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Instructional Leadership of Principals in High Performing Secondary Schools in Cape Town, Western Cape

A minor dissertation submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master in Education

by

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COMPULSORY DECLARATION

This work has not been previously admitted in whole, or in part, for the award of any degree. It is my own work. Each significant contribution to, and quotation in, this dissertation from the work, or works, of other people, has been attributed, and has been cited and referenced.

Signature: _____ Date: 9 September 2014

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research is to examine the extent of instructional leadership of principals in high performing secondary schools in the metropolitan area of Cape Town, Western Cape. A mixed methods design of quantitative and qualitative research was undertaken. For the quantitative phase, the Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) was administered to 5 principals and 136 teachers. One sample *t*-tests found statistically significant differences between the mean scores of principals and those of teachers. Data analysis of the PIMRS indicated that principals were most active in protecting instructional time, promoting professional development, providing incentives for learning and framing the school's goals and least active in supervising and evaluating instruction, maintaining a high visibility and providing incentives for teachers. In the qualitative phase, interviews with the five principals yielded a result that underscores the value which principals place on professional accountability, trusting teachers to deliver the curriculum, building coherence, promoting professional development, giving professional autonomy and fostering relationships. The study found that the principal's role is multi-faceted and complex and is neither limited to the instructional leadership behaviours of the PIMRS nor to the job description of the Personnel Administration Measures (PAM). Instructional leadership functions not measured by the PIMRS, such as the appointment of teachers, selection of pupils, engaging with stakeholder groups, establishing internal coherence and building trust by sharing instructional leadership practises with senior teachers were very important. School leaders internalize the expectations embedded in accountability systems and have woven these into an internal set of expectations and responsibilities that represent the school's internal accountability systems. The thesis concludes with the view that both shared leadership and instructional leadership are important as they are indirectly related to pupil achievement.

LIST OF ACRONYMS

ANA:	Annual National Assessments
ANC:	African National Congress
APD:	Academic Professional Development
APIP:	Academic Performance Improvement Plan
CAPS:	Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
CDE:	Centre for Development and Enterprise
CEMIS:	Centralised Education Management Information System
CM:	Circuit Manager
CMC:	Core Management Criteria
CPTD:	Continuing Professional Teacher Development
DAS:	Developmental Appraisal System
DBE:	Department of Basic Education
DO:	District Office
DSG:	Developmental Support Group
ELRC:	Education Labour Relations Council
EMS-PMDS:	Education Management Systems: Performance Management and Development Systems
FET:	Further Education and Training (Grades 10, 11 & 12)
GET:	General Education and Training (Grades 8 & 9)
HO:	Head Office
HOD:	Head of Department (school-based)
IMG:	Institutional Management and Governance
IQMS:	Integrated Quality Management Systems
KRA:	Key Results Areas
MTSF:	Medium Term Strategic Framework

NAPTOSA:	National Professional Teachers' Organisation of South Africa
NCS:	National Curriculum Statement
NDP:	National Development Plan
NEEDU:	National Education Evaluation and Development Unit
NSC:	National Senior Certificate
PAM:	Personnel Administration Measures
PIMRS:	Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale
P4P:	Partnering for Performance
QMS:	Quality Management Systems
SAPA:	South African Principals' Association
SGB:	School Governing Body
SIM:	School Improvement Monitoring
SIP:	School Improvement Plan
TDS:	Teacher Development Summit
TIMMS:	Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study
WSE:	Whole School Evaluation

Contents

FIGURES, TABLES AND GRAPHS

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

With an increased focus on accountability and academic standards in South Africa over the last two decades, especially since the post-1994 era (the end of *apartheid*), education policymakers have turned the spotlight of school accountability to focus on the people charged with making the system work, i.e. the teachers and principals responsible for delivering quality teaching and learning (Christie, 2010a; Smit, 2013). Within a global context, standards-based reform explicitly localizes accountability for pupils' learning with the school and the people who work in it, and carries the increasingly explicit message that pupils learn largely as a consequence of what goes on inside schools (Clabo, 2010; Cranston, 2005; Elmore, 2000). In the Department of Basic Education's Annual Performance Plan (DBE, 2014a:14), principals find themselves at the nexus of accountability and school improvement monitoring with an expectation that they will act as instructional leaders driving the delivery of a quality curriculum:

> "Principals will be held more accountable for managing teacher performance."

According to Heck and Hallinger (2010) researchers have persisted in framing instructional leadership as the driver for change and performance improvement in schools. In South Africa, given the lamentable results achieved on the National Senior Certificate (NSC), the Annual National Assessments (ANAs) as well as the dismal performance in international tests, against which the DBE benchmarks itself, and uses to diagnose the health of the education system, schools are being held accountable for what pupils are taught and what they learn, as a consequence of the teaching they receive.

If South Africa is to have a high performing school system, a competitive economy and a cohesive society, it will need teachers, and school leaders, with a broad and deep repertoire of skills and knowledge who can make a

difference in a system that can ill afford to filter pupils out (after Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012:79). It is against this backdrop that it is especially school principals who have become the loci of attention as the call for greater levels of accountability becomes stronger than before. Principals are expected to manage and lead teaching and learning so that pupils excel academically. As a result, the role that principals play, as well as the behaviours they display as they interact with teachers and pupils, makes a profound impact on teacher behaviour and pupil learning (Barker, 2007; Eaker & Gonzalez, 2006; Fullan, 2002; Goldring *et al*, 2007; Hallinger, 2000; Hallinger, 2003; Hallinger, 2005; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Jansen & Blink, 2014; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Prytula *et al*, 2013; Seashore Louis *et al*, 2010; Sergiovanni, 2001; Smith & Andrews, 1989; Southworth, 2002; Usden *et al*, 2000).

There is increasing evidence that leadership makes a difference in schools (Barker, 2007; Fullan, 2002; Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Jansen & Blink, 2014; Leithwood, 1994; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006; Seashore Louis *et al*, 2010; Usden *et al,* 2000). To fulfil this obligation, the most important function of educational leadership is to create good schools. By creating good schools, principals use their professional knowledge, skills and influence to foster conditions where all children can grow to their full potential (Fullan, 2002; Smith & Andrews, 1989). Fullan (2002:17) thus asserts that effective school leaders hold the key to large-scale, sustainable education reform.

Since its initial introduction almost 30 years ago, instructional leadership is still a research topic of some significance and relevance (Clabo, 2010; Fink & Resnick, 2001; Hallinger, 2005; Prytula *et al*, 2013). Hallinger (2005) points out that the instructional leadership construct is still alive in the domains of school leadership and management, policy and research, due to an increasing global emphasis on accountability. Hallinger *et al* (1994:321) contends that there is not enough research on how principals provide instructional leadership in developing countries. In fact, particularly in South Africa, recent movements within education, especially on the political front, have led to an interest in instructional leadership as the possible model to be exercised in its schools (NEEDU, 2012). The release of South

Africa's National Education Evaluation and Development Unit's (NEEDU) report has not only witnessed an interest in the role, and possible impact, of instructional leadership in South Africa's schools, but clearly frames instructional leadership as the driver for change and school improvement (NEEDU, 2012:19). Policy is, for the first time, reaching out directly into the instructional core of South Africa's schools, making what actually gets taught (curriculum), how it gets taught (instruction), and how it is supervised, a matter of public policy and open political debate (see also Elmore, 2000). Research studies on instructional leadership (notably Hallinger & Heck, 1996 and Leithwood & Jantzi, 2006) claim that principals only have an indirect effect on pupil achievement, second only to the effect of the teacher. However, what principals do collectively with teachers on a day-to-day basis, and the behaviours they display, has a powerful influence over the behaviour of individual teachers (Eaker & Gonzalez, 2006; Louis *et al*, 1996; Smith *et al*, 1989).

The NEEDU report (2012:19) laments the lack of instructional leadership in South Africa's schools and recommends that principals become responsible for leading curriculum delivery so that quality teaching and learning takes place. It views principals as more than just managers; principals are being exhorted to act as instructional leaders and to create the conditions in schools that promote quality teaching and learning. Policy makers are waking up to the notion, and reality, of instructional leadership as a key educational input to improve teaching and learning and, more specifically, leadership focused on outcomes and pupils' academic success. But, in a South African context, despite this national charge, understanding instructional leadership, what it is and how it operates, is not as clear as the calls for instructional leadership. When NEEDU calls for principals to exercise instructional leadership, what is meant by this? Little or nothing has been researched in South Africa in this field of leadership.

It is against this backdrop that this study investigates how instructional leadership is exercised by school principals in five high performing secondary schools in the metropolitan area of Cape Town, Western Cape. It

asks whether or not, the principal, by exercising instructional leadership, contributes to quality teaching and learning, as evidenced in recognized academic achievement in the schools in the research study. A key hypothesis that is explored is that, in high performing high schools, the style of leadership is instructional rather than any other style because central to instructional leadership is quality teaching and learning and, as a result, high academic standards.

Following this, the case study addresses the following research question: What is the extent of instructional leadership in high performing secondary schools in Cape Town, Western Cape?

The main research question will be approached by asking a series of sub-questions:

1) How do the perceptions of teachers differ from those of principals with respect to instructional leadership in high performing secondary schools?
2) What decisions do instructional leaders make and how do instructional leaders behave with respect to influencing teaching and learning in the classroom (which, in turn, impacts on pupils' academic achievement)?
3) Does instructional leadership in the sample schools conform to, or differ from, the conceptualisation of Hallinger's instructional leadership model?
4) What policy level factors at the national (DBE), provincial (HO) or district office (DO) levels and individual school factors hinder and/or support instructional leadership of principals in high performing high schools?

A case study approach was chosen in order to study the instructional leadership of principals in five high performing secondary schools.

The sample consisted of five English-medium government high schools in the metropolitan area of Cape Town that, between 2008, the inception year of the National Curriculum Statement (NCS) and 2013, the final year of the NCS, prior to the introduction of the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements (CAPS), each achieved an average pass rate of between 95% and 100% and a collective 90% average bachelor's pass rate (access to university studies) on the National Senior Certificate (NSC) Grade 12 examinations. The five schools consist of two boys-only schools, two girls-only schools and one co-educational school.

The lay-out of the thesis is as follows:

CHAPTER 2: Rationale for Investigating Principals' Instructional Leadership

The rationale for undertaking a study into instructional leadership of principals in high performing schools is explained in this chapter. The chapter outlines the current job description of school principals in South Africa according to the Personnel Administration Measures (PAM), the process by which principals are appraised annually according to the existing Integrated Quality Management Systems (IQMS) (Education Labour Relations Council Collective Agreement 8 of 2003) and the proposed, new Quality Management System (QMS) (currently being negotiated in the ELRC. The release of the recent report by NEEDU, calling for principals to exercise instructional leadership, is interrogated in order to examine the prevailing tension that exists between an inadequate job description for principals, inadequate appraisal, the current crisis in education at classroom level (which manifests itself in poor systemic achievement scores) and the need, and call, for instructional leadership in schools.

CHAPTER 3: Instructional Leadership Defined

This chapter conceptualises instructional leadership and explores the notion of internal accountability. The key issue here is the inter-related nature of

instructional leadership, internal accountability and learner performance and whether the principal impacts on the development of internal accountability, alleged to have benefits for schools, in general, and pupil learning, in particular, through the exercise of instructional leadership.

CHAPTER 4: Research Design and Methodology

This chapter explains the rationale for choosing a case study approach, as well as for the use of Hallinger's Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) model as the choice of research instrument. The site and sample collection, data collection and capturing methods are also discussed. Finally, the limitations of this study are outlined.

CHAPTER 5: Data Analysis

This chapter provides an overview of the questionnaire and interview data from 5 high schools and 136 educators. The data analysis is done in two parts: an overall picture of instructional leadership in the five schools followed by a school-by-school analysis. The research questions are answered in this chapter.

CHAPTER 6: Conclusion and Recommendations

The main conclusions of this study are summarised in this chapter.

CHAPTER 2
RATIONALE FOR INVESTIGATING PRINCIPALS' INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

The idea that principals must first and foremost focus a school's purpose on pupil achievement has long resonated with researchers, practitioners, and policymakers. Principals, as managers and leaders of their schools, are pivotal to the success of schools in providing quality teaching and learning (Barker, 2007; Hallinger, 2003; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Heck & Hallinger, 2010; Lazotte, 2001; Leithwood & Riehl, 2003; Smit, 2013; Smith & Andrews, 1989; Supovitz *et al*, 2010; Usden *et al*, 2000). Elmore (2000) poses the following question: why not focus leadership on instructional improvement, and define everything else as instrumental to it? The skills and knowledge that matter in leadership, under this definition, are those that can be connected to, or lead directly to, the improvement of instruction and pupil performance. It prioritises instructional leadership as instrumental to school improvement.

Hoadley *et al* (2009:374) claim that the South African leadership research base is very limited. In South Africa the role of principals has never been defined in terms of instructional leadership and policy prescriptions which outline the roles and responsibilities of principals make no reference to instructional leadership. These policies are described below in terms of two main areas relating to the job description of principals as well as principals' performance management, as articulated in the PAM and IQMS, respectively. However, prior to this description, and in response to the call for principals to act as instructional leaders, the current crisis in education in South Africa is explained.

2.1 A Public Schooling System in Crisis

Post-1994, South Africa's public schools are failing and as a consequence, standards-based reform has become a fundamental part of the architecture of policy and governance in South Africa's education system. National discourse is dominated by views on declining standards, poor achievement levels, poorly-trained and ill-equipped teachers and poor school leadership. Marais (2011:324) claims that the problem is systemic, as evidenced in the poor quality of teaching and learning. South Africa's pupils languish behind in international performance tests such at the TIMMS where South Africa has twice come last (Hoadley *et al,* 2009:374). Despite education being more widely available, the quality of schooling is generally poor and the level and variety of skills being taught has not improved significantly (Christie *et al,* 2007:35; Hoadley *et al,* 2009:374; Marais, 2011:323). It is for this reason that Christie *et al* (2007) claim that the South African public school system will require, in the years ahead, leadership very different from previous years.

Improving the schooling system ultimately depends on improving leadership as well as teaching and learning as good practices. The available evidence suggests that schools that cultivate particular in-school processes and conditions such as rigorous academic standards, high-quality instruction, a commitment to professional development and a culture of collective responsibility for pupils' academic success are best able to meet the needs of all pupils (Abelmann & Elmore, 1999). Abelmann & Elmore (1999), Elmore (2003) and Newmann *et al* (1997) refer to this as internal accountability. Principals' instructional leadership is widely recognized as important in promoting these in-school processes and conditions (Fink & Resnick, 2001; Hallinger, 2000; Hallinger, 2003; Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Louis *et al*, 1996; Smith & Andrews, 1989).

With standards-based reform, and the need for instructional leadership as backdrop, basic education is considered to be an apex priority in the

Medium Term Strategic Framework (MTSF) 2014 – 2019 and is central to the government's National Development Plan (NDP) 2030. Addressing the Round Table discussion at the Centre for Development and Enterprise's (CDE) eighteenth seminar series, the Minister of the DBE Mrs Angelina Motshekga articulated the future plans for schooling in South Africa called 'Action Plan 2014: Towards the Realisation of Schooling 2025'. The Action Plan is seen as a blue print for improving the quality of education in line with 23 national development goals, 13 of which are output goals outlining expected improvements in pupil performance. One of the targets the Minister outlined was:

> "Principals who take control as instructional leaders and who are accountable for their school's results." (CDE, no. 18, 2011:10)

The DBE ensures that all strategies and plans in the sector conform to the articulations in the NDP and MTSF, which necessitate that the sector prioritises the following outcomes: improved quality of teaching and learning; increased capacity of the state to intervene and support quality education; increased accountability for improved learning; human resources development and management of schools; and infrastructure and learning materials to support effective education. These outcomes are to be realised through the achievement of the outputs in the delivery agreement signed in 2010 and the sector plan with its goals (DBE, 2014a).

Alongside target-setting, greater accountability has been advocated for schools and school systems as a means of demonstrating to taxpayers that they are getting reasonable value for their money (Leithwood, 2005:8). Abelmann & Elmore (1999) claim that growing fiscal and political pressure on schools lies behind this conception of accountability. The political pressure stems from the increasing visibility of school performance as a policy issue at provincial and national level as well as the increasing capacity of district and provincial offices to measure and monitor pupil achievement. Maxwell (1996:18) contends that, although most accountability within a system is complex, it is essentially a reciprocal

relational responsibility where the authority requires a justification of what has been done usually in return for its financial investment. Education policy represents an important vehicle in efforts to improve national economic performance (Hallinger *et al,* 1994:322).

In South Africa, holding schools and principals accountable for school performance is an emerging and recent trend. Policy makers are determined to fix a system in crisis. However, getting accountability right is a serious challenge for education authorities. The initiatives and systems mooted raise critical questions around what successful learning is and what measures gauge whether successful learning has taken place or not. In recent years, and throughout the world, learning is often publicly equated with learner performance and achievement on standardised international, national and provincial tests. The TIMMS (Trends in International Mathematics and Science Study), the Annual National Assessments (Grade 1 – 9 tests), the Systemic Testing in the Western Cape (Grades 3, 6, 9), and the National Curriculum Statement's matriculation examinations (NSC) are four such examples.

However learning and evidence of it is conceived, learning is central to the enterprise of public schooling, and hence the work of educational leaders (Christie, 2010b). The work of ensuring high quality teaching and learning is thus a vital leadership challenge. The debate over accountability centres on whether measures of school success should focus primarily on schools' abilities to produce expected levels of pupils' academic achievement as demonstrated through standardized testing or of presenting a case for instructional leadership in South Africa's schools. The policies designed to address these issues are described below in the PAM, IQMS, QMS and NEEDU.

2.2 Principals and Performance Management in South Africa

Hoadley *et al* (2009: 373) report that the terrain of school management in South Africa has experienced seismic shifts in the post-apartheid period since 1994 that has reconfigured the work of school leadership and management. The principal's role has been changing and the job description has acquired numerous layers through legislation (the South African Schools' Act 84 of 1996 amended several times), policy, practice and research. In the main, political and economic forces have drastically changed the world within which principals operate. A framework of legislation regulates the conditions of the work of principals in South Africa (Christie, 2010a).

2.2.1 Principals and the Personnel Administration Measures (PAM)

The terms and conditions of principals' employment, including their core duties and responsibilities, are set out in the Personnel Administrative Measures (PAM) (1999) in terms of the Employment of Educators' Act (1998). These responsibilities relate to administration, personnel, teaching, extra- and co-curricular activities, interaction with stakeholders and communication. Close scrutiny of the core duties and responsibilities reveals a list of functions that can be described as management-related only. Training programs for principals reinforce this, focusing primary attention on a myriad of administrative competencies and devoting little time or attention to questions of teaching (instruction), curriculum, assessment and professional development, all of which are vital instructional leadership functions. Besides an Advanced Certificate in Education (Leadership and Management), there is no other programme that either prepares, (pre-service training for aspirant principals) or trains, (in-service training) principals.

Principals spend relatively little of their time managing curriculum and instruction compared with their other so-called managerial duties. This seems to be the main nature of their role. Reference to professional leadership is made in passing with no reference made to instructional leadership.

2.2.2 Performance Management: the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS)

Christie (2010a:706) contends that an important dimension of the labour relations framework that school principals need to navigate is the move towards performance management in the South African public service. This accountability mechanism and its associated focus on performance are seen in the 2003 agreement reached in the Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) (Resolution 8 of 2003) intended to integrate existing programmes on performance management in education. The existing programmes were the Developmental Appraisal System (DAS) (DAS Resolution 4 of 1998), Whole-School Evaluation (WSE Policy, 26 July 2001) and the Performance Management System (PMS Resolution 1 of 2003). The three quality management programmes, overlapping but separate, were integrated to constitute the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) (ELRC Collective Agreement No.8 of 2003). The IQMS is informed by Schedule I of the Employment of Educators Act, No. 76 of 1998, where the Minister of Basic Education is required to determine performance standards for educators, including principals, in terms of which their performance is evaluated.

According to the IQMS (Appendix D), there are 12 performance standards according to which a principal's[1] performance is assessed. Teachers are assessed according to 7 performance standards, Heads of Departments according to 10 performance standards and Deputy Principals according to the same performance standards as Principals. The first 7 performance

[1] Principals fall into the category of 'educator' according to national performance management legislation

standards are identical for teachers, Heads of Department, Deputy Principals and Principals and focus on classroom teaching as well as involvement in extra - and co - curricular activities. Appendix D shows the template used to assess a principals' performance in one academic year. Teachers score a maximum of 112 points. The identical 7 performance standards constitute 112 points (more than half of the overall score) out of a total score of 204 points for principals. The remaining 5 performance standards relate to the principal giving account of administration of records and resources, personnel, decision-making and accountability, leadership, communication and servicing the School's Governing Body (SGB) and, finally, strategic and financial planning. What is important here is that only 5 performance standards distinguish principals from teachers and signals a failure to include categories placing the overall responsibility of the principal to lead and manage the teaching and learning process as a central focus of the principals' roles and responsibilities.

Despite all the measures put in place to strengthen IQMS's implementation, schools continued to experience challenges in academic performance and leadership. As a direct response to this, and in order to strengthen teacher education and development, including leadership, the Teacher Development Summit (TDS) was held in 2009, to identify and address, amongst others, factors responsible for IQMS's poor implementation and the continued poor performance of South Africa's schools. The summit agreed on, amongst others, the following points:

- That a clear, coherent policy and regulatory environment be designed for both teacher and principal appraisal and teacher development, which teachers and other role-players can easily understand and with which they can readily engage;
- That teacher appraisal for purposes of development be de-linked from appraisal for purposes of remuneration and salary progression; and
- That IQMS be streamlined and re-branded.

The main purpose of the streamlining and rebranding process was to strengthen accountability in relation to systemic performance.

In South Africa, despite the legislation in the PAM and accountability measures put in place to measure, and manage, performance through the IQMS, a principal's role is difficult to describe in terms of a job description, given the ever changing nature of the role (Christie, 2010a: Smit, 2013). There was agreement, nonetheless, that leading learning needed to be afforded a more central role. This understanding is to some extent seen in new legislation still in draft form and is discussed below.

