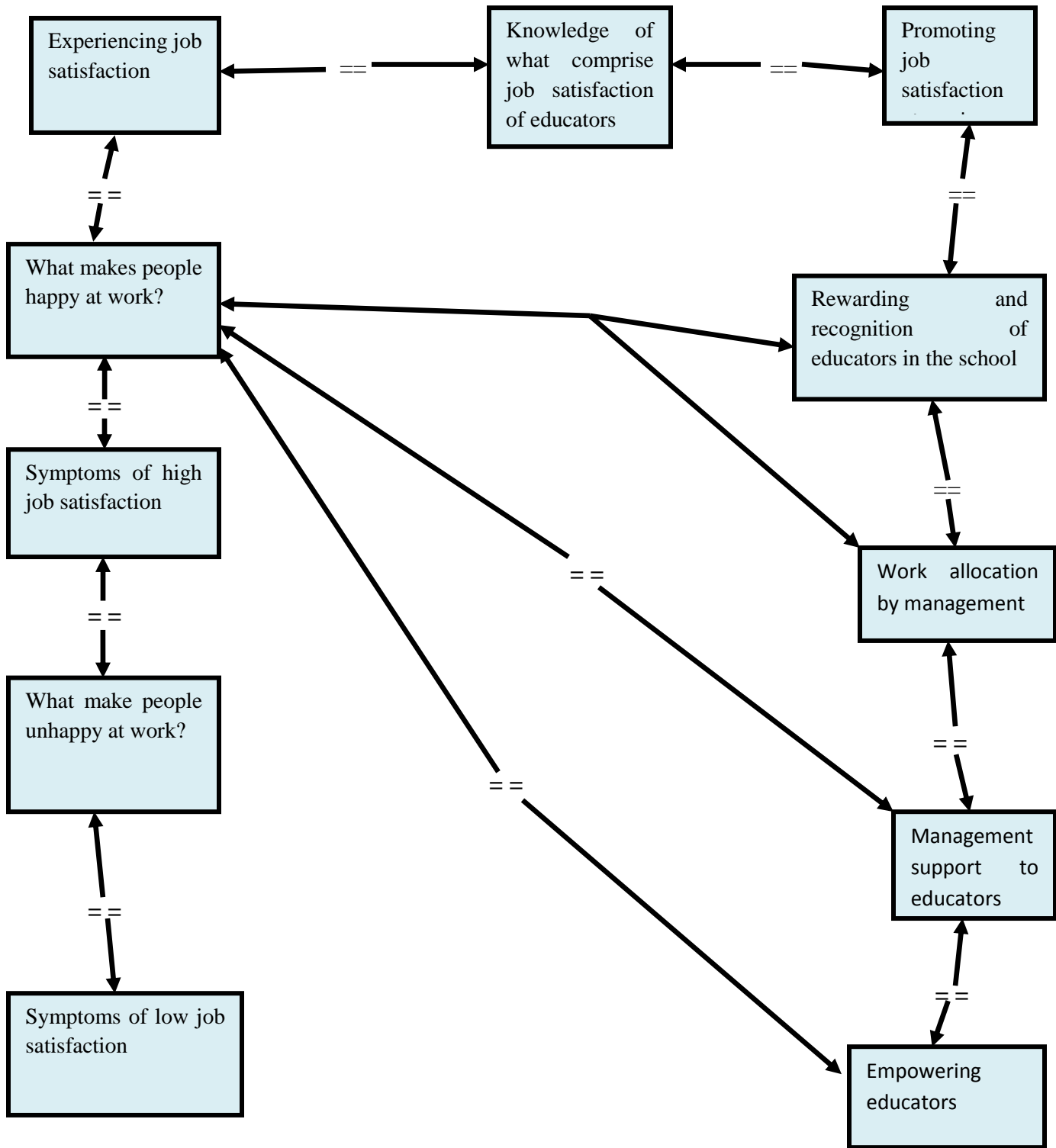
== == == == == == == ==

Figure 5.2 illustrates the interrelated factors that enhance job satisfaction to educators within any given school environment. The figure shows that the rewarding and recognition system, empowerment of educators, work allocation by management and management support were associated with factors of job satisfaction. In this study, it emerged that if principals of schools consult educators in decision-making, reward and recognize work done by educators, exercise fair work allocation to educators, and provide adequate support to educators, it goes a long way in enhancing their job satisfaction. This was revealed in the form of responses which were given by participants when responding to what makes people happy at work. From what the researcher observed and from what most of the participants said during the interviews and FGIs, consultation in decision-making, rewarding and recognition of work done by educators, management support to educators, and empowering educators were among the most common factors that comprise the job satisfaction of educators. The network shows that these factors are linked to what makes people happy at work. In general, if the variables to the right are improved in any school environment, the job satisfaction of educators would be enhanced.

5.5 WHAT HAS BEEN LEARNT FROM THE STUDY?

In this section, a list of what has been learnt as a result of the empirical research is provided in table 5.2

Table 5.2: What was learnt?

What has been learnt?	Where it can be found (interview/ focus group/literature review
Management strategy is a series of actions of planning, organizing, leading and controlling the resources of an organization to achieve stated organizational goals as efficiently as possible by working with and through people. Management strategy is the art and science of formulating, implementing	Literature Review (Ivancevich, et. al. 1994:10; Pearson, 2006:928; Williams, 2008:5; § 1.12.1 p32 & § 2.3 p47); Individual interviews (P1& P3)

and evaluating cross-functional decisions that will enable an organization to achieve its objectives. It is the process of specifying the organization's objectives, developing policies and plans to achieve these objectives, and allocating resources to implement the policies and plans to achieve the organization's objectives.	
The identifiable management strategies are hierarchical, facilitative, participative and transformational.	Literature review (§ 2.5 p68; Deal & Peterson, 1994:133; Lashway, 1995:1-3; Cashin, et. al.2000:1; Individual interviews (P1; P2; P3); R2; R6, FG1.
Facilitative management strategy is concerned with empowering subordinates to take responsibility for their own efforts and solutions. Thus, the principal resists the temptation to give advice but instead facilitates others in their problem-solving endeavors and educators are more motivated to find their own solutions.	Literature review (§ 2.5.2 p70); McMillan, 2010:525; Lashway, 1995:1-3; P3:4
Hierarchical management strategy comprises of a top-down approach in which school principals uses rational analysis to determine the best way or course of action and then assert their formal authority to carry it out.	Literature review (§ 2.5.1 p69); Sethi, et. al. 1997:4-5; P2:6
Participative management strategy is management in which employees at all levels are encouraged to contribute ideas towards identifying and setting organizational goals, problem-solving and	Literature review (§ 2.5.4 p79); Branch (2002:1); Bloom (2000:5); P3:4, 9; R2, FG1:6

other decisions that may directly affect them. It's also called consultative management.	
Transformational management strategy focuses on the importance of teamwork and comprehensive school improvement. It counts on authority, idealism, and rational stimulation, inspiring and encouraging workers through ethics, policies, conventions and mutual outlook of workplace.	Literature review (§ 2.5.3 p73): Leadwood, as cited in Cashin, et. al. (2000:1); Barbuto (2005:28); P3:4; R6,FG1:8
Management strategies of school principals have some effects on the job satisfaction levels of educators.	Literature review (§ 2.5.3 p73); Bush (2007:404); DoE (1996b:13-14). Responses from individual interviews & FGIs.
Job satisfaction relates to the extent to which people like their jobs. In other words, it a personal evaluation of conditions present in the job or outcomes that arise as a result of having a job.	Literature review ((§ 3.2 p85; Hirschfield, 2000:256; Greenberg & Baron, 2000:160); Responses from FG1 & FG2, P1, P2, P3, P6)
Factors that are associated with job satisfaction include among others; work allocation, supervision, support from management, working conditions, rewards and recognition system, discipline, communication, and social events.	Literature review (§ 3.4 p132; Bucheli, et. al. 2010:1-2; Castillo & Cano, 2004:65; The Manager, 2002:5; Josias, 2005:57). Responses from FG1 & FG2; individual interviews)
Work allocation by school management can enhance job satisfaction of educators. This is equated to the work itself from literature study.	Literature review (§ 3.5.1 p134); Owens (1995:55); Culpin & Wright in Bull, (2005:35). Responses from Principals and educators (Appendices K & L)
Support from management is essential in creating satisfying conditions in educators.	Literature review (§ 3.5.2 p135); Bradley, et. al. (2004:2); Mudor & Tooksoon

This would be in the form of supervision and resource allocation.	(2011:43); Fao (1976:100); Responses from principals and educators (Appendices K & L).
Promotion and growth at workplace is very crucial in creating conditions that can enhance job satisfaction at work.	Responses from Principals & educators (Appendices I & J).
Rewards and recognition for work done in a school has a significant bearing on the job satisfaction levels of educators in any given school environment.	Responses from Principals & educators (Appendices I & J).
Communication is quite essential in the enhancement of job satisfaction in educators.	Responses from Principals & educators (Appendices I & J).

5.6   CHAPTER SUMMARY

In this chapter, the researcher presented the empirical data that was collected through individual and focus group interviews, and reflections made from interviews and available literature reviewed (c.f. § 2 & 3). The purpose of the study was to examine and understand the relationship between management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction levels. There was also the need to clarify the management strategies that could be used by school principals in the enhancement of educators' job satisfaction levels in their different school environments. In the presentation, clear distinction was made between what the participants were saying, what literature revealed and the interpretations and reflections of the researcher. Data was presented and analyzed following two interrelated themes, namely the management roles of principals and the job satisfaction of educators. From the presented data, the general picture that emerged was that there is a relationship between management roles of school principals and educators' job satisfaction levels.

