

DEVELOPING A COGNITIVE MODEL TO MOTIVATE SCHOOL
PRINCIPALS IN THE MPUMALANGA PROVINCE

by

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DECLARATION

I declare that DEVELOPING A COGNITIVE MODEL TO MOTIVATE SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN THE MPUMALANGA PROVINCE is my work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete reference.

SIGNATURE

DATE

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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to the following people:

My late parents

Moloi Kahludi Jim Mashaba and Nkakaile Serekele Lydia Mashaba.

My family

Rebecca Bawele Mashaba (my wife) and our children; Patrick, Brian, Poita, Moloi and Kgaogelo.

My brothers

Pogoti, Maphoko, Rakgomo, and Hlaole; as well as their families.

My sisters

Serage Alina Skosana and Ramatsemele Cecilian Maluleke; as well as their families.

To them I say:

“LET’S ENSURE THAT OUR CHILDREN ALWAYS EMBRACE A LIFE-LONG LEARNING ATTITUDE”

ABSTRACT

The main purpose of the study was to develop a cognitive model to motivate principals in the Mpumalanga Province, particularly in the Bohlabela District. That was done firstly by identifying and explaining main factors affecting motivation of principals, and later developed a cognitive model of motivation from such factors. The study used the interpretative approach, particularly constructive-interpretative paradigm to collect and analyse principals' subjective, but accurate accounts of their views, feelings, perceptions and experiences regarding the factors they had found motivating or de-motivating.

A case study method was used as the main design method and was implemented through purposive sampling to identify information-rich participants. Semi-structured interviews were employed as the main data collection technique and the data obtained were confirmed, corroborated and augmented by observational field notes and documents analysis, particularly during data analysis. The researcher segmented and coded the data inductively into two main themes, which served as the main empirical research findings. Such findings indicated that motivation is influenced by both cognitive and systemic factors. It is recommended that setting difficult, but specific intrinsic outcomes and consciously employing cognitive abilities to pursue them, might improve motivation. Furthermore, full personal responsibility should be taken regarding the attainment of such intrinsic outcomes.

Title of thesis

DEVELOPING A COGNITIVE MODEL TO MOTIVATE SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN THE MPUMALANGA PROVINCE

Key terms

Cognitive model; Motivation; School principals; Mpumalanga Province; Perceptions; Learner achievement; Leadership and management; Cognitive theories; Job satisfaction; Task performance.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ACE	Advanced certificate in education
ANA	Annual national assessment
CES	Chief education specialist
CI	Curriculum implementers
DMT	District management team
HOD	Head of department
IQMS	Integrated quality management systems
LRC	Learner representative council
LTSM	Learner and teacher support materials
MP	Mpumalanga Province
NGO	Non-governmental organisation
NTA	National teaching awards
OBE	Outcomes based education
PTA	Parent teacher association
RCL	Representative council of learners
SGB	School governing body
SMART	Specific, measurable, attainable, realistic and time-bound
SMT	School management team
UK	United Kingdom
USA	United States of America

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CHAPTER 1: ORIENTATION OF THE STUDY

1.1. INTRODUCTION

One of the key challenges impacting on the optimal operation of schools worldwide, including South African schools, is the challenge associated with poor motivation amongst principals (Bush, Joubert, Kiggundu & Van Rooyen, 2009:6; Clarke, 2007:39; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004:573). Expanding on this view, Bush *et al.* (2009:6) declare that, "... most principals lack the capacity, or the motivation, to develop, sustain and monitor teaching and learning effectively." Similarly, Belle (2007:25) stresses that, although things such as training and physical resources are important for the realisation of the school's objectives, a school with state-of-the art facilities and resources might still fail to achieve its goals if the workforce is not properly motivated.

In the majority of cases, it is unfortunate that some principals are waiting passively, to be motivated rather than doing something about their situations themselves. According to Bush *et al.* (2009:6), this aggravates the situation and ultimately has a negative effect on the school performance. They explain:

While poor learner achievement is often recognized, principals are prone to blame learners, their parents or lack of progress in their previous schools or grades, rather than accepting personal and collective responsibility for the poor learner outcomes.

Similarly, Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002:140) argue that in terms of a needs satisfaction approach, it might not be the best strategy because some managers (referred to as circuit managers) do not have enough time, competence or even the desire to motivate their principals. According to them, motivation is not something that can be administered like a pill. Steyn & Van Niekerk (2002:140) assert, "It is unlikely that any person can motivate another person directly and sufficiently to have any real effect. Motivation has to come from

within a person.” This statement implies that principals not only have the responsibility but also an obligation to work towards improving their own morale.

Over the twenty-two years that the researcher worked in the Mpumalanga Province, the province had been underperforming academically, in fact it had done so since the dawn of democracy in 1994. Consequently, the researcher became aware of the need to conduct an empirical investigation into the serious problems experienced in the province (Mabuza, 2011:2; Milner & Khoza, 2008:155; Motshekga, 2011:3; Mthombeni, 2004:87). The researcher had mostly worked in rural schools in the province as a teacher, head of a department, deputy principal, principal and currently as Chief Education Specialist (CES) in the Bohlabela District; a poorly performing district in the Mpumalanga Province.

Over the past twenty-two years, the researcher had observed a widespread lack of motivation among some principals, resulting in the subsequent poor performance of their schools. In some schools, the poor performance was evident despite sufficient resources and facilities provided to the schools. In this regard, Mabuza (2011:2) declares, “After fifteen years of democracy, there is still serious underperformance in our school education despite substantive investments to improve education outcomes.”

Despite the underperformance of schools, the phenomenon of poor motivation amongst principals was characterised by tardiness, apathy, a low level of organisational commitment, complaints about the lack of resources, a lack of creativity in terms of confronting challenges, a lack of general interest in school activities and displaying unhelpful attitudes when assistance was needed by learners, educators and other stakeholders (Mpumalanga Annual Performance Plan, 2007:37; Bush *et al.*, 2009:6; Nyathi, 2007:37). According to the Mpumalanga Systematic Evaluation Report, Grade 6(2005), 32, 9% of principals indicated that conditions in their schools were depressing and de-

motivating. Therefore, it was unlikely that such discouraged, de-motivated and dissatisfied principals would be particularly effective and committed to their tasks over an extended period of time.

One might assume that, in the face of the continual transformation in terms of the new curriculum and governance, principals might find themselves in more difficult situations with regard to coping with the demands of such developments (Botha, 2010:605; Moloi, 2004:2; Prew, 2007:447; Swanepoel, 2008:39). Consequently, principals could feel demoralised, discouraged, de-motivated and dissatisfied to a point where some might even decide to quit the education system (Stemple, 2004:1).

Both international (McVay, 2007:5; Parker, 2007:9; Sodoma, 2005:1; Stemple, 2004:1) and local (Clarke, 2007:257; Prinsloo, 2008:101) studies concur that poor motivation is the main factor contributing to the poor achievement of school objectives. As Stemple (2004:1) observes, the complex tasks principals are expected to fulfil, "...have caused them either to consider leaving the field entirely or to request classroom teaching assignments." Additionally, Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2004:573) and Parker (2007:9) remark, that good and motivated principals are the keystones of effective schools. Although insufficient empirical investigations have been undertaken on this topic in South Africa, principals here at home can still benefit from the experience gained from the international community.

From the above findings, one can conclude that there is a serious need to investigate the challenge of poor motivation; moreover, such an empirical study has never been conducted in the Mpumalanga Province, particularly in the Bohlabela District. Should the challenge be left unattended, the South African education system in general and the Mpumalanga Province, in particular, will have to keep on struggling in terms of learner achievement.

Having elaborated on the background that informed the study, the researcher will now give a detailed account of the rationale for conducting the empirical investigation as shown in the following section.

1.2. MOTIVATION FOR THE STUDY

The primary envisaged contribution of the study was to develop a cognitive model to motivate principals in the Mpumalanga Province, particularly in the Bohlabela District (cf. section 1.9) and South African principals in general. The cognitive model can enable principals to become committed, determined, focussed and strive for improved learner achievement. This can ultimately assist them to increase their efforts and lead to greater job satisfaction. According to Thomas (2000:132), such improved motivation can lead to “intrinsic motivation,” while Botha (2010:605) contends that it can lead to greater self-management and self-governance.

In terms of understanding the factors that might motivate or de-motivate principals in schools, educational planners and policy makers can be in a better position to design effective incentive programmes that may appeal to the intrinsic sense of principals. Currently, the existing incentive schemes such as the National Teaching Awards (NTAs) (2000) and the Integrated Quality Management Systems (IQMS) (2003), to mention only a few, seem to be having a minimal impact on generating and sustaining motivated behaviour as they represent an extrinsic sense of motivation. Such information can also make a significant contribution to the field of education management in general.

Moreover, success in the implementation of the recommendations can ensure a high level of motivation and greater job satisfaction among principals, which might result in improved school performance. For other researchers, the areas for further research outlined in chapter 6, can provide them with an opportunity

to explore and do further research in the field pertaining to the motivation of principals.

The researcher was also encouraged by the fact that a considerable amount of research on teacher motivation had been done (Belle, 2007:158; Chindanya, 2002:123; Garudzo-Kusereka, 2003:165; George, Louw & Badenhorst, 2008:144; Steyn, 2002:140), but very few empirical studies had been conducted in the field pertaining to the motivation of principals, especially in developing countries such as South Africa. Therefore, this study attempted to close such a gap while the knowledge gained could be used to improve the morale of principals in South African schools, especially in the Mpumalanga Province. Additionally, the research could provide relevant information and practical suggestions to circuit managers and district officials in terms of enabling them to attain a deeper level of understanding of the factors principals perceived to be either motivating or de-motivating. Accordingly, the application of the cognitive model of motivation could be useful for motivating principals.

Lastly, it was further envisaged that the study could enable the researcher to communicate on a continual basis with other scholars in the form of knowledge transfer on different complementary levels (Visagie, Poggenpoel & Myburgh, 2006:83). That can be done by either publishing the empirical research findings in accredited educational management journals or by presenting them in meetings, seminars and conferences. Consequently, this study will attempt to contribute in a meaningful way to the current body of knowledge in the field of education management.

Having provided the background of and the motivation for this research, the researcher will now formulate the problem statement that guides the study.

1.3. PROBLEM STATEMENT

The challenge of poor motivation among principals in South African schools, especially in the Mpumalanga Province (cf. 1.9 and 1.12.5), is a serious cause for concern (Bush *et al.*, 2009:6; Clarke, 2007:39; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004:573). This phenomenon, according to Bush *et al.* (2009:6) and Nyathi, (2007:37), is characterised by poor learner achievement, tardiness, a low level of job involvement and organisational commitment and teachers always complaining about insufficient resources, amongst others.

Regarding the issue of poor commitment and underperformance, Mabuza (2011:2) announces that: “Discipline and commitment by principals remain crucial in laying a foundation for achieving results in future. Over the last few years, the province has been dealing with the challenge of perennially underperforming schools.” Two years later, similar sentiments were expressed by Mhaule (2011:6), who further cautions principals as follows: “The department has taken a decision to accelerate the implementation of the incapacity code for principals whose schools chronically under-perform after having been assisted by the department.” For the researcher, such sentiments revealed that principals in the Mpumalanga Province (c.1.9 and 1.12.5) were extremely de-motivated and therefore, there was a serious need to investigate the causal factors empirically in order to provide a scientific solution to the problem. Because of the above expositions, the main research question was posed as follows:

What type of cognitive model of motivation can be developed to motivate principals in the Mpumalanga Province?

In response to the above research question, the following critical sub-question was asked:

- Which cognitive theories of motivation can affect the motivation of principals?

Having identified the main research question and its sub-question, the researcher then focussed on the primary aim of the study and its objectives as indicated in the following section.

1.4. AIM AND OBJECTIVES

In view of the main research question above (cf. section 1.3), the study aimed to obtain an in-depth understanding of the factors that have an effect on the motivation of principals to enable the researcher to develop a cognitive model of motivation.

In pursuing the above aim, the following objectives were considered:

- To investigate cognitive theories of motivation that could affect the motivation of principals.
- To identify and explain factors constituting the motivation of principals.

Having indicated the aim and objectives of the study, the researcher will now discuss the conceptual framework that guided the empirical investigations as shown in the following section.

1.5. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

A cognitive approach to motivation was chosen as a conceptual framework for the study because of its ability to generate and sustain motivated behaviour; characterised by aspects such as an increased interest in the task, greater effort to complete the task, improved task performance and ultimately, greater job satisfaction. These aspects of motivation appeared to be exactly what the

principals of the Mpumalanga Province needed in order to improve their learner performance (cf. Table 1.1, Table 1.2, and Table 1.3). On this score, Masango (2007:5) stresses that, "... as agents of change, principals have a huge responsibility to ensure that our education system delivers quality outcomes at all levels."

Unlike the psychoanalytic approach, which views motivation as a product of unconscious impulses and the behaviourist approach, which argues that motivation is shaped completely by environmental consequences (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002:17), cognitive theorists contend that motivation is a function of cognitions; which are goals, needs, perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, expectations, values and other mental processes (Diefendorff & Lord, 2003:371; Locke & Latham, 2002:707; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002:17; Yamaguchi, 2002:324).

According to the cognitive approach, a person is viewed as a thinking being that consciously uses his or her thought processes to evaluate, interpret, understand and make future predictions regarding challenges and events experienced because of their environmental conditions. Subsequently, this can result in the increased interest, greater effort, improved performance and greater job satisfaction (Locke & Latham, 2002:707; Rouse, 2004:27; Shivers & Blackwell, 2006:30; Udechukwu, 2009:75; Yamaguchi, 2002:323). Pintrich and Schunk (2002:16) agree that cognitions are covert processes that cannot be observed directly, but rather their products, which is motivated or de-motivated behaviour. .

The cognitive approach to motivation suggests that the poorly motivated behaviour experienced by principals is the product of how they think about the challenge lying ahead of them. Furthermore, positive thoughts can be more highly motivating than negative thinking. In addition, principals need to use their intellectual abilities to imagine reason, analyse, interpret, and synthesise

in order to solve their day-to-day managerial problems (Davis & Wilson, 2000:349).

The cognitive theorists point out further that individuals are inherently dynamic; and with their intellectual potential, they can make things happen and ultimately succeed. That suggests that principals have the capacity to confront and overcome the perceived hostile factors that have a negative impact on their motivation. Accordingly, Mhaule (2011:3) observes: “I am convinced that things do change because principals in the Bohlabela District are finding reason to emancipate themselves from mediocrity; low level of performance in everything they do.”

Furthermore, proponents of the cognitive theory of motivation such as Otis, Grouzet and Pelletier (2005:171) and Painter (2000:64) postulate that individuals do not react subconsciously to external events or physical conditions such as hunger, but instead they interpret such events consciously in order to construct their own meanings. On this point, Otis *et al.* (2005:171) stresses in particular that motivated behaviour is initiated and regulated by this kind of thinking. In addition, the cognitive approach is thus closely related to intrinsic motivation that stresses the role of curiosity, interest and psychological rewards in generating and sustaining the morale (Ryan & Deci, 2000:70; Otis *et al.*, 2005:171). According to Pintrich and Schunk (2002:20), some of the cognitive processes determining motivation are, but not limited to attributes, values, goals, expectancies, and social comparisons. These are intrinsic motives that contribute to the individuals' achievement of their objectives.

In addition, the cognitive approach further allows the researcher to design a model that enables principals to plan their activities properly. That is because cognitive theorists believed that greater job satisfaction can be achieved, if individuals set intrinsic goals, plan their course of action, put in sufficient effort

and take full responsibility for the outcomes. In the light of the above, principals who plan their work properly and take action to realise it, are more highly motivated than those not planning and acting. If they apply this approach, principals will be more creative, independent, initiative, persistent and confident in terms of confronting their day-to-day challenges (Chindanya, 2002:52; Locke & Latham, 2002:708; Painter, 2000:3; Yamaguchi, 2002:325).

Lastly, this approach was deemed to be the most relevant for this study because the contextual factors that de-motivated principals in the Mpumalanga Province, especially in the Bohlabela District, were identified to be of a structural and systematic nature (Dlamini, 2004:62; Mpumalanga Systematic Evaluation Report, Grade 6, 2005:64; Nyathi, 2007:37). This implied that principals might not have full control over them, but needed an approach that would empower them to survive in such situations.

Since principals had no direct influence regarding the structuring of the education system, including with regard to how their circuit managers operated, there was a need to change their approach by setting goals, developing a positive attitude towards their work, as well as a positive attitude towards the environment and also believing in themselves. Therefore, it was against that background that a cognitive approach to motivation was felt to be the most relevant and appropriate to provide solutions to the challenges faced by principals in the Mpumalanga Province.

1.6. ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

The researcher assumed that there were cognitive (intrinsic) and systemic (external) factors that affected the motivation of principals in the Mpumalanga Province and with the development of a cognitive model, such a lack of motivation could be mitigated.

1.7. LITERATURE REVIEW

The findings from the Mpumalanga Systemic Evaluation Report, Grade 6 (2005) indicated that more than 64, 3% of principals would like to change their careers because of their depressing working conditions and poor relations with stakeholders. That proved to be a clear confirmation that the work of principals, as Sikhwivhilu (2003:23) puts it: "...is a difficult and complex one, which is why organization need to find ways to keep them motivated and satisfied."

The bulk of empirical studies, both in South Africa (Sikhwivhilu, 2003:23; Steyn & Van Niekerk, 2002: 147; Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:7) and abroad (Belle, 2007:120; McVay, 2007:19; Painter, 2000:65; Sodoma, 2005:27) concur that motivated principals are more productive and contributed much to learner achievement. Again, all such findings postulate that factors such as the individual's perceptions and values, the quality of teaching and learning processes, the quality of support by the Department of Education and support from stakeholders had motivational effects on principals regarding how they execute their roles and responsibilities (Chindanya, 2002:78; Sikhwivhilu, 2003:23; Steyn & Van Niekerk, 2002: 147; Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:7).

In the international context, the results of the study conducted by Painter (2000:65) found that motivated principals had a positive impact on the achievement of school objectives because they "...tend to be more committed, hardworking, loyal to their schools and satisfied with their job". Similarly, here at home, studies by Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002:143) have found that motivated staff made an organisation more effective because they were always looking for better ways of doing their job, were usually concerned about quality, and were more productive than apathetic or de-motivated staff.

In contrast, there were several factors, which had a negative influence on the motivation of principals. The research conducted by Belle (2007:120),

Chindanya (2002:78) and Garudzo-Kusereka (2003:140) came to the conclusion that the majority of educators, including principals, were dissatisfied with their work, in this regard, the major contributing factors cited were poor working conditions, unsupportive stakeholders, insufficient physical resources, and uncommitted learners and educators.

Again, similar studies conducted by McVay (2007:19) and Sodoma (2005:27), confirmed such findings but pointed out further that an unsupportive school environment contributes significantly to school performance. Sodoma (2005:27) in particular, remarks that principals, “were less satisfied with the demands and expectations the community placed on them, while earning such a little salary.”

Despite all the challenges highlighted above, principals are still expected to perform to their maximum ability to ensure that their schools succeed. It was for that reason that the researcher believed that the envisaged cognitive model of motivation could be quite useful in terms of motivating principals by increasing their interest in their jobs, by improving their efforts, by bettering their performance and enhancing their job satisfaction (Ryan & Deci, 2000:70; Locke & Latham, 2002:707; Otis *et al.*, 2005:171; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002:17).

On this score, McCormick (2001:37) reports that when high self-efficacious principals were confronted with challenges, they were found to be “persistent in pursuing their goals, but are also more flexible and more willing to adapt strategies to meet contextual factors.” In contrast, low self-efficacious principals were found to be unable to control the environment and tend to be unlikely to identify the appropriate strategies to deal with the challenging situations.

The studies cited above, highlighted that, with the right positive mindset and supportive environment, principals could survive any unfavourable circumstances and could ultimately improve their learner performance. Having discussed the literature review; in the next section, the researcher will explain how the study was organised.

1.8. DEMARCATION OF THE STUDY

While admitting that the problem under consideration may occur in other districts and provinces; the empirical investigation of this research was conducted in the Bohlabela District of the Mpumalanga Province, where almost all the schools were in a relatively poverty-stricken rural condition. According to Mpumalanga No Fee Schools (2010), schools in the district were categorised under quintiles 1 – 3, in other words, they were poor schools that could not charge school fees. Furthermore, the Mpumalanga Draft Provincial Policy on the Education Districts (2008) acknowledges that, "...district like Bohlabela are predominantly rural and poor."

Secondly, the majority of schools in the Bohlabela District were under-resourced, especially in terms of the availability of the physical facilities (Masango, 2007: Foreword; Mhaule, 2009:3). As the researcher employed a qualitative research methodology, it had assisted with selecting and focussing on the few minimally-resourced schools in order to minimise the tendency of some participants to cite and blame the availability of physical resources as an excuse for their underperformance.

It was noteworthy that despite the poverty [all no-fee schools] and rural nature of the Bohlabela District, there were a few schools that were still highly-resourced and well-equipped with physical facilities such as sufficient classrooms, school libraries, computer laboratories, science laboratories, school halls and sports facilities. Therefore, the principals of such schools were

identified and served as the information-rich participants (Budhal, 2000:62; Creswell, 2003:52; McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:317) in the course of investigating factors constituting motivation.

Lastly, another reason for conducting the investigation in the Bohlabela District was that the researcher works there as a Chief Education Specialist (CES) responsible for both curricular and co-curricular programmes and is therefore well exposed to the district and its challenges. As shown in Table 1.1 below, Bohlabela District as compared to the other three districts; Ehlanzeni, Gert Sibande and Nkangala, had been consistently underperforming and that significantly contributed to the overall underperformance of the Mpumalanga Province. On this score, Mhaule (2011:3) appreciated that recent developments are suggesting that principals from the Bohlabela District are emancipating themselves from mediocrity and the low level of performance.

TABLE 1.1: BOHLABELA DISTRICT’S GRADE 12 PERFORMANCE FOR THE PAST SIX YEARS (TAKEN FROM THE BOHLABELA DISTRICT IMPROVEMENT STRATEGY)

District	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Bohlabela	46.22	49.5	30.17	28.2	40.1	52.7
Ehlanzeni	68.6	68.4	59.6	58.2	67.6	72.1
Gert Sibande	67.5	63.0	56.3	52.2	59.3	65.4
Nkangala	64.9	62.3	59.2	53.6	59.0	67.9
Provincial average	65.3	60.8	51.8	47.9	56.8	64.8

Table 1.1 depicts the Bohlabela District’s underperformance in terms of grade 12 results since 2006. During 2007, 2008 and 2009, the performance declined drastically, until it started to improve in both 2010 and in 2011. Throughout the years, the district performed far below the provincial average, which is 60%.

1.9. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

1.9.1. Research design

The study used an interpretative approach, in particular a constructive-interpretative paradigm was used (Livesey, 2006:5; Weber, 2004:19), to pursue the purpose of the investigation. The interpretative approach was chosen on account of its ability to allow the researcher to gain firsthand information about the people's subjective, but accurate accounts of their views, feelings, perceptions and experiences (Budhal, 2000:59; Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007:155; Livesey, 2006:5; Weber, 2004:19). Consequently, that allowed the researcher to investigate and interpret the principals' views, perceptions, feelings and meanings regarding factors affecting their motivation. On this score, Livesey (2006:5) emphasises that this was made possible because the interpretative approach is flexible and adaptable.

The researcher spent a considerable amount of time at schools making field notes, interviewing participants and analysing written documents. In addition, the interpretative approach further allowed him to develop an in-depth understanding regarding the specific factors that had motivational effects on the morale, effort and performance of principals in the Mpumalanga Province. Creswell (2003:52) remarks that the approach assisted with "...the gaining of an in-depth understanding of the social phenomenon under investigation from the participants' point of view."

Consequently, the researcher engaged principals at their sites in order to elicit their understanding, views, experiences, perceptions and attitudes regarding challenging factors experienced at their respective schools and that they expressed freely. Ultimately, these identified factors assisted in the development of a cognitive model of motivation as indicated in section 1.2 (motivation for the study) and 1.5 (aim and objectives).

Lastly, the researcher used an interpretative approach because of its capacity to employ multi-method strategies such as interactive methods (interviews and observations) and non-interactive methods (documents analysis) to collect data. Therefore, in the course of data collection, the researcher employed all the data collection techniques such as observations, interviews and document analysis (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:156; Groenewald, 2004:4; Hatch, 2002:6).

1.9.2. Case study

The researcher employed a case study method since the main purpose of the investigation was not to generalise the empirical research findings but to obtain an in-depth insight into the phenomenon under study, as indicated in the introduction (cf. section 1.1) and problem statement (cf. section 1.3). In choosing this method, the researcher considered its ability to explore, analyse and describe the subjective but accurate experiences, intentions, perceptions, views, perspectives and feelings of principals in their natural settings, amongst others (Lauer, 2006:76).

In addition, the case study was most appropriate on account of its flexibility and adaptability, especially with regard to the sampling process, data collection and data analysis (Groenewald, 2004:4; Lauer, 2006:77). For instance, during fieldwork, the case study method provided the researcher with an opportunity to ask probing questions that led to a clear understanding of and insight into principals' direct and conscious experiences, perceptions, feelings and understanding regarding factors that impacted on their motivation (Hatch, 2002:6; Groenewald, 2004:4).

Such revelations further provided the researcher with an opportunity to develop what Maxwell (2005:106) described as a "thick description" with regard to the phenomenon under empirical investigation.

1.9.3. Purposive sampling

The researcher used purposive sampling to select participants. The identified sample comprised of fifteen participants; seven men and eight women. According to Budhal (2000:62), Creswell (2003:52) and, McMillan and Schumacher (2006:317), a sample represents a small and distinct group of “information-rich informants” that would enable the researcher to “understand the problem in depth.” The criteria for selecting such an information-rich sample, amongst others, were that the researcher needed to select participants who were knowledgeable, informative and willing to talk (Lauer, 2006:78; McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:319).

In addition, the principals were selected from the “no-fee schools” which were also benefiting from the school feeding programme. In addition, such schools were well-resourced with sufficient classrooms, administration offices, libraries, computer laboratories, science laboratories and school halls. This fact controlled and minimised the tendency of some participants to complain about the insufficiency of resources, particularly finances and physical facilities, when accounting for their underperformance.

Regarding the availability of the administration offices, it assisted in maximising privacy and confidentiality during the interview sessions (Keats, 2000:30; Pedroni & Pimple, 2001:11). Furthermore, purposive sampling was done by combining strategies such as site selection, network sampling and sampling by case in order to maximise its impact. Lastly, permission was sought from the Mpumalanga Department of Education to conduct the research (cf. Annexure A).

Having discussed how the participants were selected; in the next section, the researcher will explain how the data were collected.

1.9.4. Data collection methods

The researcher used three data collection techniques, namely semi-structured interviews, observational field notes and analyses of written documents. The main factors that informed the choice of such data collection techniques are provided in the following sub-sections.

1.9.4.1.Semi-structured interviews

Since the primary purpose of the study was to identify factors that affected the motivation of principals in order to develop a cognitive model of motivation, the researcher employed semi-structured interviews as the main research method. That was the most relevant method as it enabled the researcher to gain firsthand information regarding the subjective, but accurate views, perceptions and attitudes of the participants (Lauer, 2006:76; McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:319) in the Mpumalanga Province regarding factors affecting their motivation.

Since the purpose of the study was not to generalise the findings, semi-structured interviews were relevant because they enabled the researcher to obtain both in-depth understanding as well as insight into the phenomenon, especially in terms of how participants responded to their challenges (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:319). That was possible because principals used their own words and in some cases, non-verbal communication cues such as the tone of voice and facial expressions when communicating their feelings and thoughts (Horton, Macve & Struyven, 2004:340). Eventually, that contributed to more complete data being collected as well as enabling the researcher to obtain subtle meanings pertaining to the data collected.

Creswell (2003:56) and McMillan and Schumacher (2006:321) point out that semi-structured interviews are flexible and adaptable to any given situation.

Consequently, that assisted the researcher to undertake some follow-up interviews to probe certain interesting points raised by the participants. Ultimately, the participants were able to elaborate their responses in detail. To reduce bias and also maximise the neutrality and consistency of the research findings, the researcher used an interview schedule (cf. Annexure D) during the process of interviews. Accordingly, Creswell (2003:56) and Hatch (2002:91) stress that an interview schedule (guide) offers the researcher considerable latitude to pursue a range of issues and also offers principals the opportunity to pose some questions to the researcher.

On account of its flexibility and adaptability, this strategy further enabled the researcher to modify the sequence of questions, change the wording and provide some clarity where participants experienced challenges with regard to understanding certain questions (Horton *et al.*, 2004:340). In effect, that created a relaxed environment more conducive for the participants to express their views freely.

Having indicated why interviews were used as the primary data collection method, in the next section, the researcher will discuss the merits of using observational field notes as a secondary data collection technique.

1.9.4.2. Observational field notes

In addition, the researcher employed observation field notes as a secondary data collection technique. As shown in Annexure E, contextual factors such as the school profile, availability of physical facilities and tidiness of the schoolyard, as well as the displaying of trophies and certificates were recorded before the actual interviews commenced. In the course of the interviews, this strategy would further assist the researcher to record non-verbal communication cues such as facial expressions, gestures, tone of voice and

body movements; which could not be tape-recorded, were recorded (Horton *et al.*, 2004:341).

Later, during the course of the data analysis, such data augmented, confirmed and corroborated the verbal responses provided by the participants and therefore facilitated the data analysis process (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:176; Creswell, 2003:188; Maxwell, 2005:106).

Having explained the merits of observational field notes, in the following subsection, the researcher will focus on the analysis of written documents..

1.9.4.3. Analysis of written documents

Lastly, the researcher requested and examined written documents such as the vision statement, strategic plans, operational plans, instructional plans, control journals, school policies, registers, assessment schedules and learners' portfolios (cf. Annexure F). According to McMillan and Schumacher (2006:451), these are documents that provide a clear internal perspective regarding the functionality of the school. As was the case with the observational field notes (cf. section 1.9.3.2), the contents of the written documents also helped to confirm and corroborate the interview responses during the data analysis process (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:176; Creswell, 2003:188; Maxwell, 2005:106). In short, they served as evidence for the responses the participants provided.

It is important to note that the written documents provided the researcher with a vivid picture of the topic under investigation and helped to establish the reliability and validity of the responses of the participants obtained during the interview sessions.

Having indicated how the data were collected; the researcher will now explain how the data were analysed.

1.9.5. Data analysis

Since data analysis in interpretative approach occurs simultaneously with data collection (Creswell, 2003:58; McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:323), the researcher immediately started with the process during the course of the site visits. In analysing such data, the researcher inductively segmented and coded the transcribed interviews, the observational field notes, and the written documents, in order to familiarise himself with the responses that ultimately assisted with the development of themes, categories and sub-categories (Taylor-Powell & Renner, 2003:3; Thorne, 2000:68). That was done by reading and re-reading the interview transcripts, field notes and written documents in order to identify the data in their pure forms (Suter, 2006:318).

During this process, significant comments were identified and grouped into categories and units of meaning were put into such major categories (Thomas, 2003:3). Ultimately, guided by the conceptual framework of this study (cf. section 1.5), the thematic data were then identified, analysed and interpreted in order to develop a cognitive model of motivation.

Having indicated how data was analysed and interpreted; the researcher will discuss the ethical measures taken in the next section.

1.10. ETHICAL MEASURES

Participants in the research were informed that their involvement in the empirical investigation was voluntary and therefore they were allowed to withdraw from the study at any stage, should they have wished to do so (Pedroni & Pimple, 2001:10; Ruan, 2005:21). Furthermore, they were then

given informed consent forms (Annexure C) to read and sign. The researcher never promised participants any material benefits, except for the opportunity to experience being part of this research project.

During the data collection and analyses processes, their privacy and dignity were respected throughout. With regard to ensuring anonymity, the researcher made certain that none of the quotations used made a participant recognisable through any contextual references. Accordingly, the participants' information was kept anonymous throughout the research in order to ensure its confidentiality (Keats, 2000:30; Pedroni & Pimple, 2001:11).

1. 11. DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS

For the purpose of the study, the following concepts had the following meaning:

1.11.1. Cognitive model

The building blocks of a cognitive model of motivation were cognitions; also called a cognitive process, intellectual activities or thoughts. According to Reber and Reber (2001:128) and Pintrich and Schunk (2002:20), cognitions represent mental forces that generate and sustained voluntary actions or motivated behaviour. Such forces include, but are not limited to conscious goals, needs, perceptions, values, expectations, beliefs, and attitudes. In other words, such intrinsic forces, according to Steyn and Van Niekerk (2002:141), "energize human behaviour." Simply put, cognitions need to be treated as positive assets that individuals should embrace and always use to their advantage. This can lead to self-motivated behaviour that is characterised by a deeper sense of interest, improved effort, better performance, and greater job satisfaction (Locke & Latham, 2002:707; Yamaguchi, 2002:323; Rouse, 2004:27; Shivers & Blackwell, 2006:30; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002:66). Pintrich

and Schunk (2002:67) in particular, contend that principals, who are intrinsically motivated, do not need any extrinsic incentives because leading and managing on their own are rewarding. Such principals find leading and managing enjoyable, fulfilling and inspiring.

1.11.2. Motivation

In technical sense, the etymological roots of the term motivation, according to some motivation theorists (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001:189; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002:5) derived from the Latin word *movere*, which means *to move*. In contrast, the term in a non-technical sense means “to make somebody to do something especially that involves hard work and effort” (Hornby, 2006:956). This implies that motivation (motivated behaviour) means to make an individual move or act towards or away from something. As illustrated in chapter 2 (Figures 2.1; 2.4; 2.6; 2.7), motivation is therefore a process, not an event. In the managerial sense, it means the process of persuading oneself (principal) or others (learners, educators, and parents) to direct their energies towards the accomplishment of improved learner achievement.

Therefore, for the purpose of the study, motivation (motivated behaviour) meant the process whereby principals were energizing (encouraging, directing) themselves by consciously and positively employing cognitive process (goals, expectations, needs, and perceptions). As observed by Locke and Latham (2002:707), Yamaguchi (2002:323) and Shivers and Blackwell (2006:30), the conscious application of cognitions might result with the highly motivated behaviour; which is characterised by the following aspects (cf. section 2.3; Figure 2.1).

1. **Increased interest:** refers to an improved sense of focus, enthusiasm, morale, passion (strong desire) as determined by the emotional arousal and valence (perceived value of a reward).

2. **Increased interest:** refers to an improved sense of focus, enthusiasm, morale, passion (strong desire) as determined by the emotional arousal and valence (perceived value of a reward).
3. **Better task performance:** refers to school effectiveness, school improvement or school performance (learner performance). In this study, learner achievement represents positive changes in a learner's skills, values and knowledge, which ultimately enable a learner to act in a responsible manner (Boyd, 2002:153).Mthombeni (2004:8) defines learner achievement as, "... an attainment of a good performance by learners and an attainment of high standard through continuous efforts of the principal."
4. **Greater job satisfaction:** refers to organisational commitment, involvement and loyalty, which result in a positive attitude or happiness with regard to the work environment (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001:207).

1.11.3. School principals

School principals; also known as school managers or heads of the school, are usually seen as the most authoritative professional officials accountable for the leadership and management roles of their schools (Belle, 2007: 69; Bush *et al.*, 2009:6; Clarke, 2007:2; Moloi, 2007:470; Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:76; Van der Westhuizen & Van Vuuren, 2007:440). As authoritative figures, they are in a vertical relationship with educators and are therefore expected to perform their tasks in the interest of state or public (Van der Westhuizen & Van Vuuren, 2007:441).

To be precise, principals are vested and delegated with the authority to represent the provincial head of department (HOD), at the school levels (section 23 of the South African Schools Act, 1996). Concerning their tasks

and functions, the publication *Duties and Responsibilities of Educators* (1998) [not yet amended] stipulates as follows:

- To provide professional management of the school.
- To provide professional leadership within the school.
- To engage in class teaching as per the workload of the relevant post level and the needs of the school.
- To participate in extra- and co-curricular activities.
- To interact with stakeholders.
- To maintain regular communication, especially with parents.

Therefore, for the purpose of the study, school principals meant heads of schools that were expected to maximise learner achievement through effective performance of both leadership and management roles.

1.11.4. Mpumalanga Province

In the study, the Mpumalanga Province refers to the Mpumalanga Department of Education. In terms of the publication, *Education Statistics in South Africa* (2008), Mpumalanga Province is the fifth largest province regarding the number of learners, educators and schools. It is only Kwa-Zulu Natal, Eastern Cape, Gauteng, and Limpopo, which have higher enrolment numbers than Mpumalanga Province. Administratively, it is comprised of four districts, which are the Bohlabela, Ehlanzeni, Ekangala, and Gert Sibande district respectively. As illustrated in Tables 1.2 and 1.3 respectively, the province performed poorly in both the annual national assessment test (ANA) and the grade 12 examinations results.

Regarding the grade 12 results, the province has been obtaining the last position (position 9) for the past six years as shown in Table 1.2 below. In addition, the province also attained the last position (position 9) in the annual

national assessment test [ANA] (2011), which is the standardised assessment tool for measuring the quality of education below grade 12. Simply put, the province has been experiencing chronic underperformance from the lower to the higher grades for a long time. Hence this is a serious concern for the people of South Africa in general and those in Mpumalanga Province in particular (Mabuza, 2011:2; Mhaule, 2011:6; Motshekga, 2011:3; Nyathi, 2007:37).

TABLE 1.2: MPUMALANGA PROVINCE’S GRADE 12 PERFORMANCES FOR THE PAST SEVEN YEARS (TAKEN FROM THE MPUMALNGA 2010/2011 ANNUAL REPORT)

Province	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011
Eastern Cape	56.7	59.3	57.1	50.6	51.0	58.3	58.1
Free State	77.8	72.2	70.5	71.6	69.4	70.7	75.7
Gauteng	74.9	78.3	74.6	76.3	71.8	78.6	81.1
Kwa-Zulu Natal	70.5	65.7	63.8	57.2	61.1	70.7	68.1
Limpopo	64.9	55.7	58	54.7	48.9	57.9	63.9
Mpumalanga	58.6	65.3	60.7	51.8	47.9	56.8	64.8
Northern Cape	78.9	76.8	70.3	72.7	61.3	72.3	68.8
North West	63.0	67	67.2	67.9	67.5	75.7	77.8
Western cape	74.9	78.3	74.6	76.3	71.8	78.6	82.2
National average	68.3	66.6	65.2	62.2	60.6	67.8	70,2

Table 1.2 depicts the Mpumalanga Province’s underperformance in terms of grade 12 results since 2005. During 2006 and 2007, it only performed better than Limpopo Province, but was last (position 9 out of nine provinces) in 2008, 2009 and 2010. Throughout those years, the province performed far below the national average.

Again, as illustrated in the following, Table 1.3 below, the province also performed far below the national average in the annual national assessment test [ANA] (2011).

TABLE 1.3: MPUMALANGA PROVINCE’S ANNUAL NATIONAL PERFORMANCE IN 2011 FOR GRADES 3 AND GRADE 6 (TAKEN FROM THE DEPARTMENT OF BASIC EDUCATION)

Province	Grades 3 mean score (%)		Grades 6 mean score (%)	
	Literacy	Numeracy	Language	Mathematics
Eastern Cape	39	35	29	29
Free State	37	26	23	28
Gauteng	35	30	35	37
Kwa-Zulu Natal	39	31	29	32
Limpopo	30	20	21	25
Mpumalanga	27	19	20	25
Northern Cape	28	21	27	28
North West	30	21	22	26
Western Cape	43	36	40	41
National average	35	28	28	30

Table 1.3 depicts the Mpumalanga Province’s underperformance regarding the 2011 annual national assessment test for grade 3 (literacy and numeracy) and grade 6 (languages and mathematics) respectively. As illustrated above, the province performed far below the national average. Table 1.3 clearly indicates that the national average is much higher (literacy, 35; numeracy, 28; language, 28; mathematics, 30) than provincial performance (literacy, 27; numeracy, 19; language, 20; mathematics, 25).