2.2.3 Performance Management: From Education Management Systems: Performance Management and Development Systems (EMS-PMDS) to Quality Management Systems (QMS)

The identification and development of effective school leaders has been significantly hampered by the paucity of technically sound tools for assessing and monitoring leadership performance (Goldring *et al*, 2007). In South Africa, finding practical ways to appropriately assess and develop leaders can have an important impact on the quality of leadership and, through that, on the quality of teaching and learning.

In response to the challenges still being faced by schools, as well as the TDS of 2009, it was necessary to re-brand the IQMS. The Minister of the DBE announced in June 2011 that government would empower principals to manage and lead teaching and learning in their schools and that they would be held accountable for maintaining a high standard of quality education. The notion of signed performance contracts, with measurable targets, for principals and deputy principals, was mooted. It was called Education Management Systems: Performance Management and Development Systems (EMS-PMDS). Accountability featured strongly in the proposed legislation. Principals were required to set up annual personal, and institutional, performance development plans with clear and measurable objectives and targets. For the first time principals would be appraised differently.

Draft documents were already discussed in the ELRC, setting performance targets (Key Results Areas or KRAs) and, furthermore, breaking down the KRAs into measurable outputs, duties, responsibilities and activities, called Core Management Criteria (CMC). Each KRA and CMC would be weighted in terms of importance (Christie, 2010a; Smit, 2013). The proposed revised legislation set out the principals' KRAs and CMCs as follows (Christie, 2010a):

KRAs

- Leading the learning school.
- Shaping the direction and development of the school.
- Managing quality and securing accountability.
- Developing and empowering self and others.
- Managing the school as an organisation.
- Working with and for the community.

CMC

- Job knowledge.
- Technical skills.
- Acceptance of responsibility.
- Quality of work.
- Reliability.
- Initiative.
- Communication.
- Interpersonal relationships.
- Flexibility.
- Teamwork.
- Planning and execution.
- Leadership.
- Delegation and empowerment.
- Management of financial resources.
- Management of human resources.

At a glance, it appeared as if the new programme, with its description of the KRAs and CMC, went a long way towards re-defining the role of the principal, with a view to the evaluation of principals' performance. Although the Minister of the DBE announced in the Basic Education Budget Speech on 17 May 2012 that an assessment instrument to improve the performance of principals was in its final stages of negotiation, the new programme was never adopted. It was superseded by the QMS, a newer version of the IQMS.

Although the QMS is still in its draft stage, it is a performance management system for school-based educators and principals designed to evaluate the performance levels of individuals in order to achieve higher levels of school performance. It is critical in assessing the extent to which school-based educators and principals are performing in line with their job descriptions in order to improve levels of accountability in schools.

Closer scrutiny of the new programme reveals, again, an over-emphasis on classroom teaching by principals but contains CMC that refer to shared responsibilities. The new proposed programme, however, defeats the purpose of trying to improve levels of accountability of principals as instructional leaders. Evaluating the leadership performance of a principal and holding the principal accountable for quality teaching and learning appears to be an afterthought (Smit, 2013). This brings into question the notion of a principal's authority over teachers to bring about lasting improvement in the quality of teaching and learning.

As the review of the legislation described above has shown, the South African education system is still in a process of transformation. The object of the reform has been to redress the imbalances created in the previous dispensation and the restoration of a culture of teaching and learning so that standards can improve (Maile, 2002; Marais, 2011; Weeks, 2012). Accountability mechanisms are a part of that transformation. So too is a call for instructional leadership and this appears in NEEDU, discussed below.

2.3 The National Education Evaluation and Development Unit (NEEDU)

NEEDU was established in 2009, by the Minister of the DBE. It was formed as a result of the articulation of a resolution passed at the Polokwane conference of the African National Congress (ANC) in 2007. It is independent of that part of the civil service responsible for the administration of schools and reports directly to the Minister of the DBE. NEEDU's mandate is to provide the Minister of the DBE with an authoritative, analytical and accurate account on the state of schools in South Africa, and, in particular, on the status of teaching and learning. NEEDU was created to identify why South Africa's schools are failing by examining the role played by provincial departments of education (PEDs), District Offices (DOs) and schools.

At the inception conference of the launch of NEEDU, on 17 – 18 March 2011, Clarke (2011:25) quoted three of the most influential people in education in South Africa at the time as follows:

1. "When we mapped the Education Roadmap in 2008 we resolved to ensure effective evaluation of all teachers based on the extent to which learner performance improves. Schools are the most important unit in our work and the success of the sector should be judged by their performance and all our activities should be targeted at supporting them and making them work." (Mrs Angelina Motshekga, Minister of Basic Education)

2. "Education in South Africa is not performing at levels commensurate with its level of development as a country." (Mr Bobby Soobrayan, the then Director-General of Basic Education)

3. "Every child deserves access to a national system of quality education ... it will only be possible if every stakeholder is committed to support this vision. Schools are the fundamental building block of the education system and change can only happen from within the school." (Prof. John Volmink, the then CEO of NEEDU)

It is against this backdrop that NEEDU undertook its first account of the state of schools in 2012 and reported its findings to the Minister in 2013.

Several assumptions underpinned NEEDU's evaluative design in 2012 and, for the purposes of this research investigation, two are fundamental (NEEDU, 2012:5):

1. The quality of teaching and learning is best measured through the direct outcomes of learning.
2. An examination of the quality of instructional leadership in the school system, a set of practices designed to direct and focus curriculum delivery.

The evaluation assumed that good instructional leadership in schools is characterised by coherent curriculum planning and co-ordination, effective language policies and programmes, good time management, procurement and deployment of books, promoting high levels of writing, using assessment to improve teaching and learning, and fostering professional development among educators. Consequently, one of the major recommendations made to the Minister of Basic Education articulated the primary role of the principal in terms of instructional leadership (NEEDU, 2012:19):

> "It is the responsibility of the principal to lead curriculum delivery. While tasks and responsibilities should be formally distributed to members of the SMT and teachers, the principal must direct the overall strategy. A division of labour must be established within the school, with important tasks defined, planned and allocated to senior members of staff."

Given this new policy development, it appears as if the role of the principal will change according to a political mandate.

2.4 Conclusion

If schools are to improve, it seems that the schooling system will need principals whose roles will be defined in terms of the following (Usden *et al*, 2000:8):

- Instructional leadership that focuses on strengthening teaching and learning, professional development, data-driven decision-making and accountability.
- Transformational leadership focuses on developing the organization's capacity to innovate. Rather than focusing specifically on direct co-ordination, control, and supervision of curriculum and instruction, transformational leadership seeks to build the organization's capacity to select its purposes and to support the development of changes to practices of teaching and learning. Transformational leadership may be viewed as distributed in that it focuses on developing a shared vision and shared commitment to school change (see also Hallinger, 2003).
- Community leadership manifested in a big-picture awareness of the school's role in society; shared leadership among teachers, community partners and residents; close relations with parents and other stakeholders; and advocacy for school capacity building and resources; and
- Visionary leadership that demonstrates energy, commitment, entrepreneurial spirit, values and conviction that all pupils will learn at high levels, as well as inspiring others with this vision both inside and outside the school.

Although all four roles are important, in a crucial sense, leadership for pupil learning is the priority and encompasses all four major roles. This is because pupil learning is the main reason schools exist. Everything principals do – establishing a vision, setting goals, managing human resources, being the custodian of the school's finances, creating effective learning environments, building support systems for pupils, guiding and leading instruction, driving data-driven improvement strategies and involving the community in the life of the school must be in service of pupil learning. The principal must be the leader of learning (Hoadley, 2009).

If it is true that how we define the leadership of the school principal determines the extent to which it is a key element in producing an instructionally effective school (Smith & Andrews, 1989) then how policy defines instructional leadership, in particular, is critical. As has been shown above, the various policies still have a necessary but insufficient bent. The following chapter moves to provide some clarity.

CHAPTER 3
INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP DEFINED

3.1 Conceptualising Instructional Leadership

3.1.1 Background and Context

School principalship has been the subject of hundreds of studies over the past 30 years with the central role of the principal being viewed, variously, as building manager, administrator, politician, change agent, boundary spanner and instructional leader (Smith & Andrews, 1989:9). Usden *et al* (2000: 2) weigh in on this debate by claiming that:

> "For the past century, principals mostly were expected to comply with district-level edicts, address personnel issues, order supplies, balance program budgets, keep hallways and playgrounds safe, put out fires that threatened tranquil public relations, and make sure that bussing and meal services were operating smoothly. And principals still need to do all those things."

Increasingly, in recent times, these views have been superseded by views of the principal as instructional leader, accountable for the academic achievement of pupils. Hoadley *et al* (2009:376) claim that there is consensus in the US and European literature, and increasingly in South African research, that school principals play a crucial role in creating the conditions for improved instruction but admit that what is less understood is how the principal contributes. Smith & Andrews (1989:9) argue that the direct responsibility for improving instruction and learning rests in the hands of the school principal. Research has proven that principals exert a measurable effect, though small and indirect, on school effectiveness and pupil achievement, second only to the teacher effect on pupil achievement (Barker, 2007; Christie *et al*, 2007; Colvin, 2009:7; Leithwood *et al*, 2004; Seashore-Louis *et al*, 2010; Southworth, 2002; Tschannen-Moran & Barr, 2004; Usden *et al*, 2000; Ylimaki *et al*, 2007). As Jansen & Blank (2014:128) argue, it is time for South Africa's schools to establish and maintain firm

routines, extend the time for learning, promote professional development, confront pupils with high expectations and have principals who are visible in their instructional leadership.

In practice though few principals act as genuine instructional leaders as their days are filled with activities of management - scheduling, reporting, handling relations with parents and community, and dealing with the multiple crises and special situations that are inevitable in schools (Fink & Resnick, 2001). At a time when policy makers are focused on improving outcomes for all children, it is essential to understand better the ways in which principals may influence instructional norms in their schools. Hallinger (2005) claims that, during the 1980s, it was believed principals in instructionally effective schools exercised strong instructional leadership. What we are seeing in South Africa at present is policymakers encouraging principals to assume this role in order to make their schools more effective.

However, there are two key difficulties to note. Firstly, as Clabo (2010), Grissom *et al* (2013), Hallinger (2003) and Supovitz *et al* (2010) note, few studies have empirically linked specific instructional leadership behaviours to school performance. Secondly, the definitions of instructional leadership *per se* (as with other types), are not easily codified. Hallinger (2005) admits that instructional leadership has been poorly defined since it was first introduced in the 1970.

From the perspectives of theory and practice, Smith and Andrews (1989:9) discuss four key qualities of instructional leaders: resource provider, instructional resource, communicator, and visible presence and draw on research about principal behaviour to show that strong instructional leaders spend a substantially greater percentage of time on educational program improvement.

Nonetheless, the idea that principals must first and foremost focus a school's purpose on pupils' academic achievement resonated among researchers, practitioners, and policymakers in the 1980s. Hallinger

(2003:329; 2011:125) contends that instructional leadership models emerged in the early 1980s from research on effective schools, as a body of research which identified strong, directive leadership focused on curriculum and instruction from the principal as a characteristic of elementary schools that were effective at teaching children in poor urban communities. As a result, the term 'instructional leadership' became institutionalised into the vocabulary of educational administration (Hallinger, 2005).

In his research on studies of instructional leadership, Hallinger (2008) concluded that, despite different leadership styles coming to the fore, instructional leadership has maintained a strong foothold in leadership literature. Clabo (2010:39) asserts that instructional leadership, as a general concept of principal leadership, has enjoyed tremendous longevity within the field of education and has been the subject of hundreds of studies over the past 30 years (see Appendix F) and, furthermore, claims that Hallinger's Principals' Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) model of instructional leadership has branched out to serve as the chief conception of effective instructional leadership in all educational settings i.e. primary and secondary schools. However, Seashore Louis *et al* (2010:317) argue that secondary principals cannot be expected to provide substantive support to the multiple disciplines that are taught in high schools and, as a result, many of the studies of instructional leadership in high schools emphasize the development of improved learning environments for teachers, focusing on the ability of principals to stimulate teachers' innovative behaviour rather than depend on their direct support.

Hoadley *et al* (2009:377) and Seashore Louis *et al* (2010:318) point out that the notion of 'distributed' or 'shared' leadership has become prominent within the instructional leadership literature. Spillane *et al* (2000) (in Hoadley *et* al, 2009:377) claim that distributed leadership is central to instructional leadership and that leadership is a property of a number of actors at the school level, and is not invested solely in the principal. Furthermore, Hoadley *et al* (2009:377) contend that leadership is stretched

over a number of roles, including followers and also situations, which include artefacts and organisational structures within the school. In the absence of a clear conceptualisation of distributed leadership, Hoadley *et al* (2009:377) refer to "dispersal of leadership" as useful. However, within this Seashore Louis *et al* (2010:318) argue that the distinction between shared and distributed leadership is unclear in existing literature.

In a local South African context, although principals in the research study had heard of the notion of instructional leadership, none of them felt that they were properly trained as instructional leaders. Hoadley *et al* (2009:374) confirm this by claiming that research studies on school management and leadership show that most principals have not received adequate specialist training in instructional leadership. The principals also felt that their current job description as determined by the PAM, (see page 11) had little use to them as principals:

> *Principal of School 1*: "My job description is in the PAM. I have read it. It's too broad and restricting. I have read about instructional leadership … not entirely sure of the concept … what is instructional versus what is not?"
>
> *Principal of School 2*: "Yes, I have a job description. It's an internal one. Can I show it to you? I was consulted when it was put together … the job changes … I do everything … what I don't do I am accountable for."
>
> *Principal of School 3*: "My job description is in the PAM. It's too broad. If we did everything that was in the PAM it would impact negatively on being an instructional leader. I had a half day course on being a principal … it was of no use."
>
> *Principal of School 4*: "Where do I find my job description? It's useless. After 15 years it doesn't make a difference. I heard about instructional leadership but it was years ago …"
>
> *Principal of School 5*: "Yes, in the PAM but it's useless."

Southworth (2002:76) claims that definitions of instructional leadership are found in North American literature. In reviewing the literature relating to instructional leadership Hallinger (2003:331; 2005:3) found that, after the 1980s, several conceptualisations of instructional leadership started to

emerge and, as a result, offers a summary of the most popular conceptualisations of instructional leadership as follows:

- Instructional leaders are academic leaders who focus predominantly on co-ordinating, controlling, supervising, and developing curriculum and instruction in the school.
- Instructional leadership is generally conceived to be the unitary role of the elementary school principal.
- Instructional leaders are strong, directive leaders who are goal-oriented, focusing on the improvement of pupils' academic outcomes.
- Instructional leaders lead from a combination of expertise and charisma, are hands-on, 'hip-deep' in curriculum and instruction, and unafraid of working with teachers on the improvement of teaching and learning (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).
- Instructional leaders are viewed as culture builders who seek to create an academic press that fosters high expectations and standards for pupils and teachers.
- Instructional leaders are goal-oriented.

These elements have been codified in Hallinger's PIMRS Model discussed below.

3.1.2 Hallinger's Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS) Model

Hallinger *et al* (1994:329) contend that the increasing salience of principal instructional leadership witnessed during the 1980s did not initially emerge from research on instructional leadership but was inferred from studies on change implementation. Since then, several instruments designed to measure principal instructional leadership emerged and research has been conducted in many diverse contexts. Hallinger and Murphy's (1985) seminal research, 'Assessing the Instructional Management Behaviour of Principals', became synonymous with instructional leadership and is the most

frequently used conceptualisation of instructional leadership. This model has been used in many studies around the world (see Appendix F: List of Completed PIMRS/Instructional Leadership research studies). The PIMRS has been used as a tool to measure instructional leadership by researchers and practitioners interested in developing reliable, data-based assessments of primary and high school principals (Hallinger *et al*, 1994:330). The PIMRS is considered to be a highly directive form of instructional leadership that may or may not be appropriate in all contexts (Clabo, 2010:251). This will be explored further in the data analysis chapter.

The PIMRS assesses three dimensions of the instructional leadership construct (Hallinger, 2000; Hallinger *et al,* 1994; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985):

1. Defining the school's mission.
2. Managing the instructional program.
3. Promoting a positive school learning climate.

The aforementioned dimensions are further sub-divided into ten instructional leadership functions, commonly called sub-scales. The PIMRS is the instrument used to investigate principals' instructional leadership in five schools in Cape Town, Western Cape and is discussed in more detail in Chapter 4.

The first dimension, 'Defining the School's Mission', has two sub-scales: framing the school's goals and communicating the school's goals. These functions concern the principal's role in working with staff to ensure that the school has clear, measurable goals that are focused on the academic progress of its pupils. It is the principal's responsibility to ensure that these goals are widely known and supported throughout the school community. While this dimension does not assume that the principal defines the school's mission alone, it does assume that the principal's responsibility is to ensure that the school has an academic vision and to communicate it to staff.

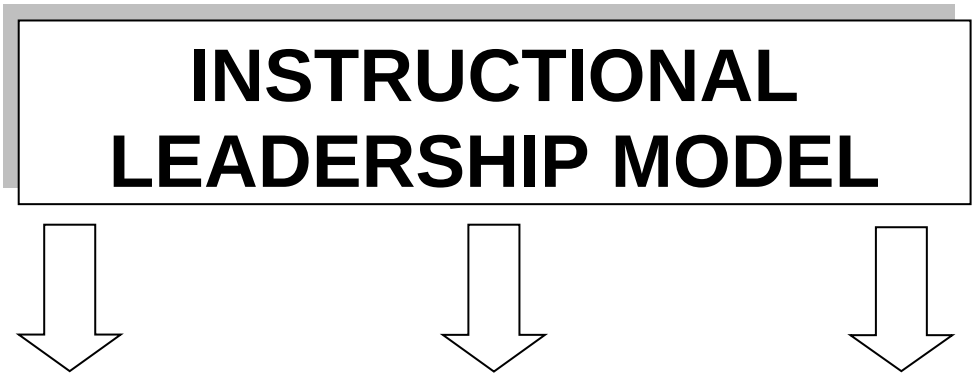
The second dimension, 'Managing the Instructional Program', focuses on the co-ordination and control of classroom instruction and curriculum delivery and incorporates three leadership functions or sub-scales: supervising and evaluating instruction, co-ordinating the curriculum and monitoring pupils' progress. These functions require the principal to be engaged in the school's instructional development. In larger schools, the principal may not be the only person involved in leading the school's instructional program and may delegate this role. However, this framework assumes that the development of the academic core of the school is a key leadership responsibility of the principal, hence the term 'hip-deep' in curriculum (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

The third dimension, 'Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate', has five sub-scales: protecting instructional time, promoting professional development, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers and providing incentives for learning. This dimension conforms to the notion that high performing schools, mediated by the principal, create an 'academic press' through the development of high standards and expectations and a culture of continuous improvement (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). It rewards both teachers and pupils for academic excellence.

It is the responsibility of the instructional leader to align the three dimensions in a synergistic manner so that they become part of the instructional leader's daily actions. Importantly, the dimensions, or behaviours, should not operate independently of each other. Given its comprehensiveness and wide usage, it is this model that forms the research frame for this thesis.

Figure 3.1 below shows the key dimensions and sub-scales of Hallinger's instructional leadership model (Hallinger, 2008).

Figure 3.1: Instructional leadership dimensions and sub-scales



DIMENSION 1: Defining the School Mission	DIMENSION 2: Managing the Instructional Program	DIMENSION 3: Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate
Sub-scale 1 Frames the School's Goals	**Sub-scale 3** Supervises and Evaluates Instruction	**Sub-scale 6** Protects Instructional Time
Sub-scale 2 Communicates the School's Goals	**Sub-scale 4** Co-ordinates the Curriculum	**Sub-scale 7** Maintains High Visibility
	Sub-scale 5 Monitors Student Progress	**Sub-scale 8** Provides Incentives for Teachers
		Sub-scale 9 Promotes Professional Development
		Sub-scale 10 Provides Incentives for Learning

With this conceptualisation in mind, researcher' questions have shifted from whether principals make a difference to the paths through which effects on student outcomes is achieved (Hallinger and Heck, 1998:187). Stated differently, do principals have a direct impact on the culture of the school and on its instructional organisation by shaping the school's direction i.e. setting the vision, mission and goals? As a result, a key issue is the inter-related nature of instructional leadership, internal accountability and learner performance and whether the principal impacts on the development of internal accountability, alleged to have benefits for schools, in general, and pupil learning, in particular, through the exercise of instructional leadership. That is …

> "… the establishment of a form of organisational containment that enables teaching and learning and that sets a climate of expectations" (Hoadley *et al,* 2007:376).

The research study now explores this issue.

3.2 Internal Accountability, Instructional Leadership and School Performance

Accountability has become an integral part of the educational system (Biesta, 2004; Hall, 2010; Levin, 2010). This has largely been in the form of external policy-driven accountability such as those aspects discussed in Chapter 2 (KRAs, tests etc). By contrast internal accountability theory has emerged as an alternative model for thinking about educational accountability (Ablemann & Elmore, 1999; Carnoy *et al*, 2003; Newmann *et al*, 1997). According to Elmore (2003:197), internal accountability is defined as follows:

> "…the shared norms, values, expectations, structures and processes that determine the relationship between individual actions and collective results in schools."

Four basic components should form part of any school accountability system (Abelmann & Elmore, 1999; Newmann *et al,* 1997:48):

- Information relating to the school's performance i.e. test scores.

- Standards for judging the quality or degree of success of the school's performance i.e. a mean achievement score higher than other schools with similar demographics.
- Consequential accountability in the form of rewards and sanctions for a school's success or failure, respectively, in meeting mandated standards.
- An agent or constituency that receives information on the school's performance judges the extent to which standards have been met and distributes rewards and sanctions.

What is striking is how Newmann *et al* (1997:48) defined internal accountability as systems in which schools utilized their own teachers in each of the four areas, i.e. to gather information, set higher standards, judged success and/or failure and decided on consequences:

> "These internally generated accountability systems constituted a major source of cohesion within the school. Thus, internal accountability can be seen not only as a building block of organizational capacity, but also as a result or product of high organizational capacity. That is, a school's commitment to monitor its progress and offer its own set of rewards and sanctions can lead to higher consensus among staff. Or strong, clear consensus on a school's mission can lead to building an internal system of monitoring, with rewards and sanctions at the school" (in Boone, 2007:8).