In the next chapter, the researcher will identify and discuss the findings that emerged from the data presented in chapter five. The discussion focused on establishing and explaining literature

control on the emerging themes. The data will be further linked with findings from other related studies and the theoretical framework that underpinned this study.

CHAPTER SIX

6. LITERATURE CONTROL ON EMERGING THEMES

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter contained a discussion and presentation of data collected from participants during individual and focus group interviews that were conducted in this study. From the presented data, themes, categories and sub-categories emerged and were presented in table 5.4. The management roles of school principals and how these roles can be used to improve the job satisfaction levels of educators in different school environments were described. It was also explained how job satisfaction can be increased among workers and how management roles in particular can enhance it.

In this chapter, the researcher applies the theoretical framework which underpinned the study as well as literature from the related research studies in relation to the themes that emerged from the data gathered for this study. Literature control of the research data, not only helped the researcher to understand the study participants' responses to the relationship between management strategies and job satisfaction through comparing them with existing knowledge, but was in another way, a means of distilling data themes into findings of the study.

This chapter has three major sections. In the first section, the researcher considered management theories as a mirror to findings of the study. In the second section, the researcher considered job satisfaction theories as a mirror to findings of the study. In the third section, the researcher explored and compared the study's emerging themes with existing knowledge from the reviewed research studies on management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators. The major purpose of the discussions in these sections is to cross check the authenticity and trustworthiness of the research results.

6.2 MANAGEMENT THEORIES AS A MIRROR TO FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

Since this study focuses on the management strategies of school principals, the researcher examines the findings of the study in relation to various theories of management. In this regard, constructivist, critical, systems and contingency theories are considered.

6.2.1 Constructivist theory

The central issue in constructivist theory (c.f. § 2.4.1) is trustworthiness. The constructivist paradigm assumes a relativist ontology (i.e. there are multiple realities), a subjectivist epistemology (i.e. the knower and subject create understandings), and a naturalistic inquiry (i.e. reality is viewed as existing in the natural world) (c.f. Denzin & Lincoln, 1998:27). Constructivists believe that knowledge is socially constructed. For the present study, educators' job satisfaction levels in a school are determined by the management roles of the principals (c.f. P1:2; P3:2-3; P5:2; R1, R2, FG1:6; A2, A3, A5, FG2:2-3). Applied to this study, it implies that principals must construct knowledge about educators' needs, rewards and incentives that will keep them interested and excited about their work. In other words, both school principals and educators should understand the power structures and interests that shape the knowledge that is presented as facts in schools. According to Fleury (2001:256) knowledge is constructed by humans. Educators can build an internal representation of knowledge, and a personal interpretation of their experiences. Thus, if principals need to enhance educators' job satisfaction, they have to construct knowledge about these educators' needs, rewards, incentives and recognition.

Insofar as overall job satisfaction levels of educators is concerned, the participants in this study reported that principals structure the work of educators, thus reflecting that principals construct knowledge of educators 'needs, rewards, incentives and recognition.

6.2.2. Critical theory

Critical theory (c.f. § 2.4.2) is concerned with critical meanings of experiences as they relate to gender, race, and other kinds of social descriptions (c.f. Maree, 2011:21). Components of job satisfaction are given their meaning in accordance with the experiences of the educators. For

example, recognition of people who do their work well is seen to be done on the basis of meaning derived from the worker's experience. Critical theory has the potential to enhance the realization of human potentialities in a given organization. School principals should therefore adopt management strategies that would make them realize their educators' potentialities (c.f. P3:3). Researches done on critical theory (Fuchs, 2008:119; Taylor, 1995:151; Hegel, 1830; § 121, §112; Rosenberg, 1930:525; Marcuse, 1941:413; Marx, 1844b:538; Said, 2000:375) suggest that the essence of critical theory is interpreted as sociality and cooperation because the individual is seen as a social being. The implication of this assumption is that cooperation is something that all human beings share, and that societal conditions should be created that allows all human beings to participate and to have equally realized rights and to live in equity. It is this stress on cooperation and equity that compels school principals to involve all educators in the school in various aspects of school management. Critical theory also allows school principals to be rational, governed by universally valid laws, calculable and lucid in its operation, professing to protect the essential interests of individuals without discrimination.

This study revealed that school principals can improve the job satisfaction of educators through their use of a variety of management strategies. Through the participants of this study, ideas such as cooperation, happiness, empowerment, and satisfaction were mentioned repeatedly. These words inferred would imply that the conditions they create, it is assumed can be fostered by school principals when they use a variety of management strategies which would make them realize that educators are human beings who have the ability to struggle and to act consciously in transformative ways.

6.2.3. Systems theory

Systems theory (c.f. § 2.4.3) focuses on the total work organization and the interrelationships of structure and behavior, and the range of variables within the organization. The systems theory provides for the following aspects in an organization: (i) management focuses on the work itself; (ii) human relations and behaviorism stress the worker-worker and the worker-manager relationship; (iii) structuralism emphasizes organizational design; and (iv) management roles focus on the functions of the manager (c.f. P1:2; P3:2-3; P5:2; R1, R2, FG1:6; A2, A3, A5, FG2:2-3). The findings of this study also revealed that systems theory was conceived through the

understanding components that exist in the school as an organization. Some of the participants identified the following: interpersonal relations (P1:10; P2:13; P6:7; R2, FG1:13; A3, FG2:14; A6, FG2:3); discipline (R6, FG1:11; A2, FG2:13; A5, FG2:10; P1:6; P2:4; P6:5); work allocation (P2:9; P3:6; R6, FG1:9; R5, FG1:10). Some of these aspects in the organization are considered to be parts of the school as a system.

From these descriptions from participants, it would appear that systems theory encourages school principals to view the school both as a whole and as part of a larger environment, and that any part of the school's activities affects all other parts. They should establish or create good interpersonal relations among educators, maintain good discipline in the school, must develop fair and equitable work allocation to educators, delegate tasks equitably to educators, and support every educator according to needs in the school. This notion concurred with the findings by Shahid (2004:2) which placed much emphasis on the fact that these parts are interdependent, interconnected and relate to the accomplishment of organizational goals by all stakeholders. Educators, who participated in this study, also confirmed that they feel motivated when school principals recognize and support them in the work of teaching.

6.2.4. Contingency theory

Contingency theory (c.f. § 2.4.4) suggests that there is no one best way to manage organizations but consideration should be given to the situational and contextual factors which influence management decisions. This theory recognizes the diverse nature of; for example, school contexts and the advantages of adapting management strategies to a particular situation rather than adopting a 'one size fits all' stance (c.f. Yukl, 2002:234).

When the participants of this study were talking about: management roles (P2:2; P3:14; P5:4; P6:2; R1, R2, FG1:6; A2, A3, A5, FG2:2-3), in-house workshops (R2, FG1:6; R6, FG1:8; P1:2; P2:2; P3:14), interpersonal relations (P2:13; P6:7; R2, FG1:13; A6, FG2:3), work allocation (P2:9; P3:6; R6, FG1:9; R5, FG1:10), rewards and recognition (P2:7; P4:8; P6:7; A1, A3, FG2:14; A6, FG1:16), and management support (P1:2; P2:2; P3:14; P5:4; P6:2; R2, FG1:6; R6, FG1:8), their understanding was that these were done depending on the situation in the school. Research studies by Brevis, et. al. (1999:48) and Owens (1981:139) revealed the same

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understanding that contingency theory to job satisfaction suggests that efforts to enhance the job satisfaction of educators requires school principals to use approaches appropriate to specific situations in the school. Thus, the theory encourages school principals to assess the situation and choose the appropriate management strategy to meet the demands of the situation.

Observations from early studies on contingency theory and findings from this study seem to agree with the management theories that govern human values and behavior in work places. Such understanding was found to provide, through principals, conditions that would enhance the job satisfaction of educators.

6.3. JOB SATISFACTION THEORIES AS A MIRROR TO FINDINGS OF THE STUDY

The relationship between people and their work has long attracted research by psychologists and behavioral scientists. Their work dealt with measurements of aptitudes and abilities to improve job satisfaction. According to Vroom (1995:4), concepts like needs, motives, goals, incentives and attitudes are appearing with greater frequency than aptitude, ability and skill in today's work related assessments. Since participants in this study often referred to these in their discussions on what makes people happy and unhappy in their work places, the researcher came to the conclusion that job satisfaction should be understood as a product of the affective notion of behavior as has been indicated by Nicholson, et.al. (1995:330-331). These authors stated that motivation, rather than performance, affects behavior. In the same vein Nicholson, et. al. (1995:332), stressed that early management theories such as Taylor's Scientific Management Theory, suggested using financial rewards to impel motivation and job satisfaction. Personality and learning theories in psychology during the same time led to the development of motivational programs to enhance job satisfaction by creating work conditions that matched need satisfaction with on-task efforts and predictive workplace behavior. However, the rise of the content and process theories of motivation and job satisfaction led to more detailed dimensions in approaching the issues of job satisfaction of workers.

In this study, when participants talked about promoting job satisfaction through consultation in decision-making processes (P2:3; P3:3; P5:2;R3, FG1:7; A2, FG2:2), rewarding educators, work

allocation by management, management support and empowering educators (c.f. P1:1; P2:10; P3:4; R1, FG1:10), the researcher found it possible to establish a connection between their thoughts and the theories of job satisfaction as presented earlier (c.f. § 3.3). This is supported from literature reviewed on B. F. Skinner's operant learning and reinforcement (c.f. § 3.3.3) which stressed that reinforcement at work helps to alter workplace behavior of personnel.