Having clarified the concepts that are pertinent to the study, the limitations of the study will now be explained.

1.12. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The research had the following limitations:

Firstly, the identified principals were not fully accessible due to time constraints. Owing to the fact that some of the sampled schools had underperformed (in both ANA and grade 12 results) in the Bohlabela District, some participants were usually busy with meetings (staff or departmental) or attending classes. That made it difficult for the researcher to be given sufficient time for the data collection session, particularly with regard to analysing the written documents.

Secondly, there was a slight element of mistrust by some participants of the researcher. Since the researcher is a senior official (CES) and member of the district management team (DMT), participants saw the study not only as a pure academic undertaking, but as a work-related activity. Consequently, the participants were not be completely relaxed and calm and therefore might have not given all the relevant information needed (Cohen *et al.*,2007:156):

Thirdly, the empirical research findings were restricted to the Bohlabela geographic area of the Mpumalanga Province only. This has a limiting effect on generalising such results to other districts in the province.

Lastly, the results of the empirical investigation only drew a picture of the motivation of principals at a particular point in time, the period during which the study was conducted. It is not clear how stable their perceptions, attitudes and understanding were and how they would change during the course of the coming years.

1.13. CHAPTER DIVISION

This empirical research consists of the following six chapters:

Chapter one deals with orientation of the study. This chapter provides the introduction, motivation for the study, problem statement, aim and objectives, conceptual framework, assumptions of the study, literature review, demarcation of the study, research methodology, ethical measures, definition of concepts, limitations of the study, and chapter division.

Chapter two discusses literature review concerning cognitive theories of motivation. Here both international and domestic studies were consulted. The emphasis is on what effect those theories posited as factors have on the motivation of principals globally.

Chapter three discusses the roles and responsibilities of principals. These responsibilities are comprised of the duties and responsibilities of principals both as leaders and managers. Here both international and domestic studies were consulted.

Chapter four describes the research methodology used. It includes a case study design, purposive sampling, data collection techniques, data analysis, trustworthiness of the study, and ethics in research.

Chapter five discusses the empirical research findings and interpretations. Here a cognitive model of motivation was developed and described in details.

Chapter six, which is the last chapter of this study, deals with summary, conclusions, recommendations and limitations of the study.

CHAPTER 2: COGNITIVE THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

2.1. INTRODUCTION

The preceding chapter provided a general orientation of the study, including the main problem statement. In this chapter, the research sub-question as stated hereunder (also stated in section 1.3) will be answered.

- Which cognitive theories of motivation can impact on the motivation of principals?

Responding to the question, the chapter will commence with a detailed explanation of the concept of ‘motivation’ using a variety of sources. For instance, four key theoretical approaches to motivation: psychoanalysis, behaviourism, humanism, and cognitive theory, are identified and briefly explained. Further, the dominant cognitive theories of motivation, which are Locke’s goal setting theory, Vroom’s expectancy theory, Adam’s equity theory, Rotter’s locus of control theory and Bandura’s self-efficacy theory, will be thoroughly explored in order to obtain an in-depth understanding of cognitive factors impacting on motivation. During the process, both the limitations and the implications of each theory are exposed and discussed.

2.2. THE CONCEPT OF ‘MOTIVATION’

One of the difficulties in the definition of motivation is that there is no single theoretical model, which clearly explains the concept of ‘motivation’. This is because of the different viewpoints to motivation pertaining to various approaches like psychoanalytic, behavioural, humanistic and cognitive approaches. Technically, the etymological root of the term motivation is the Latin word *movere*, which means *to move* (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001:189; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002:5). In a non-technical sense, it means the hard work

individuals do to perform a particular task. However, in the vast field of education management, this simple definition is inadequate.

This etymological root is only a point of departure for the many definitions associated with motivation. Different definitions focus, to varying degrees, on a number of facets, which constitute motivation. In an attempt to provide a comprehensive insight into what constitutes motivation, the researcher examined various theoretical approaches to motivation as discussed below.

2.2.1. Theoretical approaches to motivation

Although these approaches seek to explain the complex phenomenon of motivation from different perspectives, they are neither mutually exclusive nor contradictory. Each concentrates on the specific factors that constitute motivation, as indicated below; they are complementary and therefore have some important managerial implications for principals.

2.2.1.1. Psychoanalytic approach to motivation

This school of thought is represented by, amongst other theorists, Josef Brauer (1842 -1925), Sigmund Freud (1856 - 1939), Alfred Adler (1870 - 1937), CG Jung (1875 - 1961) and Erik Erikson (1902 - 1980). The basic tenet of the approach is that man is a psychic being whose behaviour is determined by the contents at the two levels of consciousness; the conscious and the unconscious mind. The conscious mind contains thoughts, feelings, wishes and experiences, which can be readily accessed and used. This level represents a small portion of one's consciousness.

In contrast, the unconscious mind accounts for the greater portion of one's motivation and contains the person's forbidden drives (sex and aggression), and the memories of events and wishes which cause pain and guilt in the

individual and cannot be recalled to the conscious mind with ease. Because they cause uncomfortable feelings, such negative factors are repressed in the unconscious mind. In this case, the individual may try to recall such an experience, but this would only be accomplished with much effort.

Concerning the actual process of motivation as determined in the unconscious mind, the theory maintains that there is an ongoing psychological conflict between the forbidden drives, repressed memories, wishes and experiences with the moral codes of the society. In other words, the irrational and forbidden drives which demand immediate satisfaction are always in constant conflict with the norms and expectations of the society, which are imprinted on the superego, that have the power to punish the individual by causing pain and guilt feelings. Since this occurs in the unconscious mind, this suggests that the individual has no control over his or her motivation.

2.2.1.2. Behavioural approach to motivation

This school of thought, amongst other theorists, includes IP Pavlov (1849 - 1936), BW Watson (1878 - 1958), EL Thorndike (1874 - 1949) and BF Skinner (1904 -1990). According to this perspective, also called the reinforcement approach, human motivation is determined by external factors like incentives and rewards; not the consciousness (thoughts and feelings) as postulated by psychoanalysts. Behaviourists regard man as a passive being who depends on environmental stimuli (incentives and rewards) in order to learn a particular response (behaviour). According to Kreitner and Kinicki (2001:466), an incentive is an attractive object or event that can be used to encourage and motivate particular positive behaviour, whereas a reward, while also an attractive object or event, can be used to compensate a particular positive behaviour.

In terms of explaining the kinds of incentives and rewards that influence the motivation of individuals in the school setting, the behavioural approach maintains that extrinsically motivated principals are not actually interested in the activity of leading and managing for its own sake, but care only about the rewards the job offers them such as the increased salary, praise or job security. In other words, behaviour is controlled by its consequences; that is, people repeat behaviour that is followed by favourable consequences while avoiding behaviour that has unfavourable consequences. Accordingly, this suggests that the individual has no control over his or her motivation.

2.2.1.3. Humanistic approach to motivation

This school of thought, amongst other theorists, includes Gordon Allport (1897 - 1967), Douglas M McGregor (1906 - 1964), Abraham H Maslow (1908 - 1970), David McClelland (1917 - 1998) and Frederick Herzberg (1923 - 2000). According to this perspective, motivation is caused by two basic intrinsic factors; the gratification of unsatisfied needs as well as the desire or wish to realise one's potentials and talents. Concerning the latter intrinsic factor, humanist theorists such as Gurt Goldstein (1939), Abraham Maslow (1954) and Carl Rogers (1961) use the concept of 'self-actualisation' which, according to Reber and Reber (2001:659), represents the tendency to grow to a higher level of psychological growth and self-fulfilment.

In contrast to both the psychoanalytic and behaviouristic approaches which view behaviour as largely determined by unconscious processes and environmental stimuli respectively, a humanistic perspective instead suggests that man is naturally endowed with the capacity to make decisions about his or her life and to control of his or her behaviour. In fact, man is perceived as an active, unique and responsible being that is in charge of his or her future through self-actualisation process (Boeree, 2006:6; Graham & Messler, 2004:196). In pursuit of self-actualisation, man always makes use of his or

abilities, competencies and capabilities to the maximum. This is the main determinant of motivated behaviour in term of humanistic approach.

2.2.1.4. Cognitive approach to motivation

This school of thought includes amongst other theorists, Edwin Locke (1632-1704), Victor Vroom (1917-), John Stacey Adams, Julian Rotter (1916 - 1985) and Albert Bandura (1925 -). A cognitive perspective seeks to explain how our thoughts influence our day-to-day motivation. Uncomfortable with the idea that motivation is shaped completely by environmental consequences (the behaviourist approach) and unconscious forces (the psychoanalytic approach), the cognitive motivation theorists contend that motivation is a function of perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, expectations, values, needs and other mental cognitions.

According to this perspective, man is viewed as a rational and thinking being that consciously uses his or her thought processes to evaluate, interpret, understand and make future decisions regarding challenges and events as being posed by their environmental conditions. Motivation is therefore viewed as the result of rational and conscious choices among alternative courses of action, which result with the increased persistence, creativity, determination and resilience.

2.3. COGNITIVE THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

As indicated above (section 2.2.1.3) and in Figure 2.1 below, this approach states that motivation is generated and sustained by cognitions; a class of abstract and unobservable mental activities which include but not limited to the following: values, needs, beliefs, expectancies, perceptions, attitudes and intentions, goals, outcomes and interests (Davis & Wilson, 2000:350; Painter,

2000:3; Toffelson, 2000:65; Yamaguchi, 2002:324). Simply put, individuals who embrace and apply these theories develop self-motivated behaviour.

Ryan and Deci (2000:68), Schwartz (2000:80) and Pintrich and Schunk (2002:67) maintain that managers who are intrinsically motivated do not need any extrinsic awards and incentives because leading and managing on their own are rewarding. Such managers find leading and managing enjoyable, fulfilling and inspiring.

However, cognitions alone are not sufficient to generate and sustain self-motivated behaviour; they need to be moderated by other factors such as personal abilities, role perceptions, feedback and organisational support in order to keep one motivated (Locke & Latham, 2002:707; Diefendorff & Lord, 2003:371; Locke & Latham, 2006:709). Cognitive factors and their impact on motivation have been depicted in Figure 2.1 below.

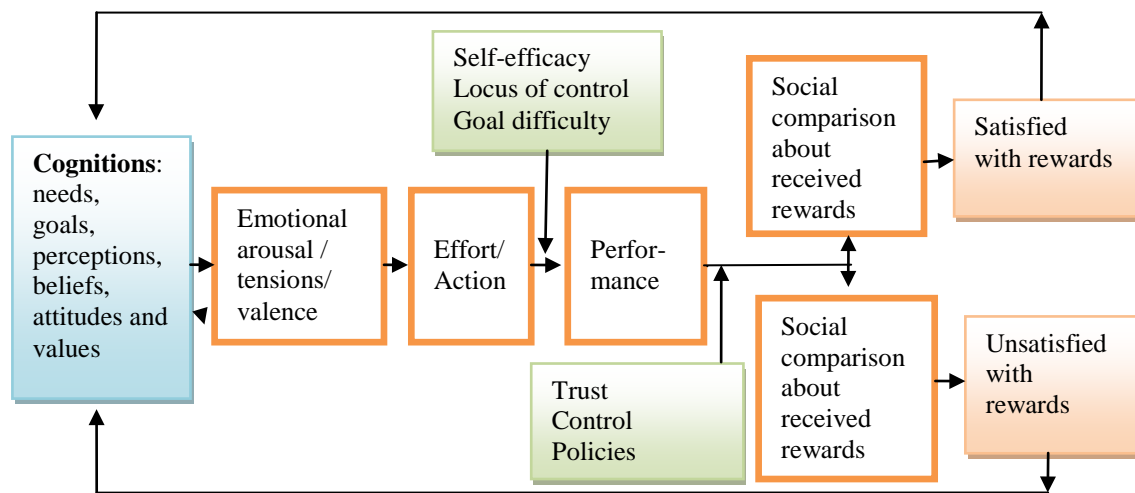


FIGURE 2.1: A COGNITIVE MODEL OF MOTIVATION (ADAPTED FROM STEERS & PORTER, 1983:62)

Figure 2.1 illustrates the process of motivation as a cycle. It starts when an individual has a valued goal or need, which he or she believes can be achieved through performing certain tasks, which will produce the desired outcomes.

According to the theory, as elaborated by Painter (2000:3), the emergence of any of these cognitive processes (values, needs, beliefs, expectancies, perceptions, attitudes and intentions, goals, outcomes and interests), create psychological tension as well as a state of disequilibrium, which subsequently generates mental energy or the drive that prompts a person to act.

Moreover, this approach (Painter, 2000:3; Locke & Latham, 2002:707) further postulates that individuals would only be motivated to act when they have reasonable expectations that their effort into performing such a task might yield a better performance and the desired outcome. However, should the outcome be perceived as unfair or unjust, the individual would be intrinsically compelled take an action in order to restore the equilibrium (Yamaguchi, 2002:325; Chen & Silverthorne, 2008:574).

Although there is a plethora of such theories in the field of research, for the purpose of the study, the focus was on the following theories: Maslow's self-actualisation theory, McClelland's achievement motivation theory, Locke's goal setting theory, Vroom's expectancy theory, Adam's equity theory, Rotter's locus of control theory and Bandura's self-efficacy theory. When discussing each theory, the focus was on its basics, its limitations and its implications to principals as shown on the following sections.

2.3.1. Maslow's self-actualisation theory

The theory, which was developed by Maslow in 1954, states that motivation is determined by what he termed 'self-actualisation process', which is an individual's inborn and inherent desire for self-fulfilment. The assertion is informed by the fact that Maslow (as cited by both Rouse, 2004:27 and Udechukwu, 2009:75) views an individual as an active and unique being that has potential, abilities and talents which such an individual will always strive to realise. Maslow was prominent for rebelling against psychoanalysis and the

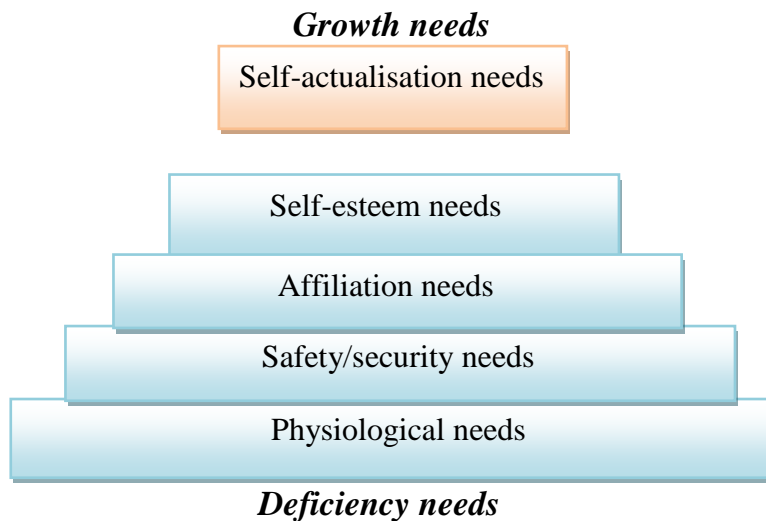
animal-centred studies of behaviourism; in reaction, he developed and conceptualised what he called ‘self-actualisation process.’

2.3.1.1. The basics of the self-actualisation theory

According to this theory, the self-actualisation process is the tendency of becoming all that one is capable of being; that is, making full use of all one’s abilities, talents and potentials (Francis & Kritsonis, 2006:3; Graham & Messler, 2004:196; Udechukwu, 2009:75). According to Chindanya (2002:18) and Rouse (2004:27), self-actualisation theory represents the process of growth to attain a higher level of psychological growth and self-fulfilment.

Furthermore, the theory maintains that a person becomes restless when he is not doing what he is capable of doing. In this respect, Maslow remarks that, “A musician must make music; an artist must paint, a poet must write, if he is to be at peace with himself. What a man can be, he must be. He must be true to his own nature” (Maslow 1954, as cited by Francis & Kritsonis, 2006: 4). Consistent with this view, Graham and Messler (2004:196) elaborated that humans “aspire to self-actualised states.” Simply put, an individual will always strive for continual growth; the unfolding of one’s potentials and talents.

However, unlike Carl Rogers (1961 as cited by Boeree, 2006:3), Maslow maintains that very few people (approximately 2%) are able to reach the stage of self-actualisation (Boeree, 2006:6; Francis & Kritsonis, 2006:5). That is because, to a large extent, the self-actualisation stage depends on the gratification of the other four basic needs: physiological, safety, affiliation and self-esteem, as indicated in Figure 2.2 below. Stated differently, the self-actualisation stage is reached only when the other four levels of needs are all being gratified regularly (Chindanya, 2002:18; Francis & Kritsonis, 2006:3; Graham & Messler, 2004:196; Rouse, 2004:27; Udechukwu, 2009:75).



**FIGURE 2.2: MASLOW'S SELF-ACTUALISATION THEORY
(ADAPTED FROM BOEREE, 2006:4)**

Figure 2.2 depicts the four deficiency needs (physiological, safety, affiliation and self-esteem needs) and one growth needs (self-actualisation). The needs are arranged in hierarchical order. The lower needs in the hierarchy should be satisfied first and more urgently than the higher needs, which means that the lower needs must first be gratified before needs at a higher level manifest themselves.

a. Proceed through the hierarchy to self-actualisation

This group of needs, also called deficiency needs, are directly related to the basic needs for survival like hunger, thirst and the need for safety, whose gratification brings about a decrease in tension (Clarke, 2007:40; Rouse, 2004:27).

In terms of the theory, the fact that needs are hierarchically arranged means that an individual's development progresses through successive stages of need gratification towards the goal of self-actualisation (Boeree, 2006:7; Clarke, 2007:40; Udechukwu, 2009:75). The lower the need in the hierarchy, the more

urgent it is; which means that lower needs must first be gratified before needs at a higher level manifest themselves.

When a specific set of needs is regularly gratified, the next set of needs becomes dominant. Instead of being dominated by hunger, for example, an individual now becomes obsessed with the need for safety (Francis & Kritsonis, 2006:4; Rouse, 2004:28). Of course, this does not mean that the person will never experience hunger again, but when he is reasonably sure that his physiological needs will be satisfied regularly, his safety needs become an important motivator of his behaviour.

The same principle applies to all the other needs in the hierarchy. A person becomes aware of his love and affiliation needs only when his safety needs are satisfied regularly and the self-actualisation needs come to the fore only when the love needs are satisfied regularly.

A detailed discussion of the deficiency needs and their operation at the first four levels of the hierarchy follows (Chindanya, 2002:18; Clarke, 2007:41; Rouse, 2004:27; Udechukwu, 2009:75).

1. Physiological needs

Physiological needs have to do with the survival of an individual. Hunger, thirst, the need for oxygen, sleep, rest, and sex are examples. These needs are usually homeostatic and their satisfaction restores equilibrium inside the body (Clarke, 2007:40). According to Maslow (1954, as cited by Boeree, 2006:8), physiological needs are the most basic and if they are not regularly satisfied, they dominate all other subsequent needs. Accordingly, principals who are always tired and exhausted because of work pressure might not be interested in satisfying higher ranking needs. This implies that, such individuals need to have a rest.

2. Safety needs

When individuals are reasonably sure that their physiological needs will be regularly satisfied, they lose their urgency and may forget all about them. At this point, safety needs come to the fore and may become dominant to such an extent that all functioning is directed towards safety needs like achieving predictability, stability in the schooling system, security, protection, respect to rule of law and freedom from fear (Chindanya, 2002:18; Rouse, 2004:27; Udechukwu, 2009:75). In the school setting, principals need a stable and predictable workplace in order to perform their managerial and leadership tasks. Rules and regulations need to be clear, well understood, and consistently applied by principals to offer a reasonable amount of safety and order for all members of the school community. This would minimise the risk of being pressured by unruly learners, ill-disciplined educators, uncooperative parents and problematic teacher unions.

3. Affiliation needs

Once the physiological and safety needs are, largely being satisfied regularly, a third layer, affiliation needs, starts to develop. Individuals become aware of their needs to affiliate somewhere and belong with others; to receive and give love. In the school situation, such needs often manifest themselves in the tendency to be part of associations and committees (Clarke, 2007:39). According to Chindanya (2002:19) and Rouse (2004:27), the affiliation needs, together with physiological and safety needs, are regarded as lower order needs which once satisfied, no longer have motivational effects.

4. Self-esteem needs

As soon as a person's needs for affiliation have been satisfied to the point where it diminishes as a motivating force, the need for self-esteem or prestige

awakens. According to Reber and Reber (2001:661), self-esteem is a perception (attitude or belief) of one's own self-worth based on the overall evaluation by others or oneself. It is the extent to which an individual values himself or herself and the conclusion (attitude or belief) he or she arrives at, regarding either low (negative) or high (positive) self-esteem (Pajares, 2002:7; Locke & Latham, 2006:573). Furthermore, Maslow (1954) classified self-esteem needs into two sub-categories: lower self-esteem and higher self-esteem needs (Boeree, 2006:8; Chindanya, 2002:23).

- **Lower self-esteem needs:** A set of needs related to the esteem by others. In other words, an individual depends on others to develop positive self-esteem. This includes the desire for appreciation, recognition, attention, reputation, importance, dignity, and even dominance (Boeree, 2006:8; Chindanya, 2002:23; Garudzo-Kusereka, 2003:26).
- **Higher self-esteem needs:** A set of needs based on a person's self-respect. Simply put, one does not depend on others for positive self-esteem; but on oneself. This relates to the positive feelings (belief or attitude) of confidence, competence, capability, achievement, mastery, personal strength, and independence (Boeree, 2006:8; Chindanya, 2002:23; Garudzo-Kusereka, 2003:26z).

When the needs for self-esteem have been left unsatisfied, individuals might view themselves in negative terms characterised by feelings of inferiority, self-doubt, weakness, helplessness and despair. In contrast, individuals with high self-esteem view themselves as useful, worthwhile, capable and acceptable (Rouse, 2004:27). In the school setting, these needs are partly met by recognising, acknowledging and appreciating the work and contributions of principals either through praise, medals or promotions. Once this has been done, principals will develop self-respect that will serve as a strong base for self-actualisation to awaken.

Having indicated how the hierarchy of needs depends on one another until the stage of self-actualisation is activated, it is equally critical to highlight some of the core characteristics of self-actualisers; individuals who have attained self-actualisation stage.

b. Characteristics of self-actualisers

In describing how self-actualisation process is realised, Maslow (1954) identifies and explains some of the key characteristics that enable people to realise their full potentials and talents (Francis & Kritsonis, 2006:3) as indicated below:

1. Acceptance and realism

Self-actualising people have realistic perception of themselves, others and the world around them. Such individuals do accept themselves as they are and therefore feel comfortable and relates well with their immediate surrounding. They are not threatened by the unknown. Such individuals have a superior ability to reason and see the truth. They are also logical in thinking and efficient in doing things.

2. Problem centring

Self-actualised individuals are concerned with solving problems outside of themselves, including helping others and finding solutions to problems in the external world. Such individuals are good in situation analysis and taking proper decision on the matter. They have a mission in life requiring much energy; their mission is their reason for existence. These people are often motivated by a sense of personal responsibility and ethics.

3. Spontaneity, simplicity and naturalness

Self-actualisers are spontaneous in their inner life, thoughts and impulses; that is, they are not hampered by any convention. Their code of ethics is autonomous and natural; hence they are individuals that are motivated to seek continual growth.

4. Autonomy and solitude

Another characteristic of self-actualising individuals is the need for independence and privacy. While they enjoy the company of others, sometimes these people need a time (autonomy and solitude) in order to focus on the development of their own individual potential and talents.

5. Continued freshness of appreciation

Self-actualisers have a fresh rather than a stereotyped appreciation of people and things. In other words, they appreciate the basic good things in life and live a thrilling, transcending and spiritual life. Simply put, they are good constructive critics, rather than being destructive. Furthermore, they prefer living their present moment to the fullest.

6. Peak experience

Individuals who are self-actualisers often have what Maslow terms “peak experiences” or moments of intense joy, wonder, awe and ecstasy. After these experiences, people feel inspired, strengthened, renewed or transformed. As quoted by Francis and Kritsonis (2006:3), Maslow regards self-actualising people as “different” from the norm’ and who are “healthy individuals,” but not necessarily perfect.

2.3.1.2. Limitations of the self-actualisation theory

In the course of discussing the theory of self-actualisation, several limitations will be identified and discussed. Firstly, the researcher agrees with other critics (Chindanya, 2002:20; Francis & Kritsonis, 2006:3; Garudzo-Kusereka, 2003:25) that the methodology (biographical analysis of well-known people whom he felt met the standard of self-actualisation) does not conform to the principles of scientific research. Maslow (1954) selected a small number of people and declared them to be self-actualisers; he read about them, talked with them, and then concluded what constituted self-actualisation, which does not sound like rigorous science.

Secondly, Maslow constrains the phrase “self-actualisation” and narrows it down to adults only. Unlike Carl Rogers (1961 as cited by Boeree, 2006:3) who uses the phrase to refer to what every living organism does, Maslow limits it to a few adults who constitute only two percent of the total population (Francis & Kritsonis, 2006:5; Rouse, 2004:29). Rogers feels that babies are the best examples of human self-actualisation, while Maslow sees self-actualisation as something rarely achieved by infants.

Lastly, the practicality and applicability of the hierarchy of needs is highly questionable. Though one agrees with the set of needs as suggested, one is not quite convinced by the prioritisation and the prepotency of such needs, especially in the fulfilment of the individuals’ potentials and talents. Personal experience and observation have taught us that there have been plenty of successful people who have lived and survived under conditions of extreme hardship; that is, without sufficient food, clothes, shelter or even a safe environment, but were nonetheless successful. Some of such people were not properly supported by their families and were even rejected by their own peers.

So far, the theoretical discussion might have given the impression that these five sets of needs are somehow in a stepwise relationship with one another. In some cases, a statement like the “emergence of a need after another being satisfied” might give the false impression that a particular need must be fully satisfied before the next need emerges. It is within this context that one is not convinced by such a hierarchy because there are some excellent school principals who seem to be self-actualised without their lower order needs having been satisfied.

2.3.1.3. Implications of the self-actualisation theory

Though the theory exhibits some number of limitations, numerous implications emerged for the motivation of principals. Regarding physiological needs, principals need to take regular breaks, have sufficient rest and also engage in physical exercise. This would mitigate the impact of work related pressure. Concerning, safety needs, principals need to sensitise everybody about the school rules and regulations which should be implemented consistently in order to create a predictable, stable and disciplined school environment. This is because in some cases, some principals are uncertain, uneasy and anxious about how their learners will perform in certain school programmes such as public examinations and sporting activities, which are in the public spotlight. In fact, such expectations place them under serious psychological strain and leave them feeling rather unsafe and insecure.

In terms of belonging needs, it is of extreme importance for principals to join and be part of groups such as principals’ associations as those groups provide the support they need. Regarding self-esteem needs, principals need to respect themselves, rather than expect others to recognise them. This would assist in developing feelings of confidence, competence, capability, achievement, mastery, personal strength and independence, which are pre-conditions for self-actualisation to take place.

Lastly, in terms of self-actualisation needs, principals are expected to do introspection in order to discover their true needs, talents and potentials. This will assist them to set specific, attainable and realistic goals that will generate and sustain their motivated behaviour.

Having analysed Maslow's self-actualisation theory, the researcher will now explore the motivational impact McClelland's need achievement theory on individuals, as shown in the following section.

2.3.2. McClelland's achievement motivation theory

According to the achievement motivation theory developed by David McClelland in 1961, motivation (performance of a task) is primarily determined by an individual's inborn and inherent need for achievement (Locke & Latham, 2002:705). In contrast with Maslow's theory; for McClelland (1961), the need for achievement could be learned and socially acquired as the individual interacts with others and the environment (Graham & Messler, 2004:197; Rouse, 2004:28).

2.3.2.1. Basics of the achievement motivation theory

According to McClelland (1961, as cited by Locke & Latham, 2002:705), the need for achievement refers to an "unconscious disposition to energise and drive, where individuals with high need for achievement are constantly competing with standards of excellence and success". Consistent with this view, Pintrich and Schunk (2002:194) substantiate that high achievers, unlike low achievers, are characterised by a strong wish "to accomplish something difficult, to master, to excel, to rival and surpass, to overcome obstacles and attain a high standard" in competitive situations.

Furthermore, Chindanya (2002:42) and Kreitner and Kinicki (2001:197) characterise high achievers as individuals who, unlike low achievers, have a strong wish to take personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems, master complex tasks, set realistic goals and get feedback on their level of success. As depicted in Figure 2.3 below, individuals with a high need for achievement (high achievers) share four common characteristics: the setting of moderate goals, putting an effort in realising goals, receiving summary feedback and getting intrinsic rewards.

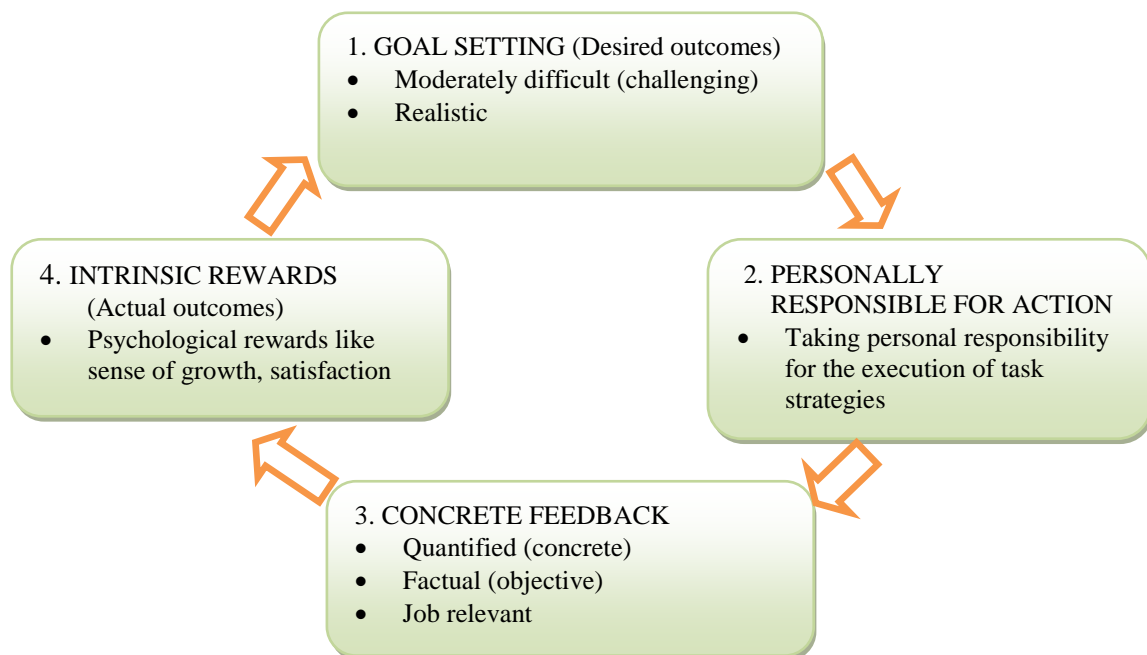


FIGURE 2.3: McCLELLAND’S ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION THEORY (ADAPTED FROM KREITNER & KINICKI, 2001:197)

Figure 2.3 depicts the process of motivation as a cycle; starting with goal setting (a desired outcome) and ending with the attainment of intrinsic rewards (an actual outcome). The process comprises of four complementary steps, which are goal setting, taking an action, receiving concrete feedback and getting intrinsic rewards. For each step to have the maximum motivational effect, certain conditions need to be met. For instance, in step one (goal setting), difficult, but moderate goals need to be considered when goals are set.

a. Goal setting

In pursuit of attaining organisational goals and objectives high achievers tend to avoid both low-risk and high-risk situations. That means that they prefer to set goals that are moderately difficult, but potentially achievable (challenging, but realistic goals). They avoid low-risk situations because easily attained success is not a genuine achievement. In other words, the goals have to be challenging enough so that the person can feel a sense of mastery and achievement (Chindanya, 2002:42; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001:197). In high-risk projects, achievers see success as the outcome of chance rather than of one's own effort. They prefer work that has a moderate probability of success, ideally a 50% chance.

However, the goals also have to be realistic as the person believes that when a goal is unrealistic; its achievement is dependent on chance rather than personal skill or contribution (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002:194). This type of person prefers to work alone or with other high achievers. High achievers, in contrast to low achievers, constantly compete with a predetermined standard of excellence, rather than with others.

b. Taking action

According to McClelland, high achievers tend to translate their thinking (set goals) into action. They are not day-dreamers; hence they place great demands on themselves. In short, they are persistent, realistic and are hopeful about the likelihood of success. Confirming the theory, Kreitner and Kinicki (2001:197) state that high achievers prefer situations in which their performance is due to their own efforts, rather than to other factors like chance and luck. In other words, they delight in taking personal responsibility for finding solutions to problems and they perform at their best when faced by challenges.

c. Concrete feedback

Unlike low achievers who prefer generalised and subjective feedback, high achievers need concrete, objective and job-relevant feedback in order to monitor the progress of their performance (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002:195). They are not interested in comments about their personal characteristics such as how cooperative or helpful they are, but need job relevant feedback. In other words, they prefer feedback which is reliable, quantifiable and factual (Chindanya, 2002:42). This will provide them with an opportunity to seek improvement and ways of doing things better.

d. Intrinsic rewards

Unlike low achievers, high achievers are more interested in intrinsic and psychological rewards rather than material benefits like praise, money, status and security. Pintrich and Schunk (2002:194) have correctly observed that high achievers do not need praise or recognition; the achievement of a task on its own is their reward. In fact, they are intrinsically motivated. To them, the achievement of job-oriented tasks is more important than material or financial rewards. This gives them a feeling of personal satisfaction and self-fulfilment. In fact, high achievers are interested in job advancement and a sense of personal accomplishment as their preferred rewards (Chindanya, 2002:42; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001:197). This is because high achievers spend more time thinking on how to do their job better. This kind of rewards enhances their pro-activity and makes them more productive.

2.3.2.2. Limitations of the achievement motivation theory

The most fundamental limitation of the theory is that it is too simplistic and rationalistic. Its overemphasis on linearity (goal-action-feedback-rewards; cf.

section 2.3.2.1; figure 2.3) is misleading and does not really account for how humans actually behave.

Again, the theory does not consider the role played by moderators, especially self-efficacy, in facilitating motivation process. It creates an impression that all individuals are the same. It overlooks the uniqueness of each individual (Locke & Latham, 2002:708). In short, an individual needs to believe that he or she is capable of completing a task in order to boost his or her self-efficacy.

2.3.2.3. Implications of the achievement motivation theory

In the course of discussing the theory, a number of implications emerged concerning motivation of principals. Firstly, as illustrated in Figure 2.3 above, principals should set challenging, but realistic goals to enhance their need for achievement (high achievers). As observed by Locke and Latham (2002:705) and Pintrich and Schunk (2002:194), that might provide a clear standard of excellence and success. Secondly, principals should translate their thinking (goal setting) into action and should take full personal responsibility in ensuring that the task strategies are executed (cf. section 2.3.2.1.b). In the course of doing that, principals should show high levels of persistence, commitment, resilience and determination.

Thirdly, the theory implies that principals should rely on regular concrete, factual and job-relevant feedback, rather than subjective feedback in order to monitor the progress of their performance. As indicated by Chindanya (2002:42) and Pintrich and Schunk (2002:195), that might provide an opportunity to seek improvements and better ways of doing things. Lastly, principals need to be highly interested in intrinsic and psychological rewards rather than material benefits like money, status, praise, and security (cf. section 2.3.2.1.d).

Having discussed McClelland’s need achievement theory, the researcher will now move on to Locke’s goal setting theory in the next section.

2.3.3. Locke’s goal-setting theory

According to the theory developed by Edwin Locke in 1968, motivation (performance of a task) is determined by the way goals have been set in the workplace. As depicted in Figure 2.4 below, goal specificity and goal difficulty play crucial roles in influencing motivated behaviour (Locke & Latham, 2006:265).

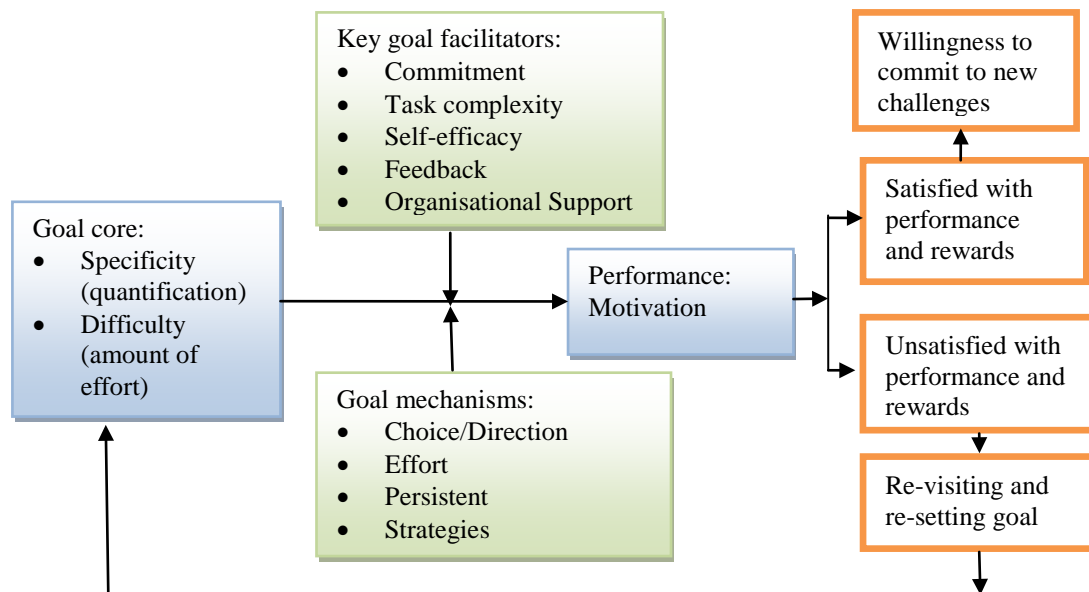


FIGURE 2.4: LOCKE’S GOAL SETTING THEORY (ADAPTED FROM LOCKE & LATHAM, 2002:714)

Figure 2.4 illustrates the process of motivation as a cycle. According to the model, motivation process comprises three steps: goal core, performance and job satisfaction. Figure 2.4 further indicates that should an individual feel unsatisfied, he or she revisits and re-sets the goals. Again, it indicates how goals influence motivation through goal mechanisms (direction, effort,

persistent and strategies). Lastly, the model shows examples of key moderators (commitment, task complexity, self-efficacy, feedback and organisational support) that strengthen the goal-performance relationship.

2.3.3.1. Basics of the goal-setting theory

In terms of this theory, a goal represents a cognitive representation of what is to be attained, which provides impetus and direction for an action. According to Locke and Latham (2002:709), it is an object or outcome to aim for and a standard for judging personal satisfaction. In addition, Brown, Jones and Leigh (2005:973) and Kreitner and Kinicki (2001:234) substantiate that the concept of a 'goal' is similar in meaning to the concepts of 'purpose,' 'intent,' 'objective,' a 'performance standard' 'work norm' or a 'task.' Basically, Edwin Locke (1968) argued that if an individual sets goals, he or she will be motivated to achieve those goals by virtue of having set them. Simply put, a motivated behaviour is determined by the setting of a goal.

a. Goal core: Specificity and difficulty

This theory posits that for goals to have the desired motivating effects, they must have two crucial characteristics: goal specificity and difficulty. In this context, 'specificity' refers to goals which are clear, measurable (quantifiable) and time-bound whereas 'difficulty' refers to goals that are challenging, attainable and realistic (Locke & Latham, 2006:264; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001:237). Locke states that goals which are more specific and concrete (for example, I want a 90% pass rate for grade 12 the this year) generate a higher level of motivation than vague and abstract goals (I want the grade 12 learners to pass well this year), and that goals that are challenging and hard to achieve are linearly and more positively connected to high performance than simple goals (Locke & Latham, 2006:265).