In attempting to further elucidate this working theory, Abelmann & Elmore (1999) claim that the theory driving the research was that external accountability operated on the margins of powerful factors operating within schools such as the degree to which individuals share common values and understandings about what they expect of pupils academically, what constitutes good instructional practice, who is responsible for pupil learning and how teachers account for their work and learning, and that understanding these factors would be a pre-condition to understanding how and why schools responded the way they did to external pressures for accountability. Abelmann and Elmore (1999) differentiated between responsibility, expectations and accountability in their examination of

internal modes of measuring effectiveness and, in their study of several schools, concluded that the most effective schools were those that were best at merging the three and aligning them with external tools for accountability (Boone, 2007:30). In the light of this, Abelmann & Elmore's (1999:3) working theory defines internal accountability as a set of relationships characterised by three layers of interaction:

- Individual's sense of responsibility;
- Shared expectations among individuals in schools;
- The capacity of schools to direct and support instructional practice (as a response to both external and internal accountability mechanisms).

In addition, the theory has four key premises (Abelmann & Elmore, 1999:3):

- Schools have conceptions of accountability embedded in the patterns of their daily work. If schools are to function properly, there must be formal and informal channels through which individuals in the school account for their behaviour. What must be asked here is: how, to whom, and for what is this account given? The principal must be at the fore-front of accountability as instructional leader.
- Conceptions of accountability are organic i.e. they arise in the daily interactions at the school. These do not have to be explicitly articulated and are a result of the way the staff, pupils and parents talk about the issue of schooling.
- Participants in schools are active agents in the creation of the conceptions of accountability under which they operate and can be active agents in changing these conceptions. These conceptions can change depending on external pressure or out of intentional action at the level of the school.
- External accountability systems are only one of many that influence a school's internal conception of accountability. Schools form their conceptions of accountabilities from a variety of sources e.g. teachers and principals conceptions of teaching and learning, their shared conceptions of who their pupils are and the expectations of pupils,

parents, communities and administrative agencies under which they work.

Internal accountability systems are described as working by calling upon the energy, motivation, commitment, knowledge and skill of people who work in schools, along with systems that support them. What must be emphasised is that accountability does not create improvement in academic achievement or pupil learning but initiates a series of events that may act as a catalyst to improved pupil learning and academic achievement. Stakeholders (principals and teachers) view of who they are accountable to and what they are accountable for are the drivers of school success.

Those who become school principals assume enormous obligations (Smith & Andrews, 1989:10). Key to internal accountability is to build a structure of relationships within the school so that all children have the opportunity to learn from teachers who are knowledgeable, are supported (trust) and who have a sense of the common good. To fulfil this obligation, school principals must use their professional knowledge and skills to foster such conditions. When these conditions are present, there is a measurable increase in the academic performance of children.

Elmore & Fuhrman (2001:68) argue that internal accountability precedes external accountability and argue that a school's ability to respond to any form of external performance-based accountability is determined by the powerful factors operating within schools (see page 30). Quality practices need to be woven into the daily fabric of the school and its operations. As a result, sustaining quality is the responsibility of the school. The principal is appointed to ensure the realisation of this mandate.

As a result, principals must respond to mandated demands by maintaining contact with teachers, and pupils, and ensuring the maintenance of high standards. They must contribute to the learning community of the school

and are considered to be the key agent in a position of power and leadership who can influence others in the school (Derkatz, 1996:4). Elmore (2000) states that the job of the principal is about enhancing the skills, attitudes and knowledge of the people in the school, creating a common culture of expectations, holding various pieces of the school together in a productive relationship with each other and holding individuals accountable for their contributions to the collective results. Southworth (2002:77) notes that some versions of instructional leadership focus on organisational variables such as school culture because these are believed to influence teacher behaviours as well.

What remains unclear is the role played by the principal in fostering this culture. If one of the major roles of the school principal is to inspire a vision and exert influence over the whole school, and build culture, acknowledged in research by Christie *et al* (2007), the enduring question that remains is how this is achieved and who is the primary agent responsible for its development? Hoadley *et al* (2009:378) assert that what principals might do, and that is the most important role they play, is to create the conditions for effective teaching and learning. Does the principal promote the development of coherence-building around common goals and objectives? Is it the principal who creates an enabling environment where various stakeholders are able to engage in purposeful work in realising high standards for all its pupils? What are the constraints on achieving internal accountability? These questions articulate a clear, yet undetermined, focus on the role of the school principal in developing internal accountability systems that ultimately become self-sustaining. The most vexing question of all is whether or not the instructional leadership of the principal is the 'glue' that fosters, promotes and sustains internal coherence? In the final analysis, as instructional leaders, what do principals create, and how do they create it?

What is clear though is that instructional leadership is linked to trust and internal accountability and it is in this sense that the notion of dispersed or shared instructional leadership has gained ground in leadership literature.

3.3 Conclusion

The above section has elucidated the emergence of the notion of instructional leadership, distributed leadership (as an aspect of instructional leadership) and internal accountability. It has also shown that the PIMRS may be used to assess the instructional leadership behaviours of principals in a specific context. However, the formulations of the PIMRS may change in different conditions as, with the passage of time since the initial development of the PIMRS instrument, the nature of the roles and responsibilities of principals has changed. It has been shown that instructional leadership must incorporate distributed leadership underpinned by internal accountability.

CHAPTER 4
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The key tool used to gather the research was a case study approach. A mixed-methods study was done as both quantitative and qualitative data were collected to address the research questions. The study utilised a survey instrument, developed by Hallinger in 1985, called the PIMRS (Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale), which has been used to conduct 100 similar studies in over 25 different countries since the 1980s. The PIMRS consists of a Principal Form (Appendix A), Teacher Form (Appendix B) and a Supervisor's Form (reasons for not using this are explained on page 37).

The following sections describe the researcher's understanding of the paradigm involved in the research design, determines how the population studied was sampled, and clarifies how the data was collected and analyzed. In the final section of this chapter, the methodology section identifies limitations to the study.

4.1 Case Study Method

A case study research design was chosen as it allowed the researcher to focus on learning more about a little-known phenomenon in a South African context i.e. the nature of principals' instructional leadership in high performing schools. By identifying the context of the case study, the researcher may assist those who read the case study to draw conclusions about the extent to which the findings might be generalizable to other situations (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:136).

Mouton (2001:149) defines case studies as follows:

> "[Studies] that are usually qualitative in nature and that aim to provide an in-depth description of a small number (less than 50) of cases."

In addition, Yin (1994:13) states that

> "A case study is an empirical study that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context."

4.2 Research Instruments

The nature of the investigation dictated that in-depth information about principals' instructional leadership had to be collected. Consequently, this study uses Hallinger's PIMRS, *viz.* a self-assessment questionnaire for principals (Appendix A) and a teacher's questionnaire (Appendix B). Hallinger's PIMRS was used under copyright (see Appendix E). The interview schedule for the principals was devised by the researcher (Appendix C) and is not dissimilar to that used by Clabo (2010) in a study on instructional leadership in Rural Tennessee, USA.

The PIMRS instrument (Appendix A and B) was used as it provides reliable and valid data on instructional leadership because the assessments come from both the teachers' and the principals' own self-reflection (Hallinger, 2013:10). Principals' self-assessment, using the PIMRS, provides useful comparative results, but, taken alone, may not provide a valid picture of principals' instructional leadership. Teachers, heads of department and deputy principals are also important sources of information about what principals do, hence the need for them to answer the PIMRS instrument.

The case study approach was used for its uniqueness in this empirical context. In a case study, the researcher collects data on the focus of the research study that includes interviews and questionnaires (Leedy & Ormrod, 2005:135). The research was conducted in two phases:

1. Phase One (quantitative): 250 copies of the PIMRS instrument was given to teachers at the 5 schools. The PIMRS self-assessment

instrument for principals was given to the five principals. Permission was granted by Hallinger for their use (Appendix E). The researcher did not interact with individual teachers, subject heads, heads' of department (HODs) or deputy principals at the five high performing schools. The Teacher Form was delivered by the researcher in an envelope and requested that it be handed it out for completion. The Teacher Form is a generic form to be completed by teachers, HODs and deputy principals.

2. Phase Two (qualitative): each principal was individually interviewed (Appendix C). Each interview took approximately 30 minutes.

4.2.1 Questionnaires

4.2.1.1 General Justification for Using Questionnaires

Questionnaires were used as they enabled the researcher to collect data quickly and cheaply. In addition, the questionnaires allowed the researcher to quantify the data and provide measurable results. Fouche (2001:153) states the following:

> "The basic objective of a questionnaire is to obtain facts and opinions about a phenomenon from people who are informed on a particular issue."

Three parallel forms of the PIMRS instrument have been developed and tested: a self-assessment form to be completed by the principal, a teacher form and a supervisor form (Hallinger *et al,* 1994:330). The items which comprise each form are identical. The PIMRS was chosen as the instrument because of its use over an extended period of time, in a wide variety of settings and with a range of questions that provide a comparable basis for other research done in this area.

The researcher did not request the principals' supervisors to complete the forms due to the limited nature of the role played by supervisors in

supervising principals' instructional leadership roles in schools in the Western Cape.

The validity of the PIMRS is based on the assumption that the respondent has observed the principal's leadership behaviour in multiple situations. Without such observations, the respondents' results are deemed to be invalid. Hallinger (2013:20) states that validation studies in the United States indicate that the PIMRS form that solicits teachers' perceptions provides the most valid data of the three forms.

It was therefore necessary to reach a large number of educators, subject heads, heads of department and deputy principals as well as the principals themselves.

Kumar (2005:130) stresses the importance of anonymity when undertaking research that involves the completion of a questionnaire. This was guaranteed at every stage in the data collection process. Permission was also granted, in writing, by every respondent who formed part of the research group.

4.2.1.2 The PIMRS Questionnaire Design

Developing the PIMRS

Hallinger's first step in the development of the rating scales was to perform a careful job analysis of the principal's role as instructional leader (Hallinger, 1983). The original form of the PIMRS contained 11 sub-scales and 72 behaviourally anchored items but revision of the instrument reduced the instrument to 10 sub-scales and 50 items (Hallinger *et al*, 1994:330). The final analysis resulted in the final version of the PIMRS being developed which provides a framework of principals' performance on 3 dimensions with 10 instructional leadership functions (called sub-scales). The sub-scales are comprised of 50 items (questions), which refer to specific principal

behaviours or practices. All items refer to specific principal behaviours or practices (Hallinger, 2013).

For each item, the respondent assesses the frequency with which the principal enacts a behaviour or practice associated with that particular instructional leadership function (Hallinger *et al,* 1994:330). Each item is rated on a Likert-type scale ranging from (1) almost never, to (5) almost always. The instrument is scored by calculating the mean for the items that comprise each sub-scale within the three dimensions. This results in a profile that yields data on perceptions of principal performance on each of the 10 instructional leadership functions (Hallinger *et al,* 1994:330; Hallinger, 2013:20). These were then used to compare teachers' perceptions against principals' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviours.

Scoring the PIMRS

The PIMRS has been designed so that it can be scored easily by the teachers and the principal. Useful information can be obtained from ratings on the individual items within each sub-scale. In most cases, though, the norm is to use the instrument to provide feedback on the sub-scales as components of instructional leadership.

Validating the PIMRS

The PIMRS was designed to meet standards for use in research, professional development and principal evaluation. Hallinger (1982; 1983) reported that the original validation study found that the PIMRS met high standards of reliability and that all ten sub-scales exceeded .80 using Cronbach's test of internal consistency (Hallinger *et al,* 1994:332). The PIMRS has not only been refined between 1982 and 2013 by Hallinger but has also been used in research studies in different countries (see Appendix F).

The two questionnaires (Principal Form and Teacher Form) consisted of two sections:

- Personal information

- Questions regarding the three dimensions of Hallinger's Principal Instructional Management Rating Scale (PIMRS): Defining the School Mission, Managing the Instructional Programme and Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate.

One-sample *t*-tests were done to determine whether or not there was a significant difference in the responses of the teachers compared to the principals, on each dimension of the PIMRS.

4.2.1.3 Piloting the Questionnaire

Although Hallinger's questionnaire has been used extensively across the world to study principals' instructional leadership, both the PIMRS Principal Form and the Teacher's Form were piloted amongst six educators at the researcher's own school (not part of the sample) and the principal of a neighbouring high school (not part of the sample). As Fouche (2001:158) notes:

> "In all cases, it is essential that … questionnaires … be thoroughly pilot-tested before being utilised in the main investigation."

Piloting is done to ensure that errors can be rectified immediately.

The pilot enabled clarification of unfamiliar terms such as "faculty" and "student" and demonstrated to the researcher that all the questions were answerable within a reasonable time frame.

4.2.2 Interviews

Schurink (2001:297) contends that the interview is a pipeline for extracting and transmitting information from the interviewee to the interviewer. Given the extent of the research undertaken, the five principals who were interviewed allowed the researcher to make meaning of the research questions beyond the scope of the PIMRS. Each principal was emailed a

copy of the interview schedule. Face-to-face sessions were then arranged. Responses to questions were written down by the researcher.

The interviews added value as the questions posed allowed the researcher to gain insight into several aspects of instructional leadership that the PIMRS was not able to answer, given its limited scope as an instrument that compares perceptions of instructional leadership between principals and the teachers (quantitative) only. The interviews allowed the researcher to focus on possible policy level factors that impact on instructional leadership, decisions that the principals make, and behaviours they display, not measured by the PIMRS instrument (given South Africa's PAM job description for principals) and whether or not, in the local context, principals' instructional leadership aligns itself to, or differs from, the PIMRS instructional leadership model presented by Hallinger. The interview schedule appears in Appendix C.

At the start of each interview, the purpose of the interview and the research questions was explained to the principals. The researcher recorded each respondent's answers in writing. Problems that the researcher experienced in analysing the interviews were resolved by emails to the principals from whom clarity was sought.

4.3 School Sampling

Strydom & De Vos (2001:189) contend that the concept of sampling is one of the most important in the total research endeavour. As a result, it is important to understand it clearly. For the purposes of this study's reliability, and ability to generalize the findings, an homogenous sample was chosen and the process involved in selecting the sample is described below.

Firstly, high schools were chosen as the locus for this study for the following reasons:

- High schools are traditionally, to a large extent, the accountability lens through which school success is measured i.e. Grade 12 NSC examination results.
- High schools are the platform from which pupils move into tertiary studies and are the loci of teaching and learning that allow pupils the opportunity to achieve this.

Secondly, sustained high performance was used as a benchmark. In this case, the 'National Senior Certificate' (NSC) was used as an indicator of performance. The 'National Curriculum Statement' (NCS) was a curriculum used to examine all Grade 12 learners for the first time in 2008. Based on this curriculum, pupils were examined for a NSC. In 2014 the NCS was refined and led to a revised curriculum called the 'Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements' (CAPS).

As a result of the availability, and reliability, of the annual percentage pass rates between 2008 and 2013 (and information relating to access to bachelor study) for the externally set NSC examinations, identification of academically top performing schools was possible. The following sections explain how a purposive school sample, representing high performing English-medium high schools, was chosen:

- High performance: an average of 98 % pass rate in the NSC examinations (Grade 12) and an average of 85 % access to bachelor's studies at a tertiary institution, between 2008 and 2013 (a six year period).
- Fee-paying State schools.
- English-medium schools.
- Schools with similar cultures and/or operations that may create similar leadership styles, values and behaviours.

- Size of schools is similar.
- School fees charged are similar.
- A cross section of boys' only, girls' only and co-educational schools in the southern suburbs within the Cape Metropole.
- Schools with a similar staffing structure (State and SGB-employed).

A key similarity in the five schools relates to the high academic performance of its pupils. It is expected here that, all things being relatively equal, strong instructional leadership, and the presence of strong internal accountability systems, guided by the principal, is a key factor in supporting pupils' learning and academic achievement.

4.3.1 Profile of Schools and Teachers Participating in the Study

4.3.1.1 General Profile of the Schools

The profiles of the five schools selected show their relative comparability (with the exception of school type). The information presented in this section comes from several sources: the principals of the five schools, the schools' websites and information gleaned from the administration and collection of the PIMRS. The general profile of the schools is indicated in Table 4.3.1.1

Table 4.3.1.1: General profile of schools in sample study

SCHOOL	PUPILS	TEACHING STAFF:STATE	TEACHING STAFF: SGB	SCHOOL FEES	SCHOOL TYPE
1	812	23	25	R 34 300	Boys only
2	820	24	26	R 31 500	Girls only
3	946	27	29	R 25 200	Girls only
4	845	25	24	R 31 100	Boys only
5	918	26	28	R 27 000	Co-educational

The schools selected were consistently academically high performing between 2008 (the inception year of the NCS) and 2013 (the final year of the NCS before the implementation of the CAPS curriculum). Table 4.3.1.2 shows the NSC academic results of the schools in the sample.

Table 4.3.1.2: NSC results of the five schools between 2008 and 2013

		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013
SCHOOL 1							
	Pass rate (as a %)	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Bachelor Passes (as a %)	89	93	93	92	96	93
SCHOOL 2							
	Pass rate (as a %)	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Bachelor Passes (as a %)	94	90	89	97	94	98
SCHOOL 3							
	Pass rate (as a %)	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Bachelor Passes (as a %)	94	90	89	97	94	96
SCHOOL 4							
	Pass rate (as a %)	99	99	100	99	98	98
	Bachelor Passes (as a %)	88	83	88	81	78	90
SCHOOL 5							
	Pass rate (as a %)	100	100	100	100	100	100
	Bachelor Passes (as a %)	99	98	99	99	99	100

4.3.1.2 General Profile of the Teachers and Principals

This section provides an overview of the teachers' personal attributes. The principals' profiles in terms of experience and age are also indicated. Personal attributes such as gender, age, academic qualifications, professional qualifications, experience at their present school under the principal's leadership and experience in education general may influence the nature of teachers' perceptions of instructional leadership behaviours. The literature does not provide insight regarding the extent to which personal

attributes influence perceptions of teachers of instructional leadership behaviours of principals and it is beyond the brief of this research study. However, in any analysis of data relating to this study, it is important to reveal the cross section of the sample of teachers and principals who provided the data.

- **Gender**: *Teachers*: 39 % male; 61 % female. *Principals*: 60 % male; 40 % female.
- **Age**: *Teachers*: 21.3 % < 29; 22.1 % < 39; 18.4 % < 49; 26.5 % < 59; 11.7 % < 65. *Principals*: 80 % 50 – 59; 20 % 60 – 65.
- **Academic Qualifications**: *Teachers*: 100 % professionally qualified; 42 % post-graduate academic qualifications. *Principals*: 100 % professionally qualified and post-graduate qualification/s.
- **Experience in teaching**: *Teachers only*: 4 %: 1 year; 12 %: 2 - 4 years; 21 %: 5 – 9 years; 15 %: 10 – 15 years; 48 %: more than 15 years
- **Experience under current principal/as principal**: *Teachers*: 9 %: 1 year; 26 %: 2 – 4 years; 35 %: 5 – 9 years; 15 %: 10 – 15 years; 15 %: > 15 years. *Principals*: 20 %: 1 year; 40 %: 5 – 9 years; 40 %: 10 – 15 years.

4.3.1.3 Sample Returns

Five academically successful schools were approached to participate in the study. Figure 4.3.1.3 indicates the per school percentage return of the PIMRS instrument for teachers. All 5 principals returned their questionnaires.

Table 4.3.1.3: Percentage return of the PIMRS Teacher's Form

	Questionnaires given out	Questionnaires returned	Percentage returned
SCHOOL 1	50	11	22
SCHOOL 2	50	10	20
SCHOOL 3	50	46	92
SCHOOL 4	50	31	62
SCHOOL 5	50	38	76
TOTALS	**250**	**136**	**54**

4.4 Limitations

Three limitations were identified in the study.

1. The PIMRS instrument

Although the PIMRS has been used in many studies throughout the world, and has been validated as such, the PIMRS measures participants' feelings or perceptions of the principal's instructional leadership abilities (Hallinger, 2008). The respondents are reporting on what they see their principals do, or assume their principals do. The questionnaire refers specifically to *'To what extent does your principal ..?'* followed by 3 dimensions, 10 sub-scales and 50 items. The questionnaire attempts to build a profile of the principal and is an attitudinal measure. Thus the responses could have been subjective perceptions.

The five principals may also have provided inaccurate responses to items on the PIMRS by assuming what they should be doing, instead of what they are doing, so that they appear to be performing instructional leadership functions. The questionnaire refers specifically to *'To what extent do you ..?'* followed by 3 dimensions, 10 sub-scales and 50 items.

The PIMRS does not measure the effectiveness of principals in exercising instructional leadership. It measures the presence, or not, of instructional leadership behaviours (Hallinger, 2008). One must be cautious therefore in attempting to establish a causal relationship between the effectiveness of instructional leadership and high academic performance.

On the scoring of the PIMRS itself, sometimes the mean score masks the perceptions of the various respondents. A mean score on an item of 3.5 may be obtained with a large distribution of teachers rating the principal at 2.5 and others at 4.5, or with most of the teachers rating the principal between 3.2 and 3.8. Thus, the interpretation of the same mean score can vary

according to the distribution of responses on an item. For this reason, one-sample *t*-tests were used to establish significant differences.

2. Interviewing the principals

In addition to interviewing the principals, it would have been useful ideally to interview a sample of teachers as well. However, the scope of the study did not permit this. Principals' interviews obviated this limitation, to a certain extent.

3. Sample selection

The original use of the PIMRS was in urban elementary and middle schools in the USA. As a result, the PIMRS was developed for a context far removed from the realities of the South African school. Principals' roles and responsibilities may be very different in different countries, and contexts. The PIMRS does not necessarily measure other instructional leadership behaviours required in South Africa (Chapter 5 elucidates instructional leadership responsibilities not included on the PIMRS).

The research study was conducted in five high performing high schools in the southern suburbs of the Cape Metropole. Two of the schools were boys' only schools, two girls' only schools and one a co-educational school. The choice of schools may limit the external generalisability of this study's findings to schools equally successful only. However, as will be shown in Chapter 5, there were no discernible differences between the schools.