Other research participants in this study talked about the importance of work allocation by school management (P2:9; P3:6; R6, FG1:9; R5, FG1:10). They expressed the opinion that work allocation when used properly can enhance educators' job satisfaction levels by creating working conditions and work environments that promote a sense of achievement, and a perception of competency and autonomy.

The discussion with regard to job satisfaction theories as a mirror to the findings of the study appear in the following subsequent sections. The discussion is organized to follow the findings of this study. First, the finding is discussed, followed by the link to theory and lastly conclusion about that research finding.

- The present study shows that salary or wage has the potential to arouse the job satisfaction levels of educators. It was generally valued by both educators and principals. Its value may be best understood in terms of the different needs employees have (c.f. P1:12; P5:15; R5, FG1:16; R6, FG1:16; A1, FG2:17). Most participants revealed that money satisfies a lot of their needs. In line with other previous studies, (Maslow, 1943:372; 383; 1954:35-47; 1968:153; 1989:374-382; Hanson, 2003:194; Van der Westhuizen, 1991:196-197), salary or wage came up as is an important factor (c.f. Thornburg, 1992:58-61) because it satisfies several of the needs in the hierarchy of Maslow with regard to workers. The result of this study suggested that, money provides educators with the means to purchase items which satisfy their physiological needs and it enables them to meet their esteem needs, since it is one measure of relative worth (c.f. P3:14; P5:14; A1, FG2:17; R6, FG1:16). In line with Herzberg's two-factor theory (c.f. § 3.3.1.2; Herzberg, et. al. 1959:113-119), extrinsic factor such as salary, if school principals do not work out for their educators to be paid at the earliest convenient time

they may not get the job satisfaction at work. Thus, school principals may have to see to it that all what is needed by the DoE for the payment of educators is submitted on time.

- The findings of the present study revealed that recognition of work done contribute to employee job satisfaction (c.f. P2:7; P4:8; P6:7; A1, A3, FG2:14; A3, FG2:16). These findings are consistent with findings from previous studies elsewhere (Koch, 1990:72-3; Stewart, 1992:102). Both educators and school principals who participated in this study, reported that this recognition of work done is a form of positive feedback and this feedback follows the principles advocated in Skinner's reinforcement theory (c.f. § 3.3.2.3 which states that behavior is contingent on reinforcement. Some examples of such positive reinforcement raised by the participants (P6:7; A3, FG2:19) included classroom visits by the HoDs, personal letters or memos of thanks accompanying work done, telephone calls or emails of compliments by management to educators at home, during vacation or school holidays. Thus, the study suggested that recognition of work done to educators by school principals has a lasting effect on the arousal of job satisfaction levels.

- In this study, the participants reported that promotion and growth in a school as an organization has lasting effect on the arousal of educators' job satisfaction levels (c.f. P3:4, A1, FG2:14; A3, A6, FG2:15). This finding is in line with Herzberg's motivator-hygiene theory (§ 3.3.1.2; Herzberg, et. al. 1956:87-90). Most participants agreed that the most successful method of enhancing job satisfaction among educators is to build a work allocation that can offer challenge and opportunity for achievement, into the job itself. Again, this finding was seen to be in line with McClelland's socially acquired needs theory (c.f. § 3.3.1.4; McClelland, 1961:158; Moore, 2010:25; Lussier & Achua, 2007:42; Daft, 2008:233) that suggested that people with high achievement needs are motivated by work allocation that promotes challenging assignments with clearly attainable objectives and timely feedback. Thus, both promotion and growth in an organization can be addressed through work allocation by management. This is so because the aim of work allocation is to enrich a job so that the employee is more motivated to do the work. Work allocation is often inherent in the contemporary

management strategies of transformational (empowerment) and participative (employee involvement).

- The finding of this study showed that support from management was regarded as very important to backing the educators in their professional work of teaching. Responses from educators who participated in the study revealed that they need support from the management in buying teaching materials needed, allocating the needed resources equitably among educators, conducting in-house workshops which enable educators to tackle their teaching content in the correct ways (P1:2; P2:2-3; P3:14; P5:4; P6:2; R2, FG1:6; R6, FG1:8). In this study, management support was reported as one of the satisfying aspects in the working life of an educator. The educators who participated in this study (c.f. R2, FG1:6; R3, FG1:7; R6, FG1:8) affirmed that their immediate supervisors' support was helpful and acts as a major source of motivation and job satisfaction. This line of thinking seems to be fulfilling Maslow's lower order needs of security and social acceptance (c.f. § 3.3.1.1; Maslow, 1989:374-382; Griffin, 2008:438). Some of the school principals also expressed the same importance of management support to educators yielding the same results to educators (c.f. P1:2; P2:3; P3:13, 16). This finding is also in line with Adams' equity theory (c.f. § 3.3.2.2; Adams, 1963:422-435; Coldwell & Perumal, 2007:197) which emphasizes fairness of management to the professional welfare of educators. The study by Lewis, et. al. (1995:502) revealed that equity and fairness at workplace has been found to be the major determinant of job satisfaction. From this finding, it can be seen that support from management has got a lasting effect on the job satisfaction levels of educators.

- In this study, participants reported that working conditions (c.f. § 3.4.4) impinge on the job satisfaction of educators. A number of educators who participated in this study were not satisfied with several aspects of their working conditions (c.f. P3:14; A2, FG2:17; R1, FG1:17; R3, FG1:16). In line with previous studies (Castillo & Cano, 2004:65; Josias, 2005:57; Steyn, 1990:42, 146; Simelane, 2004:31-32; Kusereka, 2009:77) inadequate teaching materials, or equipment, workloads, large class sizes, physical conditions of classrooms and deficiencies in basic instructional inputs like textbooks, libraries and

didactic materials often have negative effects on the job satisfaction levels of educators. This is consistent with Vroom's expectancy theory (c.f. § 3.3.2.1; Vroom, 1964:14-15). The finding that educators were not satisfied with, that is, the workload and physical working surroundings corroborate previous research findings (Kim, 2000:40; Kloep & Tarifa, 1994:163-164; Kniveton, 1991:369; Lethoko, et. al. 2001:313). The principals (P1:2; P2:3; P3:14) who participated in this study believed that they are the ambassadors of the school to higher authorities and other stakeholders in championing improvements on working conditions in their schools.

- The participants reported that the rewards and recognition system in the school has an influence on the job satisfaction levels of educators (c.f. P2:7; P4:8; P6:7; A1, A3, FG2:14). This was understood as a notion that had to do with performance of the organization and that are designed to encourage educators to obtain more information, add skills, take more decision-making responsibility, and enhance job satisfaction. The study revealed that educators thought that a fair rewarding and recognition system of the school would go a long way in influencing their satisfaction at work (c.f. A6, FG2:16).

- The research findings of this study indicate that the majority of educators who participated were convinced that interpersonal relations have an integral role in their job satisfaction. The educators reported that most of job satisfaction can be derived from their working relationships with management, colleagues and learners (c.f. R2, FG1:13; A3, FG2:14; A5, FG2:5; A6, FG2:3). The findings are consistent with findings from previous studies elsewhere (Cockburn, 2000:227; Kloep & Tarifa, 1994:163) which revealed that educators are satisfied with positive relationships with their work environment. The present study reveals that a positive relationship with learners, colleagues and management is a major factor the arousal of educators' job satisfaction levels. In line with Herzberg's two-factor theory interpersonal relations is a maintenance factor (c.f. § 3.3.1.2; Herzberg, et. al. 1959:113-114). Good interpersonal relations increase the opportunities for job satisfaction. The participating educators confirmed that teaching presents the opportunity for educators to interact with learners in the isolation of the classroom thus enhancing their motivation and job satisfaction. Colleagues were viewed

as a source of support in times of difficulty and a source of strength when impositions are placed upon one (c.f. R1, FG1:13; R2, FG1:13; R3, FG1:14; R5, FG1:14; Cockburn, 2000:227). Social support from management is a major source of satisfaction. Most participants seemed to coincide with Ruhl-Smith and Smith (1993:538) on the opinion that better interpersonal relations can bring about job satisfaction and work motivation. This study suggests that principals can be of vital importance in the creation of good interpersonal relations in the school.

From the research findings identified and reviewed literature, it was observed that school principals should: know the needs of their educators and must endeavor to afford them opportunities to satisfy them; ensure that basic human needs, such as a satisfactory working environment, are fulfilled (c.f. Hofmeyr, 1992:69); and be prepared to recognize the abilities of educators and their individual differences in needs, and select appropriate rewards and incentives (c.f. Tarrant, 1991:37).

Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory (c.f. § 3.3.1.1; Maslow, 1989:374-382; Griffin, 2008:438) provides a useful framework for school principals to understand the variety of needs that educators may experience at workplaces; and sensitize them to the specific factors and management strategies that can have an impact on the job satisfaction of educators in general.

Herzberg's two-factor theory (c.f. § 3.3.1.2; Herzberg, et.al. 1959:113-117) parallel Maslow's hierarchy of needs and relates to maintenance factors (working conditions, interpersonal relations, work group, supervision) and motivators (promotion and growth, responsibility). The premise of the motivator-hygiene theory was that jobs have specific factors which are related to job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. The factors thought to facilitate job satisfaction include achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, working conditions, supervision, interpersonal relations, and rewards. Some of these factors were also identified and spoken of by the participants in this study (c.f. P1:10; P2:7; P3:6; P4:2; P5:4; R5, FG1:10; R6, FG1:8; A3, FG2:14). From some of their responses, the following descriptions of these factors were derived: recognition are acts of praise, notice, or compliment said by one or more management people, or colleagues; interpersonal relations are relationships involving SMT, educators and learners; and

working conditions include physical working conditions, facilities and quality of work as related to job satisfaction.