Supporting the theory, DeShon, Kozlowski, Schmidt, Milner and Wiechmann (2004:1041) clarify that goal specificity pertains to the “quantifiability of a goal” while goal difficulty is referred to as “the amount of effort required to realise a goal.” According to Locke and Latham (2002:708), when these two variables; goal specificity and goal difficulty, factor in a desired goal, an increased effort or action is made possible and result with a better work performance.

The studies conducted by Toffelson (2000:69) and Garudzo-Kusereka (2003:47) confirm that specific and high goals are indeed motivating because it requires one to attain more in order to be satisfied than in the case of low or easy goals. They further elaborate that feelings of success and well-being in the workplace occur to the extent that principals can see that they are able to grow and meet job challenges by pursuing and attaining goals that are important and meaningful to them (Garudzo-Kusereka, 2003:47; Toffelson, 2000:69).

DeShon *et al.* (2004:1041) also explain that “the more difficult the goal set, the higher the level of performance and the more specific the goal set, and the greater is its impact on subsequent performance.” All these affirm that when goals are specific and challenging, they do indeed function more effectively as motivating factors. That might enhance principals’ motivation, especially when feedback on their performance is also made available.

b. Goal mechanisms

As illustrated in Figure 2.5 below, the process of goal-setting affects motivated behaviour through four mechanisms: direct attention, regulated effort, increased persistence and fostered task strategies (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001:235). According to Locke and Latham (2002:707) and Yamagushi (2002:323), these mechanisms are simple manifestation of the motivated

behaviour. In short, they represent the characteristics and the manifestations of the motivated individual.

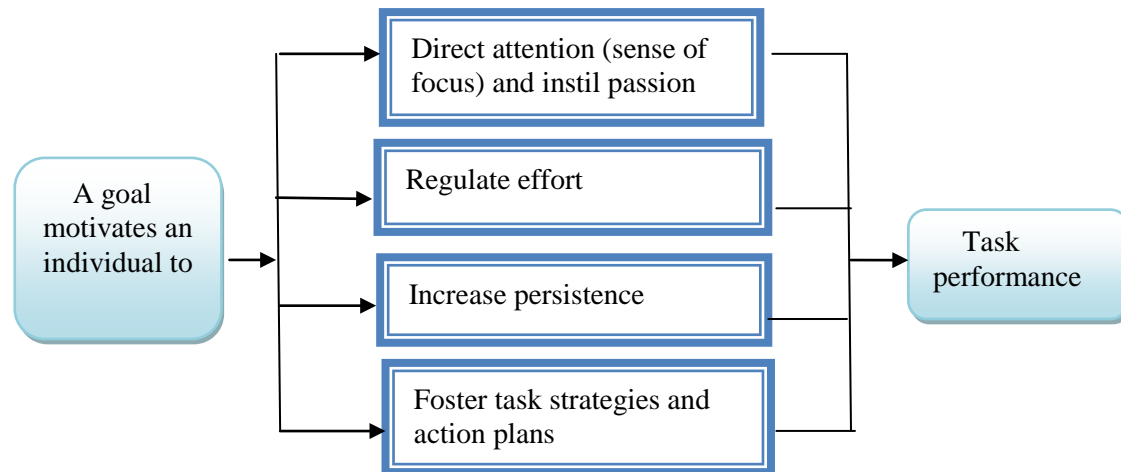


FIGURE 2.5: LOCKE’S MODEL OF GOAL MECHANISMS

(ADAPTED FROM KREITNER & KINICKI, 2001:235)

Figure 2.5 illustrates how a goal motivates an individual, which ultimately results in improved task performance. First, goals serve a directive function. They direct attention and effort towards goal-relevant activities and away from goal-irrelevant activities. Secondly, goals have an energising function, because the setting of a goal is a behaviour-stimulating act. According to Locke, “higher goals lead to greater effort than low goals.” Thirdly, goals have a positive effect on persistence. However, there is an inverse relationship between time and intensity. Lastly, goals subconsciously direct the person toward discovering better ways of doing things, whether they are calculations or physical acts (Locke & Latham, 2002:707; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001:235).

c. Strategies to enhance goal mechanisms

As illustrated in Figure 2.5 above, both personal and organisational facilitators (moderators or mediators) need to be satisfied in order to strengthen the goal -

performance relationship, that is, for the goal to have the desired motivational effect. At a personal level, an individual must accept the goal (goal acceptance), be wholly committed to it (goal commitment) and possess self-efficacy. Concurring with the theory, Locke and Latham (2002:708) elaborate that an individual must believe him- or herself capable of completing the task in order to boost his or her self-efficacy.

This theory further posits that for goals to be effective, organisational facilitators such as feedback, task complexity and support are critical. Locke and Latham (2002:708) maintain that people need regular summary feedback that reveals progress in relations to their goal. If they do not know how they are doing, it is difficult or impossible for them to adjust the level or direction of their effort or adjust performance strategies of what the goal requires.

Task complexity also moderates the effects of goals because more complex goals require the review of more complex strategies than lower difficult goals. Lastly, more complex goals require proximal goals rather than singular and distal goals. Basically, complex goals should be broken down into several simpler goals. The setting of proximal goals also promotes progress feedback (Locke & Latham, 2002:708).

It is within this context that Diefendorff and Lord (2003:369) and Locke and Latham (2006:265) concur with the theory by stating that as long as principals accept goals, commit themselves to them, possess the necessary self-efficacy and have sufficient organisational support, there is a positive linear relationship between goal specificity, goal difficulty and task performance.

Lastly, the theory indicates that effective performance leads to desired rewards, extrinsic and intrinsic, which further influence satisfaction. On this score, Diefendorff and Lord (2003:371) contend that rewards play an important role in determining subsequent task performance by encouraging principals to set

higher goals or increasing their commitment to the task. Again, they stress that the satisfaction of principals with these rewards may affect their commitment to similar goals in future.

2.3.3.2. Limitations of the goal-setting theory

Firstly, the theory does not take the personality traits into consideration. On this score, Kreitner and Kinicki (2001:131) stress that individuals are unique and respond differently to differing situations. In other words, some principals may not be motivated by specific and difficult goals but by simple ones. Agreeing with the view, Toffelson (2000:70) emphasises that under certain circumstances specific and difficult goals do not lead to better performance. The view is supported by DeShon *et al.* (2004:1043) when they postulate that sometimes assigning hard goals might not be effective when principals view such goals as threatening.

Secondly, sometimes an individual might have several goals, some of which may be in direct conflict with each other, or even conflicting with that of the school. When this occurs, performance of the tasks in hand might be compromised. It is for this reason that Locke and Latham (2002:712) suggest that goals need to be aligned in mitigating the detrimental effect of such possible conflict.

Lastly, the other serious shortcoming is that the theory does not clarify how goal acceptance, goal difficulty and other variables combine to determine effort. Therefore, the theory fails to provide a satisfactory answer to this effect. According to Brown *et al.*, (2005:973), the concepts of 'goal commitment' and 'goal acceptance' have not been studied as thoroughly as goal specificity and not enough is known about the relative importance of the various determinants of goal commitment and acceptance.

2.3.3.3. Implications of the goal-setting theory

Although the model exhibits a number of limitations, numerous implications emerged for the motivation of principals. Firstly, principals should set specific and difficult goals in order to generate and sustain their motivation (performance on a task). As stressed by Locke and Latham (2006:269), goals provide a framework for monitoring, feedback and serve as an important motivational tool. Furthermore, as stated in section 2.4.3.1 c (cf. Figure 2.5), specific and difficult goals affect task performance (motivation) by increasing a sense of focus, regulating effort, increasing persistence and fostering task strategies (Locke & Latham, 2002:706).

Secondly, principals should take into cognisance that the goal-setting process alone, irrespective of how well goals could have been crafted, is insufficient to yield the desired motivational effect. As illustrated in Figure 2.4, principals should also apply intrinsic moderators, particularly self-efficacy and goal commitment. On this subject, Diefendorff and Lord (2003:369) and Locke and Latham (2006:265) have already pointed out that as long as principals accept goals, commit themselves to them, have the necessary self-efficacy and sufficient organisational support, there is a positive linear relationship between goal specificity, goal difficulty and task performance.

Having analysed Locke's goal setting theory, the researcher will now explore and discuss Vroom's expectancy theory in the next section.

2.3.4. Vroom's expectancy theory

The theory developed by Victor Vroom in 1964, hypothesises that human motivation (performance of a task) is primarily determined by valence, coupled with the combination of two core factors: expectancy and instrumentality (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001:230; Locke & Latham, 2002:706; Painter, 2000:1). It

is for this reason that the theory is also termed the valence-expectancy-instrumentality theory. As depicted in Figure 2.6 below, the motivation process is further strengthened by both intrinsic (self efficacy and locus of control) and extrinsic (supervision, resources and information) factors.

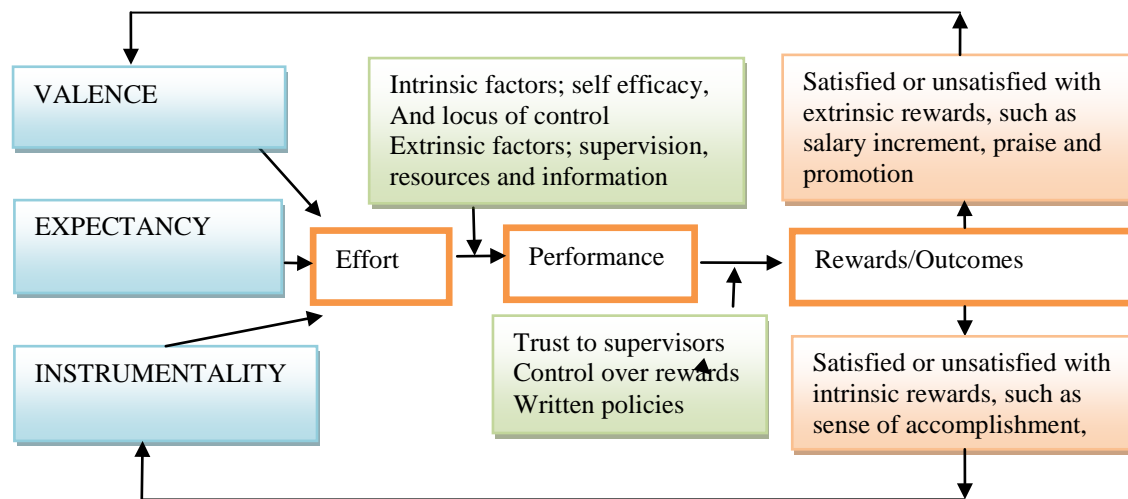


FIGURE 2.6: VROOM’S EXPECTANCY THEORY (ADAPTED FROM STEERS & PORTER, 1983:75)

Figure 2.6 depicts the process of motivation as a cycle. It starts with a perception of valued rewards (the valence), expectancy (perception of efforts) and then proceeds to instrumentality (perception of performance). The model further shows that should an individual feel unsatisfied with the rewards; be they intrinsic or extrinsic, he or she will revisit valence, expectancy or instrumentality. Moderating factors (intrinsic and extrinsic) play a crucial role in strengthening and maintaining the effort-performance relationship or performance-rewards relationship.

2.3.4.1. The basics of the expectancy theory

In this theory, perception (attitudes and beliefs) plays a central role because it emphasises the cognitive ability to anticipate the likely consequences of behaviour (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001:228). Simply put, the ability of an

individual to perceive possibilities and opportunities before a task is performed, is a motivating factor. As indicated in section 2.3.4 and also illustrated in Figure 2.6 above, human motivation is determined by the combination of the three factors of valence (perception of the desired/valued reward), expectancy (perception of effort) and instrumentality (perception of performance) which are in a linear order. In short, the theory argues that if one expects a positive and desirable reward, one will usually work hard to perform at the expected level. In this regard, Painter (2000:3) declares that “... individuals are motivated to engage in a particular behaviour when they value the outcome of the task and they believe that performing such a task will produce the desired result.” The exact impact of how each factor impact on another will be indicated below.

a. Valence: Reward-goal relationship

This represents the first stage of the theory. It refers to the positive or negative value (emotional orientation) an individual attaches to the desired rewards. To put it simply; it expresses how deeply an individual desires the reward (Locke & Latham, 2002:706; Painter, 2000:1). In terms of Kreitner and Kinicki (2001:230), it is an attractiveness of the desired reward to the individual, not necessary the achieved reward. In fact, a positive valence indicates the individual’s preference for getting such a reward as opposed to a negative valence.

b. Expectancy: Effort-performance relationship

This represents the second stage of the theory. Expectancy represents a cognitive assessment of “effort-performance” relationship. During this stage, an individual will evaluate the likelihood and probability that exerting improved effort might actually result in better performance. High expectancy

will lead to taking an action, while low expectancy will lead to less or no effort being taken (Toffelson, 2000:65).

As illustrated in Figure 2.6 above, the expectancy stage is heavily influenced by both intrinsic and contextual factors. In this case, intrinsic factors include self-efficacy and the locus of control whereas contextual factors involve supervision, resources and information. Supporting this theory Painter (2000:3) states that effort alone is insufficient to maximise effective performance; hence agreeing that other factors such as personal abilities, skills and role perceptions do contribute to the effective performance of a particular task.

c. Instrumentality: Performance-outcome relationship

This is the third stage of the theory, which represents cognitive evaluation of “performance-outcome” relationship. It refers to the belief that an individual will receive a reward if the expected performance is achieved. During this phase, an individual will consciously or unconsciously assess the probability that achieving the required performance level will actually result in the attainment of the desired outcome, which could either be extrinsic or intrinsic rewards. As illustrated in Figure 2.6 above, this stage is influenced by factors like an individual’s trust in their superiors, an individual’s control over the distribution of rewards and formalised written policies.

2.3.4.2. Limitations of the expectancy theory

In the course of discussing the theory, the researcher discovered two critical limitations. Firstly, the researcher agrees with other critics (Garudzo-Kusereka, 2003:45; Humphreys & Einstein, 2004:61) that the theory is too simplistic in nature and deceptive. Its overemphasis on linearity (valence-effort-performance) and rationality is deceptive in that not all individuals have the

capacity to calculate the probability and values nor do they always select the best alternative when deciding how to act (Garudzo-Kusereka, 2003:45).

Secondly, the theory is difficult to test. On this score, Chindanya (2002:47) and Garudzo-Kusereka (2003:45) and Kreitner and Kinicki (2001:232) point out that some researchers who have tested the model have found some difficulty with its application. So, in short, the theory has proved to be very difficult to be put into practice.

2.3.4.3. Implications of the expectancy theory

Although the theory exhibits numerous limitations, some number of implications emerged for the motivation of principals. Firstly, principals should translate desired goals into their value system (positive valence) in order to have maximum motivational effects. As illustrated in Figure 2.6 (cf. section 2.3.4.1.a) above, the theory might assist in generating and sustaining a deeper sense of interest, enthusiasm and passion for the set goal. Secondly, the theory implies that principals should have optimistic perceptions of the anticipated efforts and performance needed to get the desired reward. In other words, the theory enables one to see possibilities and opportunities (cf. section 2.3.4.1.b). Toffelson (2000:63) contends that principals' actions will always be influenced by their reasonable anticipation that their efforts will lead to the desired outcomes.

Thirdly, moderators play a critical role in facilitating effort (cf. section 2.3.4.1.b) and performance (cf. section 2.3.4.1.b) which principals should always keep in consideration. As illustrated in Figure 2.6, intrinsic moderators, particularly self-efficacy and the locus of control, together with extrinsic moderators, especially information and written policies, are key factors regarding facilitating motivated behaviour (Humphreys & Einstein, 2004:60; Maxwell, 2006:20).

Lastly, this theory encourages principals to strive for the attainment of intrinsic rewards, rather than extrinsic rewards. In other words, they should do their tasks with the view to personal growth, be proud of their work and seek personal fulfilment (cf. section 2.3.4.1.c). This kind of approach might generate and sustain their motivation, which will ultimately improve their task performance.

Having explored Vroom's expectancy theory, the researcher will now focus on Adam's equity theory in the following section.

2.3.5. Adam's equity theory

According to John Stacey Adams (1963, as cited by Chindanya, 2002:52; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001:223; Yamaguchi, 2002:325), motivation is determined by an individual's perception of fairness or unfairness in the awarding of rewards compared to what others have received. This theory is premised on the fact that inequity (perceived unfairness) causes psychological discomfort, which in turn, motivates the taking of the corrective action; whereas equity (perceived fairness) causes the psychological comfort (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001:223).

2.3.5.1. Basics of the equity theory

As illustrated in Table 2.1 below, the perception of fairness (equity) or unfairness (inequity) in relation to others plays a crucial role in influencing the motivated behaviour of principals within the education system. In short, the theory suggests that a person's motivation arises out of his or her simple desire to be treated fairly (Yamaguchi, 2002:324). As shown in Table 2.1 below, the theory is based on a ratio consisting of inputs to outputs/outcomes compared to those of others.

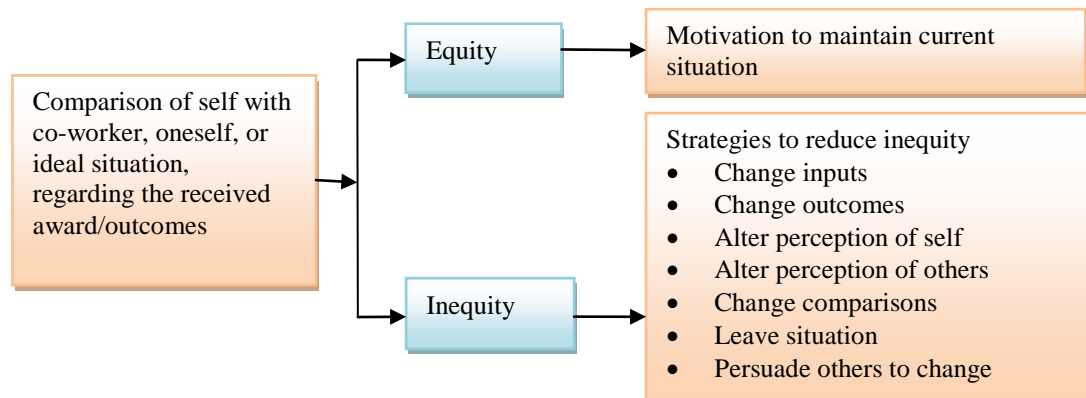
**TABLE 2.1: FACTORS INFLUENCING ADAM'S EQUITY THEORY
(ADAPTED FROM VAN FLEET *ET AL.* 1991:66)**

Comparison with other (person or standard that individual's input/output ratio is compared to)	Inputs (anything of value that an individual bring or contributed to the job)	Outputs/outcomes (benefits that an individual is awarded or receiving from the job)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Co-worker • Oneself in past experience • Ideal situation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Experience • Effort • Skill • Qualifications • Performance • Loyalty • Commitments • Personal sacrifice • Tolerance • Integrity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Salary increment • Promotion • Benefits and bonus • Security • Responsibility • Recognition • Praise • Enjoyment • Sense of achievement

Table 2.1 depicts the equity theory in terms of the three key terms on which it is built, namely, comparison with the other, inputs and outputs. According to this table, equity is present when an individual feels that he or she receives the appropriate amount of outputs from inputs, when compared to their chosen comparison other. In contrast, inequity exists when there is a perceived difference in the ratio of inputs and outputs (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001:223).

Within the school setting, Chindanya (2002:52) highlights that principals will always compare themselves with their colleagues in relation to how the department provides them with resources. Therefore, motivation is primarily

influenced by any perception of inequity as one is forced to restore equity, as illustrated in Figure 2.7 below.



**FIGURE 2.7: RESPONSES TO ADAM’S EQUITY AND INEQUITY
(ADAPTED FROM VAN FLEET *ET AL.* 1991:66)**

Figure 2.7 depicts how people feel when experiencing equity or inequity. Moreover, the model shows how they respond when feeling equity or inequity. According to Adams, individuals who perceive inequity, in contrast to those perceiving equity, develop a great sense of psychological imbalance, tension and distress. This encourages them to work harder in order to decrease such tensions and distress by choosing from several strategies for reducing inequity and restoring equity as shown in Figure 2.7 above (Chindanya, 2002:52; Yamaguchi, 2002:325).

According to this theory, if the outcome-to-input comparison leaves individuals with a feeling of equity, they will be motivated to maintain the current situation. However, if they are left with feelings of inequity, they will be motivated to reduce the inequity. To this effect, Garudzo-Kusereka (2003:44) concludes: “The stronger the person’s sense of unfairness, the stronger his or her motivation to do something about it.”

In terms of Yamaguchi (2002:324), it is also important to note that the extent to which inequity is experienced is not the same for all, but is likely to be lower in

more morally matured principals. Lastly, this theory concludes that where a feeling of inequity exists, the principal will use one or more of the following strategies as shown in Figure 2.7 in order to restore equity:

- They may strive to change work inputs, like reducing performance efforts.
- They may strive to change the rewards received, like asking for more.
- They may take action to alter the inputs or outcomes of others, for example, by discouraging colleagues from working hard because it is not worth it.
- They may try to change the comparison of themselves with other colleagues.
- Under extreme inequity, principals may try to request a transfer or simply resign from his or her position (Yamaguchi, 2002:324; Garudzo-Kusereka, 2003:44).

2.3.5.2. Limitations of the equity theory

In the course of discussing the theory, it has been noted that the assumptions and practical applications of equity theory are questionable. In this regard, the researcher joins other critics (Chindanya, 2002:52; Yamaguchi, 2002:324) in questioning the simplicity of the model. The argument here is that the model does not seem to consider the fact that a number of demographic and psychological variables affect people's perceptions of fairness and interactions with others.

Another critical challenge to the theory is its strong emphasis on the perception of external rewards such as promotion, praise, recognition, status, prestige and salary and their impact on motivated behaviour. As much as the researcher appreciates the importance of external rewards, the theory should have gone further to indicate how internal rewards also affect motivated behaviour.

Lastly, even subsequent studies conducted with the aim of validating the theory seem to have focussed only on the way the perception of pay equity affects the quality of work. The other key shortcoming of the theory is that the basis for the feelings of inequity is not only the choice of comparison with others, but the individual's own internal standards as to what constitutes, for example, an appropriate reward (Yamaguchi, 2002:324).

2.3.5.3. Implications of the equity theory

Although the theory exhibits several limitations, it has a number of critical implications for the motivation of principals. Firstly, principals should always respond positively when faced with challenges (perceived inequity/unfairness). For instance, principals need to resort to positive strategies such as “striving to change the rewards received” and “striving to change the comparison of oneself with co-workers” (cf. section 2.3.5.1; Figure 2.7), rather than simply embarking on negative and destructive strategies, particularly “striving to reduce one's inputs,” and “trying to request transfer or simply quitting the job.”

Secondly, the strategy to restore equity reveals the need to take personal responsibility for addressing the perceived problems. For instance, when principals feel that their work is not recognised, it would be quite relevant to request clarification in this regard, so that corrective action can be taken (cf. section 2.3.5.1).

Having discussed Adam's equity theory; the researcher will now move to Rotter's locus of control theory in the next section.

2.3.6. Rotter's locus of control theory

According to, Julian Rotter (1954, as quoted by Chen & Silverthorne, 2008:573; Shivers-Blackwell, 2006:31), motivation (performance of a task) is

determined by what he terms the “locus of control”, that is, a perceived location of control, which is either internal or external. The theory seeks to explain how an individual’s perceived reasons for past successes or failures contribute to his or her current and future behaviour (Shivers-Blackwell, 2006:31). In other words, the theory deals with how principals perceive and interpret their own successes and failures.

2.3.6.1. Basics of the locus of control theory

Expanding on the theory, Chen and Silverthorne (2008:573) explain that individuals have the tendency to locate their locus of control either internally (personal dispositions) or externally (situational variables). As illustrated in Figure 2.8 below, Rotter (1954) classifies people along the continuum ranging from the internal locus of control (internals) to the externals locus of control (externals).

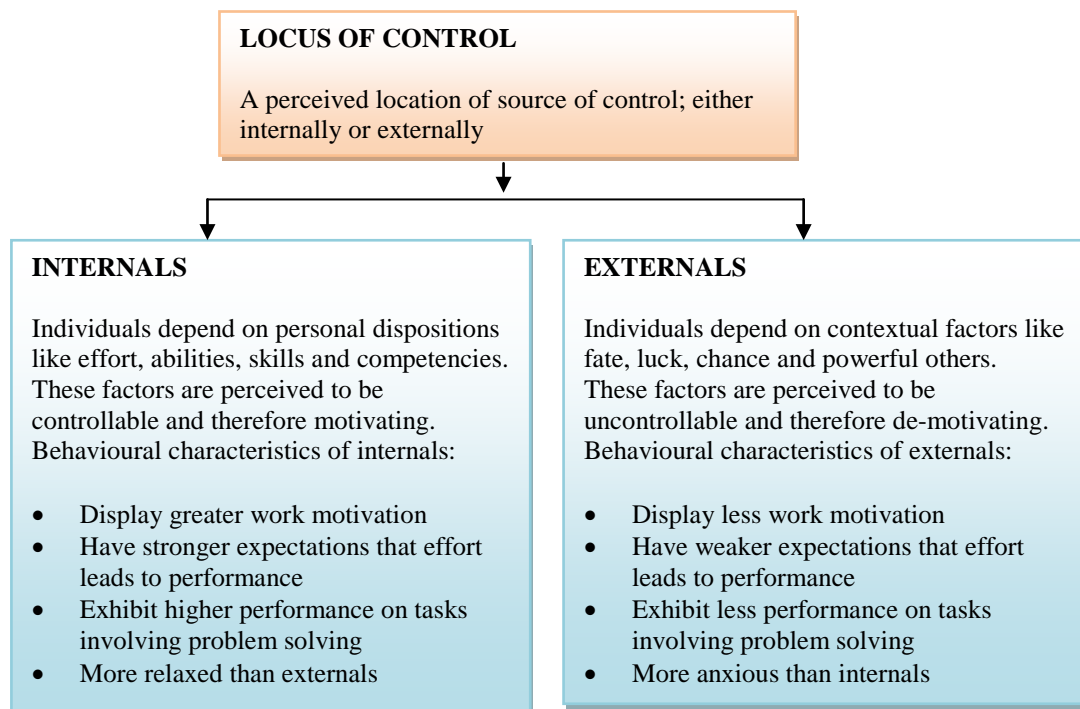


FIGURE 2.8: DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATIONS OF THE LOCUS OF CONTROL (ADAPTED FROM KREITNER & KINICKI, 2001:134)

As represented in Figure 2.8 above, internals are those people who attribute outcomes to personal and controllable factors like effort, competencies, abilities and skills, whereas externals are those people who attribute outcomes to situational and uncontrollable factors like fate, luck, chance, the difficulty of the task and powerful others (Graffeo & Silvestri, 2006:593; Kirkpatrick, Stant, Downes & Gaither, 2008:486). Therefore, internals, in contrast to externals, are highly motivated high achievers because they believe they are in control of their situations. As illustrated in Figure 2.8, internals, unlike externals, display greater work motivation, have stronger expectations regarding their efforts, deliver a better performance in tasks involving problem-solving and are more relaxed (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001:135).

Confirming the theory, Chen and Silverthorne (2008:573) and Shivers-Blackwell (2006:31) agree that individuals with a strong internal locus of control believe that the responsibility for whether or not they are reinforced ultimately lies with themselves. They further indicate that internals believe that success or failure is due to their own efforts. In contrast, externals believe that the re-enforcers in life are controlled by luck, chance or powerful others. Therefore, they see little impact on their own efforts on the account of the reinforcements they receive.

Moreover, Chen and Silverthorne (2008:573) substantiate that principals who are internals tend to attribute performance to their own abilities and effort. “They are the masters of their own fate and not simply lucky” (Chen & Silverthorne, 2008:573). Internals believe that hard work, foresight and responsible behaviour will lead to positive outcomes. In contrary, principals who are externals believe that their performance is the product of luck, fate and other uncontrollable outside forces or circumstances beyond their own control.

Moreover, Kirkpatrick *et al.* (2008:487) insist that internals believe that their actions have a positive impact on their outcomes while externals believe that

their actions do not have any impact on their outcomes. “Internally oriented principals exhibit greater confidence in their ability to influence the environment, exhibit more entrepreneurial qualities, are more capable in dealing with stressful situations, place greater reliance on open and supportive means of influence, pursue riskier and more innovative company strategies, and generate higher group and company performance than do externally oriented managers” (Shivers-Blackwell, 2006:31).

2.3.6.2. Limitations of the locus of control theory

In the course of discussing the model, the researcher identified several crucial limitations. Firstly, the model is too simplistic. This suggests that the mere fact that an individual is an ‘internal’ will automatically become motivated. In terms of Shivers-Blackwell (2006:38), this is not always true. Secondly, the model does not take personality traits into consideration. Kreitner and Kinicki (2001:131) stress that individuals are quite unique and respond differently to each situation. Therefore, the model creates the false impression that individuals can only be categorised as internals or externals. In reality, there are people who are quite neutral.

Thirdly, the theory does not acknowledge the role of moderators in facilitating motivation. In practice, the motivational effects of the internal locus of control are enhanced by factors such as personal competency, values, intelligence, emotions and organisational support. Because of this omission, a false impression is created suggesting that moderating factors are less important than the locus of control.

2.3.6.3. Implications of the locus of control theory

Though the theory exhibits some number of limitations, numerous implications emerged for the motivation of principals. Though locus of control is more of a

personality than an attitude (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001:134), principals should strive to acquire an internal locus of control in order to remain motivated (cf. section 2.3.6.1). As illustrated in Figure 2.8 above, individuals with an internal locus of control, unlike externals, are highly motivated because they depend on controllable factors such as effort, abilities, skills and competencies.

Secondly, the theory further implies that principals need to understand their own personalities properly; in terms of whether they are internals or externals. Based on the merit of being an internal, principals should always ensure that they maintain a positive attitude or belief in themselves and others, which in turn, according to Shivers-Blackwell (2006:31) and Kirkpatrick *et al* (2008:486) will improve their schools' performance.

In short, the above discussion confirms that, despite the criticism levelled at this theory, it has unmistakably relevant implications in generating and sustaining motivated behaviour in principals.

Having explored and examined Rotter's locus of control theory; the researcher will now discuss Bandura's self-efficacy theory as shown in the following section.

2.3.7. Bandura's self-efficacy theory

According to the self-efficacy theory as developed by Albert Bandura (1986), human motivation (performance of a task) is determined by self-efficacy. In terms of this theory, self-efficacy refers to an individual's perception or belief in his or her capabilities, competencies, abilities and skills in organising and executing the course of action that is required to successfully perform a prospective task (Locke & Latham, 2006:265; Monroe, 2002:4; Pajares, 2002:7; Wood & Olivier, 2004:289). It is a specific dimension of self-esteem which Locke and Latham (2006:265) term "task-specific confidence" whereas

Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2004:573) call it the “self-perceived capability to perform the cognitive and the behavioural functions.”

2.3.7.1. Basics of the self-efficacy theory

Unlike Rotter’s locus of control theory (1954), Bandura self-efficacy theory (1986) is closely linked to the future expectations and outcomes which Bandura regards as the most critical determinants of how people think, behave and feel. Similarly, Wood and Olivier (2004:289) elaborated that one’s sense of self-efficacy plays a major role in how managers approaches goals, tasks and challenges in the work environment.

As shown in Figure 2.9 below, self-efficacy ranges across a continuum from high to low, in other words, it ranges from high efficacious to low efficacious individuals (Awang-Hashim, O’Neil Jr & Hocevar, 2002:343; Locke & Latham, 2006:573).

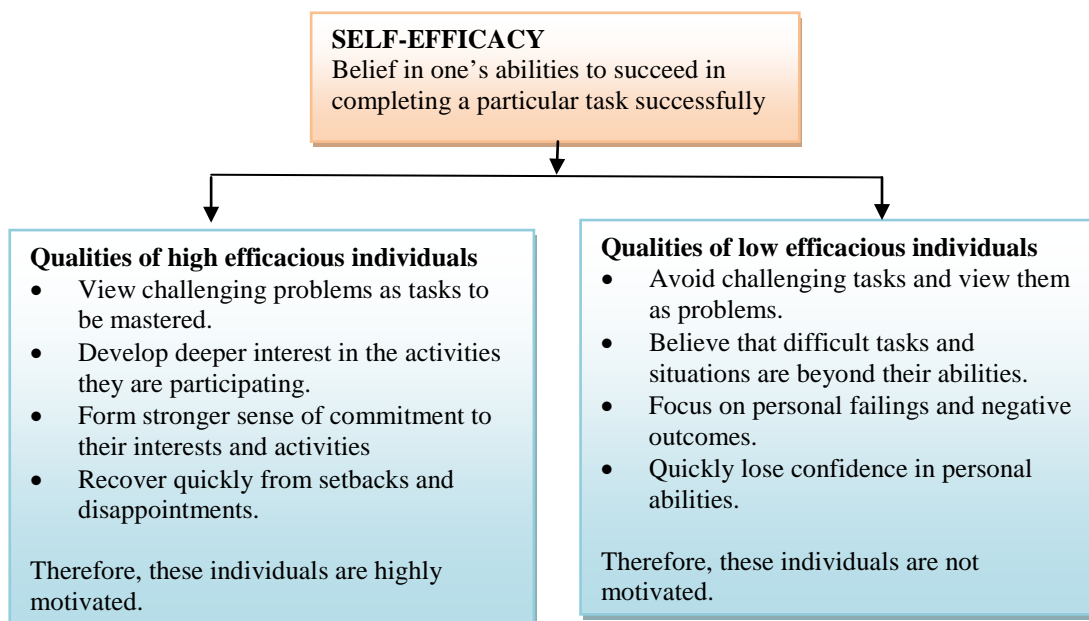


FIGURE 2.9: DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATIONS OF SELF-EFFICACIOUS INDIVIDUALS (ADAPTED FROM LOCKE & LATHAM, 2006:573)

Figure 2.9 depicts the qualities of self-efficacious individuals. Such individuals are highly motivated, that is, optimistic with a deeper sense of interest, a high level of commitment and resilience. In contrast, low self-efficacious individuals are not motivated. In other words, they are pessimistic, disinterested with a low level of commitment and they lack resilience. These extremes reflect how beliefs of self-efficacy affect individuals' motivation when expected to execute a particular task

a. How self-efficacy affects motivation

As illustrated above (cf. Figure 2.9), high self-efficacious individuals are highly motivated to perform given tasks, whereas low self-efficacious individuals are not motivated enough to carry out a task. Accordingly, high self-efficacious people are more likely to make more of an effort and persist longer than those with low self-efficacy (Locke & Latham, 2006:266).

Confirming the theory, Awang-Hashim *et al.* (2002:343) assert that high efficacious principals are likely to initiate tasks, sustain perseverant effort and persist longer despite any problems encountered. This is further highlighted by both Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2004:574) and Woods and Olivier (2004:290) who state that high efficacious principals have been found to be persistent and steadfast in pursuing their goals, but are also more flexible and more willing to adapt strategies in order to deal with the contextual factors.

In contrast, Luthans and Peterson (2002:377) assert that low efficacious principals have been found to experience an inability to control their environment and tend to be less likely to identify appropriate strategies or modify unsuccessful ones. Additionally, Awang-Hashim *et al.* (2002: 341) put it quite clearly that “low efficacious individuals tend to have negative perceptions of their capability and may choose to invest less effort or shy away from task altogether.” Furthermore, Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2004:574)

indicate that when confronted with failure, low efficacious principals persist rigidly in their original course of action and keep on blaming others. They are also quicker to call themselves failures and demonstrate anxiety and frustration.

b. Strategies to enhance self-efficacy

According to this theory, before performing any task, individuals will engage consciously or subconsciously in a cognitive evaluative process, which Wood and Olivier (2004:289) term “cognitive appraisal.” As shown in Figure 2.10 below, this process comprises of four factors; which are mastery experience, vicarious experience, modelling and the physiological states (Pajares, 2002:7; Wood & Olivier, 2004:289; Locke & Latham, 2006:573).

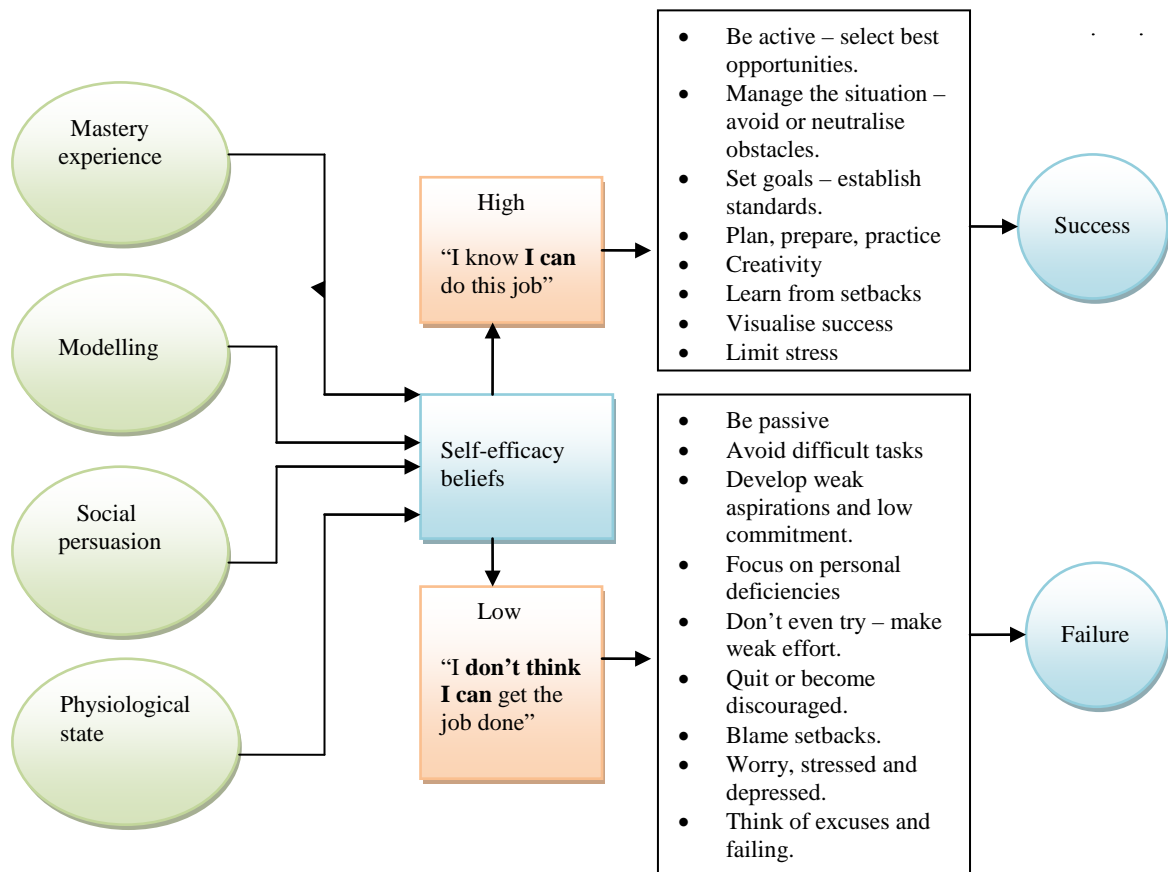


FIGURE 2.10: BANDURA’S SELF-EFFICACY THEORY (ADAPTED FROM KREITNER & KINICKI, 2001:128)

Figure 2.10 depicts four ways/factors in which self-efficacy is developed and enhanced: mastery experience, modelling, social persuasion and the physiological state. A positive response to such factors results in self-efficacy whereas negative response results with low self-efficacy. Figure 2.10 further indicates that high self-efficacious individuals engage in positive activities that result in success, while low self-efficacious individuals engage with negative activities resulting in failure.