Although these limitations may curtail the claims being made in this study, the research nevertheless provides a more comprehensive picture of instructional leadership than hitherto existed in South Africa.

CHAPTER 5
DATA ANALYSIS

5.1 Introduction

De Vos & Fouche (2001:203) regard interpretation as an attempt to take the results of an analysis, make inferences pertinent to the research relations studied and draw conclusions about these relations. With this in mind, this chapter integrates the descriptive analysis of the quantitative data with the qualitative data.

The quantitative analysis examined the ratings of both teachers and the self ratings of the principals by comparing the results on the three dimensions and ten sub-scales of the PIMRS in order to respond to the three main research questions:

- How do the perceptions of principals differ from those of their staff with respect to the principals' roles and responsibilities as instructional leaders in high performing high schools (research question 1)?
- What decisions do instructional leaders make and how do instructional leaders behave with respect to influencing teaching and learning in the classroom which, in turn, impacts on pupils' academic achievement (research question 2)?
- How does instructional leadership in the sample schools conform to, or differ from, the conceptualisation of Hallinger's instructional leadership model (research question 3)?

In addition to providing insight into the above research questions, the qualitative analysis (interviews with principals) gave insight into research question 4 by asking:

- What policy level factors at the national (DBE), provincial (HO) or district (DO) levels and individual school factors, hinder and/or

support instructional leadership of principals in high performing high schools?

5.2 Analysis of the Overall PIMRS Results and Principals' Interviews

The analysis that follows is done sequentially using the PIMRS concepts of dimensions, sub-scales and items. The PIMRS outlines three broad dimensions of instructional leadership: (1) Defining the school mission, (2) Managing the instructional program, and (3) Promoting a positive school learning climate. The PIMRS uses a Likert scale of five responses which are *(1) almost never, (2) seldom (3) sometimes, (4) frequently* and *(5) almost always,* to rate the principal's instructional leadership in ten sub-scales, according to three dimensions. The dimensions and sub-scales are indicated in Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2: PIMRS dimensions and sub-scales (Hallinger, 2008)

DIMENSION	SUB-SCALES
1. Defining the school mission	1. Frame the school goals 2. Communicate the school goals
2. Managing the instructional program	3. Supervise and evaluate instruction 4. Co-ordinate the curriculum 5. Monitor student progress
3. Promoting a positive school learning climate	6. Protect instruction time 7. Maintain high visibility 8. Provide incentives for teachers 9. Promote professional development 10. Provide incentives for learning

The sub-scale score is the basic score provided by the PIMRS and these categories form the basis of the analysis. For both the overall PIMRS results and the individual school results, each of the ten sub-scales is analysed. Both an overall and specific descriptive picture of the data is presented for each sub-scale, per item, and is accompanied by tabulated and graphical analysis of the data.

The teachers rated the principals and the principals rated themselves. The issue here is whether or not the ratings are significantly different. A one-sample t-test was done for each dimension to test whether the average of the teachers' scores (nT = 136) was significantly different from the average of the principals' scores (nP = 5). nT represents the number of teacher respondents (136) while nP represents the number of principal respondents (5). The null hypothesis is that the teachers' mean score equals the principals' mean score. The alternative hypothesis is that the teachers' mean score does not equal the principals' mean score.[2] For the sake of accuracy, two decimal places were used to determine p-values.

5.2.1 Dimension 1: Defining the School Mission

Defining the school mission comprises two functions:

- Frame the school goals
- Communicate the school goals

These functions concern the principal's role in working with staff to ensure that the school has clear, measurable goals that are focused on the academic progress of its pupils (Hallinger, 2003; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). In South Africa, it is principals' responsibility to ensure that these goals are included in the school's annual School Improvement Plan (SIP) and that they are monitored on a quarterly basis. It is expected of the principal to communicate these goals and progress made with respect to these goals to staff and to the wider parent community, in consultation with the academic staff and the School Governing Body (SGB). An Academic Performance Improvement Plan (APIP) is a focus area of the SIP. The APIP is used to set academic targets for the year. In the Western Cape, quarterly reporting on the APIP is done by means of the online completion of the School Improvement Monitoring tool (SIM) on the Centralised Education

[2] The formula used is $t_{obt} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{s/\sqrt{n}}$ (Nunez, 2002:147)

Management Information System (CEMIS). Schools are held accountable for reaching the targets.

Hallinger (2003) notes that, while this dimension does not assume that the principal defines the school's mission alone, it does assume that the principal's responsibility is to ensure that the school has a clear academic mission and to communicate it to the wider community, both inside the school and to parents. The role of the principal as the articulator of the mission of the school is thus crucial to the overall effectiveness of the school (Lazotte, 2001; Sergiovanni, 2001).

5.2.1.1 Sub-scale 1: Frame the School Goals

In all five schools, in all sub-scales, as Graph 5.2.1.1 below shows, teachers' and principals' mean scores were similar for sub-scale 1. Teachers' and principals' mean scores show that this instructional leadership function is 'frequently' practised (T = 4.2; P = 4.2). The only visible difference was in item 3. Whereas principals considered themselves to practise this instructional leadership function 'frequently', the teachers' mean score indicates that they considered this behaviour to be only 'sometimes' to 'frequently' present (T = 3.8; P = 4.2).

Graph 5.2.1.1: Mean scores on PIMRS for sub-scale 1

	1	2	3	4	5	Mean Score
NT = 136	4.4	4.3	3.8	4.2	4.2	4.2
NP = 5	4.2	4.4	4.2	4.4	4.0	4.2

This sub-scale comprises items 1 – 5 as follows:

(1) Develop a focused set of annual school-wide goals;
(2) Frame the school's goals in terms of staff responsibilities in terms of meeting them;
(3) Use needs assessment to secure staff input on goal development;
(4) Use data on student performance when developing the school's academic goals;
(5) Develop goals that are easily understood and used by teachers in the school.

The principal of School 1 used the terms "vision" and "mission" during the interview to refer to his role in articulating the school's goals and to maintain their good academic results. Similarly, School 2's principal spoke about "vision" and "leadership" when referring to her primary role in framing the school's goals:

> "Everything you do speaks to the vision. [It is] my main responsibility to ensure academic success [and] lead the school. That's my job. I provide leadership."

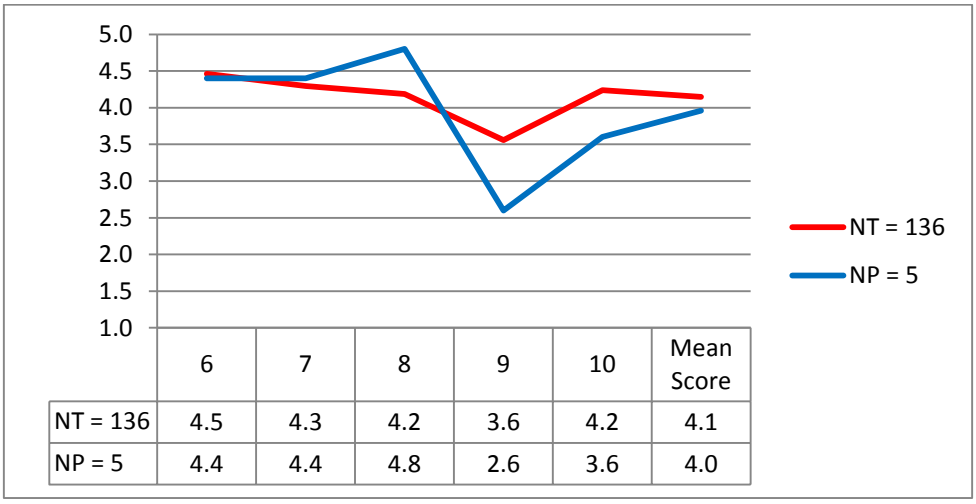
The principal of School 4 claimed that:

> "I always interact with staff in a discussion of some nature on academics and setting goals. The first goal always is to achieve."

5.2.1.2 Sub-scale 2: Communicate the School Goals

In all five schools, as Graph 5.2.1.2 below shows, the mean scores of both teachers and principals considered this instructional leadership function to be 'frequently' practised (T = 4.1; P = 4.0).

Graph 5.2.1.2: Mean scores on PIMRS for sub-scale 2



	6	7	8	9	10	Mean Score
NT = 136	4.5	4.3	4.2	3.6	4.2	4.1
NP = 5	4.4	4.4	4.8	2.6	3.6	4.0

This sub-scale comprises items 6 – 10 as follows:

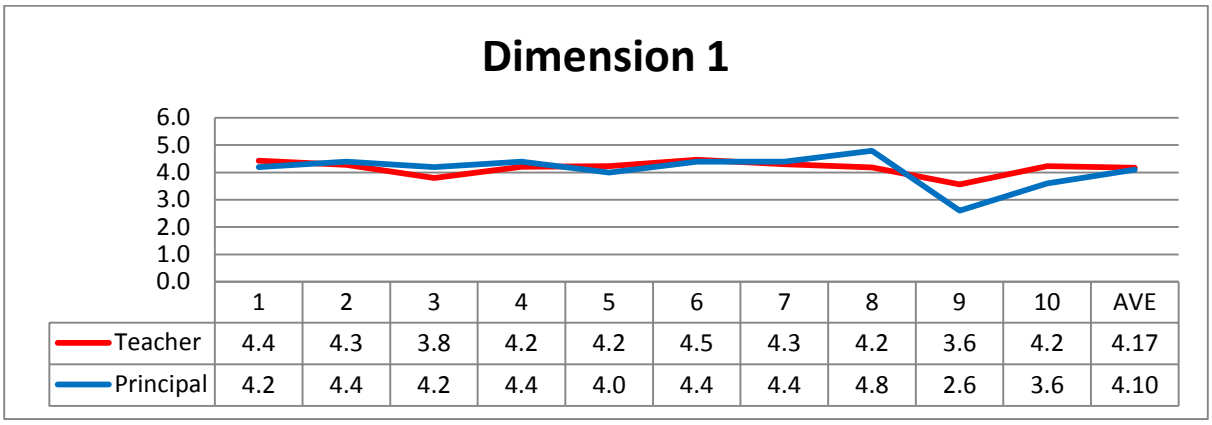
(6) Communicate the school's mission effectively to members of the school community;
(7) Discuss the school's academic goals with teachers at faculty (staff) meetings;
(8) Refer to the school's academic goals when making curricular decisions with teachers;
(9) Ensure that the school's academic goals are reflected in highly visible displays in the school;
(10) Refer to the school's goals or missions in forums with students (e.g. in assemblies or discussions.

The main differences occurred with items 8 and 9. On item 8, teachers in the five schools perceived the principals to 'frequently' refer to the school's academic goals when making curricular decisions with them (4.2). Principals considered this instructional leadership function to be 'almost always' present (4.8). On item 9, principals rated themselves 2.6 ('seldom' – 'sometimes') in terms of displaying the school's academic goals publicly. This is the second lowest principals' self-score of all items on the PIMRS (equal to item 34). This item's score also represents the lowest scored item amongst the teachers (3.6) for this sub-scale and reflects the sentiment that the principal is perceived to do this instructional leadership function only 'sometimes' to 'frequently'. This may suggest that, although teachers may physically witness evidence of academic goals being displayed around the school, principals do not consider this aspect of their instructional leadership to be particularly strong, hence the low self-rating.

5.2.1.3 Summary and Conclusion: Dimension 1

Graph 5.2.1.3 summarises the two sets of responses and indicates an average score in the last column. With a mean score of 4.17 teachers in the five schools perceived principals to 'frequently' engage in Defining the School Mission. The principals' mean score was 4.10.

Graph 5.2.1.3: Defining the School Mission: sub-scales 1 & 2 (Items 1 – 10)



	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	AVE
Teacher	4.4	4.3	3.8	4.2	4.2	4.5	4.3	4.2	3.6	4.2	4.17
Principal	4.2	4.4	4.2	4.4	4.0	4.4	4.4	4.8	2.6	3.6	4.10

A one-sample *t*-test was applied to test whether the average of the teachers' scores was significantly different from the principals' scores and showed a p-value of 0.0078 (significant at the 1 % level). Ratings for teachers and principals differed significantly especially on items 3, 8, 9 and 10.

5.2.2 Dimension 2: Managing the Instructional Programme

The second dimension, managing the instructional program, focuses on the co-ordination and control of instruction and the curriculum and is considered to be a key instructional leadership responsibility (Hallinger, 2003; Hallinger & Murphy, 1985). This dimension incorporates three instructional leadership functions:

- Supervise and evaluate instruction;
- Co-ordinate the curriculum;
- Monitor student progress.

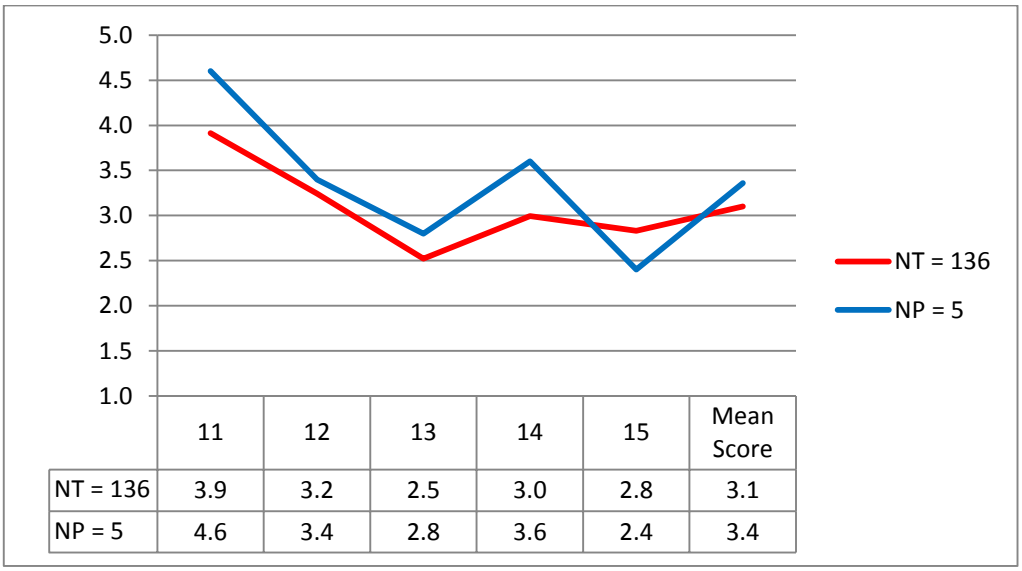
These functions require the principal to be deeply engaged in the school's instructional development (Hallinger, 2003) through direct supervision and evaluation of teaching staff. Managing the instructional programme assumes that the principal is responsible for the success of the academic core of the school i.e. teaching and learning.

On the three sub-scales in Dimension 2, scores generated by teachers' ratings as well as principals' self-ratings indicate some of the lowest scores on the PIMRS overall for all fifty items. Sub-scale 3 is the lowest scored sub-scale response on the PIMRS. This may be related to national policy governing class visitations (and the IQMS process).

5.2.2.1 Sub-scale 3: Supervise and Evaluate Instruction

As Graph 5.2.2.1 below shows, the mean scores for this sub-scale show that principals only 'sometimes' supervise and evaluate instruction (T = 3.1; P = 3.4).

Graph 5.2.2.1: Mean scores on PIMRS for sub-scale 3



	11	12	13	14	15	Mean Score
NT = 136	3.9	3.2	2.5	3.0	2.8	3.1
NP = 5	4.6	3.4	2.8	3.6	2.4	3.4

This sub-scale comprises items 11 – 15 as follows:

(11) Ensure that the classroom priorities of the teachers are consistent with the goals and direction of the school;

(12) Review student work products when evaluating classroom instruction;

(13) Conduct informal observations in classrooms on a regular basis;

(14) Point out specific strengths in teacher instructional practices in post-observation feedback;

(15) Point out specific weaknesses in teacher instructional practices in post-observation feedback.

With the exception of item 11, in which teachers scored the principals 3.9 ('frequently'), and principals scored themselves 4.6 ('almost always') all other teacher scores for this sub-scale (items 12 – 15) were low (2.5 – 3.2) with teachers recognising the presence of these instructional leadership practises only 'seldom' to 'sometimes'. Principals scored themselves low, but higher than the teachers overall. It may be posited that the reasons for this are dictated by DBE policy governing classroom visitation and supervision in South Africa.

In a South African context, supervision and evaluation, as instructional leadership functions, are not part of the principal's main role, despite a growing call for principals to lead the learning school (DBE, 2014b:15). Supervision means that principals should observe teachers conducting lessons. Evaluation is done to rate the teachers' strengths and weaknesses during the lesson observation process. Although no policy prevents a principal from observing instructional practices ('supervision') for developmental purposes, the IQMS process (see pages 12 and 13) delegates the function of 'evaluation and support' to a DSG (Developmental Support Group) chosen by the teacher. The DSG observes the teacher conducting a lesson (or a series of lessons) and, in consultation with the teacher, arrives at an evaluative score. The DSG consists of three people: the teacher, the teacher's immediate supervisor (e.g. Subject Head or Head of Department) and a peer. This may explain the evidence of low ratings on item 13 (T = 2.5; P = 2.8). Principals rarely conduct lesson observation in the sampled schools as confirmed by the interview responses to this question:

> *Principal of School 1:* "Teachers must manage their own classrooms [as] I have no responsibility here. I do not do class visits."
>
> *Principal of School 2:* "I encourage subject heads to visit classrooms. I try to pass things on [and] I sometimes visit classes. There is no threat to the teacher."
>
> *Principal of School 3:* "I manage by walking about and if there is noise I poke my head in."
>
> *Principal of School 4:* "My Academic Head runs class visits."

> *Principal of School 5:* "The Head of Academics runs it [so] I don't interfere. Teachers take ownership of the classroom."

The ratings for items 12 (T = 3.2; P = 3.4) and 14 (T = 3.0; P = 3.6) indicate that little instruction and/or evaluation is done as principals are rated as 'sometimes' doing this. Results on item 15 contradict those of item 14 insofar as principals' self-ratings are concerned. Principals' self-ratings indicate that they only 'seldom' (2.4) point out specific weaknesses in teacher instructional practices in post-observation feedback but 'sometimes' to 'frequently' point out strengths (3.6). The principals' comments suggest that, while they may not visit classrooms, they may be able to point out strengths via, say, pupils' marks.

The principals' inability to point out weaknesses in teachers' instructional practices in post-observation feedback is reflected in a mean score of 2.4 on item 15, which is the lowest score of any item on the PIMRS for all fifty items. A possible explanation may be that principals do not know how to give feedback as they themselves are not experts in instructional methodologies, and, given the complexity, and variety of subjects in high schools, are not equipped to do so. Hence the comment by the Principal of School 4: "I farm it out". Given the academic achievement levels of the schools in the sample, several questions emerge:

- Can it be assumed that teachers' individual, and collective, responsibility negates any need for direct supervision and evaluation by the principal?
- Is internal accountability so embedded within the school's academic achievement climate that teachers teach without having to be supervised? [3]

[3] The principal of School 5 alluded to internal accountability during the interview and claimed: "There is a collective responsibility on the Staff for performance ... they do not act as individuals but collectively."

- Are principals hamstrung by national policy prescriptions (IQMS)? However, does it matter, given the high levels of academic focus and academic achievement levels?

These issues are followed up in the conclusion to this chapter.

5.2.2.2 Sub-scale 4: Co-ordinate the Curriculum

Both sets of respondents indicated that the principal 'frequently' co-ordinated the curriculum. As Graph 5.2.2.2 shows both teachers' scores and principals' self-scores are similar, with principals scoring themselves fractionally higher on this sub-scale (T = 3.9; P = 4.0).

Graph 5.2.2.2: Mean scores on PIMRS for sub-scale 4

	16	17	18	19	20	Mean Score
NT = 136	4.6	4.2	3.7	3.7	3.4	3.9
NP = 5	5.0	4.2	3.8	4.2	3.0	4.0

This sub-scale comprises items 16 – 20 as follows:

(16) Make clear who is responsible for co-ordinating the curriculum across grade levels;
(17) Draw upon the results of school-wide testing when making curricular decisions;
(18) Monitor the classroom curriculum to see that it covers the school's curricular objectives;
(19) Assess the overlap between the school's curricular objectives and the school's achievement tests;
(20) Participate actively in the review of curricular materials.

Item 16, which determines whether or not role clarification (those responsible for co-ordinating the curriculum) is clear, has the third highest score of all fifty items on the PIMRS. This instructional leadership practice is considered to exist 'frequently' to 'almost always' (T = 4.6; P = 5.0). Of particular significance here is that, if the NEEDU report of 2012 (reported on

page 17) highlighted the need for principals to be strong in this area of instructional leadership (co-ordinate the curriculum), and the result of item 16 indicates that this is one of the strongest practices of instructional leadership in these schools, this may explain why these schools perform so well. Role clarification is crucial for successful curriculum delivery. However, principals do not play a direct role here. During the interviews, all principals confirmed the role played by their HODs or Academic Heads to co-ordinate the curriculum. This role is of a delegated nature. The principal of School 4 noted: "Mr Y runs the school as Head of Academics". School 5's principal commented: "Everything is delegated to the Head of Academics".

Similarly, the Heads of Academics or Subject Heads review curricular materials and principals have either a consulting role or none at all:

> *Principal of School 1:* "The choice of teaching materials (textbooks) is something the subject heads are responsible for."
>
> *Principal of School 2:* "Subject Heads are the professionals in their subjects [and] if they want more textbooks they speak to me."
>
> *Principal of School 3:* "Teachers choose their own textbooks [and] the Academic Head co-ordinates the choices."
>
> *Principal of School 4:* "Mr Y (Head of Academics) does that."
>
> *Principal of School 5:* "I leave choice of textbooks to subject departments."