Victor Vroom's expectancy theory (c.f. § 3.3.2.1; Vroom, 1964:14-15) can also be linked to another dimension that emerged from the empirical study, namely, rewards and recognition (P2:7; P4:8; P6:7; A1, A3, FG2:14; A6, FG2:16). In his theory, he posits that individuals are more likely to strive for improvement in their work if there is the anticipation of a reward and recognition that is valued (c.f. § 3.3.2.1; Vroom, 1964:14-15; Tarrant, 1991:36). According to Vroom, educators are motivated to work if they expect increased effort to lead to desired outcomes or rewards. These rewards may be pride in the work (work itself), feelings of achieving, a sense of efficacy, promotion and growth at the work place, and working conditions. The expectancy theory offers the following advice to school principals: they should be aware of the expectancy of educators and examine the rewards and recognition they expect for the extra time and effort they put into their work; and they should ensure that rewards and recognition systems are fair and equitable.

In addition, the expectancy theory appears to suggest that in order to optimize job satisfaction, school principals should seek to give appropriate rewards and recognition for individual performance as well as attention to intervening variables such as abilities, traits, organization procedures and support facilities which might affect performance (c.f. Bush & West-Burnham, 1994:235). The precept in this theory intertwined with the research findings is that educators make decisions keeping in mind the results they expect to get and the probability of getting those results. Thus, school principals should make use of educators' expectations by linking the educators' most sought–after rewards with the kind of work that the organization most wants educators to do (c.f. Droar, 2006:2; Van Fleet, et. al. 1991:69).

The equity theory by Adams (c.f. Adams, 1963:422-435; § 3.3.2.2), also suggested that motivation arise from the simple desire to be treated fairly (Van Fleet, et. al. 1991:64). This theory is based on the notion that people make a comparison between themselves and others in terms of what they invest in their work and what outcomes they receive from it (rewards and recognition). In line with the equity theory, the findings of this study indicate that school

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principals should: be aware that formal, visible rewards, recognition, promotion and other fringe benefits are very likely to feature in the equity perceptions of educators (Van Fleet, et. al. 1991:66); and remember that different educators have different perceptions of what constitute a reward and recognition system and this should lead principals to reward or recognize them in different ways.

Thus, the equity theory draws the attention of school principals to the relationship between educators and their work environment in order to enhance their job satisfaction. According to the equity theory, it is the educators' perceptions and not facts that influence their job satisfaction (c.f. Steyn, 2002:95).

Skinner's reinforcement theory (c.f. § 3.3.2.3; Skinner, 1938:90), also known as positive reinforcement theory or behavior modification theory, posits that behavior with desirable or pleasurable consequences will be repeated, whereas behavior not followed by pleasant consequences may not be repeated (Cole, 1996:44; Mwamwenda, 1995:199; Steyn, 1996:11). According to Cole (1996:45), the underlying assumption behind this theory is that educators are there to be controlled or manipulated and that management's role is to provide the right conditions to encourage high performance which becomes a measure of job satisfaction. Following this line of thinking, it is maintained that all educators in a school act in the way they do because they are looking for positive reinforcement which may come in the form of rewards or recognition for work well done (Steyn, 1996:11-12). Consequently this theory requires school principals to: encourage educators to contribute in decision-making, to share ideas and to help develop them so that they feel empowered (Cole, 1996:46); and establish structures in their schools to ensure that educators receive regular feedback in the form of team-teaching, class visits, in-house workshops, formal and informal dialogue (Frase & Sorenson, 1992:39-40) on instructional matters. Thus, this theory emphasizes concerns related to the work environment, rewards and recognition of job well done, and control of educator behavior.

Given the above analysis of the findings of this study in relation to evidence from the literature review, the researcher is probably entitled to make the following assertions pertaining to school principals:

- in general they must be directed at finding ways of improving the job satisfaction of educators in their schools (c.f. Castillo & Cano, 2004:65);
- they should be aware of those aspects within an organization that might influence most educators' job satisfaction, and should enhance those aspects because, in the long run, the results will be fruitful for both the institution and the educators (c.f. Judge, Hanisch & Drankoski, 1995:576); and
- they should know that the most valuable information to have about an educator in an institution is a valid measure of their overall level of job satisfaction.

Data from this study therefore revealed that there appears to be a strong relationship between school management by principals and educators' job satisfaction levels. The relationship seems to be founded on socio-economic beliefs of the ideal type work environment, working conditions, interpersonal relations and employment ethics. These are the common considerations upon which management strategies of principals and the job satisfaction of educators were judged and treated in the schools. In this case, the management roles of school principals seemed to pave way to the job satisfaction of educators.

6.4 COMPARISON OF EMERGING THEMES WITH EXISTING RESEARCH STUDIES

The data from this study seems to indicate that there could be two major themes that could be used to explore the relationship between management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction levels at work. These include the management roles of principals and the job satisfaction of educators. In order to position this study's findings within the existing body of knowledge, the researcher reviewed literature on research studies of management strategies and job satisfaction. The literature was used as a lens through which data from this study could be examined and critiqued in order to establish new knowledge boundaries.

6.4.1. The management strategies of school principals

In any given school environment a positive relationship appears to exist between the management strategies of school principals and the levels of educators' job satisfaction. According to the reviewed literature (c.f. § 2.5), much has already been invested in obtaining and

distributing information on management strategies for enhancing the job satisfaction levels of educators in schools. This study also revealed that management strategies will only be successfully implemented in schools if the school principals actively support the use of management strategies, learn much of the modern strategies of management, and support the staff in the process of change (P1:5; P3:11; P5:13). In fact, the responses from some of the principals and educators interviewed in this study revealed that there is use of the following strategies in dealing with educators as a way of promoting their job satisfaction: hierarchical (P1:2; P2:6); facilitative (P3:9); participative (P3:4; R2, FG2:6); transformational (P3:4; R6, FG1:8).

One of the observations from this study was the use of management strategies by school principals in their different schools. It emerged that some of the principals and educators had some understanding of some of these management strategies. In view of these strategies, one of the principals described how he indirectly employed the hierarchical management strategy. He said that: *'...I once had a problem with an educator who could not prepare properly. He was preparing but he couldn't understand the format that we wanted. So I handed him over to the peer teacher who teaches the same subject with him. He was guided and helped by that [peer] teacher. He did it but later on he changed and went back to his old ways of doing things. I sent him to the HoD ...and then he (HoD) solved the problem with him, but he continued saying that this man is not doing his work correctly, just look at his work. ...then I [Principal] called him [educator] and ...the HoD and I showed him that we need to prepare like this. The HoD was there because usually before the books (preparation books) come to me (the Principal) [the HoD] is the one who sees them first. He (the educator) then agreed that he understood what was needed in preparing'.* (P2:6).

From the educators who participated in the study, hierarchical management strategy was described as essential in school management. They expressed that some educators nowadays they have no respect for the school management hierarchy. One of the educators in line with this thinking had the following comment: *'...my principal is good in terms of the open door policy. The office is open to everyone and there is no policy that you should speak through the HoD, from the HoD to the Deputy Principal, from the Deputy Principal to the Principal. If you have*

got a problem you can go to him [the Principal] directly without going through the hierarchy'. (A1, FG2:4).

Some other evidence of where hierarchical management strategy could be used was also confirmed by some educators. They expressed that hierarchical management strategy could be applied even when dealing with some disciplinary cases especially od educators. She made the comment that: *'...for example, if a teacher came late to work, I think there are channels to be followed before the SGB looks into the matter. The principal as a manager will call the teacher concerned and maybe talk to that particular teacher in person. And there after, he must call the SMT and then the process will be going until to the SGB and then up until to the Circuit Manager. I think this is the hierarchy in which these procedures fall into'.* (R4, FG1:12).

From these extracts, it appeared that school principals and educators were aware of this management strategy in which principals can dynamically delegate management tasks to Deputy Principals, SMT, HoDs and subject committees. The research findings by Deal and Peterson (1994:133) seem to concur with this observation which the researcher made in this study which revealed that some of the participants in this study were able to take note the strategy in their school management system.

With regard to participative management, the study revealed that school principals had a better understanding of this strategy. It appears that the South African democratic vision in schools is more accommodated in this strategy. One of the principals responded to this notion by saying that: *'like I indicated partly, I used to delegate some of the duties to my educators. All the 20 educators they do have, if you can check here, they have the curriculum duties that is, the subjects they are teaching. They also have the management duties that are delegated to them so as to involve them. You can see everybody has something to do, that one for assessment, for projects and for staff register; that one is for nutrition, marketing and the like. ... So that is a way of involving the whole staff in the management of the school. So they are also participating in this kind of management'.* (P3:4).

Apart from this notion by principals, educators regarded this management strategy as consultative. As already alluded to, the practice of consultative management was given high regard by educators. One of the educators had this description about it: *'And then one other thing is about openness. When all things are done when the staff members are in the 'know' you don't get information about your own institution outside. So consultation is then something that is seen as the one reducing problems. We are used to be informed and we are consulted, we are not just taken by surprise'.* (R2, FG1:6).