1. Mastery experience

Prior to engaging in any challenging task, an individual would assess his or her prior personal experience and his or her performance in similar tasks. Past successes will boost self-efficacy while poor performance will lower it.

2. Social modelling

Social modelling is the process of comparison between oneself and someone else. When people see someone succeeding at something, their self-efficacy will increase and where they see people failing, their self-efficacy will decrease. This process is more effectual when a person sees himself or herself as similar to the role-model. Their performance will either bolster or weaken their sense of self-efficacy.

3. Social persuasion

Social persuasion relates to encouragement or discouragement by colleagues and friends. This can have a strong influence on the individual. Confirming the theory, Pajares (2002:8) points out that, “social persuasion takes the form of feedback from others and its influence is greater when an individual views the persuader as someone who is credible, trustworthy and possesses expertise.”

Simply put, positive comments increase self-efficacy while negative comments decrease it.

4. Psychological responses

In unusual, stressful situations, people commonly exhibit signs of distress, aches and pains, fatigue, fear and nausea. A person's perception of these responses can markedly alter a person's self-efficacy. If a person gets "butterflies in the stomach" before executing a task, for instance with regard to public speaking, low self-efficacious individuals may take this as a sign of their inability, thus decreasing their own self-efficacy further.

In contrast, high self-efficacious individuals are likely to perceive and interpret such physiological signs as normal and unrelated to their ability. According to Monroe (2002:5), a higher pulse rate and feelings of anxiety will be interpreted as being incapable and this will lower self-efficacy, while a lower pulse rate and feelings of excitement will be interpreted as being capable and that will raise self-efficacy.

2.3.7.2. Limitations of the self-efficacy theory

In the course of discussing the model, several limitations were identified and discussed. Firstly, the model (cf. Figure 2.10) does not acknowledge the role played by moderating factors, particularly intelligence, emotions and organisational support, in motivation (task performance). Consequently, a false impression is created that being high self-efficacious would automatically lead to better performance.

Secondly, the model is too simplistic and deceptive in that principals might believe that all high self-efficacious individuals are more flexible and more willing to work with others (cf. section 2.3.7.1). In contrast, experience has

shown that some high self-efficacious principals are sometimes egoistic, arrogant, boastful and sometimes aggressive in the presence others, especially their teaching staff (Awang-Hashim *et al.*, 2002: 341).

2.3.7.3. Implications of the self-efficacy theory

Although the theory exhibits several limitations, numerous implications emerged for the motivation of principals. Firstly, principals should always strive to be high self-efficacious in order to remain motivated (cf. section 2.3.7.1). Since high self-efficacy is an attitude or belief with regard to a particular task, principals should be conscious of the fact that it can be acquired. Importantly, Kreitner and Kinicki (2001:136) stress that a high self-efficacious tendency is not an inborn or inherent characteristic, but a learned quality (cf. section 2.3.7.1).

Secondly, principals should evaluate themselves positively in terms of each of the four strategies (cf. section 2.3.7.1.a; Figure 2.10). According to Woods and Olivier (2004:289), that might boost and enhance their self-efficacy. As illustrated by Figure 2.10 above, it is critical that principals should develop and keep an “I can” attitude in order to create positive behavioural patterns at all times (cf. section 2.3.7.1).

Having discussed all the cognitive theories of motivation; particularly in terms of their basic attributes and underlying principles, their limitations and their implications, the researcher will now proceed to the conclusion of this chapter.

2.4. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this chapter, the dominant cognitive theories of motivation - Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory, McClelland’s manifest need theory, Vroom’s expectancy theory, Locke’s goal setting theory, Adam’s equity theory,

Bandura's self-efficacy theory and Rotter's locus of control theory - were identified and discussed. That was done in order to respond to the research question indicated in section 1.3 (chapter 1) and 2.1 (chapter 2) above. In the process, it became clear that such theories are in many ways complementary.

The chapter commenced with a detailed explanation of the concept of motivation using a variety of sources. Secondly, four key theoretical approaches to motivation - psychoanalysis, behaviourism, humanism, and cognitive approach - were identified and briefly explained. Lastly, the basics, limitations and managerial implications of each dominant cognitive theory of motivation were explored and explained thoroughly with the help of figures and tables.

In the next chapter, the researcher will further explore literature review regarding roles and responsibilities of principals.

CHAPTER 3: ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF PRINCIPALS

3.1. INTRODUCTION

In chapter 2, the dominant cognitive theories of motivation, which provided the conceptual framework of this chapter, were identified and discussed. Briefly, such theories assumed that the application of cognitive processes (perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, expectations, values, and needs) could enhance motivational behaviour; that is, increasing the focus of the individual as well as improving effort and performance that result with greater job satisfaction (Locke & Latham, 2002; Yamaguchi, 2002:323; Rouse, 2004:27; Shivers & Blackwell, 2006:30; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002:66).

In this chapter, leadership and management roles will be discussed. Both international (Belle, 2007:69; Bush, 2007:392; Spillane, 2009:70) and South African studies (Moloi, 2007:470; Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:76; Van der Westhuizen & Van Vuuren, 2007:440) concur that effective performance of leadership and management roles do promote school performance. Substantiating this view, Bush (2007:392), from the United States of America, argues that globally there is pressure on schools to exhibit strong leadership and effective management if they are to be perceived providing the best possible quality education for their learners. Further, Spillane (2009:70), from the United Kingdom, stressed that indeed the effective exercising of both leadership and management roles do make a difference in increasing school productivity.

Similarly, here in South Africa, the introduction of an Advanced Certificate in Education (ACE) for principals, according to Heystek (2007:500), Moloi (2007:470) and Van der Westhuizen and Van Vuuren (2007:440) attests to the crucial role to be played by strong leadership and effective management in the improvement of learner achievement. In fact, such initiatives, according to Van

der Westhuizen and Van Vuuren (2007:440), are basically a response to the general lack of capacity by South African principals. This is confirmed by a recent case study conducted by Bush *et al.* (2009:6) at eight Limpopo and Mpumalanga schools where they found that “lack of vision, creativity, clear system for evaluation and monitoring, and weak grasp of curriculum” were key contributory factors to poor school performance regarding the academic performance of schools in the Mpumalanga Province (cf. tables 1.1; 1.2; 1.3).

3.2. LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

On a number of occasions, principals find it confusing as are sometimes expected to exercise strong leadership, while in some other cases required to show effective management. Because of such confusion, some end up using the two terms interchangeably (Clarke, 2007:1; Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:68). Though the roles of leader and manager are mutually exclusive, they complement each other. Similarly, Bush (2007:392) makes a distinction between leadership and management, but says they need to be given prominence if schools are to operate effectively and achieve their goals.

Regarding the difference between a leader and a manager, Team-Technology (2003:1) points out that leadership entails setting a new direction or vision for others to follow, whereas Bush (2007:403) postulates that leadership can be understood as a process of influence based on clear values and beliefs, while management entails the controlling and directing of educators according to pre-established principles and values. In other words, leadership is about creating a system, whereas management is about operational efficiency and effectiveness of the system.

Further, Ambler (2008:2), Bobinski (2004:2) and Clarke (2007:1) concur that leaders have a long-range view while managers have a short-range view of their schools. They characterise leaders as people who look outward and to the

future, while managers look inward and to the present. For leaders, success is derived from future-focussed change while for managers; success is derived from improved systems of control, predictability and order (Belle, 2007:64; Clarke, 2007:1). In other words, leaders are original, innovative, and strategic thinkers, hence their courage to challenge the *status quo* and visualise where their schools should be in the long term (Ambler, 2008:2).

Additionally, Bobinski (2004:2) elaborated that leadership is about “doing the right thing whereas management is about doing things right”. Simply put, doing the right thing implies that principals are expected to decide the best course of action by asking themselves questions such as: “What direction or course of action should we take?” “What are the things we should be doing to get us where we want to go?” “Where do we want to be in the end?” According to Bobinski (2004:3), the process of management will soon commence once these questions have been honestly responded to by principals.

Similarly, Belle (2007:64) stresses that leadership deals with motivating and inspiring educators as well as establishing positive working relationships with the broader community. Therefore, this implies that principals need to establish a clear direction for their schools, decide on the clear strategic plans, motivate and inspire all the stakeholders and persist until their visions are realised (Botha, 2004:241; Khuzwayo, 2008:96; Mills, 2005:10).

Here in South Africa, the management role of principals, according to the document, Duties and Responsibilities of Educators (1998) [not yet amended], is associated with terms like “instructing,” “recording,” “efficiency,” “organising,” “paperwork,” “procedures,” “regulations” and “control.” The policy (Duties and Responsibilities of Educators, 1998) goes further to show that management also includes practices like budgeting, maintenance of the school building and grounds, and complying with educational policies and acts. Clarke (2007:4) substantiates that principals, in the course of discharging their

managerial roles, are expected to plan, organise, direct and control in order to create effective schools.

However, Team Technology (2003:1) cautions that principals should give equal importance to the two roles because ignoring one might result in mediocrity, which could eventually lead to their downfall. This is because either leadership or management alone, though excellent, is not enough to produce desired outcomes. Therefore, strong leadership and good management are both essential and critical for learner achievement.

Having provided the distinction between leadership and management, the researcher will now discuss the responsibilities associated with each role as shown in the next sections (cf. section 3.3; section 3.4).

3.3. PRINCIPALS AS LEADERS

As indicated in the introduction above (cf. section 3.1), the provision of leadership is critical for the improved learner achievement. In the course of exercising such a role, consciously and pro-actively, principals are obliged to perform key responsibilities like establishing the school vision, developing strategic plans, communicating school visions and strategic plans, motivating and inspiring educators, and persisting to attain a school vision (Blasé & Blasé, 2004:133; Botha, 2004:241; Davidson, 2007:159; Hoy, 2008:495; Khuzwayo, 2008:96; Mills, 2005:10; Moloji, 2004:3; Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:71). In other words, it is an obligation to perform such responsibilities in order to promote learner achievement.

3.3.1. Establishing a school vision

Worldwide, most researchers agree that a fundamental step with regard to the provision of leadership in schools is the establishment of a school vision, which

should, in turn, be converted into a school mission and objectives (Athanasoula-Reppa & Lazaridou, 2008:65; Blasé & Blasé, 2004:133; Botha, 2004:241; Khuzwayo, 2008:96; Mills, 2005:10; Mthombeni, 2004:85). Expanding on the concept of a school vision, Clarke (2007:392) uses the term “visioning” for the process of establishing the direction that schools must take in response to the expectations of learners and parents. In South Africa, the South African Standards of Principalship (2005), guidelines by the Department of Education, direct principals in public schools to create a shared vision and mission statement for all stakeholders to follow in order to improve learner achievement.

Clarifying the concept further, Botha (2004:241) describes a vision as “...a blend of our experience from the past and our hopes and aspirations for the future; a statement of possibilities; a broad picture of where the school might be going.” Furthermore, Blasé and Blasé (2004:133) elaborate that a vision is a “waking dream” that serves as the basis for the day-to-day decision-making processes. These two definitions depict a vision as a definite and positive intention regarding the kind of learners that a school wishes to produce.

To ensure its achievability, Khuzwayo (2008:96) recommends that principals should convert their school vision into mission statements that are clear, concise and succinct written statements indicating the purpose of schools. Because they are concise, by their very nature, mission statements are able to guide principals, provide a sense of direction and guide their decision-making behaviour (Blasé & Blasé, 2004:134). In fact, the mission statement provides the framework or context within which the school’s strategies are to be formulated.

Regarding the impact of a school vision on learner achievement, both national (Khuzwayo, 2008:96; Moloi, 2004:3) and international studies (Athanasoula-Reppa & Lazaridou, 2008:65; Mills, 2005:10) concur that principals who

proactively establish and persistently implement school vision, make a positive impact on the improved learner performance. An investigation conducted by Mills (2005:10) in the USA confirms that indeed a clear school vision does make a significant contribution to school performance. He goes further by pointing out that the absence of a precise vision causes schools “to move slowly, stagnate, and lose their way” (Mills, 2005:10). Consistent with this view, Athanasoula-Reppa and Lazaridou (2008:65) contend that schools in Greece and Cyprus with a clear vision contribute significantly to higher learner achievement.

Here in South Africa, Botha (2004:242), Moloi (2004:3) and Hoadley, Christie, Jacklin and Ward (2007) also agree but elaborate that a clear school vision has a positive impact on the motivation of both educators and learners to work hard for the success of their schools. In support of the above, Mthombeni (2004:85) advances that to be effective leaders; principals need to have a personal vision focussing on higher learner achievement for their schools. Indeed, Khuzwayo (2008:96) substantiates that schools, which are improving with regard to learner achievement, have vision and mission statements that focus on curricular and instructional goals.

In the light of the above findings, it is clear that principals need to establish a clear and precise school vision that will have a positive impact on learner achievement. Having discussed the impact of a school vision on learner achievement, the researcher now feels it necessary to analyse the effects of strategic plans on school performance.

3.3.2. Developing a strategic plan

According to Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:71), the second responsibility of principals as leaders is the development of strategic plans. Shapiro (2003:3) describes a strategic plan as a broad framework that provides a bigger picture

of what is to be done and when to do it in relation to the attainment of an institutional vision. On average, it ranges from periods of three to five years. In turn, Garber (2006:2) defines a strategic plan as a long-term guide in which a school vision should be realised. It requires careful planning to set it up so that the process is thorough and comprehensive. That is why before it is drawn up, the principal needs to undertake a thorough situational analysis (Shapiro, 2003:9). Its basic elements, amongst others, include prioritised activities, delegated educators, allocated resources and time frames.

Concerning its impact, Garber (2006:2) contends that all principals should develop strategic plans because without them, schools' key stakeholders such as educators, learners, parents and the broader community would not know where their schools are heading. He elaborates that with a strategic plan, everyone works towards the same vision, trying to reach the same goals and build commitment to the schools. Similarly, Jaspardo (2006:5) substantiates that strategic plans effectively improve school performance, build teamwork and expertise and deal with a rapidly changing school environment. In fact, a strategic plan is a valuable tool that can be used to attain the school vision.

In South Africa, the Integrated Quality Management System [IQMS](2003), particularly Performance Standard 12, makes it obligatory for all public school principals to manage their schools through developing and implementing strategic plans with the intention of achieving the school goals. Such a stipulation further expects principals to update their strategic plans continuously with the participation of all the stakeholders. Furthermore, the document, the South African Standards for Principalship (2005) emphasises the importance of strategic plans by indicating that they shape and sustain school improvement. Considering the above, principals need to be careful to ensure that they are not too prescriptive or rigid in developing strategic plans, as there is always the danger that such plans would not be able to respond to and meet

the needs and demands imposed by the ever-changing external school environment.

Having identified the positive effects of the strategic plans on the improvement of school performance; in the following section, the researcher will analyse the impact of communicating the school vision and strategic plans on school effectiveness.

3.3.3. Communicating the school visions and strategic plans

Across the globe, most researchers are in consensus that a school vision and strategic plans should be communicated properly to all stakeholders in order to have a meaningful impact (Khuzwayo, 2008:96; Mills, 2005:16; Mthombeni, 2004:85). In this regard, Mthombeni (2004:85) confirms that, "... the vision should be well communicated to educators, learners and parents." Agreeing with her, Khuzwayo (2008:96) points out that a principal have the responsibility to persuasively communicate their vision and strategic plans to both educators and the broader community in order to generate and instil the excitement and commitment about it.

According to Khuzwayo (2008:96), the responsibility of communicating a school vision and a strategic plan is based on the understanding that once educators have a full grasp of what is expected of them, they will develop maximum commitment to it. In fact, communication is more about marketing and selling the vision and strategy to all stakeholders who have an educational interest in the school. Clarke (2007:3) uses the term "aligning people" to indicate the importance of communicating and selling a school vision and a strategic plan to stakeholders. In South Africa, the document, Duties and Responsibilities of Educators (1998), makes it compulsory for principals to communicate with all the relevant stakeholders with regard to the vision, goals and other developments in their schools.

There is a consensus in South Africa (Dhlamini, 2008:89; Moloji, 2004:5), Zimbabwe (Garudzo-Kusereka, 2003:80) and the USA (Mills, 2005:16) that the open and honest communication of a school vision and the strategic plans has a positive impact on the school effectiveness. In motivating principals, Moloji (2004:5) advises them to learn skills of communicating and motivating educators and learners, in order to succeed in this highly competitive world.

Similarly, Mills (2005:16) insists that school visions and mission statements that have received the support of stakeholders do motivate and promote better school effectiveness.

Furthermore, Dhlamini (2008:89) contends that principals need to communicate and motivate educators through keeping their strategic plans on their “radar screen.” He further advises principals to constantly refer to their strategic plans; as that will help them to build and maintain a strong momentum. In the light of the above, it is clear that effective communication of a school vision and a strategic plan has a positive impact on learner performance.

Having discussed the positive effects of effective communication on school performance, the researcher will in the next section, explore the responsibility of principals in motivating and inspiring educators.

3.3.4. Motivating and inspiring educators

Most researchers worldwide are in consensus that motivating and inspiring educators is critical in ensuring that principals realise their school visions (Chindanya, 2002:124; Davidson, 2007:159; Hoy, 2008:495; Ofoegbu, 2004:3; Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:251). From the USA, Hoy (2008:495) stresses that motivated and inspired educators are more likely to instil confidence in learners, guarantee the implementation of schools’ instructional programmes

and will have feelings of satisfaction and fulfilment when acquitting themselves of their jobs. Similarly, Swanepoel (2008:42) elaborates that in effective and successful schools, motivated educators tend to be more committed, hard working and loyal to their school programmes and systems and receive greater job satisfaction. Based on the above, principals need motivated and inspired educators to realise their school vision.

Regarding what constitutes motivation and inspiration; Bushweller and Ash (2007:15) argue that the two concepts relate to educators' attitudes and perceptions towards their school work. Specifically, they define motivation as, "all those inner striving conditions, wishes and urges" that stimulate educators' interests towards an activity (Bushweller & Ash, 2007:17). In contrast, Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:251) describe motivation as something that deals with an "inner state of mind that channels an educator's behaviour and energy towards attaining school aims." Flowing from the above, principals need to pay much attention on stimulating the inner state of their educators' minds in order to keep them motivated and inspired.

In his qualitative research project, Ofoegbu (2004:3) from Nigeria found that educators, just like learners, are the most important human resource, because a high quality schooling system depends on the highly motivated and inspired educators. He further elaborated and cautioned that the performance of the school is dependent on the inspiration and high morale of educators and any positive changes envisaged in schools cannot be realised without educators' commitment and confidence.

Agreeing with such findings, Davidson (2007:159) from Tanzania substantiates that the need for motivated and inspired educators has reached critical proportions in today's technological society, which is fraught with fundamental changes like accessing information electronically. Consequently, motivated and dedicated educators are identified as cornerstones in the quest for achieving

effectiveness of the school while the facing various challenges and problems besetting it. In the light of the foregoing discussion, it is clear that the motivation of principals plays a decisive role in the promotion of teaching and learning excellence in schools.

In South Africa, principals have a contractual obligation to motivate and instil commitment and confidence in educators in terms of enabling them to take the lead and act decisively regarding working towards realising the school vision (IQMS, 2003: Performance Standard 12). Consistent with the above, Botha (2004:241) employs the term “educator empowerment” to emphasise the need for educators to be knowledgeable, have a better morale, job satisfaction and commitment to the school vision, mission and goals.

Similarly, Hoadley *et al.* (2007:7) maintain that educators need to feel competent in their jobs and need to be reassured that the system is capable of supporting their role in terms of the teaching and learning processes. They further state that high teacher motivation and morale, together with strong commitment to work, are key essential requirements for effective schooling. In agreement, Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:16) assert that raising educator morale not only makes teaching more pleasant for learners, it also creates an environment that is more conducive to learning and contributes to a positive school climate. Flowing from the above, principals should effectively perform their task of motivating and inspiring educators in order to attain their school visions and objectives.

Regarding how principals can motivate and inspire their workforce, Belle (2007:168), Chindanya (2002:124), Garudzo-Kusereka (2003:165) and Khuzwayo (2008:96) recommend that they should:

- Create a conducive work environment.
- Effectively communicate their school vision, mission and goals.

- Support and empower educators.
- Provide resources and materials.
- Provide opportunities for achievement and advancement.
- Facilitate professional growth and responsibility.
- Recognise teacher performance.
- Involve educators in school policy formulation.
- Serve as role models.
- Foster positive interpersonal relations with all stakeholders.

Therefore, in the light of what has been said above, it is clear that motivating and inspiring educators have a substantial motivational effect on the improvement of educator efficacy which, in turn, has a positive effect on learners' performance. On this score, Garudzo-Kusereka (2003:165) avows: "Indeed, motivated educators have a sense of professionalism and are enthusiastic and totally committed to teaching." It is within this context that the leadership of the principal may have a positive impact in terms of influencing and changing the attitudes and perceptions of educators with regard to the core vision and strategic plans of their schools.

Having discussed the effects of motivated and inspired educators on learner achievement, in the next section, the researcher will explore the impact of persistence on school effectiveness.

3.3.5. Persisting to attain a school vision

Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:71) point out that persistence is the fifth and the last responsibility in the provision of leadership cycle. In this study, persistence, having a similar meaning to commitment, perseverance and determination, refers to the act of continuing to do something despite difficulties and challenges. Hornby (2006:1082) describes it as an act of refusing to give up or let go of something. These definitions suggest that the

process of realising the school vision might not be smooth or easy. Therefore, principals need to work hard, persist and invest a considerable amount of energy in the pursuit of realising their school visions.

When stressing the importance of persistence regarding the realisation of the school vision, Botha (2004:241) advises principals to show commitment and courage in its pursuit. He stresses that principals, having armed themselves with values such as commitment and courage, should exhibit a high level of willingness and resolve in terms of standing up for the matters that are important to their schools, which is the provision of better teaching and learning opportunities.

Supporting him, Moloï (2004:2) reminds principals of the challenges imposed by external forces that require high levels of persistence and perseverance. She further cautions principals to perform persistently well in their tasks to improve their schools, despite the challenges posed by “ongoing curriculum changes and technological innovations”. Considering the above, it is quite clear that principals need to work very hard because there is nothing that comes easily.

Similarly, Mills (2005:14) insists that principals need to assume a considerable amount of responsibility, not just for the vision and mission that they urge others to accept, nor just for the schools they head, but also for educators, parents and learners. He elaborates that principals should constantly be committed to their vision. “A principal can’t be committed one day and uninterested the next day. Educators will judge a principal by his or her commitment; and will commit themselves no more than he or her does” (Mills, 2005:14). Maxwell (2006:46) concurs with him and further emphasises the importance of taking full responsibility when it comes to implementing school programmes. A close analysis of the above clearly reveals that sufficient energy, enthusiasm and a sense of responsibility are fundamental elements in realising the school vision.

Having identified and discussed the positive effects of the leadership role on learner achievement (cf. sections 3.3.1 to section 3.3.5); attention will now be paid to the impact of exercising effective management on school effectiveness, as shown in the next section.

3.4. PRINCIPALS AS MANAGERS

As indicated earlier (cf. section 3.2), the role of principals as managers is to consciously and pro-actively apply the principles of planning, organising, delegating, coordinating, directing and controlling in order to perform the responsibilities attached to their management roles. Several studies, both internationally (Aliég-Mielcarek, 2003:132; Bush, 2007:403; Du Four & Marzano, 2009:64; Shapiro, 2003:2) and here at home (Dhlamini, 2008:18; Mestry, 2006:33; Mthombeni, 2004:85; Prew, 2007:454; Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:76) concur that such responsibilities include the day-to-day management of activities relating to learners, educators, school finances, physical facilities, parents and community relations in pursuit of improving learner achievement. Simply put, principals have an obligation to effectively execute such responsibilities as it will be shown in the next sections.

3.4.1. Managing learner achievement

Most researchers (Boyd, 2002:155; Bush *et al.*, 2009:6; Dhlamini, 2008:18; Mthombeni, 2004:85) are in consensus that learner achievement relates to the planned, systematic, conscious and sustained school-based efforts aiming at achieving instructional outcomes, changes in learner knowledge, skills, values and attitudes. Examining this definition closely shows that learner achievement is a process, not an event, which needs to be realised through the development of instructional programmes that will guide the day-to-day activities of both the principal and the educators. Basically, it represents the core business of the

schooling system (Blasé & Blasé, 2004:133; Bush *et al.*, 2009:6; Enueme & Engwunyeka, 2008:13).

Dhlamini (2008:18) and Mthombeni (2004:85) point out that in the South African literature there is a general consensus that the first fundamental step in managing learner achievement entails the development of clear instructional outcomes from the school vision. Forging a common understanding amongst all stakeholders, Lopper (2006:4) further recommends that such instructional outcomes should be SMART, an acronym for the following: being specific, measurable, attainable, realistic and time-bound.

Another critical step in managing learner performance is to organise and develop the workable and effective operational plans from the school vision; indicating the prioritised tasks, the delegated educators, the resources allocated and the applicable time frames (Boyd, 2002:156). According to Shapiro (2003:2), operational plans guide the day-to-day activities of the schools and prioritise what has to be done, when it needs to be done, by whom its needs to be done and what resources or inputs are needed to do it. In support of the above, Mthombeni (2004:85) suggests: “To make it simpler, the vision should be converted into a clear development plan and should be seen daily in all aspects of the school life.”

In coordinating the instructional plans, principals need to establish a suitable learning environment in terms of organising and developing a set of school rules, regulations, procedures and protocols that will guide the day-to-day behaviour of all learners. In simple terms, such a code of conduct should guide and encourage learners to be punctual, attend school regularly, complete homework, show respect and refrain from juvenile delinquency (Clarke, 2007:81).

Research evidence from the United States of America (USA) (Aliég-Mielcarek, 2003:131) and South Africa (Mthombeni, 2004:84) confirm that the

establishment of school rules create an environment that is conducive to learning. Mthombeni (2004:84) asserts that educator and learner discipline promotes high learner achievement. With the help of class representatives from each class and the school's learner representative council (LRC), principals should ensure that all learners comply, while those who do not comply with the rules should be decisively dealt with.

Regarding the control of the academic progress of learners, Belle (2007:168) recommends the development of the monitoring systems where all major stakeholders could effectively collaborate with regard to its implementation. Bush *et al.* (2009:2) concurs with him but further recommends that principals need to regularly evaluate learner achievement by scrutinising the assessment results, including also the external examination results.

In addition, principals should continuously monitor learners' progress with the aim of finding synergy between the actual performance and the predetermined instructional outcomes. During the process, should any deviation; either positive or negative, be noticed, principals should immediately take some enrichment or remedial action (Aliég-Mielcarek, 2003:132; Bush *et al.*, 2009:6).

Having discussed what constitutes 'learner achievement' and its effects, in the following section, the researcher will explore what constitutes educator performance, particularly its effects on learner achievement.

3.4.2. Managing educator performance

Some researchers (Bush *et al.*, 2009:4; Clarke, 2007:22; Ediger, 2009:574; Enueme & Engwunyeka, 2008:14; Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:246) concur that currently, the management of educator performance could be one of the most challenging responsibilities facing principals. Amongst other reasons, the ever-changing curriculum and technological innovations (Moloi, 2004:2) make

it difficult for principals to develop the requisite proficiency and capacity to ensure learner performance.

Irrespective of all such challenges, principals are still obliged to direct and coordinate educators in such a way that learner achievement can be realised. In this regard, Moloi (2004:2) further points out that principals are expected to effectively manage their schools even in times of stability as well as in more turbulent times in order to make sure that all learners have a chance to succeed in their studies. This simply suggests that principals should not be daunted by the challenges that arise so that improved learner achievement can be realised.

Therefore, educator performance in this study will refer to planned, systematic and conscious school initiated efforts aimed at achieving instructional outcomes as outlined in the school instruction programmes (cf. section 3.4.1). Since the primary responsibility of educators is to teach learners (Duties and Responsibilities of Educators, 1998:6; Enueme & Engwunyeka, 2008:13), the first fundamental step according to Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:246), is to plan and organise the instructional programmes (cf. section 3.4.1). Amongst others, instructional programmes, in terms of Clarke (2007:22), should indicate both instructional outcomes and dates for activities (classroom visits, control of administrative work, parent meetings, assessments and examinations, issuing of progress reports to parents, prize-giving ceremonies and farewells, extra-mural activities and special programmes such as excursions and camps). To be effective, instructional programmes should state clearly who will perform the activity, when the activity is to be done and it should stipulate the resources that will be needed (Ediger, 2009:574).

In directing and coordinating such programmes, principals should establish and maintain a positive school climate that is conducive to teaching and learning. This can be realised through ensuring compliance with the basic rules and regulations regarding the daily preparation and presentation of lessons, contact

teaching time, absenteeism and leave measures, fraud regarding assessments and examinations, record-keeping and maintenance of professional relationships with stakeholders (Ediger, 2009:574).

It is important to note that in terms of the pursuit of academic excellence, there should be ongoing monitoring of academic progress against pre-determined instructional outcomes (cf. section 3.4.1). The intention is to identify major discrepancies, gaps and other deviations so that they can be immediately addressed and quality assured. In terms of Mpumalanga Systemic Evaluation Report (2005), all principals in South Africa have a contractual duty to establish and maintain effective quality assurance systems that could lead to the better learner achievement.

In countries such as Canada (Du Four & Marzano, 2009:64), Slovenia (Sonja & Brigita, 2009:16) and the USA (Bush *et al.*, 2009:4), principals are expected to establish quality assurance measures such as the control of lesson plans, moderation of question papers and other written work, undertake regular classrooms visits and lesson observations. These measures will indeed assist principals with the monitoring of the instructional work of educators that ultimately lead to the improved learner performance. .

Consistent with the above, Mthombeni (2008:96) states that with regular class visits and observations, principals can promote school improvement in areas such as classroom instruction and general curriculum delivery. Agreeing with her, Bush *et al.* (2009:4) further substantiate that monitoring learner achievement involves visiting classrooms, observing teachers at work and providing them with regular feedback. Flowing from the above, principals are therefore expected to regularly monitor educators so that improved learner achievement could be attained.

Finally, principals should ensure that regular feedback is given to educators. In the process, principals should acknowledge and reward excellent work but take corrective steps with regard to unsatisfactory work; that is poor learner performance. Likewise, in terms of supporting educators, Belle (2007:165) advises principals to recognise and praise educators who show devotion, commitment and contribution towards learner achievement.

Having discussed the effects of proper management of educator performance, it is also necessary to pay attention to the management of resources, especially information systems, as shown in the following section.

3.4.3. Managing information systems

In this study, an information system can be defined as consisting of the people, procedures and other resources needed to record, store and retrieve data in the school in such a way that learner achievement can easily be realised (Davies, Darling-Hammond, La Pointe & Meyerson, 2005:6). Clarke (2007:147) elaborates that for such an information system to have a positive impact on learner achievement, it should be “timely, accurate and relevant”.

In consistent with this view, Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:228) advise principals to develop an information system that is acceptable, useful, cost effective, reliable, flexible and simple. To establish such a desired system, principals should ensure that separate files for learners’ marks, curricular information, personnel, finances, and stock and facilities should be well developed and also properly maintained for easy retrieval. Whether the school uses a manual filing system or a computer system, principals need to ensure that the system is accurate, and is updated on a regular basis (Mills, 2005:18). In adherence to the above guidelines, a proper filing system should be created so that important information cannot get lost.

Some researchers, both in South Africa (Botha, 2004:241) and internationally (Davies *et al.*, 2005:7), are in consensus that one of the crucial benefits of an effective information system is to guide principals when making key decisions. On this point, Botha (2004:241) correctly states that principals continuously rely on a steady stream of reliable information, as it is an important aspect of the decision-making process. Davies *et al* (2005:7) substantiate that information is not an end in itself, but a means to provide support for the decision-making process. The light shed by the above implies that the correct information is critical in terms of assisting and supporting principals with the execution of their management functions pertaining to promoting learner achievement.

Having indicated the positive effects of a proper information system on the decision- making role of the principal and learner achievement, the researcher will further examine the effects of school finances on school effectiveness in the following section.

3.4.4. Managing the financial affairs

Although the school governing body (SGB) has the ultimate responsibility concerning school finances, it is normal practice for it to delegate the daily operational financial functions to principals. On this point, Mestry (2006:36) points out that the SGBs, in terms of the South African Schools Act (1996) (SASA), are responsible for the financial affairs of their schools. He further highlights that SGBs may delegate such tasks to principals, though accountability remains with them. Flowing from above, principals need to manage the daily financial affairs of their school efficiently in order to maximise learner achievement efforts.

Mbatsana (2006:26) states that the starting point for the efficient financial management in the school is the development of a clear and easy-to-understand

school finance policy. Such a financial policy must provide a clear framework in terms of which school finances will be planned, organised and controlled. Similarly, Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:236) recommend that principals should put some “internal checks and balances” in place in the form of financial systems that can ensure that the work of one person is checked by another and that there is a separation of duties. For instance, the person who collects, counts and receipts income in the form of cash or cheques should not be responsible for processing, handling transactions, or banking money. These recommendations imply that the principals alone cannot authorise the usage of money, but must work closely with the other SGB members, especially treasurers, with respect to the financial affairs of their schools.

The other crucial step in managing financial affairs is the establishment of school finance committees, which should be advised by principals. According to Mestry (2006:36), some of the most important functions of the finance committee, in addition to the development and implementation of the finance policy, are the drafting and the controlling of the school budget, monitoring and approving all expenditure and ensuring that all procurement (purchasing of goods and services) are done in terms of the obtaining the correct quotations and according to the prescribed tendering procedures. Furthermore, Mbatsana (2006:27) and Moloï (2007:468) emphasise the importance of school budgeting by highlighting that principals need to create a budget that provides details regarding how the instructional programmes (cf. section 3.4.1) will be accomplished and also how much money and other resources will be needed to accomplish such plans. The above clearly indicates that principals must exercise maximum care when drafting a school budget.

Guided by the school financial policies and the assistance of school financial officers, principals should ensure that all funds are deposited promptly. On this point, the South African School Act (1996) stipulates clearly that all collected school monies are to be properly recorded and immediately deposited.

Concerning the spending of the money, Clarke (2007:289) reminds principals to ensure strict compliance with the school policy, especially with regard to the authorisation of all the purchases and payments.

In terms of controlling the school finances, a school budget should be closely monitored and reported to the relevant stakeholders, especially the parents. It is important to note that monitoring the budget should be a continuous process throughout the year (Van Deventer and Kruger, 2003:256). It entails keeping a check on the difference between the planned financial status at any given time and the actual financial status at that time.

On this point, Mbatsana (2006:28) explains that monitoring involves the checking of expenditure against the allocated budget. With the aim of providing a clear picture of the state of the school's finances, principals should ensure that the monthly and quarterly statements are produced in the correct way, while the financial books are audited annually. In addition, principals should regularly inform the stakeholders, particularly the SGB, parents and the Department of Education about the school's financial expenditure (Mestry, 2006:92).

Having discussed the managing of the financial affairs; it has become necessary to pay attention to the effects of physical facilities on school effectiveness as indicated in the next section.

3.4.5. Managing the physical facilities

In this study, physical facilities refer to the resources such as school buildings and school grounds, furniture (desks and chairs) and learner and teacher support materials (LTSM). These facilities, according to several researchers (Belle, 2007:165; Bush *et al.*, 2009:6; Dhlamini, 2008:113; Van Deventer &

Kruger, 2003:7), play a crucial role in facilitating and improving learner achievement.

The case study conducted by Dhlamini (2008:113) confirms that inadequate resources play a major role in the poor quality of teaching and learning in schools. Similarly, another qualitative study conducted by Belle (2007:165) in Mauritius, found that teachers are proud to work in very attractive surroundings with the well-maintained facilities and the impressive school infrastructure.

Consistent with these views, Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:7) assert that sufficient and decent physical facilities create a positive environment wherein the process of effective teaching and learning can take place. They further elaborate on how the neat and clean physical environment can influence educators' flexibility in terms of teaching, improving communication, minimising ill-discipline and reducing the amount of noise at school. Similarly, Bush *et al.* (2009:6) also identify LTSM as a key factor contributing to better learner achievement in schools. Considering the above views, it is quite clear that principals should create a proper and effective system for managing the physical facilities so that learner achievement efforts can be enhanced.

Regarding the routine maintenance of school buildings and grounds, Clarke (2007:372) and Belle (2007:165) recommend that the physical facilities committee should include parents with expertise in aspects such as plumbing, electricity or painting. Belle (2007:168) further elaborates that the physical facilities committee should regularly inspect the physical facilities, particularly before the budgeting process starts, so that they can be in a position to submit a maintenance budget that is realistic and implementable. Additionally, such a physical facilities committee should make efforts to raise funds for the acquisition and maintenance of new facilities and equipment.

According to Garudzo-Kusereka (2003:171) and Clarke (2007:376), the physical facilities committee should further establish the school policy (simple to understand school rules and regulations) guiding the day-to-day behaviour of both learners and educators in their usage of the physical resources. Once such guidelines are established, principals should make sure that there is maximum compliance by all stakeholders. Since the provision of new physical facilities is not always possible each year, it is therefore quite important for principals to manage the existing physical resources properly in order to improve learner performance.

Having identified and explained the effects of physical resources on learner achievement and educator commitment, it is now prudent to examine the effects of parental involvement on school performance.

3.4.6. Managing parental involvement

One of the most important challenge that face principals in South Africa is the promotion of parental involvement in their schools (Duties and Responsibilities of Educators, 1998). In terms of this study, parental involvement will refer to the conscious effort by principals to encourage parents to visit schools, participate in school governance, attend meetings and supervise their children's academic work (Fisher, 2009:39; Georgiou, 2007:59). The above definition suggests that for parents to participate in school activities, principals should intentionally and consciously create a positive climate, so that parents could feel welcome.

There is general consensus amongst South African researchers (Mbatsana, 2006:79; Mestry, 2006:33) and their international counterparts (Desforges & Abouchaar, 2003:86; Fisher, 2009:39; Georgiou, 2007:60) that parental involvement has a positive impact on learner achievement. Desforges and Abouchaar (2003:86) from the United Kingdom (UK) and Georgiou (2007:60)

in Cyprus, confirm that parental involvement makes a positive contribution to children's educational achievement. Desforges and Abouchaar (2003:86), in particular, stress that parental involvement works indirectly on school outcomes by helping the child to build a pro-social, pro-learning self-concept and to have higher educational aspirations.

Similarly, Georgiou (2007:60) contends that learners at all levels do better academic work and have more positive school attitudes, higher aspirations and other positive behaviour if they have parents who are aware of what is happening at school and are knowledgeable, encouraging and involved. In South Africa, Mbatsana (2006:79) maintains that a lack of parental support reduces educators' enthusiasm to teach in class. A close examination of the above clearly reveals how critical it is for principals to involve parents so that learner achievement can be improved.

Concerning how parents can be involved, Desforges and Abouchaar (2003:87) recommend that principals should organise training programmes for parents. They further contend that such training programmes can be more effective even in terms of engaging "hard-to-reach" parents. In addition, Belle (2007:165) emphasises that principals should actively encourage parents to assist with extra-mural activities and with disciplining learners. Similarly, Fisher (2009:39) suggests that principals should encourage parents to supervise their children's homework, contribute financially to the school and take part in school activities. In light of all these views, it is clear that parental involvement does not happen spontaneously; principals should take personal responsibility to ensure that it occurs.

Having identified and discussed the positive effects of parental involvement in promoting learner achievement and educator commitment; the researcher will now examine how proper management of community relations enhances school performance.