5.2.2.3 Sub-scale 5: Monitor Student Progress

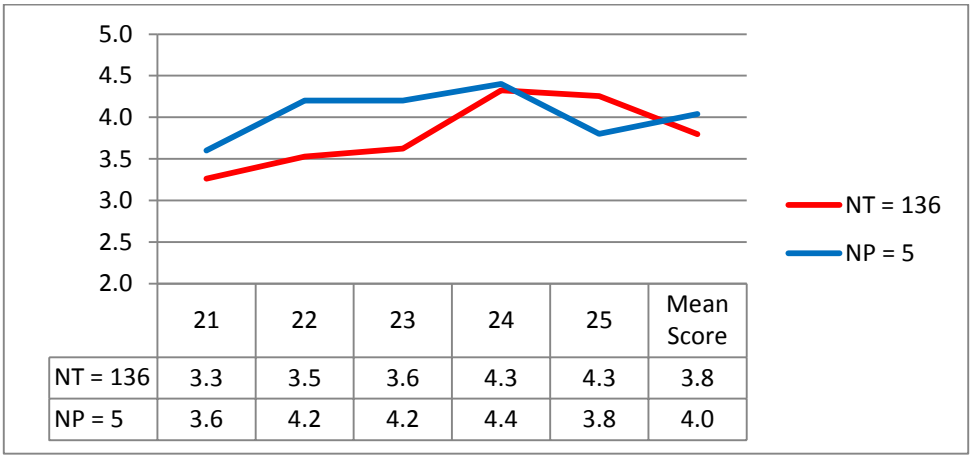
Monitoring student progress is a vital instructional leadership activity and speaks to the indirect impact a principal makes on academic achievement. Here, the principals focused on their leadership being an indirect catalyst for academic success:

> *Principal of School 2:* "I have meetings with teachers and parents of girls who under-perform and yes I have a lot of girls who need motivation. I believe that there is an indirect link between my leadership and the girls' academic achievement."

> *Principal of School 4:* "Each boy's academic results are scrutinised by House Heads [and] our boys are held accountable for their own learning [as] it motivates them. I definitely impact on the boys' academic achievement indirectly by setting the bar."

Although this indirect influence is seen in the overall scores depicted in Graph 5.2.2.3 below, using tests and other performance measures to assess progress towards school goals (item 23), it was unclear in the interviews as to whether or not principals expect subject heads to disaggregate results per subject, per grade, in order to measure performance so that progress in achieving academic goals can be monitored. Item 23 is closely related to item 4 (sub-scale 1), which addresses the use of data on student performance to develop the school's academic goals. This practice has become mandatory in Western Cape schools with the introduction of the SIM and can only happen with direct input from the teachers. The teachers scored this item a score of 3.6 ('sometimes'). This practise should be woven into the academic fabric of all schools but, again, this did not come out clearly during the interviews. In contrast, principals scored themselves higher on item 23 (4.2) which indicates that they consider themselves to 'frequently' practise this instructional leadership function. Again, this illustrates the trust placed in others to work appropriately (internal accountability).

Graph 5.2.2.3: Mean scores on PIMRS for sub-scale 5



	21	22	23	24	25	Mean Score
NT = 136	3.3	3.5	3.6	4.3	4.3	3.8
NP = 5	3.6	4.2	4.2	4.4	3.8	4.0

This sub-scale comprises items 21 – 25 as follows:

(21) Meet individually with teachers to discuss student progress;

(22) Discuss academic performance results with the faculty (staff) to identify curricular strengths and weaknesses;
(23) Use tests and other performance measures to assess progress toward school goals;
(24) Inform teachers of the school's performance results in written form (memo/newsletter);
(25) Inform students of school's academic progress.

The overall average shows that both teachers' scores and principals' self-scores are similar (T = 3.8; P = 4.0). This indicates that principals 'frequently' monitor student progress. In monitoring pupils' progress, teachers perceived principals as 'frequently' informing pupils of the school's academic progress (Item 25: T = 4.3) while only 'sometimes' meeting with individual teachers and staff to both discuss pupil progress and to discuss academic performance results (Item 21: T = 3.3). Limited time available to them due to the panoply of duties they perform is a possible reason for the low score on Item 21. Similarly, Item 22 (T = 3.5; P = 4.2) shows that principals only 'sometimes' discuss curricular issues with teachers. Likewise, for Item 23 (T = 3.6; P = 4.2). Together, these responses indicate the indirect role of the principals.

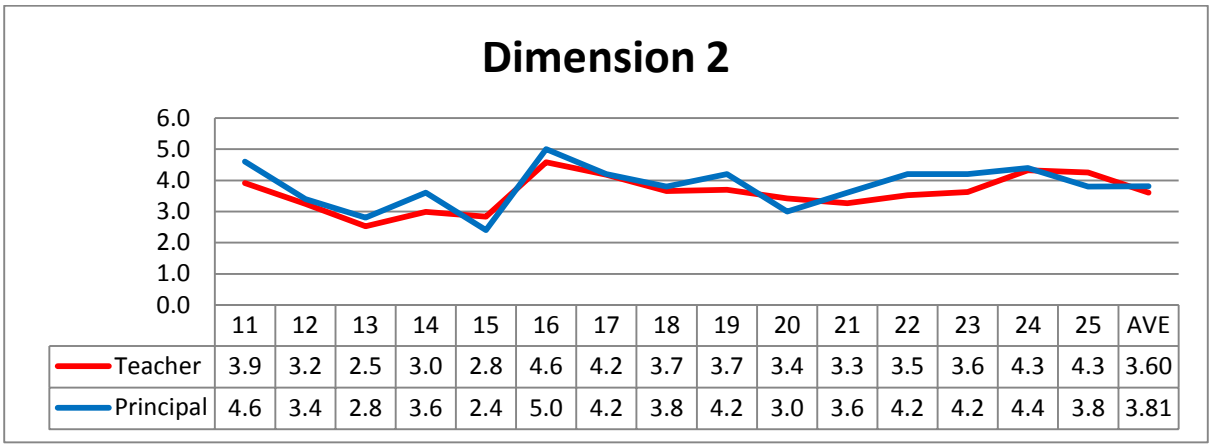
5.2.2.4 Summary and Conclusion: Dimension 2

Graph 5.2.2.4 below summarises the two sets of responses and shows the average score for the three sub-scales in the last column. With a mean score of 3.60, teachers in the five schools perceived principals to 'sometimes' to 'frequently' engage in Managing the Instructional Programme. The principals' mean score was 3.81. In this dimension of instructional leadership, principals scored themselves slightly higher on most sub-scales. This suggests that the principals have increased accountability for curriculum delivery, instruction and assessment. However, given their managerial position, it is unclear how, or if at all, they support teachers in the classroom. As the teachers' scores suggest, these tasks may well have been largely delegated or dispersed to staff.

Dimension 2 results indicate that this is the principals' weakest dimension of instructional leadership compared with the other two dimensions.

Teachers perceived principals to only 'sometimes' engage in the instructional leadership function of supervising and evaluating instruction (3.1), engaging 'frequently' in co-ordinating the curriculum (3.9) and 'frequently' monitoring student progress (3.8).

Graph 5.2.2.4: Managing the Instructional Programme: sub-scales 3, 4 & 5 (Items 11 – 25)[7]



	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	AVE
Teacher	3.9	3.2	2.5	3.0	2.8	4.6	4.2	3.7	3.7	3.4	3.3	3.5	3.6	4.3	4.3	3.60
Principal	4.6	3.4	2.8	3.6	2.4	5.0	4.2	3.8	4.2	3.0	3.6	4.2	4.2	4.4	3.8	3.81

A one-sample *t*-test was applied to test whether the average of the teachers' scores was significantly different from the principals' scores and showed a p-value of 0.0000 (significant at the 1 % level). Ratings for teachers and principals differed significantly especially on items 11, 14, 16, 19, 22 and 25.

5.2.3 Dimension 3: Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate

Hallinger (2003) states that one of the responsibilities of the instructional leader is to align the school's high standards and practices with its mission and to create a climate that supports teaching and learning. A common strand that emerges from Dimension 3 relates to principals' relationships with the pupils and the teachers in the schools.

Promoting a positive school learning climate is considered to be broader in scope and intent and includes several important instructional leadership functions (Hallinger, 2003):

- Protection of instructional time;

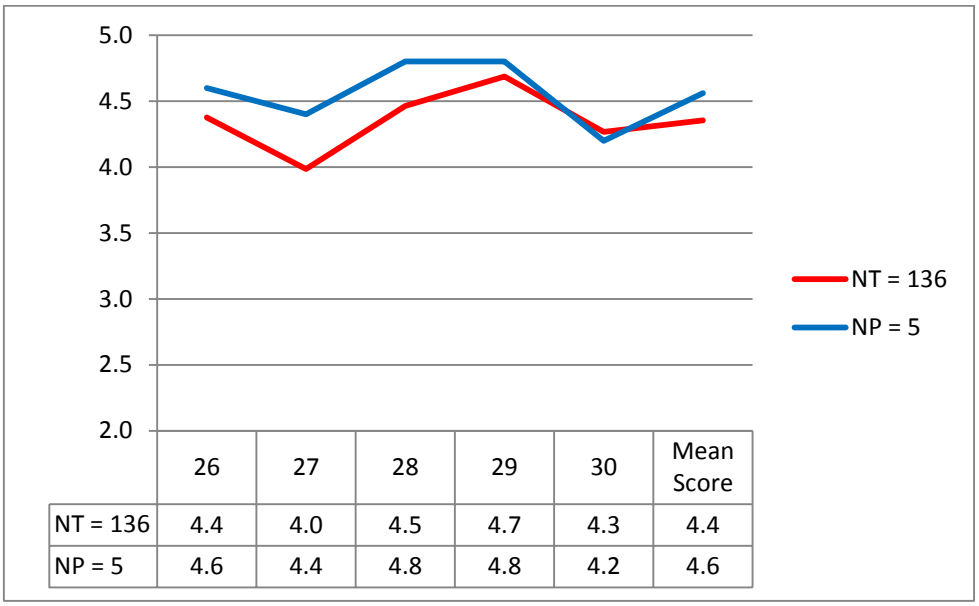
- Promotion of professional development;
- Maintenance of high visibility;
- Provision of incentives for teachers;
- Provision of incentives for learning.

Promoting a positive school learning climate underscores the notion that high performing schools promote high academic standards and raise expectations and embed a culture of academic excellence into their daily routines. Safeguarding tuition and promoting professional development are characteristic features of a climate of academic excellence and are considered to be key instructional leadership practices. Interacting with, and recognition of pupils and teachers, form the backbone of this dimension.

5.2.3.1 Sub-scale 6: Protect Instructional Time

South Africa's high schools are mandated by national policy to teach for 1650 minutes per week. This translates into 27 ½ hours of formal contact time in high schools. Despite the impact of extra-curricular activity on instruction (Item 30: T = 4.3; P = 4.2) this intrusion is limited. There is no other sub-scale that scores higher than sub-scale 6, where both sets of respondents consider instructional time to be 'frequently' to 'almost always' protected at their schools (Mean Score: T = 4.4; P = 4.6). This is evident on Graph 5.2.3.1 below.

Graph 5.2.3.1: Mean scores on PIMRS for sub-scale 6



	26	27	28	29	30	Mean Score
NT = 136	4.4	4.0	4.5	4.7	4.3	4.4
NP = 5	4.6	4.4	4.8	4.8	4.2	4.6

This sub-scale comprises items 26 – 30 as follows:

(26) Limit interruptions of instructional time by public address announcements;
(27) Ensure that students are not called to the office during instructional time;
(28) Ensure that tardy and truant students suffer specific consequences for missing instructional time;
(29) Encourage teachers to use instructional time for teaching and practising new skills and concepts;
(30) Limit the intrusion of extra-and co-curricular activities on instructional time.

The main intrusions derive from the highly competitive sport and cultural fixtures that these schools have after school hours. Teams sometimes leave before the end of an academic day and therefore lose out on maximum tuition. As some principals noted:

> *Principal of School 1:* "Sport impacts negatively on teaching."
>
> *Principal of School 2:* "Staff complain when girls leave before the end of the day for sport."
>
> *Principal of School 4:* "I let boys off for sport."

Nonetheless, the principal of School 1 also said that "I protect teaching time at all costs". Similarly, the principal of School 2 exhorted that "Instruction time is sacred".

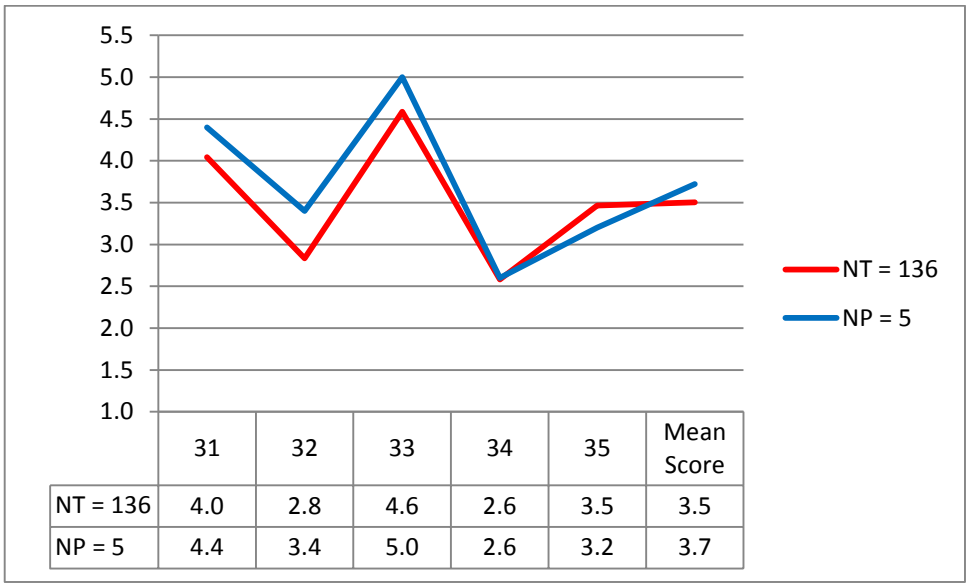
Principals 'frequently' to 'almost always' limit their interruptions of lessons by making intercom announcements (Item 26: T = 4.4; P = 4.6). Item 29 achieves one of the highest scores for any item (T = 4.7; P = 4.8) and is tied closely to item 26 which speaks to the use of time set aside for teaching and learning. Teachers and principals considered this function (Item 29: T = 4.7; P = 4.8) to be 'frequently' to 'almost always' practised in their schools.

Although the NEEDU report laments the under-utilisation of the full quota of time, per subject, per week, by a majority of schools in South Africa, it is clear that this is not a characteristic feature of the schools in the research study. Teaching time is almost always protected. However, this does not detract from several principals alluding to the extra-mural programme being a school-wide negative influence on tuition.

5.2.3.2 Sub-scale 7: Maintain High Visibility

As Graph 5.2.3.2 below shows, teachers' and the principals' mean scores are similar (T = 3.5; P = 3.7). Maintaining high visibility as an instructional leadership function was the second lowest score recorded for a sub-scale with both teachers and principals rating this sub-scale to be only 'sometimes' to 'frequently' present. Given the complexity of the schools in question, it is not surprising that principals received one of their lowest PIMRS mean ratings for maintaining high visibility. Although three principals claimed to "manage by walking about" several principals complained about the "number of emails" that they receive that often leave them "office bound". The principal of School 4 referred to email volume as "beserk". Administrative duties tend to consume principals' time (see also Chisholm *et al*, 2005).

Graph 5.2.3.2: Mean scores on PIMRS for sub-scale 7



	31	32	33	34	35	Mean Score
NT = 136	4.0	2.8	4.6	2.6	3.5	3.5
NP = 5	4.4	3.4	5.0	2.6	3.2	3.7

This sub-scale comprises items 31 – 35 as follows:

(31) Take time to talk informally with students and teachers during recess and breaks
(32) Visit classrooms to discuss school issues with teachers and students;
(33) Attend/participate in extra- and co- curricular activities;
(34) Cover classes for teachers until a late or substitute teacher arrives;
(35) Tutor students or provide direct instruction to classes.

However, teachers and principals agreed that the principals almost always attend/participate in extra- and co-curricular activities (Item 33: T = 4.6; P = 5.0). All of the principals are public figures and are seen at all events where their schools are represented e.g. choir festivals and sports' matches. They are part of their schools' brands. Principals also frequently engage with staff and pupils during their free time, e.g. breaks (Item 31: T = 4.0; P = 4.4).

Responses to item 34 indicate that principals rarely substitute for teachers who are absent from school (T = 2.6; P = 2.6). This is not a core role of principals as other staff substitute for absent teachers. This instructional leadership practice is 'seldom' evident.

Similarly, principals rarely visit classrooms to discuss 'issues' of whatever kind with teachers and staff (Item 32: T = 2.8; P = 3.4). The PIMRS instrument makes no reference to the nature of the 'issues' and is

ambiguous. Conversely, this lack of interference in classrooms suggests a further protection of tuition time. Protection of tuition time (discussed under item 26 in sub-scale 6 and strengthened in item 32 here) is a characteristic feature of the schools. This raises the following question (one linked to Dimension 2: Managing the Instructional Programme): if principals are not directly leading teaching and learning (instruction) does this mean that the principals have the staff to instruct independently of the principals direct supervision – or that of a delegated sub-ordinate? In these cases this delegation would appear key to their success

Interestingly, in a South African context of relatively under-resourced schools, Jansen & Blank (2014:156) claim that high visibility is important:

> "… in schools that work, principals are visible in their leadership [as] the principal does not simply walk around. S/he interacts with children between periods and during lunch breaks."

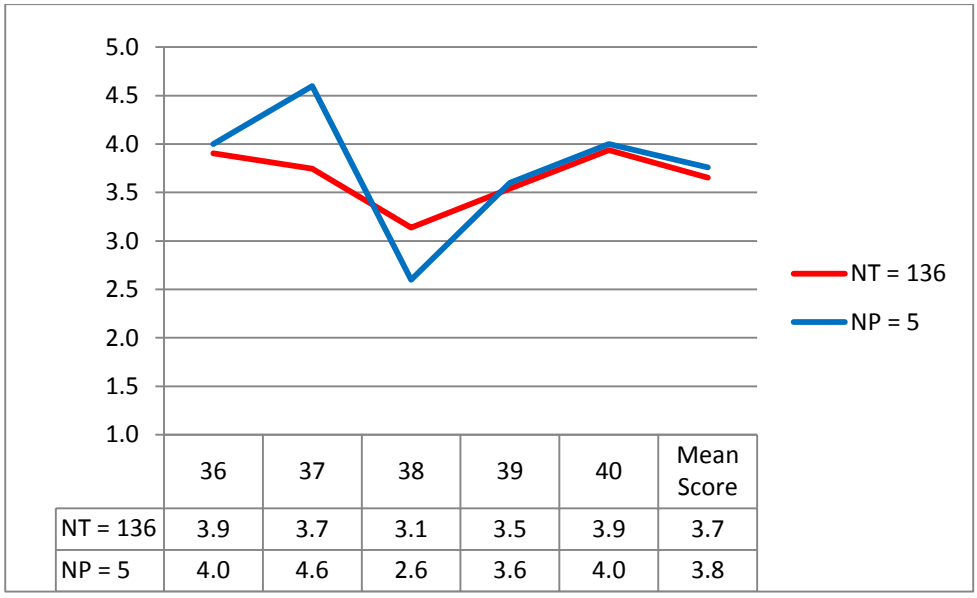
In schools less successful, increased visibility may be more important. However, the principals in the high performing schools are frequently office bound administrators who seldom get the opportunity to walk through the corridors to monitor operational effectiveness and reported that they spend much of the day desk-bound as a result of their many roles and responsibilities. The principals can be considered as instructionally invisible. Despite this, it seems clear that the "visibility" is maintained in other ways. For example:

> *Principal of School 3:* "I create the climate for academic achievement and there are high expectations. I enable success."
>
> *Principal of School 4:* "There is team work to make sure the boys are on track. We have no discipline problems [and] are focused on academic achievement. I am a culture-builder."
>
> *Principal of School 5:* "I provide support to the teachers and to the children."

5.2.3.3 Sub-scale 8: Provide Incentives for Teachers

As Graph 5.2.3.3 below shows, scores between the teachers and the principals are similar (T = 3.7; P = 3.8).

Graph 5.2.3.3: Mean scores on PIMRS for sub-scale 8



	36	37	38	39	40	Mean Score
NT = 136	3.9	3.7	3.1	3.5	3.9	3.7
NP = 5	4.0	4.6	2.6	3.6	4.0	3.8

This sub-scale comprises items 36 – 40 as follows:

(36) Reinforce superior performance by teachers in staff meetings, newsletters and/or memos;
(37) Compliment teachers privately for their efforts or performance;
(38) Acknowledge teachers' exceptional performance by writing memos for their personal files;
(39) Reward special efforts by teachers with opportunities for professional recognition;
(40) Create professional growth opportunities for teachers as a reward for special contributions to the school.

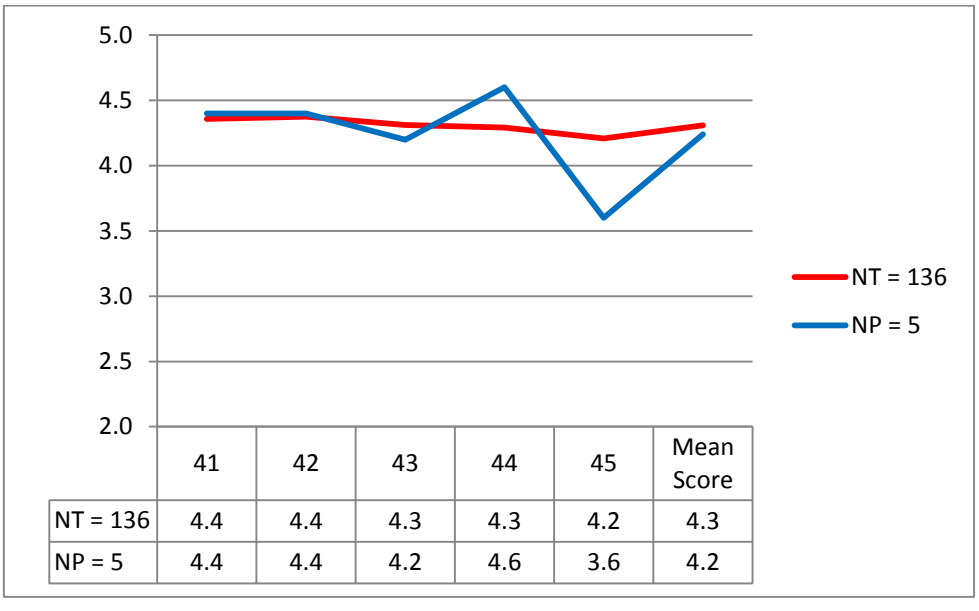
On item 36, the teachers perceived the principals to 'frequently' (3.9) reinforce superior performance by teachers in staff meetings or in newsletters. Principals agreed, as evidenced by a score of 4.0. A difference is noted in perceptions around how often principals complimented teachers privately for their efforts and performance (item 37). Principals consider themselves to 'almost always' recognise staff effort privately (4.6) whereas teachers view the behaviour as only 'frequently' practised (3.7). Whereas principals publicly affirm teachers, they do it less often in private and seldom do so in written form for teachers' personal files (Item 38: T = 3.1; P = 2.6).