Earlier studies conducted elsewhere have indicated that participative management strategy is important in school management. Bloom (2000:5) documented a philosophical belief that people have the right to be involved in making decisions that affect their work lives is embedded in the participative management strategy. Research studies by Lawler (1993:174-177), Bloom (2000:10) and McLagan and Nell (1995:44) respectively also revealed that participative management involves giving workers decision-making opportunities or involving them in management functions boost their morale and levels of job satisfaction. While it would seem from the findings by Lawler (1993:174-177), Bloom (2000:10) and McLagan and Nell (1995:44) that participative management could be effective in schools, this study asserts that school principals be sensitive to the need to involve educators in decision-making processes.

Another observation made in this study was the use of transformational management strategy in schools. From what the principals said, it appears that they were conscious of its importance although some could not refer to it directly. One of the principals described it in the following manner: *'...it seems when I delegate the work to them, it is like you don't want to do your responsibility...you are running away from the responsibility. There are those who are having this attitude. They say they cannot work on the stock because it was supposed to be done by you (the principal); this work is for the principal. But most of them of them are interested because they know it's a way of empowering them'.* (P3:4). Similarly another principal in explaining transformational strategy commented thus: *'I have been trying to with them (educators) and the SMT on what we can do to make them (educators) happy. They came up with quite a number of intervention strategies. Like the first one, we have a day scheduled for motivation. We have identified an established motivational around here. Teachers tell themselves, we need to be*

motivated so before the end of this year [2011] we will have a day we will call the local community and educators, we will take these people on board and this motivational speaker will talk to us'. (P1:13).

One of the educators talking about this transformational strategy, he described it in the following manner: *'maybe inside the classroom, there are times the principal has to do class visits. ...and if he finds out that there are no teaching aids or the way I have prepared my lesson is not the way it should be, he can help us on that...or conduct a workshop. Or I am neglecting some of the issues in the classroom, the way I handle the learners, the way I interact with fellow educators, if I misbehave in the community or during an organized event, he can [help us to the right thing]'.* (R6, FG1:8).

From the study, it emerged that principals are central in creating conditions in the school that would help educators see meaning in their work and challenge them with professional standards. Studies by Stone, et. al. (2003:3) concurred with findings of this study when they talked about transformational management being achieved through motivational speeches, conversations and other public displays of optimism and enthusiasm, highlighting positive outcomes and stimulating teamwork. The aspects mentioned by some of the participants such as visiting classrooms, assisting in classroom discipline and interaction between educators were also confirmed in the studies by Bryant (2003:36-37), and Carlson and Perrewe (1995:834).

6.4.2   The roles of principals in school management with regard to educators

The importance of management roles is a recurring theme in this study which examined, among other things, principal effectiveness and school improvement. Its role in the promotion of job satisfaction among educators cannot be over emphasized. The management strategies which school principals adopt or use in a school will determine the ethos, atmosphere and culture in that school. This view has also been expressed in O'Toole (2000:14). It was stated that the manner in which principals approached their management roles is a vital element in creating a high level of job satisfaction in educators and a positive working environment in the school. The management strategy adopted by school principals serves as an example of sound conduct for all employees in the school. This becomes even more important with the advent of school based

management structures in schools. Principals must be seen to be receptive to other people's ideas (consultative decision-making), delegate authority and responsibility (transformational, participative and facilitative strategies) so that all members of the teaching community have a shared sense of pride, respect, dignity and ownership. Such strategies to management of schools are positive and involve all educators in a collaborative process which has a lasting effect on educators' levels of job satisfaction.

The management roles of school principals is quite central to the welfare of educators in any given school environment. The participants of this study, exposed various understanding of the roles of principals. Some of their responses were: *'the role of the principals nowadays is good because we can sit down and share ideas'.* (R1, FG1:6).

The same opinion was also reiterated by another educator who alleged that: *'the role of the principal is to monitor our work; to find out whether work is done, not done or properly done'.* (R2, FG1:6). Another educator supported the idea by saying that: *'I see the role of the principal to be the same as the functions of a manager: planning, monitoring, controlling and leading'.* (A2, FG2:2). Also other educators (A3, A4, A5, FG2:2) concurred with the views of A2 on the roles of school principals.

School principals who participated in this study also explained their roles in the following manner: *'my role is to lead the teachers so that they can do their work'.* (P2:2). *'I have two major roles to play. The first one is the management side and the second one is the leadership side. I am a manager and a leader of the school. Then when it comes to the management side, I am managing three basic things: I manage the physical resources, I manage human resources and I also manage finance. These are the three basic things that I am managing as part of my roles. When it comes to leadership, I guide the staff; I motivate the staff and inspire them to do more than what is expected of them'.* (P3:3).

Furthermore, another principal when responding to his management role, had the following description: *'...well the day-to-day running of the school, making sure that students are getting the correct teaching, making sure that the students are getting enough in terms of textbooks.*

They (students) are getting enough in terms of learning materials, making sure that teachers are also getting enough in terms of teaching and learning aids that they might require'. (P5:2).

All these extracts revealed that both principals and educators are aware of the roles of principals. From what the principals and educators themselves said, it appears that they know various roles of principals. Research studies by Claassen (1999:14) and Bradshaw and Buckner (1994:78) also mention that school principals are key agents in bringing about a positive attitude in educators in their work environment. From the responses of this study's participants (c.f. P1:2; P3:2-3; P5:2; R1, R2, FG2:6; A2, A3, A5, FG2:2-3) it can be concluded that what is achieved in the school in terms of quality of teaching and worker satisfaction, invariably depends on the effective execution of the management roles of principals and their abilities to foster organizational commitment among the educators and learners. The principals can only employ these management roles if they are conversant with management strategies to be used in school management. In-house or internal workshops, staff development meetings and seminars should always form an integral part of preparing educators in the teaching fraternity for whatever changes that might be introduced in the education system.

According to Everard and Morris (1996:4), the management roles of school principals are to be the glue that holds the school as an organization together. They are to direct only at the work of educators in the school on the other hand also to show the route that the school as a whole is taking. Van der Westhuizen (1991:32-33) concluded that planning, organizing, delegating, controlling, guidance, interpersonal relations and decision-making are integral parts of management roles. To this can be added that school principals should inspire, motivate and support all educators in their schools in order for them to achieve complete job satisfaction at work.

6.4.3   The job satisfaction of educators
Researches on job satisfaction (c.f. § 3.2) has indicated that job satisfaction has been defined as an individual's pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences. In the language of Schaefer (1953:3), job satisfaction is one of an individual's most important needs. Schaefer also maintains that 'overall job satisfaction vary directly with the

extent to which those needs of an individual can be fulfilled in a job'. The sub-categories of job satisfaction which emerged from this study (§ 5.3.2 & table 5.4) revealed that the stronger the need, the more closely job satisfaction depends on its fulfillment. Participants of this study also indicated that job satisfaction of educators can be a result of different factors. Some of the mentioned factors include: salary/wages (R5, R6, FG1:16; P1:12; P3:14); working environment (R3, FG1:16); rewards and recognition (A3, FG2:19).

Commenting on the job satisfaction of educators, some principals had the following explanations: *'...but basically you see them [educators] complaining that what they are getting [i.e. salary] from here is too little, we have to augment with other projects...'* (P1:12). Another principal gave the following description: *'...because I sometimes hear some grumbling especially when it comes to salaries...'* (P3:14).

Some of the educators who participated in this study explained their views job satisfaction. One of the educators had this to say: *'...even the wage is too small. We are working very hard'.* (R5, FG1:16). Another educator expressed her concern over the working environment by saying that: *'maybe the working environment in which we are teaching. You see we don't have decent classrooms, here we have what we call pit toilets, and we don't have flush toilets to satisfy us'.* (R3, FG1:16). Similarly, one other educator indicated that: *'there is a problem of overcrowded classrooms because you can find that you have a class of about one hundred and twenty learners without desks and chairs. There is shortage of furniture...'* (R1, FG1:17).

From these responses, the researcher concluded that individual educators use salary and other monetary rewards to satisfy their physical needs such as food, shelter, and clothing and their psychological needs such as a sense of achievement and recognition.

From the research studies done by Maslow (c.f. § 3.3.1.1) and Herzberg (c.f. § 3.3.1.2), people have both higher and lower order needs and lower order needs are prepotent to higher order needs. In contrast to these theories this study found that fulfillment of higher order needs is necessary for true job satisfaction in educators. The participants (c.f. R5, R6, FG1:16; A3, FG2:19) asserted that salary and monetary rewards are essential for their job satisfaction, but for

Maslow (1954, 1971) and Herzberg, et. al. (1959), salary and monetary rewards are lower order needs (or hygiene factors) and as such cannot lead to true job satisfaction.

Other job satisfaction theories such as the socially-acquired needs theory by McClelland (c.f. § 3.3.1.4), and the expectancy theory by Vroom (c.f. § 3.3.2.1) suggest that rewards inevitably lead to job satisfaction if the rewards are viewed as leading to some desired outcomes. Vroom (1964:14-15), for example, focused on expectation and argued that overall job satisfaction is determined by the difference between all those things a person feels he/she should receive for his/her job and all those things he/she actually receives. Again, this study created the impression that job satisfaction is a complex process (c.f. Sabry, 2010:11-13).

From the above concerns, it appeared that participants understood that job satisfaction of educators can be enhanced through needs fulfillment at work places. Thus, data from this study therefore, concurred with researches on needs fulfillment (Maslow, 1954, 1971; Herzberg, 1966, 1968; McClelland, 1967).