3.4.7. Managing community relations

Several studies (Bush *et al.*, 2009:5; Mestry, 2006:33; Prew, 2007:454; Van Deventer and Kruger, 2003:257) are in consensus that the effectiveness of schools does not depend merely on aspects such as more physical facilities, sufficient financial resources, better curricula, improved buildings, or highly motivated and inspired educators, but also depends on the nature and the quality of managing community relations, particularly school governing bodies (SGBs) and teacher unions.

In this context, “community” refers to all organised stakeholders, whether statutory (the Department of Education, the SGBs, learner representative councils [LRCs] and teacher unions) or non-statutory (parent-teacher associations [PTAs] and business communities), with an interest in learner achievement. It has been well documented worldwide (Bush *et al.*, 2009:5; Mestry, 2006:33; Prew, 2007:454), that a positive and harmonious relationship between the school and its community has a positive impact on learner achievement.

In a case study on the functioning of SGBs, Mestry (2006:33) found that lack of a positive relationship between principals, learners, educators and parents lead to conflict that negatively affect learner achievement. In contrast, subsequent findings from another case study conducted by Prew (2007:454) show that the harmonious relationship does improve the safety in schools and end vandalism outside school hours and that encourages parents to be able to attend school meetings.

Similarly, the recent case studies conducted by Mncube (2009:25) further confirm that positive collaboration improves learner discipline and financial contributions, which ultimately enhances learner performance. In the USA, Bush *et al.* (2009:5) also found that an external intervention, particularly from

parent structures, does make a positive contribution to better learner achievement.

With regard to the strategies to promote community relations, Prew (2007:454) suggests that principals should organise community-based fund-raising projects through events that could involve educators, learners, parents and community members. This could encourage collaboration amongst stakeholders. Similarly, Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:257) propose that principals need to maintain regular contact with certain outside institutions and educational bodies that may be of mutual benefit to all the parties concerned.

They further cautioned principals not to deeply involved and taking sides in local politics, but rather to be neutral and impartial so that all stakeholders could feel accommodated. This caution is informed by the fact that stakeholders have different backgrounds and therefore approach things differently. By taking the foregoing into account, it is quite clear that community involvement impacts positively on learner achievement and therefore a concerted effort from principals is needed for its existence and sustenance.

Having identified and discussed the effects of exercising a strong leadership role (cf. section 3.3) and an effective management role (cf. section 3.4) separately, the researcher will now provide the summarised distinctions (cf. Figure 3.1) of such roles in the next section.

3.5. DIAGRAMMATIC DISTINCTIONS BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT

Based on the above presentations (cf. sections 3.3; 3.4), the distinction between leadership and management roles can be diagrammatically summarised as indicated by Figure 3.1 below.

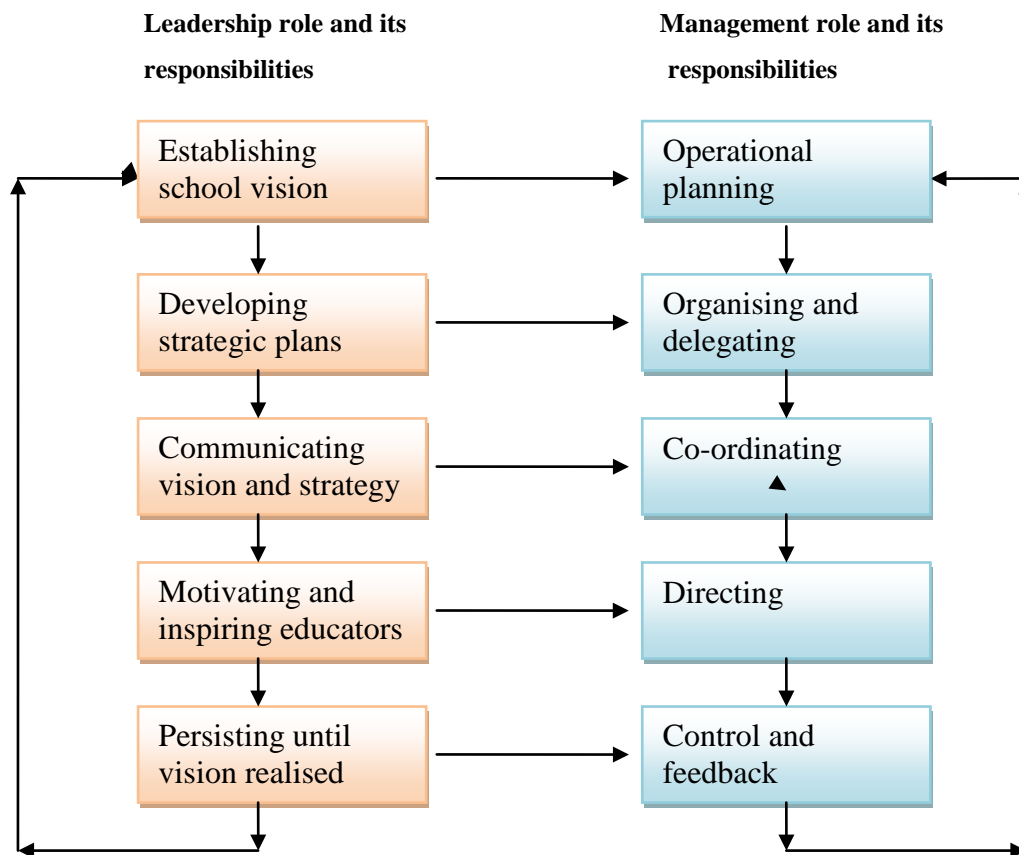


FIGURE 3.1: DIAGRAMMATIC DISTINCTIONS BETWEEN LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT ROLES

Figure 3.1 depicts leadership and management roles as two distinct and mutually exclusive, but complementary processes (Ambler, 2008; Clarke, 2007:3; Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:68). Hence, the responsibilities associated with a leadership role require very different responses from responsibilities associated with a management role. For instance, both leadership and management roles have five related responsibilities each, as shown by the arrows pointing downwards. However, each leadership responsibility influences a corresponding management responsibility, as indicated by the arrows pointing sideways.

The figure further indicates that a leadership role is expected to be performed before a management role. In this regard, researchers (Belle, 2007:64;

Bobinski, 2004:4) concur that for principals to be efficient and effective, they must first perform their leadership role and later their management role. As leaders, principals should first change the perceptions, attitudes and beliefs of stakeholders so that they can have a shared vision and strategy, which will subsequently enable principals as managers to plan, organise and convert such shared vision into specific and measurable instructional outcomes and operational programmes (Boyd, 2002:155; Dhlamini, 2008:18; Lopper, 2006:3).

Furthermore, Figure 3.1 indicates that principals, at the leadership level, will communicate broadly; motivate and inspire stakeholders to understand and cherish the school vision, whereas as managers, they will co-ordinate, direct, and control educators, learners, parents and community specifically to attain better learner achievement. According to the diagram (cf. Figure 3.1), after each last responsibility; persistence and control, the process can re-start at establishing the school vision and operational planning respectively as shown by the arrows pointing upwards.

Throughout this chapter, literature studied confirmed that the efficient and effective performance of these roles and responsibilities have positive contribution with regard to the improvement of learner achievement (Hoy, 2008:495; Khuzwayo, 2008:96; Ofoegbu, 2004:3; Spillane, 2009:70) which is the core business of the schooling system (Blasé & Blasé, 2004:133; Enueme & Engwunyeka, 2008:13).

In terms of the documents like Duties and Responsibilities of Educators (1998), the Integrated Quality Management Systems (2003) and the South African Standards for Principalships (2005), the South African education system has made it compulsory for all the principals to effectively perform these tasks. In addition, an Advanced Certificate in Education programme has been introduced

to ensure that all practising and aspiring principals are well capacitated in terms of performing both their leadership and management roles.

Having diagrammatically presented the distinction between the leadership and management roles, the researcher will now provide the concluding remarks of this chapter in the next section.

3.6. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this chapter, a distinction between leadership and management roles was drawn and discussed. During the process, both international (Belle, 2007:69; Bush, 2007:392; Spillane, 2009:70) and domestic literature studies (Moloi, 2007:470; Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:76; Van der Westhuizen & Van Vuuren, 2007:440) confirm that exercising strong leadership and effective management do promote better learner performance. In the course of discussing the leadership role, the following responsibilities were identified and analysed: establishing a school vision, developing a strategic plan, communicating the school vision and the strategic plan, motivating and inspiring educators and persistence regarding achieving the school vision.

In contrast, the responsibilities associated with the management role were identified as the management of the following: learner achievement, educator performance, the information system, the financial affairs, physical facilities, parent involvement and community relations. Having discussed these roles and responsibilities of principals, the research methodology will be outlined in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 4: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

4.1. INTRODUCTION

In chapter 3, the literature review shows that the effective performance of both leadership and management roles contributes positively to learner achievement as being the core business of the schooling system (Bush, 2007:392; Moloji, 2007:470; Spillane, 2009:70; Van der Westhuizen & Van Vuuren, 2007:440). With specific reference to the South African context, principals have a contractual obligation to effectively exercise these leadership and management roles in order to enhance school performance (Integrated Quality Management Systems, 2003).

As indicated earlier (cf. section 1.1), some principals unfortunately get overwhelmed by such challenges and become so de-motivated that they ultimately under-perform (Bush *et al.*, 2009:6). As indicated in the document Mpumalanga Annual Performance Plan (2008:37) as well as Bush *et al.* (2009:6) and Nyathi (2007:37), that was manifested through tardiness, apathy, low level of organisational commitment and endless complaints about the lack of resources by some principals.

Addressing this challenge, the researcher decides to use a qualitative research methodology in this chapter. In employing the qualitative research, the experiences, perceptions, feelings, thoughts and emotions of the participants were expressed in verbal form, instead of being in numbers as shown in section 5.4 (Lauer, 2006:76; McErwan & McErwan, 2003:83). Furthermore, the researcher collected data in a face-to-face situation by interacting with the participants in their natural setting; that is, in their respective schools.

Therefore, chapter 4 contains the purpose of this study, its research design, the case study methodology, the site selection and sampling methods, data

collection methods, data analysis, trustworthiness of the research and lastly the research ethics.

4.2. PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH

As indicated in chapter 1 (cf. section 1.1), lack of motivation by some principals in South African schools is a serious cause for concern. Researchers worldwide (Belle, 2007:158; Bush *et al.*, 2009:6; Hoerr, 2006:91; Sikhwivhilu, 2003:23; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004:573) are in consensus that a demotivated workforce (principals) impacts negatively on the optimal operation of schools. In other words, lack of motivation influences the morale of principals and contributes to poor learner achievement (Moloi, 2004:4).

With this in mind, the study as earlier (cf. section 1.5) aim at obtaining an in-depth understanding of those factors (both internal and external) that have an impact on the motivation of principals in the Mpumalanga Province in order to develop a cognitive model of motivation (cf. 5.6; Figure 5.2).

In pursuit of the above aim, the following research question was answered in this chapter.

- What cognitive theories of motivation can have an impact on the motivation of principals?

Accordingly, a qualitative research design was employed to help answering this research question, as indicated below.

4.3. RESEARCH DESIGN

In chapter 1, it was indicated clearly that the motivation of some principals was quite low with regard to the performance of their duties (Masango, 2007:13;

Nyathi, 2007:40). It is interesting to note that some of the de-motivated principals are heading schools that are well-resourced in terms of having sufficient infrastructural facilities as well as being allocated the “no school fee” status. By implications, such schools are not that much poor.

In order to investigate the phenomenon, the interpretative approach, particularly the constructive-interpretative paradigm was used in the study, taking into account its ability to generate an in-depth understanding regarding the factors that impact on the motivation of principals (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:155; Creswell, 2003:52; McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:318). In the course of the investigations, the interpretative approach allowed the researcher to explore, analyse, describe and show relationships between events and meanings that can help to increase readers’ understanding of the phenomena investigated. This was made possible because the phenomenon pertaining to the lack of motivation was investigated in its unique and natural setting (Lauer, 2006:76). Simply put, all the semi-structured interviews, observational field notes and documents analyses were done on sites at the various schools.

Having described the merits of the constructive-interpretative paradigm on investigating the phenomenon of de-motivated principals, the researcher will further explain the appropriateness of the case study method as shown in the next section.

4.4. CASE STUDY

Since the main purpose of the study was not to generalise the empirical research findings but to obtain an in-depth insight into the phenomenon under study (the de-motivated principals in the Mpumalanga Province, particularly in the Bohlabela District, as indicated in sections 1.1 and 1.3), the researcher employed a case study. In choosing this method, the researcher considered its ability to explore, analyse and describe the subjective but accurate experiences,

intentions, perceptions, views, perspectives and feelings of principals in their natural settings, amongst others (Lauer, 2006:76). In this context, principals were engaged in their own school situations on the school premises.

Furthermore, the researcher found the case study to be the most appropriate on account of its flexibility and adaptability, especially with regard to the sampling process, data collection and data analysis (Groenewald, 2004:4; Lauer, 2006:77). For instance, during fieldwork, the case study method provided the researcher with an opportunity to ask probing questions that led to a clear understanding of and insight into principals' direct and conscious experiences, perceptions, feelings and understanding regarding factors that impacted on their motivation (Hatch, 2002:6; Groenewald, 2004:4). Such revelations further provided the researcher with an opportunity to develop what Maxwell (2005:106) described as a "thick description" with regard to the phenomenon under empirical investigation.

In the course of employing the strategy, the researcher considered some inherent challenges of the case study as cited by Cohen *et al.* (2007:156):

- Participants may be falsely conscious, deliberately distorting or falsifying information;
- The presence of researcher may cause reactivity from participants, leading them to avoid, impress, direct, deny, and influence the researcher;
- Difficulty of focusing on the familiar participants being so close to the situation that they neglect certain, often tacit aspects thereof; and
- The open-endedness and diversity of the situations studied could be problematic. There could be temptation to overemphasise the difference between contexts and situations rather than their gross similarity or their routine features (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:156).

This implies that some principals, particularly those from the underperforming sampled schools, might have perceived the study to be a witch-hunt and therefore responded differently from what they should or could have, especially where their weaknesses could have been exposed. Secondly, as the researcher is a senior official from the Bohlabela District Management Team (DMT), some participants tended to be biased and tried to impress him by deliberately distorting and falsifying information. Therefore, with regard to the aforementioned possible challenges, the researcher used the case study method with maximum care and caution (Freebody, 2003:37).

Having highlighted the strengths and limitations of the case study; in the following section, the researcher will describe how the sites were selected and the sampling procedures carried out.

4.5. SITE SELECTION AND SAMPLING

Site selection and sampling processes were used to identify schools where the researcher carried out the study with regard to factors that impact on the motivation of principals.

4.5.1. Site selection

The researcher identified eighteen principals employed by the Mpumalanga Department of Education attached to the Bohlabela District (cf. section 1.8). Before conducting the investigation, permission was sought (Annexure A) and granted by the authorities of the Bohlabela District (Annexure B). All the schools were easily accessible to the researcher. In the opinion of the researcher, all participants were viewed as rich sources of information (Budhal, 2000:62; Creswell, 2003:52). As indicated in the next section, the researcher used purposive sampling to choose participants.

4.5.2. Purposive sampling

Purposive sampling strategy was considered to be appropriate for the study because the researcher was not interested in generalising the findings but rather to obtain an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:319). Consequently, fifteen principals with the desired characteristics like being knowledgeable, informative and willing to talk (cf. section 1.9.2) were hand-picked and interviewed (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:114). The initial target of eighteen participants was adjusted to fifteen because the data reached saturation level during site visits (Creswell, 2003:53, McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:319).

The use of purposive sampling provided the researcher with an opportunity to explore, analyse and describe the perspectives and views of principals thoroughly in their natural setting. As a result, an in-depth insight into the factors impacting on the morale of principals was developed. All the principals attached to the Bohlabela District were perceived to be potential participants (Masango, 2007:13; Nyathi, 2007:41). However, the researcher chose principals whose schools have been declared “no-fee schools”, had sufficient administrative facilities, and participation in the school nutrition program (Mpumalanga Department of Education, 2010:8). In the opinion of the researcher, those three characteristics served as the primary characteristics expected from the participants.

4.5.2.1. No fee schools

The criteria to be designated a ‘no-fee school’ enabled the researcher to identify poor schools while the availability of administrative facilities enabled the researcher and participants to have an ideal place for interviews where privacy and confidentiality could be maintained. The detailed criteria for selecting principals are described with the help of Table 4.1 below.

TABLE 4.1: PROFILES OF PARTICIPATING SCHOOLS

Principal	School	School phase	Total learners	Total educators	Quintile	State allocation in 2010	Feeding scheme participation	Basic facilities available					
								Sufficient classrooms	Administration offices	School libraries	Computer laboratories	Science laboratories	School kitchens
Principal A	School A	Secondary	868	32	2	R 784	✓	x	✓	x	x	x	x
Principal B	School B	Primary	1199	35	2	R 784	✓	x	✓	x	x	x	✓
Principal C	School C	Primary	916	27	1	R 855	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x	✓
Principal D	School D	Primary	985	29	1	R 855	✓	✓	x	✓	x	x	x
Principal E	School E	Secondary	1123	42	1	R 855	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	x
Principal F	School F	Secondary	515	19	2	R 784	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	✓	✓
Principal G	School G	Secondary	646	23	2	R 784	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x	X
Principal H	School H	Primary	409	12	1	R 855	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	✓
Principal I	School I	Primary	347	10	2	R 784	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x	X
Principal J	School J	Primary	358	11	2	R 784	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x	✓
Principal K	School K	Secondary	1440	54	1	R 855	✓	✓	x	x	✓	x	✓
Principal L	School L	Primary	963	28	2	R 784	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	✓
Principal M	School M	Primary	522	16	1	R 855	✓	✓	x	x	x	x	x
Principal N	School N	Primary	187	6	2	R 784	✓	x	x	x	x	x	✓
Principal O	School O	Secondary	627	24	1	R 855	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	x

Table 4.1 shows the details of fifteen principals from nine primary and six secondary schools across the Bohlabela District of the Mpumalanga Province. The size of schools in terms of learner enrolment ranged between 187 (the smallest) to 1 440 (the biggest). Concerning staff provisioning, the smallest school had six (6) educators while the biggest school had fifty-four (54) educators. The table further shows that quintile 1 schools receive R855.00 whereas quintile 2 received R784.00 per learner annually. Lastly, as per the table, it can be observed that the majority of schools are well-resourced when it comes to classrooms and administration offices, but less resourced with the

specialised classes like libraries, laboratories and kitchens. However, all schools participated in school nutrition programmes.

In South Africa, all quintile 1 - 2 schools have been declared 'no fee schools' on account of being poverty-stricken (Mpumalanga, No Fee Schools, 2010). According to Mbatsana (2006:52), a quintile is a category into which a school is classified in terms of its poverty index. Consequently, schools within those categories are ranked the poorest and therefore targeted to benefit the most from the available financial resources.

Hall and Manson (2006:46) and Mbatsana (2006:52) explain that such schools are not expected to charge school fees because they receive a large state allocation per learner to make up for the fees that would have been charged, as well as a high allocation for non-personnel, non-capital expenditure. As is evident in Table 4.1 above, quintile 1 schools in the Mpumalanga Province were allocated R855 per learner while quintile 2 schools received R784 per learner in 2010 (Mpumalanga DoE, 2010).

This suggests that such schools would not experience financial problems and therefore the principals would not cite school funding as a challenge that impacted on their learner performance.

4.5.2.2. Sufficient physical resources

As observed by Bush *et al.* (2009:6), some principals are prone to blame insufficient physical resources rather than accepting personal and collective responsibility for the poor learner outcomes at their schools. Therefore, it was with that in mind that the researcher selected principals whose schools were physically well-resourced, particularly in terms of classrooms, administration offices, libraries, computer laboratories, science laboratories and school kitchens. The intention was to control and minimise the tendency of some

participants to simply complain about the availability of resources, especially finances and physical facilities. Again, the availability of administration offices maximised privacy and confidentiality during interview sessions (Keats, 2000:30; Pedroni & Pimple, 2001:11).

4.5.2.3. Participation in school nutrition programme

Another criterion for the selection of schools was that the schools participated in the school nutrition programmes. The intention with this criterion was to minimise the tendency by some principals to complain about poverty and hunger as a factor contributing to their de-motivated behaviour. In other words, all the learners in the sampled schools were daily provided with nutritious food and therefore a suitable climate for teaching and learning was created. As can be observed in Table 4.1 above, more than half of the sampled schools were provided with school kitchens so that the school feeding programme could easily take place.

Having described the criteria for conducting purposive sampling, the researcher will discuss how the data were collected in the next section.

4.6. DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Since the researcher wanted to gain an “in-depth understanding” of the factors that impact on the motivation of principals, an interpretative approach, particularly the constructive-interpretative paradigm, was deemed appropriate for the study. On that score, Livesey (2006:5) and Weber (2004:19) point out that an interpretative approach is directed towards understanding the participants’ subjective perspective on their everyday lived experience with the phenomenon. This approach assisted the researcher to interact with principals at their respective schools and to learn how they interpreted and attached meanings to the phenomenon under investigation (Weber, 2004:20).

Within that context, the researcher employed the three data collection techniques; namely the semi-structured interviews as the primary data collection techniques, as well as the observational field notes and the analysis of written documents, as secondary data collection tools (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:317). As shown in the following sub-sections, those techniques assisted the researcher to collect data in order to appropriately answer the research question as indicated in chapter 1 (cf. section 1.4).

4.6.1. Semi-structured interviews

A semi-structured interview is the verbal exchange of information between two persons for the primary purpose of one person gathering information from the other (Pole & Lampard, 2002:126). The researcher chose and employed semi-structured interviews as his main data collection tool because it offered participants the latitude to express their experiences, thoughts, feelings and views with regard to how they deal with those factors affecting their morale (Lauer, 2006:76). Descombe (2000:113) states that semi-structured interviews allow interviewees to “speak their minds” and to lend themselves to in-depth investigations, particularly with regard to personal accounts of experiences, intentions and feelings.

Since the research is not aimed at the generalisation of the empirical research findings, the semi-structured interviews assisted the researcher to obtain an in-depth understanding and insight into how participants viewed their challenges (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:319). That was made possible by the fact that the strategy allowed principals to use their own words and, in some cases, use non-verbal communication cues like the tone of voice and facial expressions (Horton *et al.*, 2004:340). Consequently, that contributed to more complete and subtle meanings of the data collected.

On account of the flexibility and adaptability of the semi-structured interview method, follow-up interviews were conducted with regard to certain interesting ideas. Furthermore, some relevant responses were probed, while certain motives and feelings that influenced the motivation of participants were further investigated and analysed. Consequently, that provided participants with an opportunity to elaborate on their responses. On account of having prepared questions in advance (cf. Annexure D), the technique was more appropriate in the sense that all participants were asked similar questions though not necessarily in the same order. That reduced the “interview effect and bias”, as advocated by Hatch (2002:91).

Furthermore, the strategy enabled the researcher to modify the sequence of questions, change the wording and provide some clarity where participants found some of the questions difficult to interpret (Horton *et al.*, 2004:340). Consequently, that created a pleasant and relaxed environment for the participants.

4.6.1.1. Preparations for interview sessions

The researcher developed and used an interview schedule (Annexure D) consisting of the major themes relating to the factors impacting on the motivation of principals. Themes were generated from those revealed in the literature study and related closely to what had been discussed in both chapter two and three.

Before the researcher visited the schools, appointments were made, either personally or telephonically, with each of the fifteen participants. Each appointment was made with a clear explanation of the purpose of the interview, an assurance of their confidentiality and anonymity (Byrne, 2006:23). The sampled principals were asked to set times and dates that were convenient for them, which they did.

4.6.1.2. Conducting interviews

All the interview sessions were held in offices of the participants in order to maximise both privacy and confidentiality. The researcher and participants ensured that such places were quiet and free from distractions (Chiseri-Strater & Sunstein, 2006:128). In most interview sessions, questions were addressed in the same order as they appeared in the interview schedule (Annexure D) and follow-up questions were posed to discover the real perceptions, feelings, views and opinions of the participants. In that way, the researcher was able to prompt participants to provide relevant answers to the questions under investigation (Stewards & Cash Jr, 2008:79). That gave participants an opportunity to give an interpretation of the world in which they lived from their own point of view (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:266).

Throughout the process, the interview data were accurately recorded, observational field notes were taken and the written documents were analysed (Descombe, 2003:32; Mertens & McLaughlin, 2004:170). At the end of each interview session, the researcher gave each principal an opportunity to listen to the recorded interview and to add any additional comments. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2006:403), the researcher should remain open to new concepts and ideas during the entire interview process. Lastly, each principal was thanked for having taken part in the study and was reassured of the anonymity and confidentiality of the study (Chiseri-Strater & Sunstein, 2006:128). Each interview session lasted for two hours.

4.6.2. Observational field notes

Observation field notes were employed as a secondary data collection technique in order to note aspects such as contextual variables and non-verbal information, which could not be recorded by tape recorder (Horton *et al.*, 2004:340). In the course of the semi-structured interviews, non-verbal

communication cues such as facial expressions, gestures and tone of voice of the participants were recorded on the observational checklist (Annexure E) which later facilitated the data analysis process (Creswell, 2003:188).

In addition, other contextual variables such as the displaying of schools' vision statements, conditions of discipline (order) at schools and the state of tidiness of the physical facilities were recorded in detail (Annexure E). During the data analysis process, such data confirmed, corroborated and augmented the verbal responses provided by participants and therefore facilitated data analysis (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:176; Creswell, 2003:188; Maxwell, 2005:106).

4.6.3. Analysis of written documents

In addition to the two techniques discussed above, the researcher requested and examined written documents such as schools' vision statements, strategic plans, operational plans, instructional plans, control journals, school policies, registers, assessment schedules, and learners' portfolios (Annexure F). The contents of such documents assisted the researcher to corroborate the interview responses elicited during the data analysis process (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:176; Maxwell, 2005:106). In other words, the analysed written documents served as the evidence of the responses of participants.

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2006:451), written documents can take the form of minutes of meetings, memoranda, working papers and draft proposals. Those were documents which provided an internal perspective on the school under investigation. Such documents provided the researcher with a more vivid picture of the reliability and validity of the responses of the participants.

Furthermore, the technique provided the researcher with the additional advantage of interacting with qualitative data that was more objective and real.

It is on that basis that McMillan and Schumacher (2006:451) describe documents analysis as a non-interactive strategy for obtaining qualitative data, with little or no reciprocity between the researcher and the participant. That suggests that, unlike semi-structured interviews, documents analysis provided the researcher with the extra benefit of interacting with more direct data.

Having indicated how data was collected; in the following section, the researcher will discuss how the data was analysed.

4.7. DATA ANALYSIS

When analysing the data, the researcher inductively segmented and coded the data pertaining to the transcribed interviews, field notes and written documents to become familiar with the responses that assisted with the development of themes, categories and sub-categories (Suter, 2006:317; Taylor-Powell & Renner, 2003:3; Thorne, 2000:68). That was done by reading and analysing interview transcripts, field notes and written documents for the first time in order to identify the data in their pure form (Suter, 2006:318). During the process, significant comments were identified and grouped into categories while the units of meaning were put into these major categories (Thomas, 2003:3). Eventually, a number of sub-categories within each major category and their respective themes were then identified and analysed.

Having discussed how themes, categories and their respective sub-categories were identified and analysed, the researcher will now describe the steps that were taken to ensure that the empirical research findings were trustworthy.

4.8. TRUSTWORTHINESS OF THE STUDY

In ensuring that the research findings could be trusted, reliable, replicable and valid, it was important to indicate some of the strategies used in the study.

Worldwide, most qualitative researchers concur that ensuring the trustworthiness of the study enhances the empirical research findings (Creswell, 2003:197; Golafshani, 2003:599). With that in mind, the following strategies were used.

4.8.1. Establishing *rapport*

Before the start of each interview session, the researcher spent some time with the participants to establish *rapport* with them to set them at ease (Keats, 2000:23; Stewards and Cash Jr, 2008:77). That was done by showing the participants the letter of approval providing permission to conduct the study (Annexure B) from the Mpumalanga Department of Education.

The purpose of the study was clearly explained, the procedures outlined, the amount of time needed to complete the interview spelt out as well as how the results would be used. Accordingly, the researcher sought consent from the participants by giving them the consent form (Annexure C) and explaining it to them to read and sign. That enabled the researcher to reassure participants about the confidentiality and anonymity of the study (Keats, 2000:30; Pedroni & Pimple, 2001:11).

4.8.2. The role of the researcher

By controlling subjectivity and bias, the researcher plays the role of an outsider (Johnson, 2008:101). In playing that role, the researcher embraced an attitude of “epoch” which, according to Hatch (2002:7) and Schram (2003:71), is the ability to suspend and distance oneself, while bracketing one’s judgement when the interviews are in progress. In line with this principle, the researcher became attentive, tolerant, sympathetic, disciplined and acted with integrity towards the participants throughout the interviews.

With the aim of ensuring that participants felt free and at ease, the researcher ensured that there were no interruptions during the interview sessions, Furthermore, the researcher talked very little but allowed the participant more ample time to talk. Wellington (2000:72) describes this role by using the phrase “acting like a sponge”, which means that throughout the interview, the researcher is expected to minimise the talking but maximise the hearing; which the researcher did in order to enhance the trustworthiness of the research findings (Hatch 2002:7; Schram, 2003:71).

4.8.3. Direct contact at the site

Unlike surveys where there is no direct contact between the researcher and the participants, the use of semi-structured interviews provided the researcher with an ample opportunity to directly contact the participants at their respective schools. The researcher interviewed participants in their school offices at the agreed time. That was done to ensure privacy and confidentiality. According to Descombe (2003:31), the direct contact at the site strategy ensured a fuller and authentic understanding of the phenomenon; because direct contact at the point of data collection enhances trustworthiness.

4.8.4. Use of multi-method techniques

Multi-method techniques such as the semi-structured interviews, the observational field notes and the written documents analysis that were used permitted the triangulation of data (Maxwell, 2005:106). With triangulation, the data collected with one instrument are confirmed by the data collected using a different instrument (Cohen *et al.*, 2007:176; Creswell, 2003:188). In this study, data collected through document analysis was used to confirm, corroborate and augment the data collected through semi-structured interviews. Therefore, a triangulation strategy improved the trustworthiness of the study.

4.8.5. Use of a tape recorder

A tape recorder was used as a primary data recording device in order to ensure the free flow of information during the semi-structured interviews. Worldwide, studies (Descombe, 2003:32; Johnson, 2008:100; Mertens & McLaughlin, 2004:170) are in consensus that the tape recorder enhances the flow of information during the interviews while providing the researcher with accurate and relatively complete data. Additionally, the use of a tape recorder allowed the researcher to be more attentive and concentrated on the interviewing process. Furthermore, the shortcomings that could result from the memory loss could be eliminated (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:351).

4.8.6. Dependability

Globally, qualitative researchers like Maxwell (2005:108), Ratcliff (2003:28) and Johnson (2008:100) concur that dependability raises and enhances the reliability and validity of the research findings. With this in mind, the researcher took the interview transcripts back to the participants for confirmation before being analysed and interpreted. That enhanced the trustworthiness of the empirical research findings.

4.8.7. Low inference descriptors

To ensure trustworthiness, the strategy of low-inference descriptors or what Maxwell (2005:106) calls “thick description” was also used. Throughout the study, the researcher provided a detailed, clear and explicit description of the sample, procedures, interviews and research results. That was done with utmost precision, so that the reader could know and understand exactly what was done and how. According to Ratcliff (2003:28), that would assist another researcher who decides to replicate the study.

4. 8.8. Verbatim accounts

The researcher also used a strategy entailing the verbatim accounts of the conversations, transcripts and direct quotations that are regarded as valid data (Golafshani, 2003:602).

All those strategies were considered to be sufficient and relevant in terms of ensuring the trustworthiness of the study. In the following section, the ethical principles that guided the researcher will be presented.

4.9. RESEARCH ETHICS

In ensuring that the study complied with ethical principles (Altrichter, Feldman, Posch & Somekh, 2008:93; Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:101; Ramcharam & Cutcliffe, 2001:358), the researcher adopted the following ethical measures.

4.9.1. Approval for conducting research

The researcher requested the approval of the Mpumalanga Department of Education before commencing with the study. A letter of request (Annexure A) was written to the District Director for approval. In that letter, the purpose of the research, target participants and duration of the study was outlined. The letter further gave assurance that the identity of participants, as well as the information that would be shared, would be treated with honesty and integrity (Keats, 2000:30). During the interview sessions, the approval letter (Annexure B) was also shown to the participants.

4.9.2. Informed consent

Ruan (2005:21) describes informed consent as a procedure during which participants choose to participate in an investigation after being informed of

facts that would be likely to influence their decision. Guided by the principle, the researcher informed principals of the nature of the study to be conducted and indicated that they had the choice to participate in the study or not. In other words, principals were made aware that their participation in the study was voluntary. Participants were then given informed consent forms (Annexure C) to read and sign. Creswell (2003:64) states that consent forms should include and highlight the right to participate voluntarily, the purpose of the study, the procedures of the study, the right to ask questions, obtain a copy of the results, and have their privacy respected. To that effect, the researcher ensured that all such provisions were included in the consent forms which the participants signed.

In addition, both the researcher and the principals signed the consent forms (Annexure C). In doing that, the researcher never promised participants any material benefits, apart from an opportunity to experience being part of the research project. In line with Pedroni and Pimple's (2001:10) recommendation, the participants were informed in the consent form that they could terminate their participation at any time without being penalised.

Over and above, the principals were also made aware that their participation in the study was voluntary. That confirmed what Creswell (2003:64) points out; namely, that elements of consent forms should include and highlight the right to participate voluntarily, the purpose of the study, the procedures of the study, the right to ask questions, obtain a copy of the results and have their privacy respected. For that reason, the researcher ensured that all such provisions were included in the consent forms that were signed by the participants.

4.9.3. Confidentiality and anonymity

In terms of ensuring that confidentiality and anonymity were ensured, the researcher used letters of the alphabet to label the participants. For instance,

they were named principal A, B, C, or D. Furthermore, the information obtained about the participants was kept confidential. That guaranteed that no one had access to individual information or the names of the participants except the researcher himself (Keats, 2000:30; Pedroni & Pimple, 2001:11). Participants were reassured that their identity, their names and addresses would not be revealed in any way, unless with their permission.

4.9.4. Accessibility of research findings

Participated principals, their circuit managers, as well as the district director had access to the research results after the completion of the study. This further ensured confidentiality and protected the privacy of participants by allowing principals to confirm whether their identities had been revealed or not (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:335). That was done by giving each participant a copy of the research report for perusal and input. Indeed that ensured that participants had confidence in the researcher as far as anonymity and access to research results were concerned.

Having highlighted some of the ethical principles that were complied with, the researcher will provide the concluding remarks in the next section.

4.9. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The chapter dealt with the interpretative approach, particularly the constructive-interpretative paradigm, in investigating the research problem. During this process, a case study was used as the main design, which was implemented through purposive sampling, particularly for identifying some information-rich participants. Semi-structured interviews were employed as the main data collection techniques which elicited data that were confirmed, corroborated and augmented by the observational field notes and the document analysis, particularly during data analysis. During data analysis, the researcher

inductively segmented and coded the data to develop themes, categories and sub-categories (Suter, 2006:317; Taylor-Powell & Renner, 2003:3; Thorne, 2000:68).

To ensure the trustworthiness of the empirical research findings, strategies such as establishing *rapport*, use of tape recorder, direct contact at the site, verbatim accounts, low-inference descriptions and triangulation of data were employed (Maxwell, 2005:106). Lastly, ethical measures such as informed consent, confidentiality, and anonymity as being recommended worldwide (Du Toit, 2006:10; Pedroni & Pimple, 2001:11; Ruan, 2005:21) were considered and applied.

CHAPTER 5: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

5.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the research methodology that the study followed. Amongst other matters, some ethical considerations and measures to ensure trustworthiness of the outcomes of the research were also outlined.

In this chapter, the data obtained by means of various research instruments will be presented and analysed (cf. section 4.7). In addition, the researcher will present the results obtained from the analysis of data from the three data collection techniques (semi-structured interviews, observational field notes, and analysed written documents) (cf. sections 1.9.3; 4.6). The empirical research findings will be discussed as being guided by the conceptual framework of the research (cf. section 1.5), the purpose of the research (cf. section 1.4) and the research questions (cf. section 1.3) against the background of the relevant literature as discussed in chapters 2 and 3 respectively.

Concerning the presentation of data, with regard to the confidentiality aspects and ensuring a fluent discussion, the fifteen participants were identified and codenamed Principal A, Principal B, Principal C, up to Principal O. The detailed background of such participants is presented in the next section.

5.2. PROFILES OF PARTICIPANTS

Data was collected from fifteen participants; seven men and eight women, using the three data collection techniques of the observational field notes (cf. Table 5.1), the analysis of written records (cf. Table 5.2) and the semi-structured interviews. As shown earlier (cf. section 4.5.2), the initial targets of eighteen participants were adjusted to fifteen because the data reached saturation level (Creswell, 2003:53, McMillan & Schumacher, 2006:319). The

participants were drawn from nine primary schools and six secondary schools across the Bohlabela District of Mpumalanga Province. All the schools ranged between quintile 1 to 2 which had been declared and categorised as “no fee schools” (Mpumalanga DOE, 2010).

The information from both tables was used to determine the themes and categories that will be presented later in this chapter (cf. section 5.3). Such tables can assist the reader with valuable information regarding the profiles of the participants as referred to throughout this chapter. Accordingly, the participants will be referred to by codenames as shown in both tables to adhere to the privacy and confidentiality requirements (Pedroni & Pimple, 2001:11).

TABLE 5.1: PROFILES OF PARTICIPANTS DRAWN FROM THE OBSERVATIONAL FIELD NOTES

Principal/school	Gender	School phase	Quintile / funding	Physical facilities							Discipline		Display of trophies and certificates	Tidiness of the yard
				Security fence with guard	Admin office	Classrooms	Libraries	Computer labs	Science labs	School halls	Educators	Learners		
A	M	Sec	2	✓	x	x	x	x	x	x	✓	x	✓	✓
B	M	Prim	2	✓	✓	x	x	x	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓
C	F	Prim	1	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓
D	F	Prim	1	✓	x	✓	✓	x	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓
E	F	Sec	1	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
F	M	Sec	2	x	x	✓	✓	x	✓	✓	x	x	x	x
G	M	Sec	2	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓
H	F	Prim	1	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓
I	F	Prim	2	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x	x	✓	✓	x	x
J	M	Prim	2	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓
K	F	Sec	1	✓	✓	x	✓	x	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓
L	F	Prim	2	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x	✓	✓	x
M	M	Prim	1	✓	✓	✓	x	x	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓
N	F	Prim	2	✓	✓	x	x	x	x	x	✓	x	x	x
O	M	Sec	1	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	✓	✓	✓	✓

Table 5.1 depicts the profiles of the participants in terms of the availability of physical facilities, the state of discipline of both educators and learners, the availability of trophies and certificates and the tidiness of the schoolyards. Concerning physical facilities, schools were highly resourced, especially with regard to security fences (with the exception of schools F and O), but average-resourced with regard to administration offices (except schools A, D, F, and X) and classrooms (except A, B, K, N, and O).

However, all the schools experienced a dire shortage of the specialised classes such as libraries (only seven schools had one), computer laboratories (only four schools had one), science laboratories (only two schools had them), and schools halls (only two schools had them). This shortage was confirmed by the participants during the interviews sessions (cf. section 5.4.2.2 c).

Participants were generally able to keep their school environments tidy (except schools F, I, L and N). During the site visits, the researcher observed how well participants maintained their flower gardens and orchards and the display of their trophies and certificates. By implications, such display of trophies and certificates reflected to what extent participants' contributions had been recognised by the education authorities.