Principals perceive themselves to frequently reward teachers professionally and to create professional growth opportunities for teachers who need to be affirmed for their special efforts (Items 39 and 40: P = 3.6/4.0 respectively). Although teachers agree that professional growth opportunities are extended to them frequently (Item 40: T = 3.9) they feel that the principal seldom rewards them professionally (Item 39: T = 3.5). If one compares this to the recognition given to pupils (Sub-scale 10: Item 46: T = 4.8), it is clear that the schools are less focused on rewarding teachers and 'almost always' focused on rewarding pupils.

5.2.3.4 Sub-scale 9: Promote Professional Development

Graph 5.2.3.4 below shows that professional development and in-service training are characteristic features of principals' instructional leadership at these schools ('frequently' observed) and ranks second highest of all sub-scales in terms of scores allocated by teachers and principals (Mean scores: T = 4.3; P = 4.2).

Graph 5.2.3.4: Mean scores on PIMRS for sub-scale 9



	41	42	43	44	45	Mean Score
NT = 136	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.3
NP = 5	4.4	4.4	4.2	4.6	3.6	4.2

This sub-scale comprises items 41 – 45 as follows:

(41) Ensure that in-service activities attended by staff are consistent with the school's goals;
(42) Actively support the use in the classroom of skills acquired during in-service training;
(43) Obtain the participation of the whole staff in important in-service activities;

(44) Lead or attend teacher in-service activities concerned with instruction;

(45) Set aside time at faculty meetings for teachers to share ideas or information from in-service activities.

All of the schools' principals are strong proponents of professional development:

> *Principal of School 1:* "We must professionally develop our teachers."[4]
>
> *Principal of School 2:* "We are aware of our professional development annually … I am a pro-gro junkie."[5]
>
> *Principal of School 5:* "There is one professional development session per term."

All scores on all items are consistent with one another with the exception of item 45. On this item, principals consider themselves to only 'sometimes' to 'frequently' set time aside at staff meetings to allow staff to report back on in-service training activities whereas the staff consider the principals to allow this to happen 'frequently' (T = 4.2; P = 3.6).

The principals of School 2 and 3 are presenters of professional development weekend seminars for the teachers' union to which they belong. They have a reputation for being champions of professional growth. School 4 was a pilot school for Continuing Professional Teacher Development (CPTD). All principals are involved in professional development offered by the South African Principals' Association (SAPA). The principal of School 5 is a provincial executive member of SAPA.

The advent of the CPTD system, where teachers must achieve 150 PD points in a three-year cycle (due to begin for Principals and Deputy Principals in 2014; HOD's in 2015 and teachers in 2016) will enforce professional development for all teachers. The system will be directly managed by the

[4] On the afternoon of his interview, the principal and his Staff were preparing for a professional development seminar on the campus (late-afternoon and early evening).

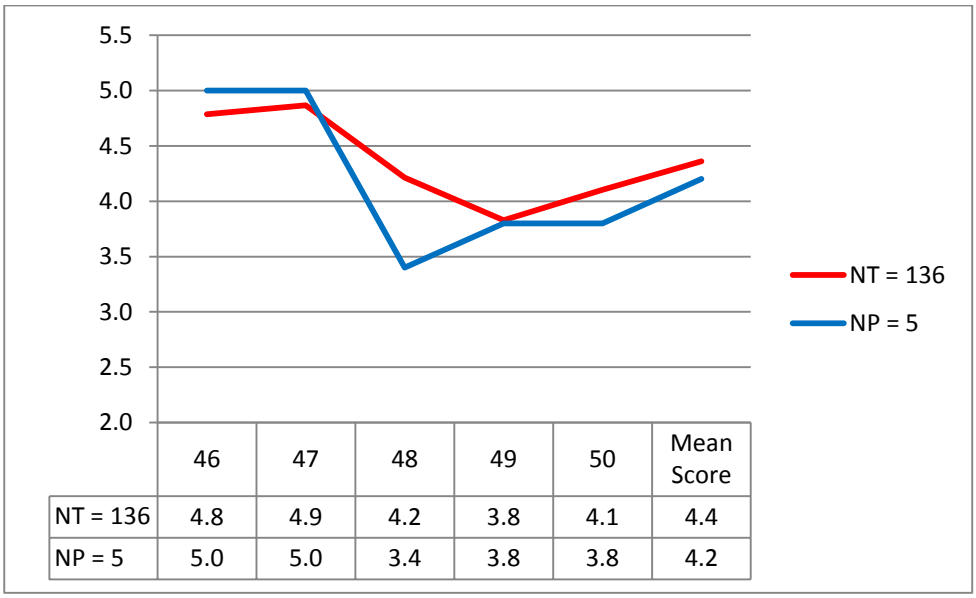
[5] This principal is a professional development presenter for the teachers' union NAPTOSA.

principal. As a result, this instructional leadership function will become an additional, legislated function.

5.2.3.5 Sub-scale 10: Provide Incentives for Learning

Graph 5.2.3.5 below shows similar mean scores for both sets of respondents (T = 4.4; P = 4.2). It can be concluded that principals 'frequently' provide incentives for learning.

Graph 5.2.3.5: Mean scores on PIMRS for sub-scale 10



	46	47	48	49	50	Mean Score
NT = 136	4.8	4.9	4.2	3.8	4.1	4.4
NP = 5	5.0	5.0	3.4	3.8	3.8	4.2

This sub-scale comprises items 46 – 50 as follows:

(46) Recognize students who do superior work with formal rewards such as an honour roll or mention in the principal's newsletter;
(47) Use assemblies to honour students for academic accomplishments or for behaviour or for citizenship;
(48) Recognize superior student achievement or improvement by seeing in the office the students with their work;
(49) Contact parents to communicate improved or exemplary student performance or contributions;
(50) Support teachers actively in their recognition and/or reward of student contributions to and accomplishments in class.

The results of items 46 and 47 indicate that pupils are almost always publicly acknowledged for their academic achievements:

Principal of School 3: "Our focus is affirming and awarding [and] our level of acknowledgement is high."

Principals self-rate themselves the maximum score of 5.0 for both items while teachers score the principals 4.8 and 4.9 for items 46 and 47 respectively. Pupil recognition is a hallmark of these schools. Although collecting evidence of instructional leadership functions was beyond the brief of the research, evidence at the schools exist in the form of honours boards that are on show (in gold-leaf lettering) around the school. [6] All five schools have awards' ceremonies on a regular basis where pupils are recognised for their achievements. The achievements are also publicly acknowledged in front of all pupils and teachers at the school during assemblies and in newsletters to parents.

However, individual one-to-one contact with pupils and parents (Items 48 and 49), to commend pupils on their achievements is only 'sometimes' to 'frequently' recognized. Lack of available time in the principals' schedules could account for their inability to commend pupils individually or set up meetings with parents to commend them on their children's achievements.

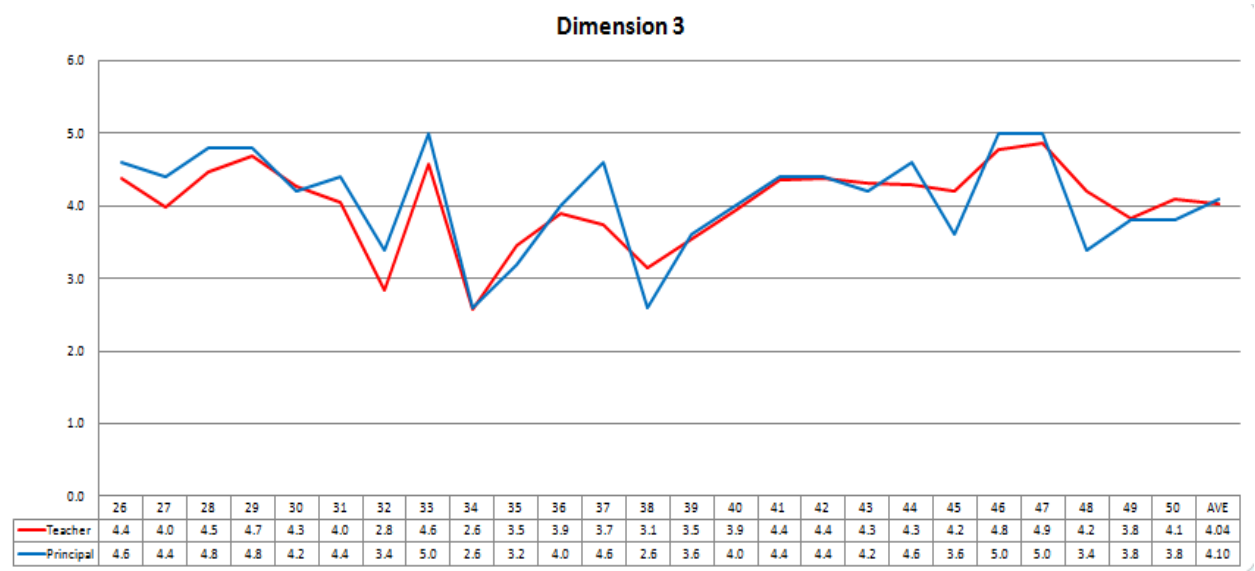
5.2.3.6 Summary and Conclusion: Dimension 3

Graph 5.2.3.6 below summarises the two sets of responses on this dimension and indicates an average score in the last column. Sub-scales 6 (protect instructional time), 9 (promote professional development) and 10 (provide incentives for learning) correspond closely with respect to teachers and principals' scores on the PIMRS. These instructional leadership functions are 'frequently' practised. Sub-scales 7 (maintain high visibility) and 8 (provide incentives for teachers) are only 'sometimes' practised. In all five sub-scales in this dimension both teachers' and principals' scores on the PIMRS suggest that both sets of respondents harboured similar

[6] While waiting to interview principals the researcher viewed Honours' Boards recognizing pupils' achievements in Academics, Sport, Culture, Leadership and Service.

perceptions of the principals' role in Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate ('frequently'). These ratings are similar to those scored for Dimension 1: Defining the School's Mission.

Graph 5.2.3.6: Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate: sub-scales 6 - 10 (Items 26 – 50)



	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	AVE
Teacher	4.4	4.0	4.5	4.7	4.3	4.0	2.8	4.6	2.6	3.5	3.9	3.7	3.1	3.5	3.9	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.8	4.9	4.2	3.8	4.1	4.04
Principal	4.6	4.4	4.8	4.8	4.2	4.4	3.4	5.0	2.6	3.2	4.0	4.6	2.6	3.6	4.0	4.4	4.4	4.2	4.6	3.6	5.0	5.0	3.4	3.8	3.8	4.10

A one-sample *t*-test was applied to test whether the average of the teachers' scores was significantly different from the principals' scores and showed a p-value of 0.0068 (significant at the 1 % level). Ratings for teachers and principals differed significantly especially on items 32, 38 and 48.

5.2.4 Summary and Conclusion of the Overall PIMRS Results and Principals' Interviews

The preceding discussion presented an analysis of general perceptions of instructional leadership across five schools by 136 teachers and 5 principals. The overall analysis shows that principals have strengths and weaknesses in terms of instructional leadership but, overall, were considered to be the enablers of a climate conducive to academic success.

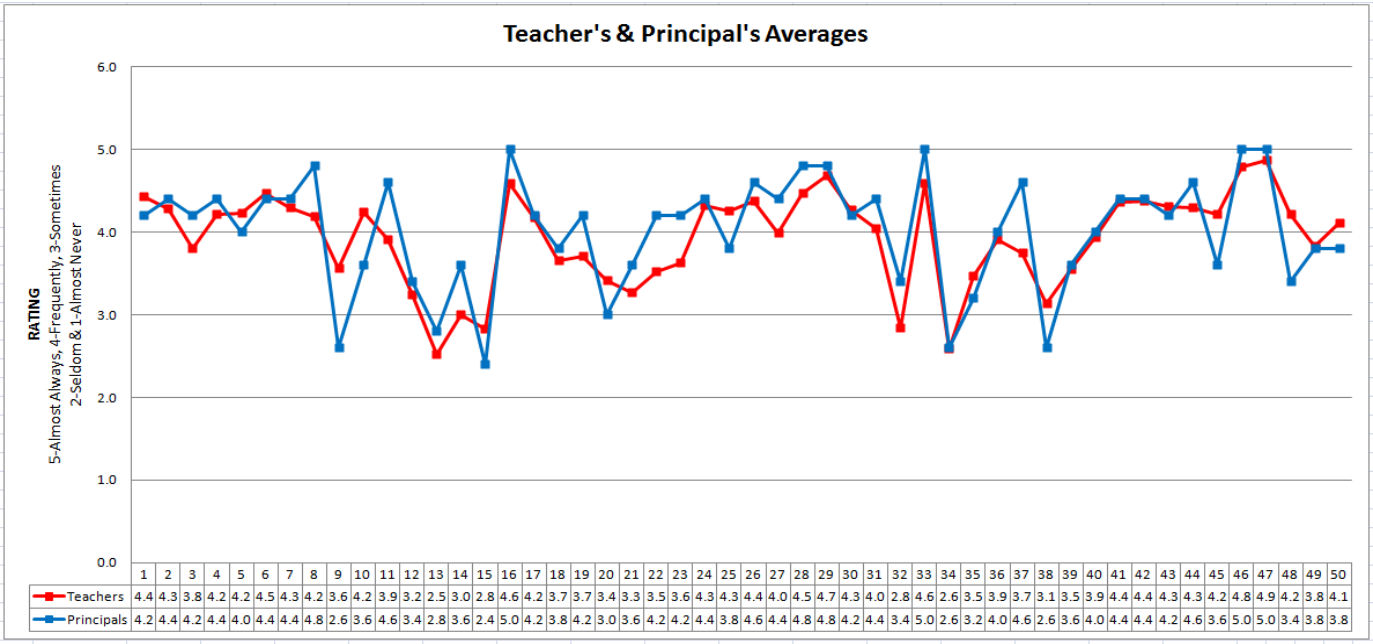
Within the dimensions, the analysis reveals that teachers perceive their principals to be 'frequently' active in Dimension 1: Defining the School

Mission (T = 4.17; P = 4.10) but are only 'sometimes' to 'frequently' active in Dimension 2: Managing the Instructional programme (T = 3.60; P = 3.81). In Dimension 3, principals were perceived to 'frequently' promote a positive school learning climate (T = 4.04; P = 4.10).

On a sub-scale level, principals were seen to be most active in sub-scale 6: protecting instructional time (embedded in the academic fabric of the five schools), sub-scale 9: promoting professional development and sub-scale 10: providing incentives for learning. Principals were least active in sub-scale 3: supervising and evaluating instruction, sub-scale 7: maintaining high visibility and sub-scale 8: providing incentives for teachers. These scores suggest that instructional leadership in these schools differs from traditional models and is more of a delegated type, in which principals rely on the professional integrity of staff for whom internal accountability is important.

On an item level, Graph 5.2.4 below shows a comparative summary of teachers' and principals' scores for all 50 items on the PIMRS and presents an alternative slant to the focus on dimensions and sub-scale ratings. There is a visible clustering of responses between the two groups of respondents in terms of ratings on most items. Principals' averages are higher on 30 out of 50 items on the PIMRS while teachers scored principals higher than they scored themselves on 15 out of 50 items. This confirms international studies on instructional leadership which show that principals generally score themselves higher on the PIMRS than teachers do. Principals also scored themselves higher overall in 6 out of 10 sub-scales.

Graph 5.2.4: Teachers' and principals' mean scores on the PIMRS per item



	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50
Teachers	4.4	4.3	3.8	4.2	4.2	4.5	4.3	4.2	3.6	4.2	3.9	3.2	2.5	3.0	2.8	4.6	4.2	3.7	3.7	3.4	3.3	3.5	3.6	4.3	4.3	4.4	4.0	4.5	4.7	4.3	4.0	2.8	4.6	2.6	3.5	3.9	3.7	3.1	3.5	3.9	4.4	4.4	4.3	4.3	4.2	4.8	4.9	4.2	3.8	4.1
Principals	4.2	4.4	4.2	4.4	4.0	4.4	4.4	4.8	2.6	3.6	4.6	3.4	2.8	3.6	2.4	5.0	4.2	3.8	4.2	3.0	3.6	4.2	4.2	4.4	3.8	4.6	4.4	4.8	4.8	4.2	4.4	3.4	5.0	2.6	3.2	4.0	4.6	2.6	3.6	4.0	4.4	4.4	4.2	4.6	3.6	5.0	5.0	3.4	3.8	3.8

On individual items principals were most active in attending and/or participating in extra-curricular activities (Item 33), recognizing pupils who do superior work with formal rewards (Item 46) and using assemblies to honour pupils for academic achievement (Item 47). Principals were less involved with conducting informal observations in classrooms on a regular basis (Item 13), pointing out weaknesses in instructional practices in feedback sessions with teachers (Item 15), covering classes for absent teachers (Item 34) and acknowledging teachers' exceptional performance by writing memos for their personal files (Item 38).

The preceding analysis presented results as aggregates across the 5 schools. The following section is a school by school analysis to determine whether or not there are any variations from the general results.

5.3 Analysis of the PIMRS Results and Principals' Interviews by School

The next part of this analysis focuses on individual school's results on the PIMRS so that disparities/similarities in the scores of principals and

teachers at the school level can be interrogated. This is done in order to provide a more comprehensive, and accurate, picture of instructional leadership within particular school milieus. Such an analysis contributes to the quality and authenticity of the findings and also presents an opportunity of comparing the individual schools to the overall data trends.

Comparison of PIMRS scores of principals and teachers is one of the most important and meaningful uses of PIMRS data, and results are discussed for each dimension and its corresponding sub-scale and, where necessary, significant differences and/or similarities are highlighted (Hallinger, 2005). When reading the tables for all five schools, a positive difference indicates that teacher ratings on the sub-scales, and sub-scale averages, were higher than principal self-ratings, while a negative difference shows the opposite to be true.

5.3.1 School 1

According to the data presented in Graph 5.3.1 and Table 5.3.1 several differences are evident between teacher and principal scores with respect to how instructional leadership is perceived. The principal most often received ratings of 'frequently' (4.0) from the teachers. Teachers scored the principal higher than he scored himself in seven of the ten sub-scales. In contrast, the principal rated himself as only 'sometimes' engaged in instructional leadership behaviours in the majority of sub-scales.

Graph 5.3.1: Comparison of teacher mean scores and principal mean scores per sub-scale

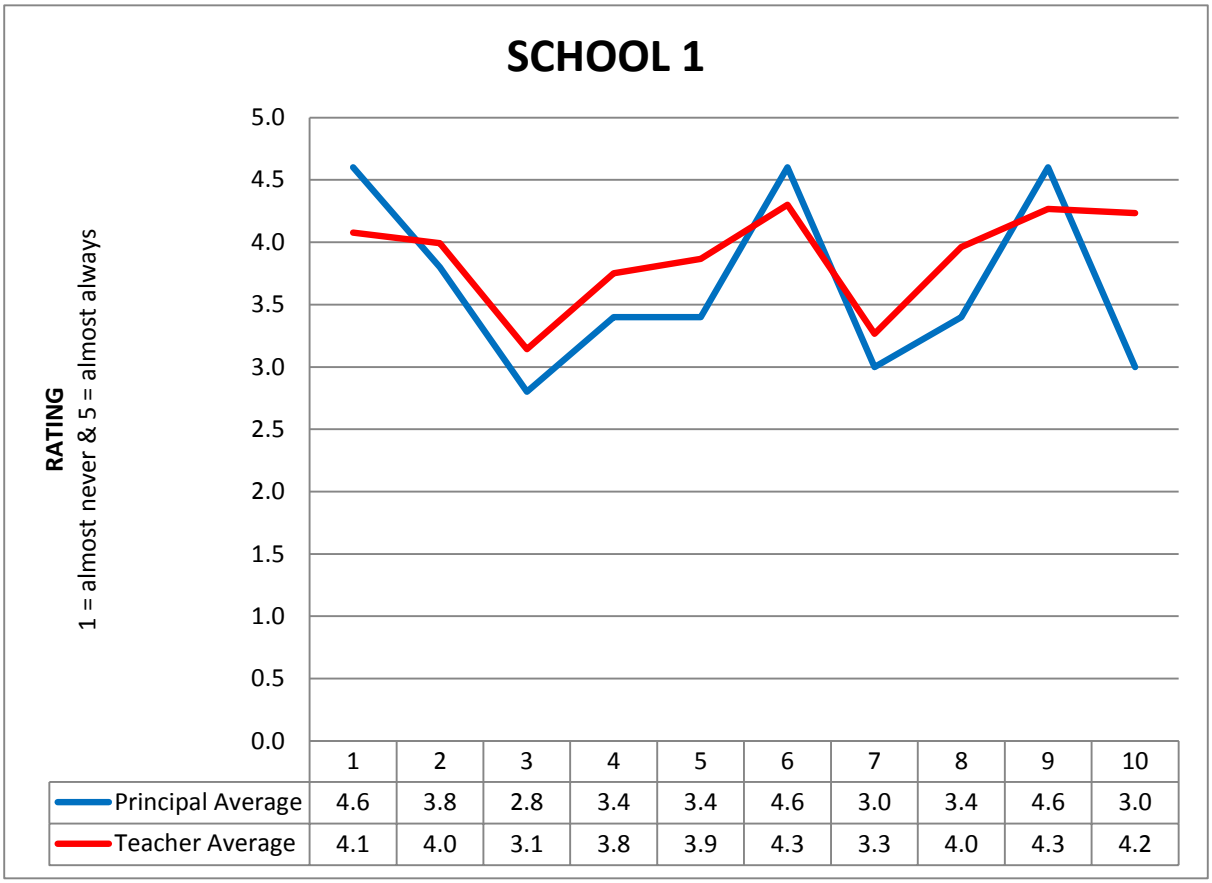


Table 5.3.1: Teacher and Principal PIMRS mean results (nT=11; nP=1)

Dimension	Sub-scales	Mean (T)	Mean (P)	Difference
1. Defining the School's Mission	1. Frame the school goals 2. Communicate the school goals	4.1 4.0	4.6 3.8	- 0.5 0.2
Mean Scores: Dimension 1		**4.05**	**4.20**	**- 0.15**
2. Managing the Instructional Programme	3. Supervise and evaluate instruction 4. Co-ordinate the curriculum 5. Monitor student progress	3.1 3.8 3.9	2.8 3.4 3.4	0.5 0.4 0.5
Mean Scores: Dimension 2		**3.60**	**3.20**	**0.40**
3. Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate	6. Protect instructional time 7. Maintain high visibility 8. Provide incentives for teachers 9. Promote professional development 10. Provide incentives for learning	4.3 3.3 4.0 4.3 4.2	4.6 3.0 3.4 4.6 3.0	- 0.3 0.3 0.6 - 0.3 1.2
Mean Scores: Dimension 3		**4.02**	**3.72**	**0.30**
MEAN SCORES: ALL DIMENSIONS		**3.90**	**3.71**	**0.19**

Overall, the principal of School 1 rated himself as 'sometimes' to 'frequently' exercising instructional leadership behaviours (3.71 mean rating). Ratings

given by the teachers reveal a similar perception with a mean rating of 3.90. School 1 shows the closest match between teachers' scores and the principal's score on the PIMRS of all of the five schools. This could be as a result of the principal being relatively new to his position.