6.4.4   Management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators

Based upon the literature reviewed in this study (c.f. § 2.5 & 3.4-5) and the responses of participants on management strategies and job satisfaction, it can be concluded that there is a direct relationship between these two variables. The majority of principals who participated in this study responding to the question about the overall levels of job satisfaction and motivation among educators at their schools said that the educators in their schools were experiencing job satisfaction (c.f. P2:8; P4:7; P6:6). One of the principals indicated that: *'I think this one is 100%. They are coming here to work and they are enjoying working here. They sometimes stay after working hours doing their work. I think they are satisfied with what they are doing as far as teaching is concerned here'.* (P2:8).

When the educators were asked about their own levels of job satisfaction, the majority of them rated themselves as experiencing low levels of job satisfaction (c.f. A2, FG1:17; A3, A6, FG2:16; R6, FG1:15;). In line with this opinion, one of the educators commented that: *'I am not*

so happy at the current school where I am…because I can't give my contribution. I believe that if all was well I should contribute and see learners achieving'. (A2, FG2:17).

Some of the principals interviewed believe that there is always a minority of educators who purportedly experience low job satisfaction (c.f. P1:11; P3:14; P5:14). One of the principals' response showed that: *'not all of them because I sometimes hear some grumbling especially when it comes to salaries but when it comes to the issue of working conditions, it is only those few people I have talked about who are lazy…'* (P3:14). These principals held the opinion that these particular educators attribute their condition of low job satisfaction to a variety of factors which include among others; lack of fair rewarding and recognition by the principals for perceived superior performance, and to a lack of sufficient support by school managers to their needs.

The educators interviewed placed a high priority on working conditions in the schools, promotion and growth of educators, a clear and fair rewards and recognition system in the school, sound interpersonal relations in the school, and communication and discipline in the school as areas which school principals can and should use to either contribute to their staff members' job satisfaction or obstruct their job satisfaction (c.f. R3, FG1:16; R1, FG1:17; A6, FG2:16; A1, A2, FG2:17; A5, FG2:18-19). One of the educators in trying to explain this situation said: *'there are a lot of things that can be done. One of the things that can be done is to give [educators] roles, to appreciate that they are there. The other thing that can be done is to have system which ensures that everyone must work. For example, in the school I once worked, we knew that every Monday the Principal would go on assembly and read out names of students who would have performed well in that week. This meant that every Friday teachers would give tests, students will write a test and on Monday they would bring marks and the list of those students who performed well. If you [learners] are mentioned three times in a row, a letter will be written to parents informing them that their children are doing well. In other words, the school is now involving the parents in the working relationships…'* (A5, FG2:18-19).

From the above sentiments, it appears that participants were aware of the importance of management in enhancing job satisfaction of educators. According to the research findings of

this study and research studies done by Bennel and Mukyanuzi (2005:25), and Davidoff and Lazarus (2002:37) it can be concluded that the quality of management in a school system is critically important in ensuring that educators are adequately motivated. It implied that management effectiveness in schools is the combined (commitment and competence) outcome of individual principals as school managers.

This study contains evidence which supports the idea that there is a direct relationship between the management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators. It seems as though the degree of job satisfaction among educators depends primarily on the way schools are being managed (i.e. the management strategies which school principals employ), more than on the availability of resources. The capacity of school principals to improve teaching and learning is strongly mediated by the quality of the management strategies adopted by the school principal.

6.5   CHAPTER SUMMARY

The major objective of this study was to explore the relationship between management strategies and job satisfaction. In this regard most participants expressed the view that both principals and educators were aware of the reciprocity and interdependence of management strategies and job satisfaction.

In this chapter, the researcher considered various management theories and theories of job satisfaction in his examination of participants' views on the research question. Findings of this study revealed that there is a direct relationship between the type of management strategies school principals use and the level of educators' job satisfaction levels.

Certain findings of the present study seemed to concur with what has been found elsewhere even though differences occurred with regards to the specific context of the study and the composition of the study sample. The study findings concurred with earlier studies by, for example, Mathibe (2007:534-538); Mintzberg (1992:24); Werner (2002:373); and Hanson (2003:191) which found that there is a correlation between management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators.

In the next chapter, the researcher distills and filters the main findings of the study; outlines new knowledge that was generated from this study and makes recommendations for further research on issues that emerged, but might have been left unclear.

CHAPTER SEVEN

7. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

7.1 INTRODUCTION

The major purpose of this study was to explore and explain the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction levels within a relatively small sample of South African schools. The study focused upon the lived experiences of school principals and educators on management strategies and job satisfaction. In order to explore and understand the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction, the views of school principals and educators were collected through individual interviews of principals and focus group interviews of educators. The collected data were examined and reference was made to relevant literature review on the topic.

The literature review which was presented in chapters two and three indicated that management strategies of school principals have an impact on the job satisfaction levels of educators. The research done in South Africa and elsewhere (World Bank Consultancy, 1993:5; Deal & Peterson, 1994:133; Steyn, 2002:267; Griffin, 2003:1; Feinberg, Ostroff & Burke, 2005:471; Ngubane, 2005:8; Branch, 2002:1) revealed that certain management strategies and the phenomenon of job satisfaction are complimentary and reciprocal to each other. Furthermore, available studies revealed that managers, supervisors, human resource specialists, employees, and citizens in general are concerned with ways of improving job satisfaction (Cranny, Smith & Stone (1992) in Castillo & Cano, 2004:65; Judge, et. al. 1995:576). Consequently, in South Africa where this research was done, management strategies that enhance job satisfaction has taken a great deal of attention from management in their bid to improve job satisfaction in work places.

7.2. SUMMARY OF EMERGING THEMES AND FINDINGS

A summary of the findings that emerged from the collected data in this study is presented in this section. As illustrated in table 5.4, the study focused on two major themes, namely the management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction of educators. However, at last attention would be drawn to the summary of findings concerning the management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction levels in schools.

7.2.1. Summary of findings concerning the management strategies of principals

School principals, who deliberately attempted to enhance their educators' job satisfaction levels, utilized their management roles to create opportunities for educators that would continuously motivate and influence them in a positive manner. These principals spent time on creating a positive attitude towards the school management team in the school, the improvement of effective communication, the maintenance of sound discipline, the establishment of healthy interpersonal relations and the effective management of change in the school. Together all these efforts seem to have enhanced the job satisfaction of educators in their schools. The researcher equated these efforts to the implementation of the management strategies and theories mentioned in section 7.2 above. It appeared as though school principals, in there bid to promote proper management in the school, communication, discipline, interpersonal relations, and changes in the school setting, exerted an effective and affective influence on the job satisfaction of their educators.

In the study it was also found that most participants were not aware of the standard terms used in naming the management strategies that principals generally utilize, but their descriptions of the desired situations conclusively pointed to the fact that these participants were familiar with the characteristics of the various strategies. For example, they were able to talk about "empowerment as a strategy" to be used, not realizing that this phrase actually refers to transformational management strategy. This seemed to indicate that participants were aware that there is a relationship between management strategies and job satisfaction in the work life of principals and educators.

7.2.2. Summary of findings concerning the job satisfaction of educators

Participants were also familiar with aspects of job satisfaction as well as job dissatisfaction. Both types of participant (principals as well as educators) provided evidence that they knew what makes people happy or unhappy at work. Their knowledge of symptoms of either high or low levels of job satisfaction became significant indicators of a real relationship between the two variables that were investigated in this study.

The various participants had clear ideas on how job satisfaction among educators could be improved and what role the management strategies of school principals could play in this regard. According to them the nature of the principal's management skills, a rewards and recognition system, adequate management support, opportunities for the empowerment, professional growth and promotion of educators have implications for how educators perceive their school principal's efforts to enhance their job satisfaction.

Finally, this study revealed that the participants' perceptions of the management strategies of school principals that would allow for the enhancement of educators' job satisfaction hinged on the renown theories and strategies of management in general, and the patterns of interaction between educators and the principal in particular. Because the school principals and educators are part of the school, the study found that their interdependence was reflected in the way they responded to the relationship between management strategies and job satisfaction in their work life as professionals.

7.2.3. Summary of findings concerning the relationship between the management strategies of principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators

Data from the interviews seemed to indicate that there is a relationship between management strategies and job satisfaction. This resulted in the conclusion by the researcher that school principal's role is directive, rooted in authority and is not limited to imparting instructional guidance to educators. With regard to their management roles, the principals also have to inspire, empower and spur to action educators in their work environments.

It also emerged that the nature and structure of school management seem to hinge around the identification and gratification of educators' needs as a way of enhancing their job satisfaction. There is a considerable volume of researches on management strategies which exists. Among them are facilitative, hierarchical, participative and transformational management strategies.

The study also found out that job satisfaction is a characteristic of factors within the work environment of educators. In the study, most participants were reported to view job satisfaction attainment to be characterized by the following factors: working conditions, interpersonal relations, rewards and recognition systems, promotion and growth in the organization, work allocation by management, communication and discipline.

The findings revealed that management strategies of principals are guided by management theories which later inform the theories of job satisfaction. Especially social constructionist, critical, systems and contingency theories have a direct bearing on the relationship between education management and educators' job satisfaction. From what participants reviewed, it appeared that constructivist theory does not provide for a permanent reality; it assumes that knowledge is tentative and subject to revision, and it views knowledge and truth as revolving. It further holds that there is no universal, objective, final truth and that knowledge is a social construct that influences the management roles of school principals and empower educators in the decision-making and problem-solving processes in the school. Critical theory rejects all claims to absolute truth and objective knowledge and views knowledge as a dialectical and social product of interaction. Systems theory also maintains that educators are one part of the school system that definitely needs to be consulted when decisions are being made. Contingency theory claims that there is no one best method in dealing with issues besides looking into the situation and coming up with relevant reconcilable alternative decisions.