Regarding the maintenance of discipline, participants were generally doing quite well, except schools A, F, L and N. In most cases, there was strict control by the security officers at the school gate. During contact, learners were not allowed to leave the school premises without permission. Very few learners could be seen loitering outside the classrooms during teaching time. Furthermore, there was no noise coming from the classrooms. Regarding the discipline of educators and learners, the researcher's observations was supported by some participants' responses, as indicated in section 5.4.2.1 (a - b).

**TABLE 5.2: PROFILES OF PARTICIPANTS DRAWN FROM
THE ANALYSED WRITTEN DOCUMENTS**

Principal / school	Gender	School phase	Quintile / Funding	Vision statements	Strategic plans	Operational plans	Instructional plans	Control journals	School policies	Registers	Assessment schedules	Learners' portfolios
A	M	Sec	2	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
B	M	Prim	2	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
C	F	Prim	1	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
D	F	Prim	1	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
E	F	Sec	1	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
F	M	Sec	2	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
G	M	Sec	2	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
H	F	Prim	1	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
I	F	Prim	2	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
J	M	Prim	2	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
K	F	Sec	1	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
L	F	Prim	2	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
M	M	Prim	1	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
N	F	Prim	2	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
O	M	Sec	2	✓	x	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓

Table 5.2 depicts all the availability of the relevant administrative documents needed to effectively run the school. However, none of the schools had strategic plans. The documents can be categorised into three groups; long-term records (vision statements, strategic plans, and school policies), medium-term records (operational plans, registers, control journals, assessment schedules) and short-term records (instructional plans, learners' portfolios).

In the course of the interview, the researcher noted that such documents were safely kept, though principals used them to varying degrees during their day-to-day work. To the researcher that suggested that their motivation to use them

vary; some kept them for the sake of compliance while others (principals C, E, F, K, and L) really made use of them to bring positive changes at their schools. The observation was confirmed by the responses from participants as indicated in sections 5.4.1.1 (passion for learner success) and 5.4.1.2 (the quality of teaching and learning processes) in this chapter.

Having indicated the profiles of participants, the process that led to the development of themes and categories will be described in the next section.

5.3. DEVELOPMENT OF THEMES AND CATEGORIES

All the raw data from the observational field notes, the analysed written documents and the semi-structured interviews were processed using the qualitative data analysis as indicated in chapter 1 (cf. section 1.9) and chapter 4 (cf. section 4.7). The development of themes, categories and sub-categories from the raw data was informed by the conceptual framework outlined in chapter 1 (cf. section 1.5). The main research aim (cf. section 1.4) formed the framework of the themes and the categories used to manage and order the raw data accordingly. The categorisations of the raw data (cf. Table 5.3) made it possible for the researcher to discuss the findings of the study as shown in section 5.4 below.

TABLE 5.3: THEMES, CATEGORIES AND SUB-CATEGORIES

THEME 1	5.4.1. COGNITIVE FACTORS IMPACTING ON MOTIVATION
Category 1	5.4.1.1. Passion for learner success
Category 2	5.4.1.2 Strategic focus
Sub-category 1	a. School vision
Sub-category 2	b. Facilitating strategies
Category 3	5.4.1.3. Individuals' perception

Sub-category 1	a. Need for appreciation
Sub-category 2	b. Fairness of the school environment
Sub-category 3	c. Self-efficacy belief
Sub-category 4	d. Locus of control
THEME 2	5.4.1. SYSTEMIC FACTORS IMPACTING ON MOTIVATION
Category 1	5.4.2.1. Quality of the teaching and learning processes
Sub-category 1	a. Academic learner achievement
Sub-category 2	b. Commitment of educators to teaching process
Sub-category 3	c. Commitment of school management teams
Sub-category 4	d. Mitigating strategies to enhance learner achievement
	1. Strategies to mitigate poor learner performance
	2. Strategies for educators to mitigate poor learner performance
	3. Strategies for parents to mitigate poor learner performance
Category 2	5.4.1.2. Quality of the support from the Department of Education
Sub-category 1	a. Curriculum delivery
Sub-category 2	b. Allocation of financial resources
Sub-category 3	c. Provision of physical facilities
Sub-category 4	d. Provision of personnel
Category 3	5.4.1.3 Quality of the support from the stakeholders
Sub-category 1	a. Support from parents
Sub-category 2	b. Support from school governing bodies
Sub-category 3	c. Support from labour unions

Table 5.3 depicts how the raw data from the three data collection techniques (cf. sections 1.9; 4.7) were analysed and developed into two main themes, six categories and several sub-categories. In terms of this table, the motivation of principals was influenced by two main variables (themes): intrinsic and extrinsic factors.

From each variable, some influential factors (categories and sub-categories) emerged; for instance, a passion for learner success, strategic focus and an individual's perception of the topic under investigation, were categorised under one theme namely, the cognitive factors impacting on the motivation of principals. Such themes, their categories and sub-categories represented major empirical findings of the research, and they were discussed in detail as shown in the next section.

5.4. DISCUSSION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS

As illustrated in Table 5.3 above and Figure 5.1 later in this section, the results obtained from the raw data were organised into themes, categories and sub-categories which served as the main headings and sub-headings as will be shown in the subsequent discussions below (cf. section 5.4.1; 5.4.2). In the course of the discussions, applicable verbatim quotes extracted from the raw data were used to illustrate the important findings.

5.4.1. Cognitive factors impacting on motivation

As discussed in chapter 2 (cf. section 2.3) and Table 5.3 above, cognitive factors represent thought processes such as needs, passions, goals, perceptions, beliefs, values, attitudes, expectancies and interests. As illustrated in chapter 2 (cf. Figure 2.1), thought processes stimulate motivated behaviour by creating the psychological tension and the state of disequilibrium which subsequently prompt a person to take action (Locke & Latham, 2002; Yamaguchi, 2002:323).

In the following sections, attention will be paid to factors such as a passion for learner success, strategic focus, and an individual's perceptions regarding their motivational value.

5.4.1.1. Passion for learner success

Data from interviews revealed that a passion for learner success generated a deeper sense of focus, enthusiasm and commitment. All fifteen participants agreed that their learners deserved a brighter future. In describing such a 'brighter future', principals used expressions like learners "*who will in future be responsible adults*" (Principal K), "*that will be successful*" (Principal N), and "*that their future, their future can be the [sic] bright*" (Principal B), "*making [an] impact in their community after their studies*" (Principal C), and "*marketable in [sic] the globe*" (Principal N). These accounts express how passionate participants were about the future of their learners. A principal from school F summarised these expressions by indicating that: "*I want to see these young ones living a successful life.*"

Furthermore, it was found that principals had gone beyond the call of duty when it came to assisting needy learners, particularly in terms of assisting them to pass grade 12 with excellent results. On this score, a principal from school O remarked that, "*I personally drove those learners to those universities. They are there now. You know! They are doing well.*" Although the reasons for their passions differed, the need for achievement and self-fulfilment were picked up to be the main driving force behind the motives of participants. For instance, since childhood some principals had harboured dreams of making a positive impact on the lives of children. Principal B declared: "*In my work, I think teaching was a call for me, because even if I was very young I was prepared for this field*". Concurring with the above, similar views were expressed by the following principals.

I draw my motivation from the fact that as a teacher, I have passion for teaching and also that, I too, have been a learner and somebody did something good to me and I am here today, for I feel obliged to have this dream so that at the end; these learners should be saying; 'yes, they did something to us' (Principal C).

When we were still young, our teachers used to tell us that when you are to become responsible adults, you have to work harder. That will make you a better person tomorrow (Principal J).

It is evident from the above expositions that the empirical research findings confirmed McClelland's achievement motivation theory (1961) that an individual's passion, desire and wish for excellence and success are the primary determinants of human motivation in the workplace (cf. section 2.3.2). Substantiating this theory, Pintrich and Schunk (2002:194) and Chindanya (2002:125) stress that the morale of principals is increased when there are opportunities for achievement. McClelland's achievement motivation theory further postulates that high-achievers have a strong passion to find solutions to problems, master complex tasks, set realistic goals and obtain feedback on the level of their success (cf. section 2.3.2.1).

Having discussed the motivational effects of passion for learner success; in the next section, the researcher felt it necessary to describe how a strategic focus (school vision and the facilitation strategies) influences the motivation of principals.

5.4.1.2. Strategic focus

Empirical investigations indicated that the ability to perform specific activities (facilitating strategies) linking to predetermined goals (the school vision) had significant intrinsic value and enhanced the highly motivated behaviour in principals. In the following sub-sections, the detailed motivational effects of a school vision and facilitating strategies are to be discussed.

a. The school vision

Data from the interviews, corroborated by data from the analysed written records (cf. Table 5.2), revealed that the availability of a school vision (stipulating specific goals) was found to be a significant determinant of

motivated behaviour amongst principals. For this reason, the following four examples of a school vision were identified and discussed as mentioned by the participants:

Our vision is to provide quality education to our learners. Our learners should be given an opportunity to receive the best education so that they are able to compete equally with other learners everywhere; in terms of reading, writing, counting, and mastering other basic academic and social competencies (Principal O).

The vision of our school is about producing learners who will be able to compete with other learners locally, nationally and globally. The mission for be achieved this would be through emphasising reading and writing skills to our learners, and also participating in extra-mural activities (Principal L).

The vision of our school is to provide quality education for all learners in the school. This will be attained through working collectively with members of the community, teachers, learners and the parents. As a school we shall ensure that we place teaching in everything that we do in preparing our learners to become responsible and active members of the community (Principal M).

The vision and mission of our school is that we want to see our children being able to live a better life when they go anywhere and throughout the world. Our learners must have a goal in life; reading, writing and counting so that they could become teachers, doctors and leaders (Principal D).

In terms of unpacking such a vision, participants agreed that they wished to see their learners committed to their studies and able to master basic competencies such as reading, writing, and debating so that they could become professionals. “We want to see many doctors from the school here and many engineers from the school here” (Principal B). This sentiment was informed by the fact that a lack of commitment and illiteracy amongst learners were identified as the major challenges by all the participants. In this regard, a principal from school G complained that, “most of learners when they come from primary school, they cannot read and write,” For that reason, participants were influenced to

formulate their own school vision with the intention to “*emphasise reading and writing skills to our learners*” (Principal L).

According to the participants, when learners showed commitment to their studies and being able to master skills like reading, writing and debating; they performed well in their respective secondary schools and tertiary institutions. For instance, principals agreed that mastering basic skills would enable learners to “*pass grade seven with ease and also be able to pass grade 12 successfully*” (Principal I), “*not becoming a problem to the secondary schools*” (Principal M) and “*not to be problematic in the high school*” (Principal E). Such sentiments attested to the fact that participants really wanted to ensure that learners became professional individuals who were “*able to go to universities or any other tertiary institution and study a particular career, which of course will benefit them as individuals, and benefit community and the nation at large*” (Principal F).

The research findings confirmed Locke’s goal setting theory (1968) that specific and difficult goals have a stronger motivational effect than general and easy goals (cf. section 2.4.3.1). The subsequent studies (Locke & Latham, 2002:707; Diefendorff & Lord, 2003:369) found that difficult and specific goals, if accepted, lead to better performance than easy or do-your-best goals.

Furthermore, similar studies (Mills, 2005:10; Athanasoula-Reppa & Lazarido; 2008:65; Khuzwayo, 2008:96) conclude that principals who establish clear school visions and also pursue them proactively and persistently, are able to make a positive impact on school performance (cf. section 3.1.1). Putting it differently, Mills (2005:11) clearly points out that the absence of a precise school vision causes schools “to move slowly, stagnate, and lose their way.”

Having highlighted the motivational effects of the school vision, it is equally crucial to explore the influence of the facilitating strategies on the motivation

of principals. This is necessitated by the fact that the facilitating strategies are critical when one is striving to attain organisational goals (Diefendorff & Lord, 2003:366).

b. Facilitating strategies

Data from the interviews, supported by data from the analysed written documents (cf. Table 5.2), showed that the ability to develop and implement the performance strategies (specific and direct activities aiming to attain a school vision) had significant motivational value for the morale of principals. In terms of this study, the facilitating strategies included the strategic plans (cf. section 3.3.2), operational plans and instructional plans (cf. section 3.3.2) that the participants implemented to attain their school vision (goals) as discussed in section 5.4.1.2 (a) above.

In this regard, a participant from school E remarked that, *“We are highly encouraged by the plans and programmes the school adopted this year for improving reading and writing skills,”* In addition, a similar issue was mentioned by another participant from school A, who stated that, *“... unlike [in] previous years, we adopted progressive programs that will assist in improving our grade 12 results. This motivates us a lot.”* The two similar views emphasised that the development and implementation of the performance strategies are indispensable in actualising the goals schools have set for themselves.

In the short to medium-term, the general feeling existed amongst principals that the greatest and strong focus had to be on the effective teaching and learning, hence a principal from school H declared that, *“Teachers must teach effectively, and learners must learn. They must study their books. Teachers must give home works and class works.”* With regard to ensuring that teachers

were teaching while learners were learning, the principals checked the work of both teachers and learners regularly. A principal from school B avows:

Actually, during the year, every quarter we assess learners to determine what we taught and whether their performance is according to the standard of our vision. So we check in each and every term if do they grow in education by assessing in each and every term.

Further, it was noteworthy that participants developed the performance strategies which were simple, specific and concrete. For instance, principals identified the specific and concrete strategies such as engaging their schools in reading activities, extra-mural activities and making some changes to their curriculum. In this regard, two examples to illustrate the point will suffice:

In actual fact we are going to, in two years' time, we want to do away with subjects like History and Geography. If we take them out, then the posts we are having, we are going to employ teachers majoring in science subjects (Principal G).

As a school, we set programmes ourselves which we start by doing internal competitions that start from lower grades and then go out to all higher grades, we have got the programme whereby we have learners doing recitations in the assembly once per week (Principal C).

The schools developed systems to track the performance of their former learners at secondary schools or higher institutions of learning. A case in point was a primary school principal from school B who remarked that, “*As they go to secondary schools, we follow each and every grade in terms of what are they performing, until they pass their grade12.*”

In the same spirit, another primary school principal from school C substantiated: “*And we also check as to how many learners from our school who have also done well in grade 12.*” According to the participants, the development of the performance strategies had a strong motivational impact on them. A case in point was raised by principal O who remarked that, “*... better performance of my learners at secondary school makes me proud.*” A similar

sentiment was shared by another principal from school F who made these remarks:

I am very much confident because I am having a team that is supportive of the plan. And the reason why they are supportive is because I don't do solo planning. I plan with them. We sit down together and come up with the workable plan, a plan which everybody will understand and be able to follow. So! That in itself gives me confidence.

The empirical research findings confirmed Locke's goal setting theory (1968) that for the goal to have a significant motivational effect, goal the facilitation strategies need to be developed and implemented (cf. section 2.4.3.1). Enlarging on the theory, Diefendorff and Lord (2003:381), Garber (2006:2) and Jasparo (2006:5) found that principals with the facilitation strategies do improve school performance, build teamwork and expertise and deal effectively with a rapidly changing school environment. Garber (2006:2), in particular, stresses that with a facilitation strategy, "everyone will work towards the same vision, trying to reach the same goals and building commitment to the schools" (cf. section 3.3.2).

Having discussed the motivational impact of strategic focus on principals, in the following section, the researcher will examine how individuals' perceptions influence his or her motivation.

5.4.1.3. Individuals' perceptions

The empirical research findings revealed that the individuals' perception, particularly the need for appreciation, fairness of the school environment, a self-efficacy belief and a locus of control have were found to be important determinants of motivation in principals. A detailed discussion in terms of how they impacted on motivated behaviour will be discussed in the following sub-sections:

a. Need for appreciation

The responses from the interview transcripts, as corroborated by the data from the observational field notes (cf. Table 5.1), revealed that the morale of principals improved when they were appreciated and acknowledged for the work well done. Such sentiment was expressed by a participant from school E who revealed that during her birth-day, *“teachers here bought me a very big trophy. That motivated me a lot.”* During the semi-structured interviews, the participants expressed their satisfaction for having been awarded some trophies, certificates and prize monies from the either department of education, their colleagues, parents of learners, or community members. In this regard, principal B remarked that, *“I feel encouraged because if you see if people recognize you that you are doing an excellent work, it motivates a lot.”* In all the schools, some trophies and certificates were clearly displayed in the principals’ office and staff-rooms (cf. Table 5.1) as a sign of appreciation and acknowledgement. On this score, a principal from school H explained how much her greening and beautifications of the school grounds were appreciated:

In 2004, we got position 1 in the circuit and district in greening and beautification. So in 2005, we got position 1 in the circuit, region we got R9 000 again. And again in the province, we got R13 000. With this achievement I felt very honoured and great.

However, the findings also confirmed that the morale of principals deteriorated when they felt being unappreciated and unacknowledged for their work. The participant from school I indicated that she had not received any award thus far; *“... like any other normal person, I also like to be appreciated when I have done a good work”*. The principal from school E made a commitment to work hard and elaborated that, *“Next year my learners will participate in extra-mural activities, especially choral music competitions. We also need some more trophies at the school.”*

Furthermore, it is not only the recognition from the department of education is expected by principals, but also the recognition and appreciation from both the parents and community members. *“With reward, I haven’t been formally recognised by the department since I have been appointed as principal since 2006, though the majority of parents and educators appreciate our achievement so far”* (Principal O).

The empirical research findings confirmed Maslow’s self-actualisation theory (1954) which states that the fulfilled self-esteem needs do provide a solid basis for an individual to feel confident, competent, strong, useful and needed in his or her world. In contrast, unfulfilled self-esteem needs give rise to a feeling of inferiority; weakness and helplessness (cf. section 2.3.1.1). The subsequent research (Garudzo-Kusereka, 2003:26; Rouse, 2004:27; Udechukwu, 2009:75) have shown that self-esteem needs are partly met by recognition, acknowledgement and appreciation of the work and contributions of principals, either in the form of praise, medals or promotions (cf. sections 2.3.1.2; 2.3.7.2).

Just as they are sensitive to their unsatisfied needs for appreciation and acknowledgement, the research found participants sensitive to unfair treatment. Therefore, the motivational impact of the fairness or unfairness of the school environment will be examined below.

b. Fairness of the school environment

The data from the interview transcripts revealed that principals who perceived themselves being treated unfairly were less satisfied than those who perceive themselves being treated fairly. For instance, there were principals who complained about being incorrectly ranked into the wrong quintiles which negatively affected their annual financial allocation. They believed that they were entitled to the same treatment as their neighbouring schools in the lower quintiles. In this regard, a principal from school N complained:

It[quintile status]de-motivates me because they give finances according to quintiles. And these quintiles, you know what, this school, they have allocated it to quintile 2, but the schools nearby are in quintile 1. I am the feeder school of the neighbouring secondary school, but it is in quintile 1. And then, I am in quintile 2. Where do they expect these children to get money? You know what! These children are coming from the same village.

A similar frustration was raised by another principal from school E who complained that:

In finances, we have got a challenge. Our school is one of those schools which are receiving [a] very little [sic] amount from the department. And, according to how they graded us, we are graded as the village which must pop out the school funds, yet they are our neighbouring villages which have been relieved from paying school fund.

The opposite, however, also became evident; principals felt satisfied when they thought they were treated fairly by the education system. The principal from school A expressed his satisfaction at how the department of education treated his school in relation to the other neighbouring schools that are also treated well. “Generally our finances are not bad since we have been shifted from quintile 3 to quintile 2 like our neighbouring schools, things are quite better.” Similar feelings were expressed by a participant from school O who made these remarks:

Even the department is supporting us, because every time they give us some incentives; IQMS and you are very motivated. For example you have some resources, human resources, LSM and teaching materials, they use money also; the norms and standards so that we can buy equipments for the school. Those things are encouraging me, and also the parents (Principal O).

Lastly, another participant expressed her satisfaction by indicating how the annual financial allocation by the department of education had assisted her to smoothly run her school affairs.

I think with the money that we are getting at the school; I must say we are privileged; because we are able to do some of the things because of that. I am just saying but we even go to ... that is financed by the school. So I must give credit to the department for doing that. And then in terms of the money we are not having a problem because we are able to do things with that (Principal C).

All such views clearly indicate what the participants perceived as fair or unfair in terms of their school environment.

From the foregoing exposition, it is clear that participants' perceptions confirmed Adam's equity theory (1963) that principals will always strive for "fairness and justice in social exchanges and give-and-take relationships" within the work environment (cf. section 2.3.5.1). In addition, Chindanya (2002:52) and Yamaguchi (2002:324) substantiate this view by stating that within the school setting, principals will always compare themselves with their colleagues when it comes to how the department of education provides resources (cf. section 2.3.5.1).

Having analysed the motivational effects of the equity or inequity of the school environment; the researcher feels being prudent to examine the motivational impact of the self-efficacy belief on the motivation of principals.

c. Self-efficacy beliefs

The interview responses revealed that self-efficacy; which is an individual's belief in his or her capabilities, competencies, abilities and skills in order to successfully execute a task (Monroe, 2002:4; Pajares, 2002:7; Wood & Olivier, 2004:289), has a significant motivational effect on the morale of principals. In other words, principals who believe in their abilities and skills are highly motivated than those who do not believe in their abilities and skills. In this regard, a principal from school G pointed out that, "*In actual fact, I do believe*

in myself. I always try to manage the school professionally. One other thing I don't stop from learning. All these motivate me."

A similar sentiment was also shared by principal K who felt that her school performance was a product of her effort, diligence and hard-work, not merely luck. She asserted that:

You cannot achieve just because you are lucky; it [performance] is through hard work. As a leader, it [diligence] must start with you; you must be a hard-worker; then that others will follow. It [diligence] is not like a gift. But with this one [performance], you must work hard especially starting from you as a principal.

This view was also expressed by another principal from school E who stressed that: *"I can't say achievement is luck. It is an effort because if you don't work, you can't get anything. So you must work hard in order to get something"*.

All in all, the findings revealed that principals who believed in their abilities and skills tended to engage in activities that enhanced their motivation. For instance, a principal from school H indicated that she was quite positive that she would overcome her challenges, because she was *"reading books and newspapers regarding how others cope in similar situations."* A similar attitude was revealed by principals E, H and O who emphasised the need to accept changes in education. *"I just told myself that as long as I am still in the system, I must accept changes"* (Principal H).

These empirical research findings supported Bandura's self-efficacy theory (1986) which states that the highly self-efficacious principals are found to be persistent, steadfast, more flexible and more willing to adapt new strategies in pursuing their goals (cf. section 2.3.7.1). The subsequent studies (Awang-Hashim *et al.*, 2002:344; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2004:574; Woods & Olivier, 2004:292) concur that the high self-efficacious principals believe in

their own abilities and skills, rather than believing in external forces such as luck and chance (cf. section 2.3.6).

In addition to the self-efficacy belief, the locus of control as another factor will be discussed in the next section.

d. Locus of control

The collected data showed that the locus of control, which is the perceived location of the source of control (Chen & Silverthorne, 2008:573; Shivers-Blackwell, 2006:31), has a significant motivational effect on the morale of principals. In other words, the attribution of poor learner achievement only to environmental factors has a strong de-motivational effect; instead of taking personal responsibility for it. In this regard, a number of participants complained and blamed their problems on various external factors instead of taking personal responsibility. *“The common challenge, usually the places where we are staying [sic], the parents don’t cooperate”* (Principal N). *“Our department is giving us insufficient books always and those books are not fit to [sic] those particular grades”* (Principal E).

In terms of Rotter’s locus of control theory (1954) as discussed in section 2.3.6, individuals who attribute their performance to environmental factors are called “externals” while those attributing to their personal qualities are “internals.” Therefore, the participants identified as externals always complained about the external factors and tended to be de-motivated on a regular basis. On this score a principal from school M declared:

You see as a principal you work with people and sometimes you come across some problems whereby teachers just are ignorant. They just ignore the timetable. You just find the teacher knowing very well that he is just supposed to be in class, and when I go to the staff-room the teacher is there; maybe doing his or her own things at the expense of learners’ time.

The empirical research findings support Rotter's locus of control theory (1954), which states that individuals who take personal responsibility for the outcome of their efforts are more motivated than those attributing the outcome to only environmental factors (cf. section 2.3.6.1). The subsequent research (Shivers-Blackwell, 2006:32; Chen & Silverthorne, 2008:573; Graffeo & Silvestri, 2006:593) found that the internally-oriented principals exhibit greater confidence, are more capable of handling stressful situations, pursue riskier and more innovative strategies, and deliver a better performance than do externally-oriented principals (cf. section 2.3.6.2).

Having discussed the motivational effects of cognitive factors on the motivation of principals; the researcher will now examine the motivational impact of the systemic factors on motivation.

5.4.2. Systemic factors impacting on motivation

This group of factors pertain to quality of the teaching and learning processes, the quality of support from the Department of Education as well as the quality of support from the various stakeholders. Each of these aspects is to be discussed in the next sub-sections.

5.4.2.1. Quality of the teaching and learning processes

The quality of teaching and learning processes were found to be a critical motivational factor regarding the effect that it had on the morale of principals. As indicated in section 5.4.1.2 (school visions), participants were committed to learner success (quality education). In this section, the specific motivational effects that result from the academic learner achievement, the commitment of educators, the commitment of school management teams, as well as the mitigating strategies, are to be explored and discussed.

a. Academic learner achievement

The data from interviews clearly revealed that principals' motivation become very low when learners are not committed and not responsible to their studies. During se-structured interviews, participants expressed their dissatisfaction on their learners' commitment to learning as well as with their inability to read and write. However, the collected data from Tables 5.1 (the observational field notes) and 5.2 (the analysed written documents) indicated that learners were disciplined and had their portfolios. In this regard, a principal from school A asserted that, *"Our learners seem not being committed because you find that now some learners come late for school."*

Agreeing with the view, principal K raised her concern by indicating that, *"... like in our case, we have learners, even in grade 11 and 10; learners who are unable to read, they cannot write, not English as additional language, but even Xitsonga as a home language."* Such views expressed by participants suggested that their views de-motivated them and discouraged them from executing their day-to-day managerial tasks.

The contrary, however, also became evident: principals felt satisfied when their learners showed an interest in their own learning. In this regard, a principal from school L remarked that, *"...the performance of learners is good. It is very encouraging"*. A similar sentiment was expressed by principal F who noted that the way his learners were *"working is encouraging, positively so. It shows that with much effort and paying much attention to learning, they can really make it."*

Once again, it is noted that such expressions of their views suggested that principals felt satisfied when their learners performed well in their school activities. Concerning the contributory factors to the poor performance of learners, a principal from school D attributed that to the fact that, *"most of the*

children were not living with their parents. Their parents are working far.” However, another principal was consoled by the fact that, “...*there was an improvement in their performance. They are very much encouraging and that make me happy.*”

The empirical research findings confirmed the conclusion made by Belle (2007:122) and Mthombeni (2004:84) who assert that the academic performance of learners has a significant impact on the morale of principals (cf. section 3.4.1). In terms of their research findings, the motivation of principals improves when learners perform well, but drops when learners under-perform.

Having explored the motivational effects of the academic performance of learners on motivation of principals, the researcher deems it necessary to examine how the commitment of educators to teaching influences the motivation of principals. That is discussed below.

b. Commitment of educators

Concerning the commitment of educators to the teaching process, the interview responses, as well as the data depicted in Tables 5.1 (the observational field notes) and 5.2 (the analysed written documents), proved it to have a significant motivational effect on the morale of principals. For instance, participants became motivated when educators performed well and became de-motivated when educators performed below expectations. On the positive side, the data showed that principals were motivated by educators who “*attend their classes, give learners some written work, and also give supervisor work when required*” (Principal I).

A similar sentiment was shared by a principal from school O who remarked that, “...*the level of commitment, according to me, I can say is satisfactory, because as you can even see that there is order here at school. All learners are*

in their classes". This sentiment confirmed Moloi's (2004:3) conclusion which highlight principals to effectively manage their schools, even in times of stability and turmoil, in order to ensure that the schooling for all learners took place successful (cf. section 3.4.2).

In contrast, principals were unhappy with the tendency of teachers to avoid teaching and dragging their feet when going to class and failing to discipline their learners as well as generally being uncommitted. The comment from principal A clearly articulated this feeling:

But here, there are another group of educators who does not care even in maintenance of disciple at school. Even when seeing children lingering outside they won't do anything.

A similar concern was raised by principal O who indicated that her educators were not committed to their work because she always reminded them to, "*Go to your class; go to your class! You can see that even when they are attending, they are just dragging their feet.*" Other principals facing similar challenge attributed their de-motivation to factors such as a "*lack of understanding on issues of curriculum*" (K), "*unionism*" (Principals J) and "*understaffing*" (Principals I), "*lack of support from CI's and low standard of cluster papers*" (Principal G).

The empirical research findings confirmed Locke's goal setting theory (1968) regarding the motivational effect of goal commitment on motivation. Locke and Latham (2002:708) maintain that the goal-performance relationship is the strongest when people are committed to their goals (cf. section 2.4.3.1). On this score, Enueme and Engwunyeka (2008:14) and Moloi (2004:2) point out that the ever-changing curriculum and technological innovations are making it difficult for educators to develop proficiency, capacity, and commitment to deliver learner performance (cf. section 3.4.2). Similarly, Mdhluli (2004:128) and Nyathi (2007:37) attest that uncommitted educators, who also fail to

provide positive role modelling to learners, frustrate and discourage principals (cf. section 3.4.2).

Having described how the commitment of educators impacted on the motivation of principals, the researcher will now examine the motivational effects of the commitment of school management teams (SMTs).

c. Commitment of the school management teams

The collected data revealed that the commitment of the school management teams (SMTs) in monitoring teaching and learning process had a significant motivational effect on the morale of principals. According to the participants, the willingness of the SMT to confront challenges relating to the teaching and learning processes was highly appreciated. In this regard, a principal from school J commented:

I think I have got a good team, who are achievers, good educators. We don't settle down, we don't sit down because learners are no more reading. We are doing everything in our powers to let them study, to let them come during weekends.

For this reason, it was clear that the commitment shown by the SMTs had a direct motivational impact on the morale of participants.

Through their team work, some principals were able to meet regularly, especially quarterly, in order to plan and assess their school performance. To this effect, the principal from school K explained that they, “...conduct SMT [school management team] meetings, each and every quarter, where we analyse the performance of the previous quarter.” Such team work, according to principal H, enabled school management teams to “monitor their phases, for instance, there is [a] SMT monitoring their various phases. I also monitor them to find out whether they did do their work.”

According to the participants, the whole process of managing teaching and learning became easy because of following their “*year programmes*” (Principals O), regulating their school activities through, which included but not limited to, “*quarterly meetings*” (Principals A) and the collection of “*books from the teachers and learners to check whether they do their work or not*” (Principal H). The above view is similar to the piece of advice offered by Blasé & Blasé, (2004:133) that principals, with their management teams, need to establish effective management systems to advance school performance.

Regarding short-term strategies, participants stressed the important role played by “daily time tables” as tools to address the challenge of reading and writing. “*We managed to sit down with our SMT [school management team] to set up [a] time-table to help our children. They must know how to read and write*” (Principal D). Another principal from school E where some learners could not properly read and write, indicated that they “*have [a] time-table which must be followed every day, the general timetables for all the classes.*” The use of such systems to address the challenge of reading and writing offered participants with an opportunity for self-reflection.

Regarding addressing the challenge of poor reading and writing, a principal from school M insisted:

As a principal, I will ensure that I work collectively with the staff, with the aim of grooming these children, teaching them a lot of things, but concentrating much in the classroom situation so that our learners must be able to read and write.

The comments clearly showed how concerned the participants were when it comes to reading and writing. All of them are in consensus that problems should first be addressed by the SMTs before they could be attended to by the principal. In this regard, the principal from school A made the following remarks:

We have heads of departments who are in charge of various departments, and if ever there are some problems they experience in their respective departments, then we can still discuss it [problems], say at school management team level where they reports what challenges they have in their respective departments and from there we can still take it up with the staff, discuss it with the class.

The empirical research findings supported Locke's goal setting theory (1968) with regard to the facilitating role of the goal commitment on motivation (cf. section 2.4.3.1). According to this theory (Locke & Latham, 2002:708), the goal-performance relationship is strongest when people are committed to their goals.

Similar studies (Du Four & Marzano, 2009:64; Mthombeni, 2004:96) have found that principals, with their management team, need to establish effective management system that would enhance commitment and advance school performance (cf. section 3.4.2). On this score, The Mpumalanga Annual Performance Plan (2005) recommends that principals should keep on working together with their SMT because together they are responsible for "assuring the quality of teaching and learning in schools" (cf. section 3.4.2).

Having analysed the motivational effects of the commitment of the school management teams (SMTs) on the morale of principals, it is equally crucial to examine how the mitigating strategies aiming at enhancing learner achievement impact on the motivation of principals.

d. Strategies to enhance learner achievement

Throughout the interview sessions, participants cited several strategies mitigating and enhancing the learner performance (poor reading, writing and counting). The motivational effects of such strategies, especially those directed to learners, educators, and parents, were explored and discussed in the following sub-sections.

1. Strategies to mitigate poor learner performance

The data from the semi-structured interviews revealed that the availability of strategies at schools for mitigating poor learner performance had a significant motivational effect on the morale of principals. In dealing with the challenge of underperformance, particularly with regard to the fundamental skills such as reading and writing; participants developed and implemented mitigating strategies. For instance, a principal from school M encouraged his learners and educators to “*speak English now and then*” while principal D ensured that there “*must be a dictation where they can drill the reading. They must know the word before we can start everything.*”

Beyond that, number of participants made use of and organised regular intra-school competitions and festivals. In this regard a principal from school H remarked that, “*Nearly every quarter, we do [sic] some festivals, speech and writing festivals whereby learners are able to read, to recite in front of all learners.*” Similarly, a principal from C elaborated that she involved all the learners from all the grades where they “*...are doing recitations in the assembly once per week.*” These sentiments confirmed Mthombeni’s (2004:84) contention that a principal has an obligation to create an environment that is conducive to learning as discussed in section 3.4.1.

With regard to addressing the challenges, the participants alluded to the introduced strategies such as extra classes, afternoon lessons, week-end lessons and school holiday lessons. On this score, a principal from school J explained: “*We are doing everything in our power to let them study, to let them come during week-ends and even during school holidays, we let children to come to school.*”

A similar view was shared by a principal from school N who indicated that:

...slow learners are afforded [an] opportunity during after [sic] school to be taught and improve their reading and writing abilities. This is made possible because some teachers remain with such learners. Since these initiatives, really there are improvements.

Additionally, the principals from schools D and L indicated that they were encouraging and monitoring their learners to ensure that they always made use of their school library facilities when doing their school work.

The research findings confirmed Locke's goal setting theory (1968) which postulates that goal acceptance and commitment strategies enhance the goal-performance relationship (cf. section 2.4.3.1). Furthermore, this theory suggests that an individual must accept the goal and be wholly committed to it in order to improve his or her performance (Diefendorff & Lord, 2003:381; Locke & Latham, 2006:265). Other studies (Aliég-Mielcarek, 2003:131; Bush *et al.*, 2009:2) state that principals have an obligation to create a positive learning environment that instils commitment to studies and eventually improves learner performance (cf. section 3.4.1).

Enhancing learner commitment alone was insufficient to have a meaningful motivational impact on principals. Consequently, the researcher felt it necessary to examine how the mitigating strategies for educators further affected the motivation of principals as indicated below.

2. Strategies for educators to mitigate poor learner performance

The data from the interviews revealed that the availability of strategies to increase the educators' commitment to the teaching processes had a significant motivational impact on the level of enthusiasm of principals. During the interviews, participants had consensus that positive strategies such as teacher development, extra lessons and the promotion of excellent educator performance had high motivational value.

Concerning teacher development, the participants recommended programmes such as “*using other teachers who are experts*” (Principal G), “*request somebody from outside to come and help us*”(Principal H) and also using “*the services of CIs [curriculum implementers]*” (Principal K). In schools like school H, educators were encouraged to “*upgrade themselves by attending workshops, and attending cluster meetings*” in order to enhance their performance. In terms of ensuring that educators were always up-to-date with developments, principal N indicated that they, “*.... have got the brief-ups in the mornings. You know, short meetings, before, fifteen minutes before the school starts.*”

The exposition above supports Locke’s goal setting theory (1968) that there is a linear and positive goal-performance relationship between goal acceptance and commitment to school performance (cf. section 2.4.3.1). Importantly, the subsequent studies conducted by Diefendorff and Lord (2003:381) and Locke and Latham (2002:709), stress that an individual has to accept the goal and be wholly committed to it, in order to improve his or her performance. Similarly, (Botha, 2004:241; Bush *et al.*, 2009:6) maintains that principals have a great responsibility to ensure educator commitment by means of the developmental programmes (cf. sections 3.4.2).

Regarding the motivational effects of the mitigating strategies for educators on the morale of principals; as shown in the next section, the researcher further explored how the motivational strategies for parents impact on participants.

3. Strategies for parents to mitigate poor learner performance

The data from the interviews revealed that the availability of strategies to address poor parental support also enhanced the sense of focus, enthusiasm and commitment of principals. Participants had consensus that the strategy of regular meetings with parents for progress report; be it monthly, quarterly or

annually, was highly successful. “*We invite them to parent meetings to tell them that they must help their learners in home-works [sic], class-works [sic] or whatever we give to learners*” (Principal H).

In support of the strategy, a principal from school C, whose school held “AGM each year” substantiated that “... *it is during this time that we talk to parents, even to report about what is happening to school, and also share with them what we as a school would like to see happening with the learners.*” Based on such views, it was clear that parents benefited a great deal from such interventions from schools.

Furthermore, participants like principal K organised “*block meeting and book viewing for the learners. We invite parents to the school where we display the work of learners in front of the parent.*” A similar strategy was implemented by principal G who indicated that “*we invite them per grade. We don’t invite them generally because they will always be excuses.*” Such views showed how critical it is for schools to develop strategies to mitigate parental support.

The empirical research findings confirmed Locke’s goal setting theory (1968) regarding the effect of feedback on motivation (cf. section 2.4.3.1). The subsequent studies (Locke & Latham, 2002:708) found that people who know how they are doing are able to adjust the level or direction of their effort or adjust their performance strategies. Similarly, Fisher (2009:39) and Georgiou (2007:59) maintain that principals must intentionally create a suitable climate so that parents could feel welcome and appreciated (cf. section 3.4.6).

Having highlighted the motivational impact of the quality teaching and learning processes, it is equally crucial to explore how the quality of support from the Department of Education affects the morale and enthusiasm of principals.

5.4.2.2. Quality of the support from the Department of Education

The empirical research data showed that participants were generally dissatisfied with the quality of support they received from the Department of Education, particularly in areas like the curriculum delivery, the allocation of financial resources, the provision of physical facilities and the provision of personnel. Details regarding such factors are discussed in the following sub-sections.

e. Curriculum delivery

The data from the semi-structured interviews revealed that the state of the curriculum delivery in schools contributed significantly to principals' lack of motivation. The participants concurred that the on-going curriculum review frustrated them. On this score, a principal from school H explained:

It is changing nearly every day. When one tries to grasp, the curriculum changes to another. So, this de-motivates us. Though we try to acquaint ourselves with the curriculum but it is difficult (Principal H).

Sharing a similar concern, the principal from school J questioned whether the department of education really had positive intentions with such changes: “*You will end up not knowing exactly whether they [the Department of Education] are taking you forward or they make you stagnant or they are reversing*”.

Despite the ever-changing curriculum, participants were also worried about the quality of support received from the curriculum implementers (CIs). The principals felt that they were not receiving the quality of support that they were entitled: “*We need regular visits from the CIs*” (Principal G). According to them, curriculum implementers took a long time before visiting their schools and even though they may come, they arrived at wrong time. In this regard, a principal from school O complained that, “*But the most important thing; they*

should come to school before we start with our morning lessons; they must be here and observe what is going on.”