5.3.1.1 Dimension 1 (sub-scales 1 - 2): Defining the School Mission

There was little overall difference (-0.15) between the perceptions of teachers and the principal with respect to defining the school's mission. The data set indicates that the principal is perceived to 'frequently' engage in this dimension. Teachers at School 1 scored the principal highest in this dimension (4.05). This was the only dimension in which the principal rated himself higher than he was rated by his teachers (4.20). The principal gave himself one of his highest sub-scale scores, i.e. sub-scale 1: Frame the school goals (4.6).

The principal of School 1 used the terms "vision" and "mission" to "enable teaching and learning in the school". He viewed a very big part of his role to be that of "relationship builder". He stated that his "job description" is "too broad … too restricting" and that he was more interested in "people and relationships that work". One of his major challenges in implementing the school's vision was in the area around "change management". He claimed that:

> "My number one priority is to bring about change where I see change necessary [as] we need to be ready for it and prepare ourselves."

A further role is to "develop leadership in the boys at the school [as] there is a lack of men taking responsibility in the country."

5.3.1.2 Dimension 2 (sub-scales 3 – 5): Managing the Instructional Programme

The principal and teachers of School 1 rated the principal lowest overall in the dimension of managing the instructional program (T = 3.60; P = 3.20).

Based on what the principal said in the interview, he failed to see a link between his instructional leadership and the school's academic achievement:

> "I wouldn't want it to be the case. It is important to capacitate heads of subject – you run the show – and make your subject the best. It is not my job to teach them how to teach [as] they must understand what I want and do it. It runs on automatic. The Head of Academics is the Deputy Principal."

He also used the term "distributed leadership" when referring to how he expects certain senior individuals to take the lead driving the curriculum. He also did not consider any actions he took to impact directly on the boys' academic achievement at his school:

> "It would be a critical failing if I didn't delegate instructional leadership responsibilities to others [as] I turn to people with experience. It is difficult to measure the impact I have on the boys' academic achievement."

The principal gave himself his lowest sub-scale score in sub-scale 3: supervise and evaluate instruction (2.8). The teachers also rated the principal lowest in this sub-scale (3.1). The principal spoke of the issue of "trust" when answering questions about his role in supervising and evaluating instruction:

> "Teachers must manage their own classrooms [and] I have no responsibility here [as] different teachers have different ways of teaching and children learn differently also. I do not do class visits but manage by walking about. I am torn in that regard but it is a question of trust."

With the exception of sub-scale 3, teachers were consistent in sub-scales 4 and 5: co-ordinate the curriculum (3.8) and monitor student progress (3.9) respectively. Both of these scores can be linked to the role of senior teachers being responsible for curriculum management and the choice of curricular materials. The principal used the term "hierarchy" when explaining the role of his senior staff in co-ordinating the curriculum and, in referring to his own role, referred to "meetings with the Deputy Principal and Heads of Department" around matters related to the curriculum. The choice of curricular material was also "something the subject heads are responsible

for". The textbooks used to deliver the curriculum are chosen by the subject heads and he has no authority over what is chosen.

The principal was also consistent in his self-ratings for sub-scales 4 and 5 with scores of 3.4 for both. Although the teachers rated the principal higher than he rated himself, there was little overall difference (0.4) between the perceptions of teachers and the principal with regard to the management of the school's instructional program. The principal of School 1 was viewed as only 'sometimes' managing the school's instructional programme. This is a trend at all five schools and matches the overall data analysis.

5.3.1.3 Dimension 3 (sub-scales 6 – 10): Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate

There was a 0.3 difference in the rating of teachers (4.02) and the principal (3.72) in the dimension of promoting a positive school learning climate.

The teachers and principal rated the principal consistently highest in sub-scale 6, protect instructional time (T = 4.3; P = 4.6), and sub-scale 9, promote professional development (T = 4.3; P = 4.6). The principal claimed that:

> "Sport impacts negatively on teaching. We battle to keep outside/inside curriculum balanced." (Item 30)

He also alluded to "protecting time at all costs". Although the principal did not digress much on his role with respect to promoting professional development he said:

> "We have under-spent here for far too long. We must develop our teachers professionally to develop our boys academically."

There is a visible drop in the ratings for sub-scale 7, maintain high visibility, which received the second lowest sub-scale ratings by the teachers (3.3) and the principal (3.0) when compared to sub-scales 6 and 9. The principal claimed that "emails are a focal point of what we do now so we need to manage it" as a reason for not circulating more often around the school.

Sub-scale 10: provide incentives for learning, shows the greatest variance in scores between the teachers and the principal (1.2). Speaking about "the boys" was a common thread during his interview. However, his self-rating of 3.0 appears to contradict the centrality of recognizing his boys for their achievements. The teachers recognised its presence more often (4.2) than the principal did.

Whereas the teachers perceive the principal to 'frequently' engage in promoting a positive school learning climate, the principal self-rates himself as only 'sometimes' functioning in this manner.

5.3.2 School 2

According to the data presented in Graph 5.3.2 and Table 5.3.2 below, the principal of School 2 scored herself consistently higher than her teachers in nine out of ten sub-scales. Of the five schools which participated in the study, the principal of School 2 was rated lowest of all the principals, by her teachers, on the PIMRS. In contrast, by examining the results of the principals' own perceptions of instructional leadership, the principal of School 2 rated third highest, after principals' self-scores at School 4 and School 5. In all three dimensions of the PIMRS, on average, the principal rated herself higher than her teachers rated her. There appears to be little agreement between the data sets of the different respondents with respect to instructional leadership behaviours at School 2.

Graph 5.3.2 Comparison of teacher mean scores with principal mean scores per sub-scale

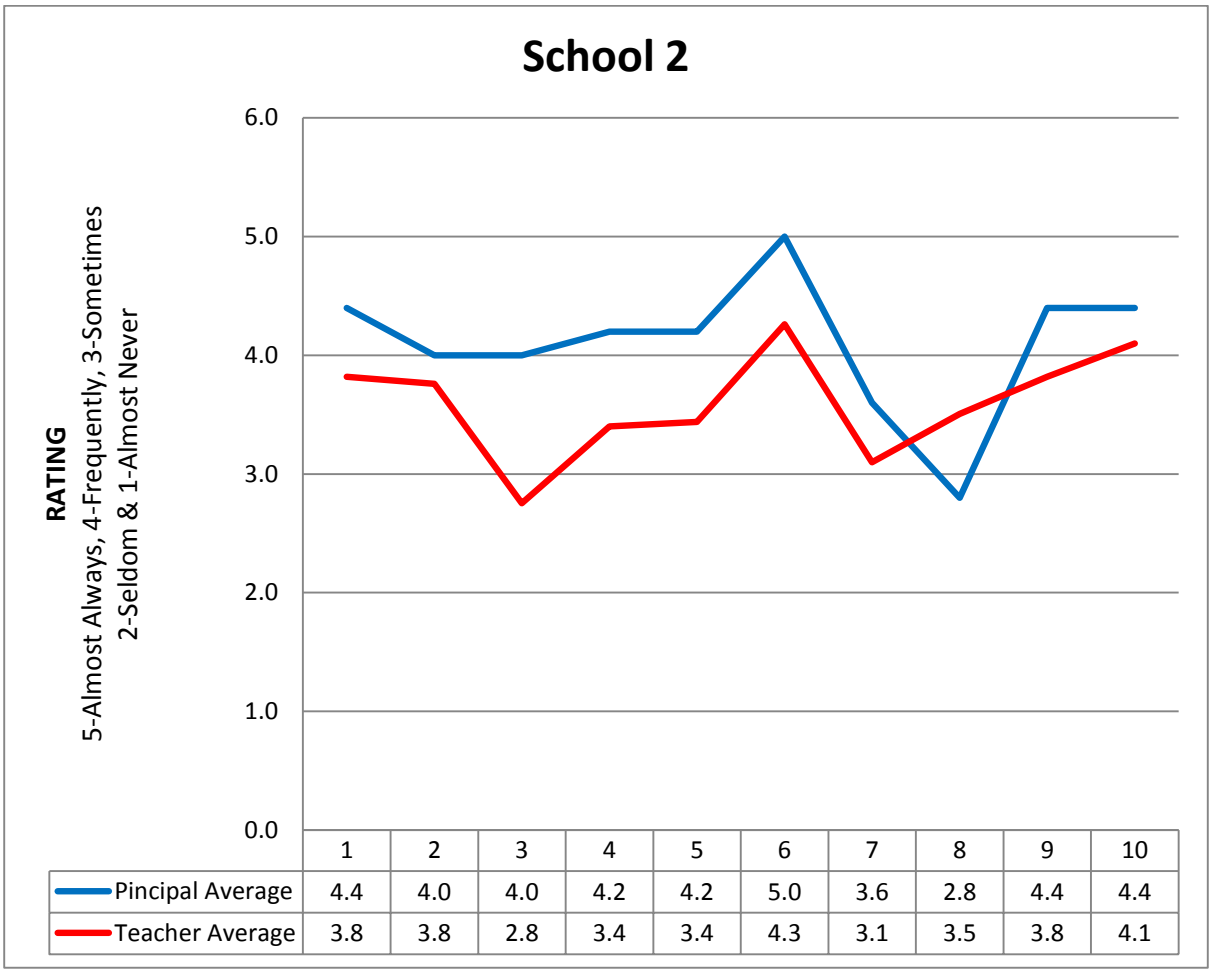


Table 5.3.2: Teacher and Principal PIMRS mean results (nT=10; nP=1)

Dimension	Sub-scales	Mean (T)	Mean (P)	Difference
1. Defining the School's Mission	1. Frame the school goals 2. Communicate the school goals	3.8 3.8	4.4 4.0	**- 0.6** **- 0.2**
Mean Scores: Dimension 1		**3.80**	**4.20**	**- 0.40**
2. Managing the Instructional Programme	3. Supervise and evaluate instruction 4. Co-ordinate the curriculum 5. Monitor student progress	2.8 3.4 3.4	4.0 4.2 4.2	**- 1.2** **- 0.8** **- 0.8**
Mean Scores: Dimension 2		**3.20**	**4.13**	**- 0.93**
3. Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate	6. Protect instructional time 7. Maintain high visibility 8. Provide incentives for teachers 9. Promote professional development 10. Provide incentives for learning	4.3 3.1 3.5 3.8 4.1	5.0 3.6 2.8 4.4 4.4	**- 0.7** **- 0.5** **0.7** **- 0.6** **- 0.3**
Mean Scores: Dimension 3		**3.70**	**4.04**	**- 0.70**
MEAN SCORES: ALL DIMENSIONS		**3.57**	**4.12**	**- 0.55**

The principal of School 2 rated herself as 'frequently' exercising instructional leadership behaviours (Mean score: P = 4.12) whereas the teachers perceived the principal to mostly 'sometimes' to 'frequently' exercise instructional leadership (Mean score: T = 3.57).

5.3.2.1 Dimension 1 (sub-scales 1 – 2): Defining the School Mission

Teachers at School 2 rated the principal highest in this dimension (3.80). Similarly, the principal rated herself highest too (4.20) and gave herself one of her highest sub-scale scores in this dimension, namely frame the school's goals (4.4). The scores reveal that both teachers and the principal consider this instructional leadership behaviour to 'frequently' be present.

The principal of School 2 used the term "success" to define one of her primary leadership responsibilities:

> "The success (ethos) of the school is my responsibility. Leadership is my responsibility."

The principal was also at pains to describe why there was such an "academic focus" in terms of the school's mission and vision:

> "Coping with schools in the area is a challenge because of the strip of schools one has in the southern suburbs. Private schools poach our girls [and] one has to be aware of competition [as] my school has a standing, a reputation. It's pressure [as] you are top one year and not the next. But that's not what's important. Excellence is important."

5.3.2.2 Dimension 2 (sub-scales 3 – 5): Managing the Instructional Programme

Teachers at School 2 rated the principal lowest overall in this dimension (3.20) compared to the principal's self-rating of 4.13. The lowest score for all sub-scales given was for sub-scale 3: supervise and evaluate instruction (T =

2.8; P = 4.0). The principal, who has an Academic Head (the Deputy Principal, with whom she meets every morning at the start of the day), said:

> "I encourage subject heads to visit classrooms. When a problem arises we often work together (classroom management). I am not proscriptive and subjects are different. The Staff leans on you for guidance [and] it's a heavy yoke but it is positive in every sense. But I don't do it all. I visit classes as it's an opportunity to see the teachers. It's about what you do as a leader to foster excellence."

Insofar as the curriculum and instruction are concerned, the principal does not "do it all" herself as she delegates most academic responsibilities to her Academic Head. Although teachers perceive the principal to seldom supervise and evaluate instruction, it is clear that the principal ensures that the job gets done. This may explain the disparity on scores on this sub-scale.

In terms of the principal's role in co-ordinating the curriculum (T = 3.4; P = 4.2) and monitoring student progress (T = 3.4; P = 4.2), scores improved somewhat. The principal indicated that she felt that she impacted directly on the pupils' academic achievement. She stated the following:

> "I am accountable to make sure that the curriculum is taught and monitored successfully [as] what you do in class is important. I deal with a lot of girls who need motivation or advice. I have green letter meetings with the teachers, who teach girls who under-perform, and their parents. I have a direct impact on the under-performers and, yes, I do believe there is a link between my leadership and the girls' academic achievement."

The principal does not actively participate in the review of teaching materials:

> "I allow subject heads to have a discussion as they are the professionals in their subjects. If they want more textbooks they speak directly to me."

Teachers rate the principal consistently low in this Dimension 2 and perceive the instructional leadership behaviour to be only 'sometimes' present. No data sets at any school show such a large differential between two sets of respondents. By contrast, the principal considers herself to

'frequently' engage in this instructional leadership behaviour. This trend characterises two schools only, namely School 2 and School 5. All other principals have this sub-scale as their lowest personal rating.

5.3.2.3 Dimension 3 (sub-scales 6 – 10): Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate

Protecting teaching time (sub-scale 6) is a characteristic feature of this school, in particular, and all schools in general. School starts at School 2 at 07H50 each day and ends at 3 pm Monday – Thursday and at 2 pm on a Friday. Whereas the principal scored herself the maximum rating (5.0) for this sub-scale, the teachers awarded the principal a rating of 4.3. This is both the teachers' and the principal's highest score for a sub-scale on the PIMRS. The principal stated the following:

> "Instruction time is sacred. We don't mess with it. Teachers complain when girls have to leave lessons before end of day and I like that. Staff are focused [and] excursions, you can't have more than one in a year as it's on the calendar [so] the year planner promotes the protection of tuition time."

Teachers perceive the principal not to be visible enough around the school (sub-scale 7: T = 3.1). The principal scored herself 3.6 on this sub-scale. The principal also considers herself not to provide enough incentives for her staff (sub-scale 8: P = 2.8). This was her lowest overall score of any sub-scale. The principal is a regular presenter at professional development 'Pro-Gro's' (professional growth) for the teachers' union NAPTOSA. These seminars are resident professional development seminars held over weekends at the Houw Hoek Inn in Grabouw. The principal has a reputation for being immersed in professional development (sub-scale 9):

> "I am a pro-gro [professional growth] junkie. We don't make the staff do anything [but] we are aware of our 80 hours of professional development annually."

The ratings for this dimension reveal that the principal considers herself to 'frequently' promote a positive school learning climate whereas the teachers viewed this as being evidenced only 'sometimes' to 'frequently'.

5.3.3 School 3

School 3 presents several anomalies to the general trends. The data in Graph 5.3.3 and Table 5.3.3 reveals an interesting contrast when compared to responses at the other schools. School 3 is the only school where the principal rated herself lower than her teachers rated her in all three dimensions and all ten sub-scales (Mean Scores: T = 4.13; P = 3.56) and, as a result, was the lowest self-scoring principal, but where the principal was the highest rated principal of all the five principals, by her teachers, on the PIMRS (Mean Score: T = 4.13). International studies on instructional leadership reveal a trend where principals consistently rate themselves higher than their teachers rate them. Email correspondence from Hallinger (pers. comm., 12/6/2014) refers:

> "I have also found that female principals often rate themselves lower than the teacher ratings while males rate themselves higher."

This is the case at School 3. The majority of responses by teachers indicate that they view the principal as 'frequently' exercising instructional leadership. The principal considers herself to only 'sometimes' to 'frequently' exercise this type of leadership.

Graph 5.3.3 Comparison of teacher mean scores with principal mean scores per sub-scale

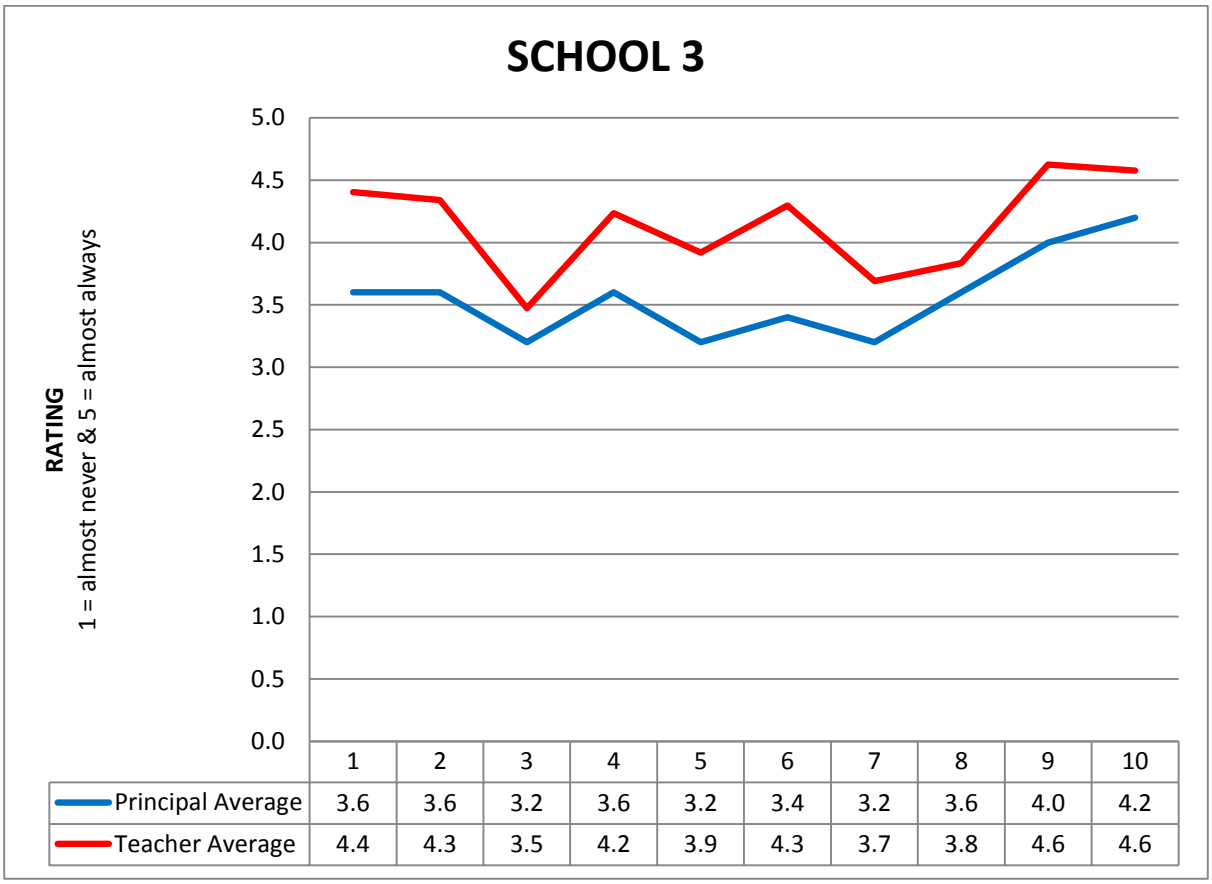


Table 5.3.3: Teacher and Principal PIMRS mean results (nT=46; nP=1)

Dimension	Sub-scales	Mean (T)	Mean (P)	Difference
1. Defining the School's Mission	1. Frame the school goals 2. Communicate the school goals	4.4 4.3	3.6 3.6	0.8 0.7
Mean Scores: Dimension 1		**4.35**	**3.60**	**0.75**
2. Managing the Instructional Programme	3. Supervise and evaluate instruction 4. Co-ordinate the curriculum 5. Monitor student progress	3.5 4.2 3.9	3.2 3.6 3.2	0.3 0.6 0.7
Mean Scores: Dimension 2		**3.90**	**3.30**	**0.6**
3. Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate	6. Protect instructional time 7. Maintain high visibility 8. Provide incentives for teachers 9. Promote professional development 10. Provide incentives for learning	4.3 3.7 3.8 4.6 4.6	3.4 3.2 3.6 4.0 4.2	0.9 0.5 0.2 0.6 0.4
Mean Scores: Dimension 3		**4.20**	**3.68**	**0.52**
MEAN SCORES: ALL DIMENSIONS		**4.13**	**3.56**	**0.57**

5.3.3.1 Dimension 1 (sub-scales 1 – 2): Defining the School Mission

Teachers at School 3 rated the principal highest in this dimension (4.35). This was also one of the dimensions where the principal rated herself highly (3.60). Teachers at the school experience the principal as 'frequently' defining the school's mission whereas the principal considers herself to exercise this function only 'sometimes' to 'frequently'.