These theoretical understandings informed the insights gained from an empirical investigation of management strategies and job satisfaction. A conceptual analysis of the term 'job satisfaction' suggested a number of theories that lie beneath it, among others, included the content and process theories. Content theories attempt to explain what drives individuals to act in a certain manner based on the universal understanding that all human beings have needs and desires to be satisfied. Process theories explain the process of achieving job satisfaction.

Finally, this study revealed that only when principals utilize management strategies which provide for the identification of educators' needs, a possibility exists that these can be fulfilled and the job satisfaction of educators ensured. Thus, only when selected management strategies are utilized, can the job satisfaction levels of educators in a school environment be enhanced.

7.3. RESPONSES TO RESEARCH QUESTIONS

7.3.1 Findings with regard to the first research question of this study: What does the concept "management strategy" mean?

The study revealed that management strategies can be understood as the management roles (planning, organizing, leading and controlling) which form the guiding principles for people in the organization for decision-making. From the participants' opinions; management strategy is an important aspect which is emerging and budding in schools which can provide appropriate guidance for optimum utilization of human potential, personnel planning, staff development and evaluation and maintenance of effective interpersonal relations.

Both the school principals and educators who participated in this study indicated that they understood - to a certain extent - the concept management strategy with some demonstrating their full understanding of the concept management strategy under the provisions of school-based management. They asserted that the current position of principalship invests on school principals the power to make on-site decisions such as how educators should be assigned subjects and grades to teach, and the creation of a conducive school environment for educators to perform their work with great zeal and enthusiasm.

7.3.2 Findings with regard to the second research question and the aim of this study: What management strategies are available for utilization by school principals for enhancing educators' job satisfaction levels in their schools?

Based on observations on the ground and the responses from research participants it appears as though most principals and educators have a relatively good knowledge of the management strategies discussed in the existing scientific body of literature. Some of the management strategies are not known by their conventional names but participants undoubtedly recognize the characteristics of these strategies and know how they are implemented. The best known

strategies were participative and facilitative management strategies. The transformational management strategy was commonly referred to as empowerment, and the hierarchical management strategy was taken as involvement of different clusters of people in the school, for example, the SMT, HoDs, subject heads, and Deputy Principals. These were said to be consulted in their respective positions or capacities and would work in that hierarchy per se.

Overall, the study revealed that there is growing awareness of the need for school principals to know, understand and utilize these management strategies as explained in the literature and various education policies of the country.

7.3.3 Findings with regard to the third research question of this study: What does the concept job satisfaction mean?

From this study, the school principals and educators who participated in the research were acutely aware of the concept and meaning of the concept, job satisfaction. They had a clear idea of what makes people happy or unhappy at work. Job satisfaction was understood as the extent to which people are happy with their jobs. There appeared from this study that job satisfaction is not only influenced by the person's unique circumstances and needs, but also by rewards and recognition system, support from school management, work allocation by school management, and interpersonal relations.

Most participants emphasized that job satisfaction is a notion that is relatively difficult to exhaust. It is a complex issue that is influenced by both the situational conditions of the job environment and the characteristics of the educators themselves.

7.3.4 Findings with regard to the fourth research question of this study: What exactly does the job satisfaction of educators comprise?

There are several factors that contribute to the job satisfaction of educators. These factors include variables relating to the individuals themselves (their personality, abilities, orientation to work), social issues (interpersonal relationships with colleagues, opportunities for interaction at work), cultural matters (attitudes, beliefs, values), organizational aspects (employee relations, work allocation, supervision, working conditions) and environmental facets(social and technical influences) that affect the level of job satisfaction of individuals. These factors influence

workers' opinions of how interesting the job is, how much routine is involved, how well they are doing in the job, and how much they enjoy doing it.

Participants in this study revealed that the factors that are associated with the job satisfaction of educators include work allocation by management, working conditions, support by management, supervision, promotion and growth at work, a rewards and recognition system, discipline in the school, communication and social events in the school environment. These factors were found to be paramount in influencing the job satisfaction of the educators that participated in the study in their particular school environments. However, the researcher has reason to believe that these factors are also influential in the job satisfaction of educators in general.

7.3.5 *Findings with regard to the fifth research question of this study: What influence do management strategies have on the job satisfaction levels of educators?*

From the participants of this study, the overarching purpose of any management strategy in education is the creation of an enabling environment which is conducive to teaching and learning so that the institutional outcomes can be achieved in the most purposeful manner possible. To be able make a responsible choice in respect of management strategies to enhance the job satisfaction of educators, school principals must have a sound knowledge of the management roles that are applicable to the creation of a teaching-learning environment that can enhance educators' job satisfaction.

The findings of this study revealed that purposefulness in the application of management strategies to enhance educators' job satisfaction meant: Firstly, that the principals must know exactly their educators' needs, interests and abilities (that is, the principals must be able to allocate learning areas to educators according to their work dispositions). Secondly, the principals must pursue specific management strategies when dealing with discipline so that they create conducive environment for teaching for educators and for learners to be taught. Thirdly, the principals must know their educators' needs, wants, desires and aspirations so that they can selectively apply their managerial roles to influence the educators in the school.

Overall, the study revealed that the application of management strategies in a teaching-learning environment also makes certain demands on the actions of both school principals and educators. The following ideas were mentioned by the respondents: At the start of the academic year, the objectives (and the eventual outcomes) should be made available to the educators in the grand opening meeting. The educators should be provided with the necessary teaching-learning resource materials (assessment guidelines, curriculum statements of various subjects, teaching methods and a full timetable) in the meeting; opportunities to air their inputs on work allocation according to their areas of specialization; guidance on how discipline in the school should be handled; guidelines on rewards and recognition of work well done. Upon commencement of teaching, educators' professional needs in so far as teaching is concerned should be met so as to allow proliferation into the job of teaching with great zeal and enthusiasm. Some of the participating educators stressed that school principals should have a shared vision for what the school can be and discuss this vision regularly with them [educators]; they should display strong interpersonal skills and place a high value on people as both assets and resources; they should have confidence that they can make a difference for educators; and they should be characterized by a deep passion to achieve and improve the work environment of educators.

According to the respondents, each of the four management strategies that they highlighted, namely facilitative, hierarchical, participative and transformational strategies, has the potential to enhance educators' job satisfaction. The following were mentioned in this regard:

- Facilitative management strategies are concerned with empowering educators to take responsibility for their own efforts and solutions. Principals should resist the temptation to give advice. Instead they should simply act as facilitators of problem-solving endeavors. This should result in educators becoming more motivated to find their own solutions and experiencing higher levels of job satisfaction.
- Hierarchical management strategies comprise of a top-down approach in which principals use rational analysis to determine the best way or course of action and then assert their formal authority to carry it out. Principals should follow the structural hierarchy when delegating other management tasks as well as when dealing with some issues in the school such as discipline, relations and work allocation. Once the hierarchy is respected, most members of the institution will feel part and parcel of the institution

and this will create a great deal of enthusiasm in educators to do their work with some degree of satisfaction.

- Participative management strategies are strategies in which educators at all post levels are encouraged to contribute ideas towards identifying and setting organizational goals, problem-solving and other decisions that may directly affect their professional work as educators. With the participative approach, it is important that all educators master, through lifelong career growth, the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes to enhance their satisfaction with work (job satisfaction). School principals should have this paradigm shift which is aimed at establishing an integrated approach to teaching where the focal point is on the educators and their needs, human relations are valued, acknowledged and accommodated. In order to boost the educators' job satisfaction levels , the research findings revealed that participatory and democratic decision-making processes should be accommodated in school management by principals and emphasis should be placed on responsibility (both collective and individual) and all educators can and must reach their full potential at work. Thus, educators can feel their importance and have their job satisfaction affected positively during their work life.

- Transformational management strategies focus on the importance of teamwork and comprehensive school improvement based on authority, idealism, rational stimulation, and inspiring and encouraging educators through ethics, policies, conventions and mutual outlook of the workplace. The findings of this study claimed that creation of teamwork at school engenders trust, admiration, loyalty and respect among educators. With the transformational approach, school principals should know that the rapid change in technology in schools, heightened levels of learners' achievement and continuous curriculum changes experienced in the country create feelings of turbulent, unstable and despondent at work. Principals can curtail these feelings in educators by finding new ways of assisting educators while simultaneously building job satisfaction. When participants talked of in-house workshops, seminars and staff development meetings, they were looking on ways in which educators would be empowered to like their job so that they will be enhanced on their job satisfaction.

One of the most important aspects of schools as organizations is appropriate guidance being part of the management strategy of a principal for the optimum utilization of human potential. The various management roles of school principals (planning school activities, organizing school activities, leading school programs, controlling school activities, communicating with educators and learners, maintaining discipline in the school, promoting interpersonal relations, planning of staff matters, developing and evaluating staff, rewarding and recognizing good performance) and factors that influence job satisfaction (working conditions, work allocation, achievement, promotion and growth) in a school should be harmoniously integrated to enhance the performance of staff members in a school. Thus, knowledge of a variety of management strategies is of paramount importance to school principals because the challenge facing these principals is not only to acknowledge that educators have talents, needs, potentials, and aspirations, but to ensure that these talents, needs, potentials and aspirations are unfolded and utilized for the enhancement of their job satisfaction.

7.3.6   *Findings with regard to the sixth research question of this study: Is there a relationship between management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction levels?*

The purpose of each management strategy is creation of an enabling school environment so that the teaching and learning situation by educators can be achieved in the most purposeful manner possible. To be able to make responsible choice in respect of management strategy, as well as motivating educators, the principals must have a sound knowledge of management strategies and job satisfaction. Participants in this study explored and demonstrated that there is undoubtedly an intimate relationship between the management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators.