Regarding the way the cluster committees implemented the curriculum, principal E expressed concern about the standard of question papers set by cluster committees. From her response, it was revealed that, “...*the standard is very low, unlike if our educators set our own examination. The papers which are coming from clusters are quite low in quality.*” According to her, it seemed as though cluster committees did not have a proper plan that guide their operation, instead operate haphazardly. By implications, such remarks suggest that the state of the curriculum implementation has a significant motivational effect on the spirit of participants.

The empirical research findings confirmed Locke’s goal setting theory (1968) with regard to the effect of the summary feedback on motivation (cf. section 2.4.3.1). According to Locke (1968), people need regular summary feedback after completion of the task, particularly in terms of whether the set goals have been attained or not. On this score, Locke and Latham (2002:708) express the view that people who know where they are going as well as how they are doing, are able to adjust the level or direction of their effort or adjust their performance strategies (cf. section 2.4.3.1).

The subsequent studies conducted by Maxwell (2006:46), Mills (2005:14) and Moloji (2004:2) highlighted that external factor like the on-going curriculum changes as well as the technological innovations do affect the school performance (cf. section 3.3.5).

Having assessed the motivational effects of the curriculum delivery on the morale of principals, the researcher will now explore how the allocation of financial resources impact on their motivation as indicated below.

b. Allocation of financial resources

The data from the semi-structured interviews revealed that principals' motivation was reduced drastically when their financial resources, particularly the state allocated funds, were inadequate to meet their school financial needs. Consequently, principals found themselves struggling to implement the curriculum programmes. On this score, a principal from school K insisted that, *"The money is not sufficient, is not enough. All our needs are not met by the money allocated to the school. This de-motivates us a lot."*

Sharing similar sentiment, another principal from school H stressed that, *"... learners are not paying school fees, and therefore, to me the money that we receive is a bit too little to maintain the school. As you can see, it is a big school and we have so many demands."* The expression of these concerns clearly revealed how participants felt with regard to insufficient financial allocations to schools.

In addition, other participants complained about their quintile ranking as it affected their annual allocation from the education department. Their main concern was the fact that their schools were in higher and wrong quintiles; mostly 2 or 3, which differed from their neighbouring schools sharing similar geographic settings and poverty levels.

It [the annual financial allocation] de-motivates me because of our quintiles; they give finances according to quintiles. And these quintiles, you know what, this school is allocated to quintile 2, but the schools nearby are in quintile 1. I am the feeder school of the neighbouring secondary school, but it is in quintile 1 (Principal N).

Sharing similar sentiment, another principal from school J complained but elaborated that:

...in finances, we have got a challenge. Our school is one of those schools which is receiving very little amount from the department. And according to how they graded us, we are graded as the village which must pop out the school fund, yet our neighbouring villages have been relieved from paying school fund.

The opposite, however, also became evident: principals' motivation increased considerably when their state allocated funds were sufficient to address their school financial needs. In this regard, a principal from school L remarked:

With the finances of the school, I am having the functional SGB and we always sit down together. We budget, we prioritise what we are going to do for the year, and we try by all means to stick on what we have planned. And the SGB is able to manage our finances because we follow the regulations or we follow the finances policy.

Mestry (2006:36) makes the point, as discussed in section 3.4.4, that the inability of SGBs to raise sufficient financial resources impacts negatively on the morale of principals.

The above accounts confirm Adam's equity theory (1963) that individuals will perceive equity when they feel that they receive an appropriate amount of outputs (in this case, financial allocation) from inputs, when compared to their chosen comparison others (in this case, other neighbouring quintile 1 schools). In contrast, inequity exists when there is a perceived difference in the ratio of inputs and outputs (cf. section 2.3.5.1).

Expanding on this topic, Yamaguchi (2002:324) agrees that the perception of equity or inequity impacts on the morale of principals (cf. section 2.3.5). Similar studies (Mbatsana, 2006:26; Mestry, 2006:36, Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:236) found that the availability of financial resources does indeed have a motivational effect on the morale of principals (cf. section 3.4.4).

Having examined the motivational effect of financial allocations on principals, the researcher will now discuss how other physical resources, particularly the provision of physical facilities, impact on the motivation of principals.

c. Provision of physical facilities

The collected data from the semi-structured interviews, supported by the observational field notes (cf. Table 5.1), revealed that insufficient physical facilities at schools impacted negatively on the morale of principals. All fifteen participants complained about the shortage of physical facilities at their schools, particularly the administration offices, the classrooms and the specialised classes like libraries, school halls and laboratories. In this regard, a principal from school O complained that, “... *there are other factors that I think are disturbing in the school like; [the lack of] enough water, enough toilets, especially girls’ toilets. So these are some of [the] factors that are disturbing us at the school.*” A similar concern was expressed by a principal from school B who was adamant in his response:

No! The classes are not enough, because in a class, for example, grade seven, I have got two hundred and seven) learners, packed in three classrooms. So you see now, is too much. It is overcrowded. I think with regard to facilities, there is still shortage.

According to the participants, the department of education was unreliable in the sense that promises were made to provide sufficient physical facilities, but nothing tangible came from these promises. They further claimed that the department of education seemed disinterested in honouring their commitments. On this score, the principal from school L pointed out that, “*with the infrastructure, for now, the challenge that I am having is the grade R structure, but the department has promised us to solve that problem. That is our challenge.*”

Similarly, the principal from school E complained that, “... *it is the fourth year waiting the three classes the department promised us for senior phase learners. It is really discouraging.*”

Additionally, the participants complained that the department was unfair with regard to the allocation of physical resource; some schools received assistance, while others did not. In other words, needy schools were not provided with sufficient physical facilities, but physical facilities were given to less needy schools. Some participants, such as the principal of school K perceived that as being unfair because their diligence and loyalty seemed to go unappreciated:

We regard to physical resources, they are not enough. I can give an example of classrooms, like I indicated the enrolment is huge, but the number of classes that we are having are not enough, though other schools are almost given new projects annually. This is worrying. It is demotivating.

The empirical research findings confirm Adam’s inequity theory (1963) that individuals perceive unfairness when they feel that the ratio of their outputs (provision of physical facilities) is far less than their inputs (loyalty, diligence) when compared to other schools (cf. section 2.3.5.1). Yamaguchi (2002:324) and Chindanya (2002:52) state that such perceptions of unfairness will always impact on the motivation of principals (cf. section 2.3.5).

The subsequent studies by Belle (2007:165), Dhlamini (2008:113) and Van Deventer & Kruger (2003:236) found that teachers are proud to work in the attractive surroundings with well-maintained facilities and impressive school infrastructure (cf. section 3.4.5). Mloi (2007:470) thus stresses that unsurprisingly, the “wretched physical conditions” at many schools affect principals negatively (cf. section 3.4.5).

Having discussed the motivational impact of the allocation of physical facilities on principals, the researcher felt it prudent to explore how the provision of personnel impact on their morale.

d. Provision of personnel

The interview transcripts clearly revealed that shortage of personnel at schools, particularly educators and administrative clerks, has a significant demotivational effect on the morale of principals. During the interviews session, the participants complained about their learner-teacher ratios, unfilled administrative posts and a shortage of mathematics and science educators. According to them, such challenges prevented the attainment of school goals as discussed in section 5.4.1.1 (passion for learner success) and 5.4.1.2 (goal focus) respectively.

In the course of the semi-structured interviews, a principal from school E complained that the shortage of educators had a negative effect on the morale of the entire staff. *“We also have a problem with our learner-teacher ratio. Our school is a double medium school.”* This concern was also raised by a principal from a small and understaffed primary school, who complained that, *“... like myself, I must be in class and teach while at the same time I must control the whole school. I find this really stressful”* (Principal I). Such complaints clearly confirmed that shortage of staff (both educators and administrative staff) has a de-motivating effect.

According to the participants, the Department of Education was unwilling to advertise their posts, whereas in other schools the department acted swiftly to fill such posts. A principal from school F remarked that, *“... this is third year our administrative clerk post hasn’t been advertised.”* A similar view was shared by a principal from school O who commented that, *“... the department is*

unfair, in other schools, and they [the Department of Education] advertise the posts immediately the need is identified. But here, they take [their] time.”

The empirical research findings support Adam’s inequity theory (1963) that individuals perceive unfairness when they feel that the ratio of their outputs (provision of personnel) differs from their inputs (post establishment) compared to other schools (cf. section 2.3.5.1). Similar studies conducted by Davidson (2007:159), Ediger, (2009:574) and Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:246) contend that correct staffing is critical for the smooth running of schools (cf. sections 3.3.4; 3.4.2).

As shown above, the “quality of support from the education department” has a significant impact on the morale of principals. In the following section, the researcher will further explore how the quality of support from the stakeholders impacts on the motivation of principals.

5.4.2.3. Quality of the support from the stakeholders

The quality of support from the stakeholders, particularly parents, school governing bodies and labour unions, has been found to be a crucial motivational factor with considerable impact on the morale of principals. In the following sub-sections, the impact of each stakeholder (parents, school governing bodies, and teacher unions) is examined in detail.

a. Support from the parents

Interview data revealed that the quality of support principals received from parents play a critical role in terms of influencing their motivation. Seven of the fifteen participants felt unsupported by the parents, especially in areas such as attending parental meetings, assisting children with their school work and also financial contributions to school activities.

Regarding this particular point, a principal from school N remarked that, “*The common challenge; usually the place where we are staying, parents don’t cooperate.*” Furthermore, a similar concern was expressed by another participant from school F who complained that:

I feel discouraged when the community is unable to in the challenge we are facing. Here I am referring to learners, who are drinking alcohol, learners who are engaging in drugs. These are some of the problems which we are facing at the school level. Problem of teenage pregnancy, which of course, you know, there are parents in the community who promote that because learners in the end will get child support grants. These are some of the challenges I would say are de-motivating us.

It is interesting to note that principals attributed such challenges to the illiteracy and laziness of some parents. “*Parents in our community are so illiterate or are too lazy to be able to assist their learners with school work*” (Principal C). As discussed in section 3.4.6, these findings are in congruent with the views of (Georgiou, 2007:60; Mbatsana, 2006:79) who assert that a lack of parental support “reduces educators’ enthusiasm” in the school environment.

The opposite, however, also became evident; some participants felt encouraged by and satisfied with the role played by parents at their schools. According to them, parents attended meetings (Principal B), volunteered for school projects (Principal G), ensured that learners attend their classes regularly (Principal E) and maintained school discipline (Principal A). Specifically, a principal from school G expressed his appreciation as follows:

The parents, when we call, them to school to come and discuss the problems of the learners; they are always prepared to come. They support us, though most of them are illiterate. But they are interested in the education of their children. When we invite them, they come. And they are even prepared to volunteer where there is a need. They support us. When we invite learners to come to school, even in holidays, they make sure that learners do come to school. When we want learners to stay here until very late, they will always support [us].

The empirical research findings supported Vroom's expectancy theory (1964) that organisational support facilitates and strengthens the effort-performance relationship (cf. section 2.3.4.1). In line with this theory, Painter (2000:3) remarks that organisational support (parental support) is needed to strengthen people's reasonable anticipation that their effort will lead to the desired outcomes. The subsequent research conducted by Fisher (2009:39), Georgiou, (2007:59 and; Mbatsana (2006:79) stress the view that parental support plays a crucial role in the improvement of school performance (cf. section 3.4.6).

Whereas this section has highlighted the motivational impact of parental support on the morale of principals; the following section will examine how the supports by the school governing bodies (SGBs) influence the motivation of principals.

b. Support from the school governing bodies

The data from the semi-structured interviews revealed that the morale of principals increased considerably when their school governing bodies (SGBs) showed commitment as well as providing them with the necessary support. Participants felt quite encouraged to be working with school governing bodies which are active and supportive. In this regard, a principal from school K commended and appreciated her SGB for having "*involved themselves too [sic] much with the issues of education of their learners.*"

A similar view was raised by another principal from school N who expressed the view that her SGB went as far as "*even the fixing of doors.*" Expressing appreciation for the role played by SGBs, the participants agreed that their positive relationship with them (the SGBs) contributed a great deal to maximise discipline and order at their schools. "*They are very good, because when we call them they will come*" (Principal O).

In substantiating the view, another principal from school E stressed the positive impact her SGB is making at her school.

I think we have a good SGB. The relationship is good; it is a good relationship because they involve themselves too [very]much with the issues of education of their learners. If I can tell you, they physically involve themselves in trying to beautify our school. Even in the issue of discipline of our learners here at school, they involve themselves.

The empirical findings confirmed Vroom's expectancy theory (1964) that organisational support strengthens the effort- performance relationship (cf. section 2.3.4.1). Providing further support for this theory, Toffelson (2000:65) states that organisational support (support by SGBs) is crucial for strengthening individuals' reasonable expectations that their efforts will lead to the desired outcomes (cf. section 2.3.4.2). Similarly Mestry (2006:33) and Prew (2007:454) found that harmonious relations do improve the safety in schools and diminish the threat of vandalism outside school hours, while parents are able to attend meetings (cf. section 3.4.7).

Having explored the motivational impact of the support from school governing bodies (SGBs) on principals; the researcher will discuss the influence of labour unions on motivation of principals in the next sub-section.

c. Support from the labour unions

The interview transcripts revealed that whereas the motivation of principals fell when they felt that unions play a disruptive role in schools; however, their motivation does increase when they perceive the role played by unions as constructive. In this regard, a principal from schools D made these comments:

And the other problems we are having is that; let me state clearly that here at school, most of the time, you know! A person can, can say, 'comrades, I am belonging to this union; once I do this, I will report everything to the union'. And once they do have, they don't come to you and say I have got 1, 2, 3; you can see some union coming with the circuit

manager without proper, what we call procedure. What is happening here, I want to be clear that is not good.

In addition, a similar complaint was expressed by another principal from school J who complained about numerous strikes which disturb the normal running of schools. On this point, he remarked that:

There are some factors that hinder de-motivate me, especially when educated as I am, you find the first thing, the unions come with something that de-motivates me; and especially you see the strikes. Even if you feel like you want to better your work rate, but when you are in a strike, you end up not achieving some of the things, especially the objectives you have set for yourself before.

However, the principal from school I expressed a different view about how being cooperative and supportive the unions at her school were. *“Even with the unions, we are working very well, because when they have a problem they do approach me and in case there is a problem, we address it immediately”* (Principal I).

The above exposition confirms Vroom’s expectancy theory (1964) that organisational support facilitates and strengthen the effort-performance relationship (cf. section 2.3.4.1). To this effect, Painter (2000:3) and Toffelson (2000:65) substantiate the view that organisational support in the form of labour unions is needed to strengthen people’s reasonable anticipation that their effort will lead to the desired outcomes (cf. section 2.4.4.2). The subsequent studies by Bush *et al.* (2009:5), Mestry (2006:33) and Prew (2007:454) stress that a positive and harmonious relationship between the schools and communities impacts positively on school performance.

Having discussed the research findings of this study(cf. sections 5.4.1; 5.4.2), the researcher now feels it necessary to present a summarised version of these findings.

5.5. SUMMARISED EMPIRICAL RESEARCH FINDINGS

As discussed above (cf. section 5.4), the transcribed interviews, the observational field notes and the analysed written documents revealed that motivated behaviour could be influenced by numerous factors. Summarising the empirical research findings, a diagrammatic representation is depicted as Figure 5.1 below.

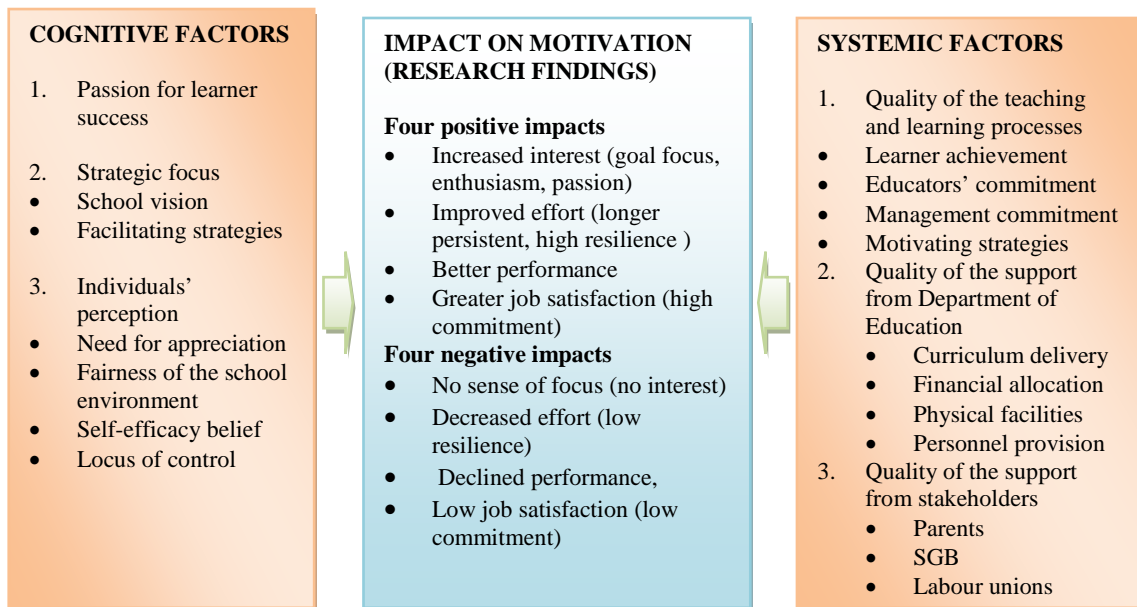


FIGURE 5.1: DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION OF FACTORS IMPACTING ON MOTIVATION

Figure 5.1 depicts the findings of this research. In terms of the diagram, motivation is determinant by two key factors (representing two themes of this study), cognitive and systemic factors. Each factor or theme has several sub-factors (categories and sub-categories). These factors, including their sub-factors, have both positive and negative impacts on motivation. On the positive side, motivated behaviour is improved whereas the motivated behaviour declines on the negative side. In terms of Figure 5.1, a motivated individual is characterised by deeper sense of interest, improved effort, better improvement, and greater job satisfaction. In contrast, de-motivated behaviour manifests itself

through a low sense of interest, decreased effort, declined performance and low job satisfaction.

Having presented the summarised research findings, the researcher will describe a cognitive model of motivation in the next section.

5.6. A COGNITIVE MODEL OF MOTIVATION

The cognitive model is grounded in both the theoretical research findings (cf. sections 2.3; 3.3; 3.4 and tables 2.1; 3.1) as well as the empirical research findings (cf. section 5.4). The model consists of four related steps: intrinsic goal, facilitating strategies, action, and performance rewards. These steps, as depicted in Figure 5.2 below represent the critical steps that principals need to consider when executing their leadership and managerial tasks.

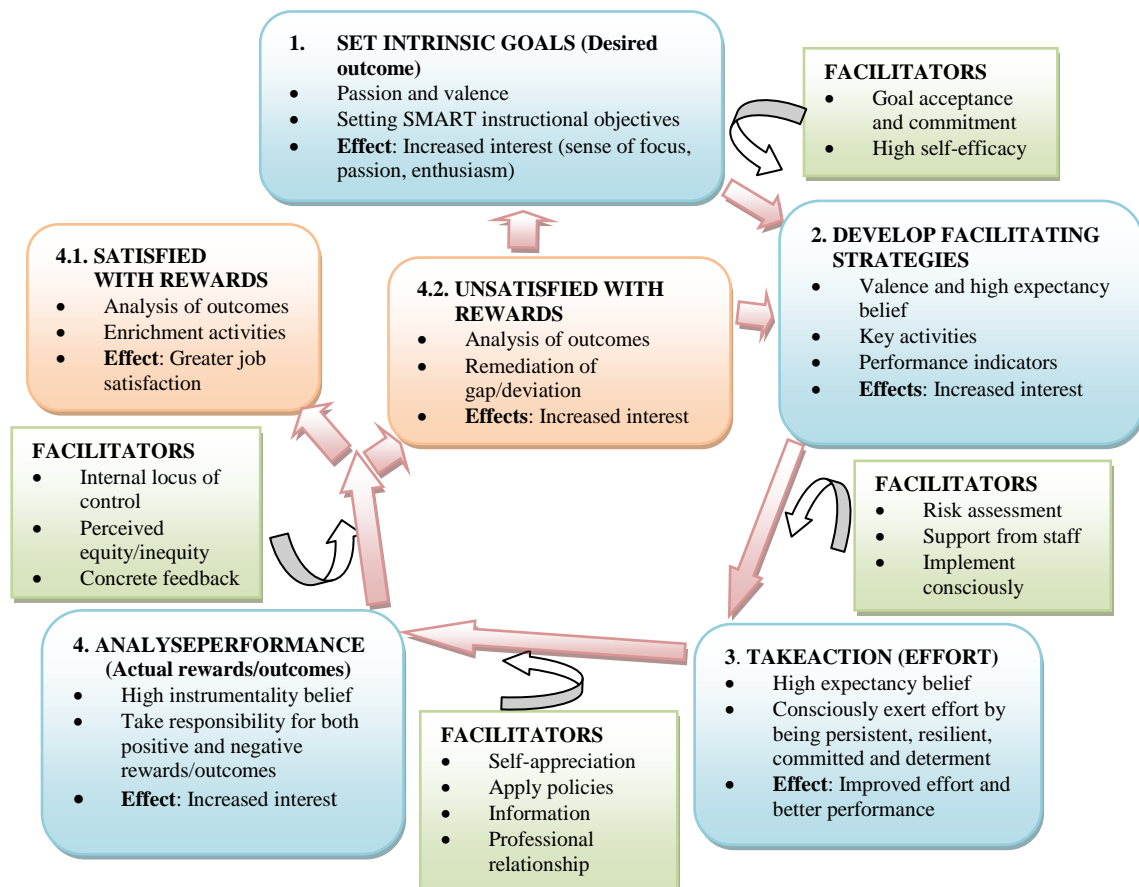


FIGURE 5.2: A COGNITIVE MODEL OF MOTIVATION

Figure 5.2 depicts cognitive motivation as a cyclical process comprising of four main steps. This is represented by the dark orange arrows. For each step, certain conditions need to be consciously fulfilled to generate maximum motivational effects. For instance, passion, valence and setting SMART objectives in step 1 (intrinsic goal) generate an interest to proceed to step 2 (facilitating strategy).

Additionally, Figure 5.2 depicts that facilitators (shown by a greenish colour) play a crucial role in strengthening and maximising the motivating effect between stages, for instance, the relationship between step 3 (take action) and step 4 (asses performance rewards). Again, in each step, specific motivational effects are depicted by the figure, for instance, greater job satisfaction in step 4.1 (satisfied with rewards).

5.6.1. Set intrinsic goals–develop facilitating strategies relationship

The empirical research findings (cf. sections 5.4.1.1; 5.4.2.2; Table 5.3; Figure 5.1) confirm the theories propounded by McClelland (1961) and Locke (1968) that difficult, but realistic goals provide direction for an action; in this context, achieved by means of the development of a goal facilitating strategies (cf. sections 2.3.2.1;2.4.3.1). As further shown by the empirical research findings, intrinsic goals (passion and a school vision) generate a deeper sense of focus, enthusiasm and commitment to an action which, according to literature studies (Clarke, 2007:22; Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:246) assist in the development of the precise and clear facilitating strategies (cf. sections 3.3.2; 3.4.2).

Locke (1968) points out that specific and difficult (SMART)goals direct attention, regulate effort, increase persistence and foster strategies and action plans (cf. section 2.4.3.1b and Figure 2.5). Therefore, setting an intrinsic goal, as illustrated by both empirical research findings (cf. sections 5.4.1.1; 5.4.2.2 a; Table 5.3; Figure 5.1) and literature studies (cf. sections 2.3.2.1; 2.4.3.1) is the

first crucial step in generating interest in the development of a facilitating strategy.

However, as illustrated on the model (Figure 5.2), facilitators such as goal acceptance and commitment and high self-efficacy are crucial for the strengthening of the intrinsic goal-facilitating strategy relationship. This has also been confirmed by empirical research findings (cf. sections 5.4.2.2 a; 5.4.1.3.c; Table 5.3; Figure 5.1).

In light of the above exposition, the researcher therefore concludes that principals can improve their motivated behaviour, particularly increasing their passion (enthusiasm and focus), by developing intrinsic goals that are specific and difficult (SMART). Such an increased passion will be necessary for the initiation and facilitation of strategy.

5.6.2. Develop facilitating strategies–take action relationship

The empirical research findings (cf. section 5.4.1.2.b; Tables 5.2; 5.3; Figure 5.1) support Locke's (1964) suggestion that goal facilitation strategies need to be developed in order to generate motivated behaviour and increased effort (cf. section 2.4.3.1). In addition, Vroom (1968) stresses that an individual must have positive valence (cf. section 2.3.4.1.a) and a high expectancy belief (cf. section 2.3.4.1.b). As further revealed by empirical research findings (cf. section 5.4.1.2.b) and in congruence with other studies (Bush *et al.*, 2009:4; Clarke, 2007:22; Diefendorff & Lord, 2003:381; Garber, 2006:2; Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:246), the facilitating strategies must be simple, precise and clear in order to generate and sustain the highest motivational effects (cf. sections 3.3.2; 3.4.2).

In other words, facilitating strategies should be characterised by simple, precise and clear key activities and performance indicators. As shown by the empirical

research findings, the level of interest that eventually stimulates an action to occur is thus increased (cf. section 5.4.1.2.b). However, principals need to consider facilitators such as risk assessment, support from the staff, and the conscious implementation of the performance strategies in order to strengthen the facilitating strategy- action relationship.

Taking the foregoing into account, the researcher therefore concludes that principals can improve their effort (motivated behaviour) by developing simple, precise and clear goal facilitating strategies.

5.6.3. Take action–analyse performance relationship

The empirical research findings regarding the implementation of strategies and plans (cf. section 5.4.1.2.b) and self-efficacy belief (cf. section 5.4.1.3.c) confirmed McClelland’s view of taking an action (cf. section 2.3.2.1; Figure 2.3) and Vroom’s view of a high expectancy belief (cf. section 2.3.4.1.b) as well as taking conscious and personal responsibility for the set goal, leads to a better task performance. In terms of the model, taking an action (effort, actual work) refers to the application of physical or mental energy to execute particular managerial tasks for the expected intrinsic outcomes.

The empirical research findings (cf. section 5.4.1.2.b) confirm what Locke and Latham (2002:706) and Toffelson (2000:65) are advocating that principals should put an extra effort, persistence, commitment, determination and resilience, into the process in order to maximise high motivated behaviour that can bring about better task performance (the expected intrinsic outcomes).

However, principals should be mindful that the strengths of the motivational effect between “take action-analyse performance relationships” depends on facilitators such as self-appreciation, application of policies, information and professional relationships as illustrated by the model (Figure 5.2) and

confirmed by the empirical research findings (cf. sections 5.4.1.3; 5.4.2.1.d; 5.4.2.3).

Based on the above, the researcher therefore concludes that principals can improve motivation (task performance) by consciously taking personal responsibility in implementing goal facilitating strategies.

5.6.4. Analyse performance–set intrinsic goals relationship

The empirical research findings regarding the academic learner performance (cf. section 5.4.2.1.a) and the mitigating strategies to enhance learner performance (cf. section 5.4.2.1.d) support the high instrumentality belief of Vroom's theory (cf. section 2.3.4 c) that principals should take full personal responsibility for the outcomes of their performance; either positive or negative. This will lead to a deeper sense of interest; enthusiasm and passion (cf. section 1.11.3.1).

As further revealed by the empirical research findings (cf. section 5.4.2.1.d) and a cognitive model of motivation (Figure 5.2), which further confirmed by literature studies (Aliég-Mielcarek, 2003:132; Belle, 2007:165; Bush *et al.*, 2009:6), principals should first analyse the results (outcomes) before taking an action, be it enrichment steps or remediation measures (cf. sections 5.4.1; 5.4.2). That would assist with the identification of gaps and deviations that might inform the kind of steps to be taken. Regarding Performance-intrinsic goal relationship, several scholars (Graffeo & Silvestri, 2006:593; Locke & Latham, 2002:706; Shivers-Blackwell, 2006:31; Yamaguchi, 2002:324) concur that facilitators such as the internal locus of control, the perceived equity/inequity and the concrete feedback are crucial in the analysis of results.

As shown by the empirical research findings (cf. section 5.4.2.1.d) and also illustrated in the model (Figure 5.2), the remediation process will provide the

principal with an opportunity to re-visit and re-set either intrinsic goals or the facilitating strategy (Diefendorff & Lord, 2003:371; Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001:230; Locke & Latham, 2006:709).

Considering both empirical and theoretical research findings, as clearly exposed above, the researcher therefore concludes that principals can improve their job satisfaction (motivated behaviour) by analysing their performance and taking personal responsibility for the outcomes of the efforts, particularly the negative outcomes. That will assist them with the development of either enrichment program or remediation action.

5.7. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this chapter, the research problem (cf. section 1.3) has been addressed. Accordingly, this chapter identified and presented various factors that impact on the motivation of principals in the Bohlabela District of the Mpumalanga Province. The researcher indicated how data from the three data collection techniques (semi-structured interviews, observational field notes and analysed written documents) were collected, analysed and ultimately developed into themes, categories and sub-categories. From the emerging themes, the researcher derived two major research findings (cognitive and systemic), which were discussed using verbatim accounts of participants. Finally, such empirical research findings were used to develop a cognitive model to motivate principals in the Mpumalanga Province.

The next and final chapter will provide the summary of this research as well as the conclusions reached and indicate areas for further research, recommendations and also point out limitations of this study.

CHAPTER 6: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND LIMITATIONS

6.1. INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter discussed the empirical research findings of this study and provided a cognitive model for motivation of principals. This chapter concludes the study by providing a brief summary of the literature study and the empirical investigations in the light of the problem statement, sub-questions and aims. The conclusions and recommendations based on the findings of the study will be highlighted. Lastly, recommendations for further studies as well as the limitations of this study will be presented.

6.2. SUMMARY OF THE LITERATURE REVIEW AND RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In providing the rationale for the study (cf. section 1.2), the researcher highlighted the critical role that can be played by cognitive models to motivate principals in the Mpumalanga Province, particularly in the Bohlabela District. The need for this study was explained further in terms of its relevance and the contributions it can make to empowering and guiding education planners, policy designers, educational managers and scholars. In addition, the researcher formulated the problem statement, namely: Which cognitive motivation model can be developed to motivate principals in the Mpumalanga Province? (cf. section 1.3), and also formulated the research questions (cf. section 1.3) and aims pertaining to the investigation relating to the statement (cf. section 1.4). Furthermore, the conceptual framework (cf. section 1.6) was explained and described as a “cognitive approach to motivation.” Furthermore, the research design, which is a qualitative research design, was discussed and motivated (cf. section 1.10) in terms of explaining the methodologies employed to achieve the aim of the study (cf. section 1.10.3).

In seeking to understand the theoretical factors that constitute motivation, the researcher, conducted a thorough and comprehensive literature review on cognitive theories of motivation as reported in chapter 2. As shown in chapter 5, those theories provided the background for the development of a cognitive model of motivation (cf. section 5.6). Firstly, the concept ‘motivation’ was defined (cf. section 2.2), and various theoretical approaches: psychoanalytical, behavioural, humanistic and cognitive, were examined to illustrate what constitutes motivation in terms of different theoretical perspectives.

Briefly, motivation according to the psycho-analytical approach is determined by unconscious forces such as forbidden and suppressed drives, memories, wishes and experiences (cf. section 2.2.1.1) whereas the behavioural approach posits that motivation is a product of environmental stimuli like incentives and rewards (cf. section 2.2.1.2). In contrast, the humanistic approach maintains that motivation is determined by the gratification of the unfulfilled and unsatisfied needs (cf. section 2.2.1.3) while motivation in terms of the cognitive approach is caused by cognitive processes; goals, needs, perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, expectations and values (cf. section 2.2.1.4).

Secondly, the seven theories, namely, Maslow’s self-actualisation theory (cf. section 2.3.1), McClelland’s achievement motivation theory (cf. section 2.3.2), Locke’s goal-setting theory (cf. section 2.3.3), Vroom’s expectancy theory (cf. section 2.3.4), Adam’s equity theory (cf. section 2.3.5), Rotter’s locus of control theory (cf. section 2.3.6) and Bandura’s self-efficacy theory (cf. section 2.3.7) were discussed in detail, focussing specifically on their basic characteristics, their limitations and their relevancy to school leadership and management.

Thirdly, various figures (depicting models; cf. Figures 2.1; 2.2; 2.3; 2.4; 2.5; 2.6; 2.7; 2.8; 2.9; 2.10; 2.11) were used to illustrate and expatiate on the basics of each theory and how it operates. Regarding the theoretical findings, it was

found that all the cited theories discussed in section 2.3, are in consensus that motivation is primarily determined by the cognition (goals, needs, perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, expectations and values) and manifested through an increased sense of interest, improved effort, better performance and greater job satisfaction (Diefendorff & Lord, 2003:371; Locke & Latham, 2002:707; Pintrich & Schunk, 2002:17; Yamaguchi, 2002:324).

With that in mind, in chapter 3, the researcher further conducted another literature review on two critical roles (leadership and management) of principals focussing on responsibilities (cf. section 3.2). Regarding the two roles, Belle (2007:69), Clarke (2007:2) and Van Deventer and Kruger (2003:68), concur that they complement each other, although they are mutually exclusive. While expanding on the two roles, the researcher identified and discussed the five responsibilities of the principal as a leader (cf. section 3.3, Figure 3.1) as well as the seven responsibilities of the principal as a manager (cf. section 3.4; Figure 3.1).

Concerning the role of the principal as a leader, responsibilities such as the establishment of school vision (cf. section 3.3.1), the development of strategic plans (cf. section 3.3.2), communication with stakeholders (cf. section 3.3.3), inspiring and motivating educators (cf. section 3.3.4) and persisting until goals are attained (cf. section 3.3.5) were identified and discussed comprehensively. Furthermore, managerial responsibilities such as managing learner achievement (cf. section 3.4.1), educator performance (cf. section 3.4.2), information systems (cf. section 3.4.3), financial affairs (cf. section 3.4.4), physical facilities (cf. section 3.4.5), parental involvement (cf. section 3.4.6) and community relations (cf. section 3.4.7) were also identified and discussed in detail.

The discussion was accompanied by references from literature studies conducted from both internationally (Belle; 2007: 69; Blasé & Blasé,

2004:133; Bush, 2007:392; Mills, 2005:10; Spillane, 2009:70) and locally (Botha, 2004:241; Khuzwayo, 2008:96; Moloji, 2007:470; Mthombeni, 2004:85, Van Deventer & Kruger, 2003:68; Van der Westhuizen & Van Vuuren, 2007:440). From such literature review, most researchers agreed that principals need to properly perform both their leadership and management roles in order to have effective schools.

6.3. SUMMARY OF THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

While pursuing the aim of the study (cf. sections 1.5; 4.2), the interpretative approach, in particular, the constructive-interpretative paradigm, was used (cf. sections 1.9.1; 4.3). Accordingly, the case study method was chosen for this part of the study and was employed to guide the selection of research sites (cf. section 4.5.1), the identification of participants through purposive sampling (cf. section 4.5.2), data collection (cf. section 4.6) as well as data analysis (cf. section 4.6). The reason for employing a case study method was provided in chapter 4 (cf. sections 4.4). Having been granted permission by the Bohlabela District to undertake this research (cf. section 4.5.1), fifteen participants out of the initial eighteen were purposively sampled (cf. section 4.5.2) based on the following criteria: it had to be a “no fee” school (cf. section 4.5.2.1), it had to have sufficient physical resources (cf. section 4.5.2.2) and had to be participating in the school nutrition programme (cf. section 4.5.2.3).

In all fifteen participating schools (cf. tables 4.1; 5.1; 5.2), data were collected by means of three techniques: the semi-structured interviews (cf. section 4.6.1), the observational field notes (cf. section 4.6.2) and the document analyses (cf. section 4.6.3). The interview data recorded on a tape recorder was then transcribed for analysis (cf. Annexure A). Throughout the data collection process, the researcher complied with the principles of research ethics (cf. section 4.9); particularly those pertaining to the informed consent principle (cf. section 4.9.2). Furthermore, there was maximum compliance with the strategies

ensuring the trustworthiness of the research findings (cf. section 4.8), for instance, by the establishment of *rapport* between the researcher and the participants (cf. section 4.8.1), careful consideration of the role of the researcher (cf. section 4.8.2), direct contact at the site (cf. section 4.8.3), the triangulation of data (cf. section 4.8.4) and the use of a tape recorder and careful note taking (cf. section 4.8.5).

In chapter 5, the transcribed raw data were inductively segmented and coded into themes and several categories (cf. section 5.3). Informed by the conceptual framework of the study (cf. section 1.5), the researcher ultimately developed two main themes (cf. sections 5.4.1; 5.4.2), six categories (cf. sections 5.4.1.1; 5.4.1.2; 5.4.1.3; 5.4.2.1; 5.4.2.2; 5.4.2.3) and several sub-categories (cf. Table 5.3) that represent the major findings of the study. In the course of discussing the research findings (cf. section 5.4) the researcher employed two critical strategies: low inference descriptors (cf. section 4.8.7) and verbatim accounts (cf. section 4.8.8) to ensure the trustworthiness of the research findings.

Furthermore, the ethical principles of confidentiality and anonymity (cf. section 4.9.3) were also employed, hence the participants were designated letters of the alphabet as a means of identifying and referring to them; for example, the designations principal A, principal B, principal C, up to principal O were used in this regard (cf. tables 4.1; 5.1; 5.2). The detailed conclusions for each theme, category and sub-category are presented in Table 6.1 below and also in the following section.

TABLE 6.1: BRIEF DESCRIPTION OF EACH CATEGORY

THEME	CATEGORY	BRIEF DESCRIPTION
Cognitive factors	1. Passion for learner success	Also called desire; it refers to very strong intrinsic and generalised feelings of enthusiasm (optimistic perception) to see learners living a successful life after completion of their studies.

	2. Strategic focus	Specific and direct activities (facilitating strategies) performed to accomplish the desired specific goals (the school vision).
	3. Individuals' perceptions	Cognitive abilities such as perceived self-worth, equity, self-efficacy and locus of control. Positive perception enhances motivation whereas negative perception results in de-motivated behaviour.
Systemic factors	4. Quality of the teaching and learning processes	These processes comprise the teaching and learning activities performed by educators, school management teams and learners themselves in pursuit of improved learner achievement.
	5. Quality of the support from the Department of Education	The level at which the legislative mandate of curriculum delivery, including the provisioning of resources (finances, physical facilities and personnel) is implemented.
	6. Quality of the support from the stakeholders	The level at which stakeholders such as parents, school governing bodies, and labour unions support principals.

6.4. CONCLUSIONS DERIVED FROM THE STUDY

Conclusions were drawn from both the literature and the empirical studies. They served as the basis for the development of a cognitive model of motivation (cf. section 5.6; Figure 5.2) and the recommendations serving as guidelines and principles for the principals in the Mpumalanga Province and also broader South Africa. Further, the conclusions would enable principals to be better informed and equipped to enhance their motivation for the sake of improved learner achievement.

6.4.1. Conclusions derived from the literature study

The following conclusions were derived from the literature related to the cognitive theories of motivation (Chapter 2) and the roles and responsibilities of principals (Chapter 3). Both chapters sought to find an answer to the research sub-question as stated in section 1.3 (problem statement) and the main

research aim stated in section 1.4 (aim and objective). In other words, chapter 2 dealt with intrinsic factors, whereas chapter 3 dealt with the extrinsic factors constituting motivation.

6.4.1.1. Cognitive factors constituting motivation

An analysis of the seven theories of motivation (cf. section 2.3) revealed that the dominant intrinsic (psychological) factors constituting the motivation of principals were the following:

a. Positive self-esteem

In the course of analysing the role of self-esteem in the context of self-actualisation (cf. sections 2.3.1.1. a. 4; Table 2.2), the conclusion was reached that positive (high) self-esteem has a high intrinsic motivational effect, improve self-confidence, personal strength, competence and mastery of tasks. In other words, individuals who positively appreciate, recognise and acknowledge themselves have improved motivated behaviour (cf. section 2.3.1.1).

b. Psychological growth and self-fulfilment

Having analysed Maslow's self-actualisation theory (cf. section 2.3.1.1; Table 2.2), and several studies validating the theory, the conclusion was reached that the tendency to consciously pursue the need for self-actualisation (the process of psychological growth and self-fulfilment) enhances task performance (high motivated behaviour) (cf. sections 2.3.1.1 a; 2.3.1.3). In short, it empowers individuals to overcome the obstacles and challenges imposed by deficiency needs (cf. section 2.3.1.1 a; Figure 2.2). In terms of Figure 2.1, a "need," in this case, the need for achievement is an aspect of cognition (cf. sections 1.5; 2.2.1.4; 2.3).

c. Passion for learner success

In the course of analysing the McClelland's achievement motivation theory (cf. section 2.3.2.1; Figure 2.3) and several other studies confirming the theory, the researcher concluded that the need for achievement (passion for learner success) has a high intrinsic motivational effect. However, this needs to be facilitated by factors such as setting challenging but realistic goals (cf. sections 2.3.2.1 a; 2.3.2.3), being personally responsible for the execution of tasks (cf. sections 2.3.2.1 b; 2.3.2.3), relying on concrete feedback (cf. sections 2.3.2.1 c; 2.3.2.3) and seeking intrinsic rewards (cf. sections 2.3.2.1 d; 2.3.2.3).

d. Goal setting

Having analysed the theories of Locke (cf. section 2.3.3.1; Figures 2.1; 2.4; 2.5) and McClelland (cf. section 2.3.2.1; Figure 2.3), together with several studies supporting such theories, the conclusion was reached that setting specific and difficult goals generates and sustains motivated behaviour, particularly increased interest (cf. sections 1.11.3.1) and improved effort (cf. sections 1.11.3.2). However, this needs to be facilitated by both intrinsic factors (self-efficacy and goal acceptance and also commitment) and extrinsic factors (task difficulty, feedback and organisational support) in order to strengthen its motivational effect (cf. section 2.3.3.1; figure 2.3).

e. Positive valence

In the course of discussing Vroom's expectancy theory (cf. sections 2.3.4.1) and several studies validating the theory, the researcher concluded that the development of positive valence (cf. section 2.3.4.1.a) and the subsequent expectations of the outcome of improved effort (cf. section 2.3.4.1.b) and better performance (cf. section 2.3.4.1.c) generate and sustain motivated behaviour. However, intrinsic moderators (self-efficacy, locus of control) and extrinsic

moderators (resources, information, written policies) play a critical role in the strengthening of its motivational effect (cf. section 2.4.3.1; Figure 2.6).

f. Intrinsic outcomes

Having analysed the theories of McClelland (cf. section 2.3.2.1.d) and Vroom (cf. sections 2.3.4.1), together with several studies supporting them, the researcher concluded that the tendency to aim for intrinsic goals (desired outcomes) and anticipating intrinsic rewards (achieved outcomes) has a higher motivational effect than aiming at extrinsic outcomes.

g. Positive response to the perceived inequity

Having studied the two models of Adam's equity theory (cf. figures 2.1; 2.7), Table 2.1, and several studies validating the theory, the conclusion was reached that responding positively to perceived inequity/unfairness has a greater motivational effect than responding negatively (cf. sections 2.3.5.1; 2.3.5.3). As illustrated in Figure 2.7, positive strategies include: "striving to change the rewards received" and "striving to change the comparison of one-self with co-workers" (cf. section 2.3.5.1). In contrast, negative strategies include "striving to reduce one's inputs," "striving to alter inputs or outputs of co-workers" and "trying to request a transfer or simply quitting the job."

h. Internal locus of control

In the course of analysing the model of Rotter's locus of control (cf. Figure 2.8) and several studies validating the theory, the conclusion was reached that internals, in contrast to externals, are highly motivated people and high achievers on account of believing in themselves (having a positive attitude to their efforts, abilities, skills and competencies) and also being in control of their situations (cf. sections 2.3.6.1; 2.3.6.3). In contrast, externals are less

motivated and are low achievers on account of not believing in themselves (attributing outcomes to fate, luck, chance, or powerful others) (cf. sections 2.3.6.1; 2.3.6.3). In terms of Figure 2.1, high self-efficacy enhances task performance (cf. section 2.3).

i. High self-efficacy belief

Having analysed the two models of Bandura's self-efficacy theory (cf. figures 2.9; 2.10) and several studies confirming the theory, the researcher concluded that high self-efficacy (having a positive attitude towards one's abilities, skills and competencies) has a higher motivational effect than low self-efficacy (cf. sections 2.3.7.1; 2.3.7.3). In terms of Figure 2.1 (cf. section 2.3), high self-efficacy enhances task performance.

j. Concrete feedback

In the course of analysing McClelland's achievement theory (cf. section 2.3.2.c; Figure 2.3) and the subsequent studies supporting the theory, the conclusion was reached that the tendency to seek quantified, factual and job-relevant feedback is more motivating than the subjective and personal feedback.

In the course of analysing the model of Rotter's locus of control (cf. Figure 2.8) and several studies validating the theory, the conclusion was reached that internals, in contrast to externals, are highly motivated and high achievers on account of believing on themselves (positive attitude to one's effort, abilities, skills and competencies) and also being in control of their situations (cf. sections 2.3.6.1; 2.3.6.3). In contrast, externals are less motivated and low achievers on account of not believing in themselves (attributing outcomes to fate, luck, chance, or powerful others) (cf. sections 2.3.6.1; 2.3.6.3). In terms of Figure 2.1, high self-efficacy enhances task performance (cf. section 2.3).

6.4.1.2. Systemic factors constituting motivation

An analysis of the roles and responsibilities of principals revealed that the dominant extrinsic (contextual) factors constituting the motivation of principals are the following:

a. Establishment of a school vision and instructional outcomes

Having analysed the responsibilities of establishing the school vision (cf. section 3.3.1) and managing learner achievement (cf. section 3.4.1; Figure 3.1), the researcher concluded that developing SMART (specific, measurable, attainable, realistic and time-bound) instructional outcomes from the school vision contributes positively to learner achievement by changing learners' knowledge, skills, values and attitudes. In this regard, Dhlamini (2008:18) and Mthombeni (2004:85) concur that the first fundamental step in managing learner achievement is for the principals to develop the clear instructional outcomes derived from the school vision.

b. Development of strategic plans and instructional plans

In the course of discussing the responsibilities for developing the strategic plans (cf. section 3.3.2) and managing learner achievement (cf. section 3.4.1; Figure 3.1), the conclusion was reached that developing the workable and effective instructional plans contributes positively to the expected level of the school performance, especially learner achievement.

c. Taking practical action to realise goals

Having discussed the responsibilities of communicating the school vision and strategies (cf. section 3.3.3) and persisting to attain the school vision (cf. section 3.3.5), the researcher concluded that taking practical action (efforts)

through persuasively communicating with stakeholders (cf. section 3.3.3) and through showing leadership qualities such as persistence, resilience, courage, determination and perseverance (cf. section 3.3.5), school effectiveness, particularly learner achievement, is promoted (cf. section 3.4.1).

d. Educator commitment

In the course of analysing the responsibilities for motivating and inspiring educators (cf. section 3.3.4; Figure 3.1) and managing educator performance (cf. section 3.4.2), the conclusion was reached that instilling educator commitment through instructional strategies such as developing instructional programmes, enforcing compliance with school policies and the provision of concrete feedback improve learner achievement. In this regard, Hoy (2008:495) and Swanepoel (2008:42) stress that the inspired educators are more likely to instil confidence in learners and will have feelings of satisfaction and fulfilment when rendering their job.

e. Physical resources

Having analysed the responsibilities required with regard to the management of an information system (cf. section 3.4.3), the financial affairs (cf. section 3.4.4) and physical facilities (cf. section 3.4.5), the researcher concluded that effective and persuasively efficient physical resource management has a positive contribution to the school improvement.

f. Stakeholder engagement

In the course of discussing the managerial responsibilities with regard to parental involvement (cf. section 3.4.6) and community relations, the department of education, SGB and labour unions (cf. section 3.4.7), the conclusion was reached that conscious and proactive engagement of

stakeholders promotes a harmonious and professional relationship that leads to persuasively improved school performance. Bush *et al.* (2009:5), Mestry (2006:33) and Prew (2007:454) unanimously assert that a positive and harmonious relationship between schools and communities has a positive impact on learner achievement.

6.4.2. Conclusions derived from the empirical study

The following conclusions are derived from the empirical study discussed in section 5.4 (cf. Discussion of the research findings) regarding the major factors constituting the motivation of principals in the Mpumalanga Province.

- The ability of principals to take personal responsibility for promoting the passion for learner success (cf. section 5.4.1.1), for establishing a school vision (cf. section 5.4.1.2 a) and for developing the performance strategies (cf. section 5.4.1.2 b) have an intrinsic motivational effect particularly regarding improved effort (cf. section 1.11.3.2) and greater job satisfaction (cf. section 1.11.3.4).
- The tendency of principals to rely on the appreciation, recognition and acknowledgement of others such as the Department of Education, educators, and SGBs (cf. section 5.4.1.3 a) has a significant de-motivating effect, particularly on job interest (cf. section 1.11.3.1) and job satisfaction (cf. section 1.11.3.4).
- The ability of principals to consciously and pro-actively applying their cognitive abilities, especially in displaying a positive response to perceived inequity (cf. section 5.4.1.3 a), high self-efficacy (cf. section 5.4.1.3 b) and an internal locus of control (cf. section 5.4.1.3 c), to confront challenges imposed by the extrinsic environment (cf. section 5.4.2) enhances their motivated behaviour (cf. section 1.11.3).

- The ability of principals to take personal responsibility for the outcomes of their efforts and performance, particularly the negative outcomes (cf. sections 5.4.2.1.a; 5.4.2.1.b; 5.4.2.1.c; 5.4.2.1.d), has a significant motivational effect leading in particular to increased effort (cf. section 1.11.3.2) and better work performance (cf. section 1.11.3.3).
- The emergence of self-serving bias tendencies (cf. section 5.4.2.1. a) amongst principals (taking personal responsibility and credit for good performance, but shifting responsibility to extrinsic and systemic factors for poor learner performance) has a serious de-motivating effects on principals (cf. sections 5.4.2.1.b; 5.4.2.2; 5.4.2.3).
- A lack of basic and current information on the curriculum issues (cf. section 5.4.2.2.a), the allocation of state finances (cf. section 5.4.2.2.b), the provision of physical facilities (cf. section 5.4.2.2.c) and the provision of personnel (cf. section 5.4.2.2.d) has significant de-motivating effects on principals.
- A lack of basic information with regard to the management of stakeholders, for example parents (cf. section 5.4.2.3 a), school governing bodies (cf. section 5.4.2.3 b) and labour unions (cf. section 5.4.2.3 c) also has a significant de-motivating effects on principals.

Flowing from these conclusions; literature and empirical research findings, a cognitive model of motivation (cf. section 5.6; Figure 5.2) was developed.

6.5. RECOMMENDATIONS

In the course of analysing the conclusions from the study; the literature study (cf. section 6.4.1) and the empirical study (cf. section 6.4.2), the researcher decided upon several recommendations for principals as discussed below.

6.5.1. Recommendation 1: Principals should focus on intrinsic outcomes

Principals should develop and focus on the intrinsic outcomes, rather than the extrinsic outcomes, on account of their higher motivational value (cf. sections 2.3.2.2; 2.3.3.2; 2.3.4.2). Cognitive theories (cf. section 2.3) have propagated that intrinsic goals lead to a deeper level of interest, enthusiasm, passion (cf. section 1.11.3.1) and greater job satisfaction (cf. section 1.11.3.4). Locke's goal setting theory (cf. section 2.3.3) uses the term "goal acceptance and commitment" (Diefendorff & Lord, 2003:371; Locke & Latham, 2006:709) whereas Vroom's expectancy theory (cf. section 2.3.4.a) uses the term "valence" in this regard (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001:230; Locke & Latham, 2002:706; Painter, 2000:1).

6.5.2. Recommendation 2: Principals should take personal responsibility for their goals and strategies

Principals should take personal responsibility for the attainment of their set goals and the performance strategies. They should avoid self-serving bias tendencies. Both the theoretical (cf. sections 2.3.2; 2.3.3; 3.3.1. 3.3.2; 3.4.1) and the empirical findings (cf. sections 5.4.1.1; 5.4.1.2.b) point to the same fact; namely, the setting of difficult but realistic goals and strategies are linearly and positively connected to higher performance than simple goals and strategies (Kreitner & Kinicki, 2001:197; Locke & Latham, 2006:265).

6.5.3. Recommendation 3: Principals should make use of their cognitive abilities and efforts

In dealing with challenges imposed by extrinsic environment (cf. sections 5.4.2.2; 5.4.2.3), principals should consciously and pro-actively make use of their controllable cognitive abilities and effort in pursuing their goals, rather

than solely depending on uncontrollable extrinsic forces like powerful others, fate, luck, and chance.

Both theoretical and empirical research findings are in consensus that principals with optimistic perceptions respond positively to inequity (cf. sections 2.3.5.1; 5.4.1.3 b), have high self-efficacy (cf. sections 2.3.5.2; 5.4.1.3 c) and high internal locus of control (cf. sections 2.3.5.3; 5.4.1.3 d) and are therefore more confident, persistent, resilient, creative and perseverant than those who depend on external forces (Locke & Latham, 2002: 707; Diefendorff & Lord, 2003:371; Locke & Latham, 2006:709; Rouse, 2004:27; Shivers & Blackwell, 2006:30; Udechukwu, 2009:75; Yamaguchi, 2002:323). In contrast, Rouse (2004:27) points out that reliance on the external environment “give rise to a feeling of inferiority, weakness and helplessness”.

6.5.3. Recommendation 4: Principals should rely on self-appreciation and self-recognition

Principals should recognise, appreciate, and acknowledge their own competence and achievements in a positive way, rather than expecting it from others, in order to enhance their own self-esteem. The theoretical research (cf. sections 2.3.1; 2.3.2; 2.3.7) has found that positive self-esteem is a critical precondition (facilitating factor) for successful task completion and self-fulfilment (Locke & Latham, 2006:573; Rouse, 2004:28; Pajares, 2002:7; Udechukwu, 2009:75).

In short, principals with high self-esteem are more likely to make more efforts and persist longer than those with low self-esteem (cf. sections 2.3.1.1[4]; 2.3.7.1. a). Regarding the findings from the empirical research, some principals complained about not being appreciated and confirmed that it lowered their morale (cf. section 5.4.1.3.a).

6.5.5. Recommendation 5: Principals should keep pace with the latest operational information

Principals should consciously and pro-actively keep abreast of the latest operational information such as policy prescripts, programmes and strategies regulating their work environment, in order to keep up-to-date with the education sector and also to improve their competence. The empirical findings (cf. section 5.4.2.2) confirmed the theoretical studies' viewpoint (cf. section 2.3, figures 2.1; 2.6), namely that information, written policies and strategies play a critical role in facilitating the task performance. For instance, some responses in chapter 5 clearly revealed that the insufficient knowledge on how the education system operates, particularly regarding the resource provisioning (cf. section 5.4.2.2) and the stakeholder engagement (cf. section 5.4.2.3), were the main de-motivating factors.

6.5.6. Recommendation 6: Principals should take responsibility for the outcomes of their performance

Principals should take full personal responsibility for the outcomes of their efforts and performance, particularly the negative outcomes. The empirical research findings (cf. sections 5.4.2.2; 5.4.2.3) confirmed the theoretical research (cf. section 2.3.6); namely that some principals have the tendency to attribute only positive outcomes to their intrinsic factors (themselves), but attribute negative results to extrinsic factors (learners, educators, parents, department of education).

As is evident in Figure 5.2 (cf. section 5.6), taking personal responsibility assists principals in the identification of gaps and variance and therefore applies relevant corrective measures (Aliég-Mielcarek, 2003:132; Bush *et al.*, 2009:6)

6.6. AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

In the course of the literature study as well as the empirical investigation, a number of further research possibilities emerged. These include:

A longitudinal study to evaluate the practical impact of this cognitive model of motivation (cf. section 5.6; Figure 5.2) needs to be conducted in the Mpumalanga Province, particularly in the Bohlabela District. At this stage, the model is mainly theoretical and needs to be put into practice so that its impact could be established and evaluated. Therefore, the development of this model needs to be understood as the first step towards providing a solution on motivation of principals. It is for this reason that the practical impact of the model should further be tested.

Another area that needs further empirical investigation is the establishment of the positive valence (cf. section 2.3.4.1 a) and how can it be sustained applied to maximise motivated behaviour, particularly the increased passion (cf. section 1.11.3.1) and the improved task performance (cf. section 1.11.3.3). Following the data collection and data analysis processes (cf. section 4.6; 4.7), it has been established that some participants do not clearly understand the vision and mission statement of the Department of Education. Therefore, such a gap will automatically have a negative effect on the setting and pursuing of quality goals because of an insufficient interest in such goals on the part of principals. It is for this reason that further empirical investigations on valence need to be conducted.

Lastly, a study needs to be conducted to determine the exact nature of the cognitive strategies that can boost and maintain one's internal locus of control. This will assist in generating and sustaining the motivated behaviour necessary for the improved learner achievement. So far, the locus of control theory (cf.

section 2.3.6.3) is unclear in the provision of exact strategies that could sustain the motivated behaviour. Therefore, this area needs to be explored in detail.

6.7. LIMITATIONS AND PRACTICAL CHALLENGES

As shown in section 5.6, particularly Figure 5.2, the purpose of the research (cf. section 1.4) as well as the assumptions of the research (cf. section 1.6) has been attained. However, the following limitations and practical challenges are acknowledged:

- The study investigated the motivation of principals within one of the districts of Mpumalanga Province, namely the Bohlabela District (cf. section 1.8). The empirical research findings are, therefore, geographically limited. They cannot necessarily be applied to the other three districts; Ehlanzeni, Gert Sibande and Nkangala.
- The Bohlabela district is primarily a rural area and the empirical research findings are therefore limited to the rural educational context (cf. section 1.8).
- The research findings serve only to reach a deeper understanding of the phenomenon studied. No generalisation is possible (cf. sections 1.4; 1.9.1).
- Despite prior arrangements and appointments (cf. section 4.6.1.1), some participants were still not accessible due commitment like attending urgent meetings, particularly circuit and district meetings. Such meetings were often necessitated by the fact that some of the sampled participants had underperformed in the Bohlabela District (cf. sections 1.2; 1.8). This made it difficult for the researcher to get sufficient time during data collection sessions, particularly with regard to analysing written documents.

- Research findings only draw a picture of the motivation of principals at a particular point in time, that is, the period during which the study was conducted. It is not known how their perceptions, attitudes and understanding might change during the course of some years to come.

6.8. CONCLUDING REMARKS

This chapter concluded this study. It provided a summary of the research and also highlighted some critical conclusions and recommendations emanating from this study. Lastly, it made some recommendations for further study together with mentioning some critical limitations, which the researcher experienced during the investigation. The researcher does not claim that the research product presented in this thesis is the final word, nor that the methods followed were flawless, but does believe that something worthwhile was achieved by conducting this research.

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Annexure A

APPLICATION LETTER TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE MPUMALANGA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

P. O Box 723
BURGERSFORT
1150
19 April 2008

The Regional Director
Bushbuckridge Region
Private Bag X 1242
HAZYVIEW
1242

Dear Sir

APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

I am a Chief Education Specialist for Inclusive Education and Curriculum Enrichment attached to this district and am doing a Doctoral Thesis (Education Management) at University of South Africa. I am investigating the factors that are impacting on the motivation of principals in order to develop a cognitive model of motivation.

Therefore, I want to interview eighteen principals; from both quintiles 1 and 2 schools in my case study. During the investigation, I will also request and analyse written documents; such as vision and mission statements, strategic plans, year programmes, school policies, and registers in order to corroborate the responses given during the interviews.

I am going to interview the participating principals after school hours. Such interviews together with the analyses of written documents will not take more than sixty (60) minutes.

The name of my study supervisor is Professor Gertruida Maria Steyn. Contact number at work: 012-429-4598 while e-mail is: steyngm1@unisa.ac.za

Hoping for your favourable consideration on this matter.

SW Mashaba

Contact: 082 396 7091

e-mail: mashabasw@yahoo.com

Annexure B

APPROVAL LETTER FROM THE MPUMALANGA DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION



education
DEPARTMENT: EDUCATION
MPUMALANGA PROVINCE
BUSHBUCKRIDGE REGION

Private Bag X 1024
Hazyview 1242
Former Hoxani College of Education
Kruger National Road
Mpumalanga Province
Republic of South Africa
013 7085000

Litiko leTemfundvo Umnyango weFundo Departement van Onderwys Umnyango wezeMfundo

Enq : Siwelani M (013 708 5001)

FROM : Mr Mtembu DM
Regional Director

TO : Mr Mashaba SW
Chief Education Specialist
Inclusive Education and Curriculum Enrichment

DATE : 15 June 2008

REFERENCE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE DISTRICT

1. Your letter dated 19 April 2008 refers.
2. Kindly note that your application to conduct research in the district schools has been granted.
3. Please take note of the following conditions:
 - Your investigations should not tamper with contact time; that is, where possible it should be done after hours.
 - The identity of schools and their principals should be protected and their confidentiality be respected.
 - You will be expected to update the department with your findings in the course of your investigations.
 - At the end of your studies, you will provide the department with your findings and recommendations for implementation.
4. Thanks


Mr DM Mtembu
Regional Director

15/06/08
Date

Together Educating the Nation

1


MPUMALANGA
A Pioneering Spirit

Annexure C

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Researcher: Mashaba, Sebakane William

Contact: 082 396 7091

e-mail: mashabasw@yahoo.com

Dear Participant

Thank you for being part of this study. This form outlines the purpose of the study and provides a description of your involvement as well as your rights as a participant.

The purpose of this study is to obtain an in-depth understanding of the factors that impact on the motivation of principals in order to develop a cognitive model of motivation.

The primary data collection method will be individual interviews, which will be recorded with the use of a tape recorder. Further, observational field notes and analyses of written documents will be employed as the secondary data collection method. For instance, written records such as your school's vision and mission statements, the strategic plan, the year programme, your school policies and registers will be examined in order to corroborate the responses given during the interviews. The whole process involving the interview and analysis of written records will not take more than 60 minutes.

You are encouraged to ask any question at any time about the nature of the study and the methods that I am using. Your suggestions and concerns are important to me. My final report on this data will be submitted as a doctoral

thesis. In addition, I will make a summary report available to all research participants. I guarantee that the following conditions will be met:

- Your real name will not be used at any point during the information collection process or in the final writing up of the data.
- Your participation in this research is voluntary. You have the right to withdraw at any point of the study, for any reason, and without any prejudice, and the information collected and records and reports written will be handed over to you.
- You will receive a copy of the final report before it is handed in, so that you have an opportunity to suggest changes to the researcher, if necessary.

Do you grant permission to be quoted directly? Yes _____ No _____

I agree to the terms

Respondent _____ Date _____

I agree to the terms

Researcher _____ Date _____

Annexure D

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE WITH EACH PARTICIPANT (PRINCIPAL)

Time: about an hour (2 hours)

Major questions to principals:

- What do principals perceive to be factors that impact on their motivation?
- How do principals deal with factors that are de-motivating them?

KEY QUESTIONS

School vision and motivation

1. Please explain the vision of your school.
2. What motivates the school to pursue this vision?

Desire for self-fulfilment/achievement and motivation

3. How does this vision motivate you as a principal?

Goal setting and motivation

4. Please explain how the vision has been changed into operational short term goals.
5. How does the achievement or non-achievement of such goals impact on your motivation?

Communicating the visions and the strategies

6. Explain how you communicate the vision (goals) to the stakeholders?

Strategic programs

7. What strategies do you employ to attain your vision?
8. Which common challenges do you come across and what do you do to overcome them?

Motivating and inspiring educators

9. How does the level of commitment of educators to the vision impact on your motivation?
10. Tell me what you do to motivate your educators to teach with commitment?

Learner achievement and motivation

11. How does the current state of your learner achievement/performance impact on your motivation?
12. Please explain what the school is doing to improve learner achievement/performance?

Educator performance and motivation

13. How would you describe the quality of teaching and learning at your school?
14. How do you encourage educators who are performing poorly to be more committed to excel in their work?

Information system and motivation

15. How does the state of the information system at your school impact on your motivation?
16. Please explain how the school manages its information system.

Financial resources and motivation

17. How does the state of the school finances impact on your motivation?
18. Please explain how the school manages its financial resources.

Physical facilities and motivation

19. How does the state of the physical facilities/infrastructure impact on your motivation?
20. Please explain how the school maintains the available facilities/infrastructure.

Parental involvement and motivation

21. How does the level of parental involvement at your school impact on your motivation?
22. Please explain what the school does to involve parents.

Community relations and motivation

23. Please explain the nature of the relationship between the school and the school governing body at your school?
24. How does this impact on your motivation?

Locus of control and motivation

25. In your view, which factors would you say motivate you in your day-to-day work?
26. Which factors would you say de-motivate you professionally?
27. Please explain how you deal with factors that de-motivate you?

Effort, performance, rewards and motivation

28. Tell me about any award (function/prize) that has been given as recognition of your work as a principal.
29. How does such recognition/non-recognition impact on your motivation?
30. To what extent do you think did your effort influence the achievement?

Fairness/unfairness of rewards and motivation

31. To what extent would you say your achievement (work performance) is rewarded at your school?

32. Please explain how this impacts on your motivation.

Self-efficacy and motivation

33. To what extent do you believe in your ability/skills to pursue your vision/goals?

34. How does this belief about yourself (self-confidence) impact on your motivation?

35. What do you do to improve your self-efficacy (self-confidence)?

Persisting with attaining a school vision

36. Please explain some of your professional strategies that keep you motivated.

37. What support do you need from the Department of Education to enhance your level of motivation?

Annexure E

CHECKLIST FOR OBSERVATIONAL FIELD NOTES

Participant -----

ASSESSMENT COMPONENT	COMMENTS
1. School profile (quintile, total learners, total educators)	
2. Security (fencing, security employee)	
3. Availability and tidiness of physical facilities <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Administration offices• Classrooms• Specialised classrooms (library, laboratories, hall	
4. Computers and duplicating machines	
5. Trophies and certificates	
6. Tidiness of schoolyard <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Littering• Flower garden• Vegetable garden• Orchard	
7. Discipline at school <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Educators• Learners	
8. Emotional state of principal during interview <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Facial expression (eye contact, smiling, laughing)• Gestures (nervousness, talking using hands, enthusiasm)• Tone of voice (high or low pitch)• Body movements (relaxed or tense, confident)	
9. Others	

Annexure F

CHECKLIST FOR ANALYSIS OF WRITTEN RECORDS

RECORDS TO BE ANALYSED	COMMENTS
• Vision and mission statement of schools	
• Strategic plans of schools (school improvement plans)	
• Operational plans of schools (school's year programme)	
• Instructional plans (timetables)	
• Control journals (learning programmes, work schedules and lesson plans)	
• School policies (especially, assessment, code of conduct for learners, finance, assets, contact time, <i>et cetera</i>)	
• Registers (especially, stock, asset, movement, <i>et cetera</i>)	
• Assessment schedules (summary and analysis of academic results)	
• Learners' portfolios	
• Vision and mission statement of schools	
• Strategic plans of schools (school improvement plans)	
• Operational plans of schools (school's year program)	
• Instructional plans (time-tables)	
• Control journals (learning programs, work schedule and lesson plans)	
• School policies (especially, assessment, code of conduct for learners, finance, assets, contact time, <i>et cetera</i>)	
• Registers (especially, stock, asset, movement, <i>et cetera</i>)	
• Assessment schedules (summary and analysis of academic results)	
• Learners' portfolios	

Annexure G

TRANSCRIBED FLEXIBLE INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW WITH PRINCIPAL J

RESEARCHER: Please explain the vision of your school.

PRINCIPAL J: The vision of the school is that we are looking forward to taking learners here into the future for being people who will tomorrow be motivated to become responsible adults. That is our vision; to take all the learners from the stage in which they are, into future responsible people. That is it.

RESEARCHER: Then, what motivates you to follow such a vision?

PRINCIPAL J: The motivation that we put forward that is that we have to teach young people to be responsible. And you see, we are adults, but when we were still young, our teachers used to tell us that when you are to become responsible adults, you have to work harder. That will make you a better person tomorrow. But ignoring that, you are going to end up nowhere because they never listen to their teachers.

RESEARCHER: Personally, how does this vision motivates you?

PRINCIPAL J: I could say that personally, although it would seem like I will be repeating the same thing.

RESEARCHER: What are your short-term goals that lead you in achieving your vision?

PRINCIPAL J: Maybe in simple terms, in that, when we look at what we are doing, in the first place, is to take our learners from primary school into secondary school to college of education up to university. I think that is how we have planned it and we encourage it.

RESEARCHER: Explain how you communicate this vision to educators.

PRINCIPAL J: To educators! The educators are part of the process. Our vision is something we sat down and draw together. Each and every educator, make it a point, that they themselves encourage these learners, and say 'do like I am

doing, do the same thing'. Our motivation must be one thing. We must all voice it in the same direction as I used to.

RESEARCHER: and then, how does the commitment of educators to this vision affect your motivation?

PRINCIPAL J: According to me, I must be cheating myself, but I find the fellow teachers very committed to pursue the vision. I may not be 100% correct because, in what we are doing, we cannot even see ourselves whether we are perfect or not, but immediately somebody comes and say or look at us, he has got a better picture of what is happening on us, and how we are going forward.

RESEARCHER: Tell me, what do you do to motivate educators to teach with commitment?

PRINCIPAL J: I do speak to educators, I do motivate them. You see! Maybe some good examples were teachers, maybe they want to be promoted for better salary scale or maybe go to a better position like HOD, or deputy or principal somewhere. So all those are, are motivation on themselves because if you want to ..., other people to do better for you; you should also first look at yourself. Are you able to do better for others? Do you cooperate to others? Do you work well with others? Then if all this things we meet; then, you see your chances of growing up; to be there, because, in what I believe, for the person to grow up, you need other people to support you. You cannot grow unless you are supported. That is how I always encourage my fellow co-workers.

RESEARCHER: In your view, what factors do you think motivate you professionally?

PRINCIPAL J: I think the first motivation that is there, is to better your academic of your own, that is the first thing. Secondly, is to work with others. You must dig information. You must attend workshops. You must attend seminars. That is where you will get motivation. But if you sit down, if you don't attend, you don't go, you always seated at home, and you won't be motivated. You believe the world ends up here around you. I think that is what motivates me.

RESEARCHER: Then, what about the factors that de-motivates you?

PRINCIPAL J: There are some factors that hinder, de-motivate me, especially when educated as educated as I am, you find, the first thing, the unions come with something that de-motivate me, especially you see the strikes. Even if you feel like you want to better your work rate, but when you are in a strike, you end up not achieving some of the things like objections, the objectives you have set for yourself before. And some of the things the department too, is to come up with something new which you will end up not knowing exactly whether they are taking you forward or they make you stagnant or they are reversing. It is not everything that comes from the department that is good. Some of the thing you can realize that the intention was not to let people grow up.

RESEARCHER: Tell me about any award that you have received as recognition of your performance thus far.

PRINCIPAL J: I haven't received any award from the department except the fact that the school has won some trophies in the province and region in several competitions. That really motivated us as a school.

RESEARCHER: To what extend do you believe that taking an action brings positive results?

PRINCIPAL J: What I would say is that it depends on what type of an action that you are taking towards that action. It is not always all the actions that may take end up giving us results. I just decided to; you see, some of the strikes we were done in the region or could be national strikes, but end up not getting what we were fighting for. So! It depends on which direction, and what the aim was. In some of the things, we don't reach the aim. We only strike and end up resolving our strike, not having achieved our aim. It is not always the case. But at times, you comfort yourself by saying, even if you did not achieve, but people have realized that we are crying for this and that.

RESEARCHER: To what extend would you say your achievement is rewarded at this school?

PRINCIPAL J: I might not be having any award at the end, but when I always compare the extent to which I am working, I can always point at things. And if

we were to say I am competing with other people, I would say, but I am better. Let me just take you back a little bit. I started in this school in 1989. The school was new. I was the first principal. And then, I was, but then I was attached to the secondary school. When I look back, what I have done here, I have achieved a lot. Even now when I look at the school, the school is now twenty-one years, is old. If I could say that although to maintain the buildings, the physical structures and everything, it is too costly. But I can settle down to say we have tried our level best. When I compare the school with other schools in the circuit, I can say we are the best. In actual fact, I am the best principal.

RESEARCHER: But then, the good work that you have achieved, how people respond?

PRINCIPAL J: In response to this achievement, local people especially, appreciate a lot and feel very proud. I feel very proud.

RESEARCHER: To what extent do you believe in your abilities in pursuing the vision of your school?

PRINCIPAL J: I think, maybe here I might not respond well because I always believe that it is not simple to judge yourself, unless somebody is given a chance to do says and rates you. Maybe I believe too much in myself. And I think I can do it. But I am afraid to say that I might say that because the other people can rate me much better than myself.

RESEARCHER: How confident are you in yourself?

PRINCIPAL J: I am quite certain. I am sure that I am going to make it.

RESEARCHER: What do you do to improve that confidence?

PRINCIPAL J: Look! I am doing it left and right. Look! I am still studying. I am right now; I am doing ACE with University of Venda. I am saying, I still think I am left with three, four years before I go for pension. And, I think the sky is the limit. That is my ambition. I want to leave this school in a very high note. I always pray for that.

RESEARCHER: Okay! Let's talk about learner performance. How does the current state of learner performance impact on your motivation?

PRINCIPAL J: I am not satisfied, but not because we are not doing our level best, but generally, the learning of today, I don't know whether, what has gone wrong. But our learners are no more studying. I don't know what happened? I have been teaching here; I taught in secondary school before I came in here, but then if you were a good teacher, you would realize at the end of the year, especially when you were teaching a completing class, because the results would show you exactly what you have achieved. We tried all the strategies that we used to do in different schools, but failed. Then, what else could you do if learners don't, if you give them work to go and read here tomorrow you would write a test, but don't read? What else can you do to motivate such learners? It is frustrating.

RESEARCHER: In your school in particular, what strategies are bringing in to improve the performance of learners?

PRINCIPAL J: I think I have got a good team, who are achievers, good educators. We don't settle down, we don't sit down because learners are no more reading. We are doing everything in our powers to let them study, to let them come during week-ends. We tried all what we can do in trying to make them being better people. Those are some of the strategies that do. Even during school holidays, we let children to come to school, because we always that we should not let children who are not matured to a secondary school because we are giving them head-ache by so doing. We are trying our level best.

RESEARCHER: Then how do you encourage poor performing educators to excel, to be committed and do better?

PRINCIPAL J: In all the schools there are always people who are dragging their feet. But it depends on how you work with them. If they realize that there is a team which is working hard towards a certain direction, they will always come, although they will be dragging their legs, because we don't want to be singled out. We do try to go work with them; we do accept them, we do motivate them. They should join us in working together towards common direction. That is all what we can do.

RESEARCHER: Let's talk about the information system. How does the state of information system affect your motivation?

PRINCIPAL J: I think at the moment I am not having anything I doubt is not the current situation, as far as the information is concerned, is not handled in a better way.

RESEARCHER: Okay! Let's talk about finances now. How does the state of school finances affect your motivation?

PRINCIPAL J: In finances, we have got a challenge. Our school is one of those schools which is receiving very little amount from the department. And, according to how they graded us, we are graded as the village which must pop out the school fund, yet there are our neighbouring villages which have been relieved from paying school fund. Now, I want to be honest with you, the department policy says is only parent who must come and pay school fund. You cannot chase learners to go home and demand for school fund because learners don't have money. But there is no way we can get the little amount is expected per annum to come to school.

But, we have got to do something because school fund is the little contribution that a child brings. Ours is R20.00 here. We will add into what the government has given to us. And we survived through that. That is the only way that you could get the little money just to repair some of the pipes that are leaking. So! I think we are still in the good direction, because we are able to, even having a contract painting the windows and classes here. That is the intention of the school to try and maintain everything that we have here. So! Thus far, I think we are able to work very well with the little money that we are having.

RESEARCHER: Then, in terms of infrastructure, how does the state of physical infrastructure impact on your motivation?

PRINCIPAL J: I think it is working. What we are doing is working on our side. It is only that, some of these challenges like I can point straight away that, you see, this is the state which was vandalized. And those very same people, who vandalised here, have entered into this school three times, until I had to go to go and look for the night watchman who is paid out of the school fund; So! In

trying to prevent those people who used to come and break. It is very little that we are giving that man; but ever since we have started that we are able to survive and there is no more vandalism.

RESEARCHER: Then, how does the state of parent involvement at your school impact on motivation?

PRINCIPAL J: I think we still have a challenge with parent involvement. The local people here are not educated. Secondly, are not that much involved in educational matters. But we are doing. We plead with them to be involved, and although we cannot make them to be committed as we think they should be. It does help in a way that we are doing everything in our way, but you realize that these people only come because maybe you have talk to them. Some of these learners do have an idea; we can follow them. But, it is not as I would say should be, like people staying in the location; you find there are learned people. They even understand what it means education of their learners. They take part in everything that concerns their learners, their children.

RESEARCHER: Then, explain what the school does to involve parents.

PRINCIPAL J: We always have meeting with them. There are some of the meetings, even if at the end of the year, we call them. We have functions with them for the grades 7s who are going out and the grade R's, who are from that level into the formal schooling. We always call them and come together and have a nice day with them; playing drums, singing, dancing and at the end of the day cook for them; and that is the part they like. We always do on an annual basis.

RESEARCHER: Please explain the state of relationship with the SGB and how does it affect your motivation?

PRINCIPAL J: I would say the last SGB that was elected at the school; we settled down and checked who could be brought to school, which is influential to help us because we find it very difficult to work with the parents of the learners. We tried our level best to involve even the educators of the village; those who are not teaching directly with us here, to put them into our committee, in the form of motivating. We wanted to show them that we don't

hide anything in our working with them. We want them to know more. So! We decided that to work with all the people who can see to be members here.

RESEARCHER: Then, towards closure, please explain some of your professional strategies that keep you motivated.

PRINCIPAL J: We are always positive, we are always positive to ourselves. One other great thing that makes me happy is that I am a local person. I stay here with these people, though I stay that other end. But I am a local person here. I am always open. I attend with them meetings; attend local induna meetings on a daily basis. On Sundays, I am the chairperson there for the local induna. That is all what I can say as far as my involvement in the community is concerned. However, I always attend funerals, weddings here; whatever happens here, I am there. I make it a point that I am part and parcel of this. These people should understand me much better. I always want to work with them.

RESEARCHER: What support do you need from the department in order to improve your motivation?

PRINCIPAL J: I wouldn't say that maybe the department, like they are doing to everybody. I would say maybe if they change our school into those schools, into those schools which are benefiting and receiving better money. Maybe that would make us to show other people that we are happy school.

RESEARCHER: Thank you very much. We have come to the end of our interviews.

Annexure H

A LETTER FROM EDITOR

PO Box 428
BRONKHORSTSPRUIT
1020
13 May 2012
caroljansen@vodamail.co.za

To whom it may concern

EDITING OF MR. MASHABA'S DOCTORAL THESIS

I hereby certify that I edited the doctoral thesis of Mr. SW Mashaba (student no 0729 542) in my capacity as a language editor, mentor and tutor employed by the School of Graduate Studies in the College of Human Sciences.

I can be contacted at 082 9200312 if any further information is required.

Regards



Carol Jansen (Mrs)

Language editor, mentor and tutor
School of Graduate Studies
College of Human Sciences