Purposefulness in the management of schools by principals meant firstly that the principals must know exactly they want to achieve with educators and their post-levels as a whole (i.e. hierarchical structure). This means the principals have to place each educator in the structure of the school organogram and try to meet his/her needs at that level in the hierarchy. In this study, participants acknowledged that they (educators) can do better in their work if school management respects them in the school structure and value their contributions at the level [post

level] they are in the school. The findings of this study, also confirmed that educators including HoDs and the SMT would feel happy at work if the school principals would delegate some of the management tasks to them. They (participants) viewed principals as technical planners whose main responsibilities would encompass resource allocation, work coordination, task supervision and information dissemination. The research participants also felt that when principals use this approach, information is summarized at each level of the hierarchy and allowed to flow upwards through the school power echelons. Thus, educators would feel valued, respected and would enjoy their work in that school.

Secondly, the principals must pursue specific attempts to remove obstacles in the school which would make educators unhappy whilst putting in place activities that would make educators happy at work. According to findings of this study, principals are not supposed to direct educators instead they should create a school environment in which decisions are made collaboratively. Participants (educators) in this study were of the opinion that they feel happy at work if problems and work endeavors are solved through them. From the descriptions made on facilitative approach, it can be concluded that the purpose of this approach is involve educators in adapting to new challenges, solve problems and improve their performances. Thus, if educators feel involved it would go a long way in enhancing their job satisfaction levels at work.

Thirdly, the school principals must also be seen as inspiring and empowering agents to educators. Participants of the study revealed that principals who strive to create teamwork, upgrade educators' subject knowledge and skills in handling teaching and learning issues make them (educators) feel happy at work. When school principals who were involved in this study were talking about in-house workshops, seminars, and staff developments, they were indirectly referring to transformational approach. The findings of this study suggested that this approach create significant motivation in both educators and the school as an organization because it focuses on shared ideas relationship building.

Fourthly, the principals must view participation in all aspects of school management as central to a good working environment. In this study, participants referred to this approach as consultative. When educators were saying they are consulted and they feel happy, they were accepting that

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school principals are using this approach in managing schools. When school principals were saying they hold meetings at the beginning of the year and plan what will be done throughout the year, they were also confirming that they are using this management strategy in motivating educators so that they like their work. From the descriptions of these participants in this study, it was observed that this approach would involve all educators to contribute ideas towards identifying and setting goals, problem-solving and other decisions that affect them in their daily execution of their duties. In fact, from both the literature reviewed and research findings, it can be concluded that participative approach helps principals deal with challenges facing educators in today's dynamic and complex teaching environment and at the same time maintaining high levels of job satisfaction.

From this study, the assessment of management strategies that can be applied with great success in enhancing the job satisfaction levels of educators by school principals are hierarchical, facilitative, participative and transformational strategies. Thus, the management strategies that principals employ have a greater influence on the school's work climate and overall satisfaction of its educators.

7.4. CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

Although the findings of this study may not be generalized, it can still be regarded as meaningful, especially since it confirms, strengthens and redefines a large number of existing theoretical propositions in education management. It also generated knowledge that has the potential to improve the state of professional principalship in South African schools as well as the job satisfaction of educators in general.

The study revealed that there is a degree of inadequacy in the knowledge and understanding of management strategies among school principals in the Dzindi Circuit. The principals that participated in the study demonstrated that they sometimes feel lost and do not know which management strategy to use, especially when a crisis develops. There appears to be a need for the increased dissemination of knowledge concerning the importance of management strategies in the enhancement of job satisfaction of educators, in addition to suggestions contained in government and labor policies.

School principals also appear to be inadequately prepared to deal with matters related to the job satisfaction of educators. It is therefore advocated that, management strategies and job satisfaction should be studied as contemporary educational problems in principal training and development courses.

On condition that principals take notice of the findings of this investigation, this study will:
- Assist school principals, deputy Principals, and HODs as they work with educators to help themselves in improving their levels of job satisfaction;
- Provide a range of practical, attainable and concrete school management strategies and examples that are primarily focused on the educator who is in need of support, while recognizing that ongoing promotion and growth at work is a desire for every educator; and
- Assist school principals with the enhancement of educators' job satisfaction by improving working conditions in school environments.

7.5. RCOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

7.5.1 Recommendations for practice

In this study the intimate relationship between the management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction has been emphasized. The results obtained in this study have relevance for the training of principals, policy-makers, practicing school principals and educators. On the basis of the findings of the study, the following recommendations can be made for educational practice.

In order to promote educators' job satisfaction, school principals ought to create open and collegial work environments in their institutions in which educators can freely express and share their opinions and collaborate on important decisions. This will improve the job satisfaction of educators.

Pre-service and in-service training programs for prospective and present school principals should include a study of different types of management strategies. Competencies that can enhance

management skills should be incorporated in the principalship program done under the auspices of Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE).

Seminars or workshops for principals on facilitative, hierarchical, participative and transformational management strategies should be considered. This should enable them to better understand the components of effective school management which can enhance educators' job satisfaction levels in schools.

At national, provincial and district levels, structures for in-service training for school principals should be established to assist both principals and educators to cope with the different challenges of school management and educators' job satisfaction. A review of: *The Handbook for Principalship* and *An educator's guide to school management skills* should be made and a section on management strategies and job satisfaction should be inserted for the preparation of both principals and educators in their professional career.

7.5.2   Recommendations for school management

School principals have a significant impact on the enhancement of educators' job satisfaction through their management strategies, especially because the morale, motivation and job satisfaction of educators are best enhanced and improved at school level. The findings of this study suggest that action must be taken in schools to deliberately address educators' motivation and job satisfaction. From a management perspective, the following suggestions represent some practical and realistic steps for school principals to utilize when addressing educators' job satisfaction:

- Guided by the different theories of job satisfaction, school principals should know and understand the professional and personal needs of individual educators. They should be aware of the nature of human needs, how these needs can be met and be familiar with ways in which educators can be motivated to perform their work optimally.

- Guided by the different theories of management, school principals should elicit input from staff and involve educators in decision-making and problem-solving processes. The hierarchical, facilitative, participative and transformational management strategies eliminate unnecessary bureaucratically organized school environments that deny

educators autonomy and control in their work environments. These strategies also create opportunities and environments for educators to be empowered. Thus, empowerment is the controlled transfer of power from the management to the staff; it is about delegating authority, responsibility, resources and rights to the most appropriate level of operation for each task, allowing and encouraging individual educators to take personal responsibility for improving the way they do their work.

7.5.3   Recommendations for further study

The findings of this study will hopefully make a contribution to the general understanding in education of the management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction in schools. The researcher also trusts that the results will stimulate further research into other equally important aspects that relate to school management and educator work satisfaction. The following is suggested as areas which require additional research:

- This study involved six school principals and twelve educators, and therefore its findings can not be generalized to other South African schools. It is recommended that a comprehensive study be done that include different types of schools and communities to establish the relationship between management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction levels.

- This study was designed to gather qualitative data on the relationship between management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction levels. It is recommended that a follow-up study be conducted to generate quantifiable data on the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and educators' job satisfaction levels in different types of schools in South Africa and elsewhere.

- This study was restricted to South African school principals and educators. Further research in the area can possibly be extended to cover the new type of educators that have emerged in South Africa of late, for instance, the management strategies of school principals and foreign educators' job satisfaction.

- Much more research is needed to replicate the study with different categories of educators. Further studies can, for example, be conducted using permanent or temporary educators from various school backgrounds.

7.6 CONCLUSION

The thesis has thus far provided an overview of the literature study regarding the management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators. The findings and recommendations in respect of the aim of the study have been identified in view of the relationship between management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators.

In this study, the importance of the relationship between the management strategies of school principals and educators' experience of job satisfaction were investigated and discussed. An understanding of human needs is very important to school principals who have the responsibility of establishing an environment that not only motivates educators but also help to promote their feelings of job satisfaction. In view of the importance of management strategies the world over and the fact that there is a direct relationship between management strategies and job satisfaction, this study is concluded with the recommendation that school principals should deliberately redefine, broaden and create conditions that will encourage the job satisfaction of educators.

7.7 FINAL WORDS

The conventional definition of management is getting work done through people, but real management is developing people through work. - Agha Hasan Abedi

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH.

LIMPOPO
PROVINCIAL GOVERNMENT
REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA

DEPARTMENT OF

EDUCATION

VHEMBE DISTRICT

REF NO: S 4/1/1/1
ENQ: Mudumela V

MR TSVARA PETER
P .O BOX 1795
THOHOYANDOU
0950

RREQUEST PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: The relationship between the management strategies of school principals and the job satisfaction levels of educators.

1. The above matter has reference.
2. We acknowledge receipt of your letter dated 09.09.2011 in respect of the above stated matter.
3. Kindly be informed that your request has been approved and before you begin your research you are requested to report at office no: 126 of the HR Manager on date of your arrival at the District Office.
4. This serves to introduce you to the Circuit Manager and Principals and educators under whose jurisdiction the identified schools shall be.
5. We wish you success in your endeavour to be involved in finding solutions to challenges facing the successful provision of better quality education.
6. Good luck.

DISTRICT SENIOR MANAGER: 2011-10-13
                                                DATE

Thohoyandou Government Building, Old Parliament, Block D, Private Bag X2250, SIBASA, 0970
Tel: (015) 962 1313 or (015) 962 1331, Fax: (015) 962 6039 or (015) 962 2288

The heartland of southern Africa - development is about people!