The principal of School 3 was clear on her mission as leader when articulating her roles and responsibilities:

> "Teaching and learning is what I am accountable for. The first goal is to achieve. I always interact with staff in a discussion of some nature. I am responsible for everything. Administration, personnel, academics [but] the job description has no relevance to reality.'

5.3.3.2 Dimension 2 (sub-scales 3 – 5): Managing the Instructional Programme

Both teachers' and principal scores are the lowest of all three dimensions on the PIMRS (Mean Scores: T = 3.9; P = 3.3). The data set reveals that it is only in the area of co-ordinating the curriculum that the principal is considered by the teachers to 'frequently' exercise this instructional leadership behaviour. For all other sub-scales within this dimension, both sets of respondents view managing the instructional programme as being only 'sometimes' to 'frequently' practised.

The principal scored the lowest on sub-scale 3: supervise and evaluate instruction (T = 3.5; P = 3.2) and emphasised "trust" during the interview:

> "There is a set 'way'. I manage by walking about and if it is a tricky class I observe it. Teachers who need help controlling a class go on courses for discipline. I must trust my teachers to teach effectively."

Classroom observation is done in a particular manner. The principal referred to "Partnering for Performance" (P4P) which is a method of peer-to-

peer classroom observation. The principal indicated that the "template for observation has evolved over the years" but that it was the preferred method outside of the more formalised IQMS process prescribed by departmental policy. According to the principal, this promotes collaboration and teamwork amongst the teachers.

In a reference to internal accountability and her role in enabling a climate of high expectations, the principal confirmed a link between her instructional leadership and pupils' academic achievement at the school but does not believe that the decisions she takes as principal impact directly on academic achievement:

> "I create the climate for academic achievement. There are high expectations. Also the school creates the disciplined environment in which learning can take place so the tone is set for a high level of academic achievement. Academic achievement stems from the teachers and I only enable it. I must trust their methods. My role is indirect."

There are clearly defined roles (Academic Head and Subject Heads) and, as a result, the principal believes that she has a minor role to play co-ordinating the curriculum (T = 4.2; P = 3.6) despite the teachers perceiving this differently. In addition, the principal delegates instructional leadership functions to the Academic Head, Subject Heads and the GET (Grade 8 and 9) and FET (Grades 10 – 12) co-ordinators:

> "Teachers choose their own textbooks. I have no knowledge of most subjects and the Academic Head co-ordinates the choice of textbooks. Curriculum is never yours only [as] it is the impetus for discussion to start conversations."

5.3.3.3 Dimension 3 (sub-scales 6 – 10): Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate

The principal rated herself the highest in this dimension with a mean score of 3.68. Her teachers consider her to 'frequently' promote a positive school climate (T = 4.2). It is interesting to note that both the principal and the teachers rate sub-scale 9: promote professional development, and sub-scale 10: providing incentives for learning, as the principal's strongest

instructional leadership behaviours and sub-scale 7: maintain high visibility as one of her weakest. On her visibility the principal said the following:

> "Emails take up a lot of time so I engage less and less with core business [as] I am immersed in admin. I can't pass it on so I do it myself. If we focus on the job description in the PAM it is too broad [and] if we did the job description it would impact negatively on being instructional leaders [so] I need to be in passages and classrooms."

What the data set also reveals is that, on sub-scale 6: protect instructional time, the principal rated herself the lowest of all five principals in the research study. Whereas the range of scores for the four other principals is 4.6 – 5.0, with a mean score of 4.6, the principal of School 3 rated herself a score of 3.4. However, her teachers rating of her ability to protect instruction time (4.3), is consistent with the way teachers in other schools have rated their principals.

The principal of School 3 was the only principal to speak about her own classroom teaching:

> "I need to be at class on time and be a role model to the teachers."

The principal 'frequently' to 'almost always' recognizes pupils' efforts (sub-scale 10: provide incentives for learning). This aspect of her instructional leadership is the strongest and is rated highest (T = 4.6; P = 4.2):

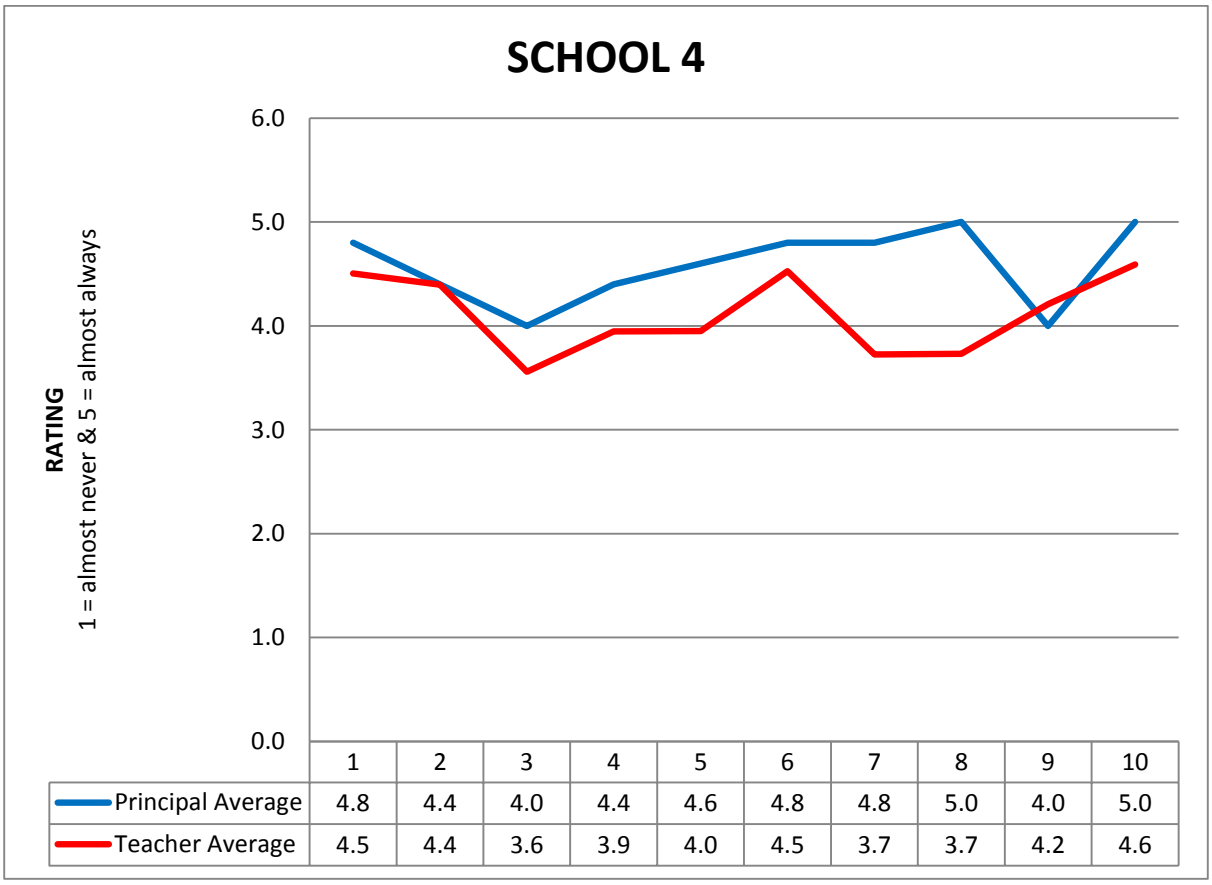
> "Our focus is affirming and awarding when it comes to academic success so our level of acknowledgement is high in Assemblies and certificates at prize giving. I affirm always."

The ratings for this dimension reveal that the principal considers herself to 'sometimes' to 'frequently' promote a positive school learning climate whereas the teachers viewed this as being evidenced 'frequently'.

5.3.4 School 4

Just as School 3 revealed interesting anomalies to international trends on instructional leadership, School 4 aligns closely with aforementioned research. Graph 5.3.4 and Table 5.3.4 shows that, of the five participating schools, the principal of School 4 rated himself the highest on the PIMRS across all three dimensions. The principal considers himself as 'frequently' to 'almost always' exercising instructional leadership (P = 4.58 mean score). The teachers' mean score is 4.13. The principal of School 4 is the only principal who rates himself a maximum of 5.00 on two sub-scales (both on Dimension 3). In addition, the principal of School 4 scored himself similarly to the principal of School 2. This is stated against the backdrop of both principals scoring themselves higher than their teachers in nine of the ten sub-scales on the PIMRS.

Graph 5.3.4 Comparison of teacher mean scores with principal mean scores per sub-scale



	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Principal Average	4.8	4.4	4.0	4.4	4.6	4.8	4.8	5.0	4.0	5.0
Teacher Average	4.5	4.4	3.6	3.9	4.0	4.5	3.7	3.7	4.2	4.6

Table 5.3.4: Teacher and Principal PIMRS mean results (nT=31; nP=1)

Dimension	Sub-scales	Mean (T)	Mean (P)	Difference
1. Defining the School's Mission	1. Frame the school goals 2. Communicate the school goals	4.5 4.4	4.8 4.4	- 0.3 0.0
Mean Scores: Dimension 1		**4.45**	**4.60**	**- 0.15**
2. Managing the Instructional Programme	3. Supervise and evaluate instruction 4. Co-ordinate the curriculum 5. Monitor student progress	3.6 3.9 4.0	4.0 4.4 4.6	- 0.4 - 0.5 - 0.6
Mean Scores: Dimension 2		**3.80**	**4.30**	**- 0.50**
3. Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate	6. Protect instructional time 7. Maintain high visibility 8. Provide incentives for teachers 9. Promote professional development 10. Provide incentives for learning	4.5 3.7 3.7 4.2 4.6	4.8 4.8 5.0 4.0 5.0	- 0.3 - 1.1 - 1.3 0.2 - 0.4
Mean Scores: Dimension 3		**4.14**	**4.72**	**- 0.58**
MEAN SCORES: ALL DIMENSIONS		**4.13**	**4.58**	**- 0.45**

5.3.4.1 Dimension 1: Defining the School Mission (sub-scales 1 – 2)

The principal of School 4 rates highest on this dimension (of all five school principals) (Mean Scores: T = 4.45; P = 4.60). Both the principal and the teachers allocated the second highest score, of all sub-scales, to sub-scale 1: Frame the School's Goals. It may be concluded that both the principal and the teachers consider this instructional leadership dimension to be 'frequently' to 'almost always' present.

The principal referred to the "(School 4) brand" which "I know on the palm of my hand" and claimed that it "is the way we do things at School 4". He indicated that one of his core roles was to be a "culture builder":

> "It took about 8 years to build a culture at the school. The Staff has bought in."

The principal is learner-centred (the word "boys" punctuated his responses) and explained his main roles and responsibilities as follows:

> "There is a philosophy of excellence. I work with boys. I work with teachers who go beyond the minimum. We are focused on academic achievement and set the bar high. We don't promise perfection but we back ourselves as we have the (School 4) pass and there are consequences if the boys don't get it. It takes a

> village to raise a child. We have a certain way, the (School 4) way and we stress the (School 4) way."

5.3.4.2 Dimension 2 (sub-scales 3 – 5): Managing the Instructional Programme

The principal of School 4 rated himself the highest (of all five schools) for Managing the Instructional Programme (4.30 mean score). The mean teacher score in this dimension (3.80) was lower than the principal's self-score but still indicated that the principal frequently fulfilled this instructional leadership function. Any questions that related to academics were answered in a standard way: "School 4 Way … Get Mr Y" (School 4 refers to this school and Mr Y refers to the school's Academic Head).

The principal neither conducts supervision nor does he evaluate instruction as a core function (sub-scale 3). This sub-scale is scored the lowest overall by his own self-rating and by the teachers' score (T = 3.6; P = 4.0). His school has a system called 'APD' (Academic Professional Development) which encourages teachers to conduct a class visit to a peer's classroom once a week. The system is entirely voluntary but teachers have an APD file which he can ask for at any time when he meets with individual teachers. He was the only principal to use the term "establishing a professional learning community" when referring to the way class visits are perceived by Staff.

The principal made repetitive references to two individual staff members when referring to how the curriculum is co-ordinated (sub-scale 4), namely the Deputy Principal (Mr X) and the Academic Head (Mr Y). He stated:

> "We make good appointments. (Mr X) runs the school. He is the operations manager. (Mr Y) runs the academics brilliantly. I call on my team. I don't get myself bogged down with bureaucratic detail [and] if I do I farm it out."

Monitoring student progress (sub-scale 5) is a strong aspect of instructional leadership at the school. This is evident from scores of 4.0 from the teachers and the principal's self-rating of 4.6 Each pupil's academic results are scrutinised and monitored quarterly by "House Heads" (school is divided along House lines to manage achievement and involvement). The principal referred to the "School 4 Way" in both holding boys accountable for their academic progress and motivating them to perform academically (internally, the school rejects the low pass requirements as laid down by the education department and uses them only for promotion purposes at the end of an academic year):

> "There are no easy subjects any more. There is a contract between the school, the parents and the boys about the 'School 4 Way'. Boys get warnings [and] I back up the Staff. The boys are held accountable for their own learning [and] there is team work to make sure boys are on track. There are structures in place to deal with boys who don't perform. We have next to no discipline problems [and it's] the eyebrow and finger. The Head must back things up. We haven't taught until the boys have learnt [and] we teach to the modern child. There are consequences if they don't get the 'School 4 Way' pass."

The principal has no influence over the choice of curricular materials and leaves it entirely in the hands of the Academic Head "Mr Y". "Mr Y" also "runs class visits" and "meets regularly with Subject Heads". The principal viewed the appointment of "Mr Y" as being primarily responsible for the culture of academic excellence that has been built up at the school "since Mr Y started in 2008". However, he affirmed the link between his instructional leadership and the boys' academic achievement as follows: "I definitely influence academic achievement by setting the bar."

5.3.4.3 Dimension 3 (sub-scales 6 – 10): Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate

In keeping with a self-rating trend, the principal of School 4 rates himself the highest of all five school principals in promoting a positive school

climate. With a mean score of 4.72 this is also the highest score for any dimension across the five schools.

The principal is perceived to protect instructional time almost always (sub-scale 6: T = 4.5; P = 4.8). This equals the highest score of any sub-scale. However, boys who achieve the 'School 4 Pass' are given privileges to leave early for sports' matches:

> "We need to teach boys to prioritise. I let boys off for sport but they need to earn the right [as] academic teaching time is possibly being eroded but the School 4 pass has some privileges."

Maintaining high visibility is, according to the Staff, a weakness (T = 3.7). The principal believes that he is highly visible (P = 4.8). The principal teaches each grade 8 class once a week. He claimed that he spent a lot of time on "communication" and was scathing of the impact that emails have had on his visibility in the school:

> "We have gone beserk on emails. I get 250 – 300 emails per day [and] it is unproductive a lot of the time."

The principal considers himself to 'almost always' provide incentives for teachers (sub-scale 8) (5.00) and incentives for learning (sub-scale 10) (5.00):

> "If I look after the Staff then the boys are happy. If the boys are happy their parents are happy. I must motivate the staff."

His score on sub-scale 8 breaks the trend across the five schools where incentivizing teachers is a weakness. The teachers rate the principal a low 3.70 on sub-scale 8 and represents the second largest differential between principals' and teachers' ratings of all five schools across all sub-scales and for a specific sub-scale (-1.3).

An apparent anomaly on the PIMRS relates to the promotion of professional development. The teachers (4.2) rate the principal higher than his own score (4.0). This is the only sub-scale where the principal's score is lower than

that of his teachers and seems anomalous given that the school was used as a provincial pilot school for the roll out, nationally, of CPTD. Professional development is embraced by the principal and a budget is set aside to enable its success:

> "Teachers can go on any course anywhere in the country [for] anything educational."

The ratings for this dimension reveal that the principal considers himself frequently to almost always promote a positive school climate whereas the teachers viewed this as being only frequently present.

5.3.5 School 5

Graph 5.3.5 and Table 5.3.5 indicate that the principal of School 5 scored himself the second highest rating of all principals across the five schools (P = 4.18 mean score) on the PIMRS. His teachers, however, gave him the second lowest score overall (T = 3.59 mean score). School 5's principal is the third principal to self-score himself higher than his teachers on nine out of ten sub-scales. This trend is also noticeable at School 2. The ratings of both the principals and the teachers at both School 2 and School 5 reveal almost identical scoring patterns. Their teachers scored them lower than they scored themselves in all three dimensions of the PIMRS.

Whereas the principal considers himself 'frequently' to 'almost always' to exercise instructional leadership, the teachers consider him to display this only 'sometimes' to 'frequently'.

Graph 5.3.5 Comparison of teacher mean scores with principal mean scores per sub-scale

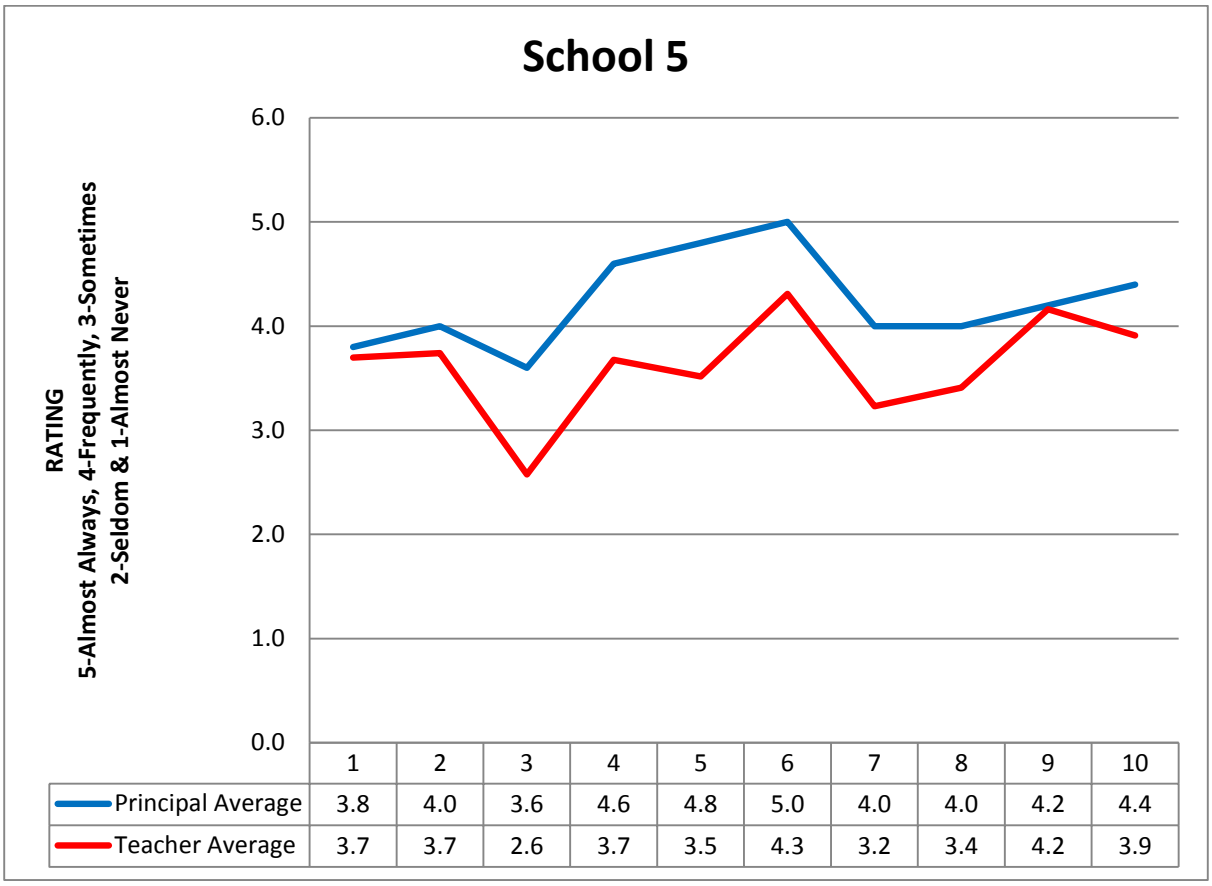


Table 5.3.5: Teacher and Principal PIMRS mean results (nT=38; nP=1)

Dimension	Sub-scales	Mean (T)	Mean (P)	Difference
1. Defining the School's Mission	1. Frame the school goals 2. Communicate the school goals	3.7 3.7	3.8 4.0	- 0.1 - 0.3
Mean Scores: Dimension 1		**3.70**	**3.90**	**- 0.20**
2. Managing the Instructional Programme	3. Supervise and evaluate instruction 4. Co-ordinate the curriculum 5. Monitor student progress	2.6 3.7 3.5	3.6 4.6 4.8	- 1.0 - 0.9 - 1.3
Mean Scores: Dimension 2		**3.27**	**4.33**	**- 1.06**
3. Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate	6. Protect instructional time 7. Maintain high visibility 8. Provide incentives for teachers 9. Promote professional development 10. Provide incentives for learning	4.3 3.2 3.4 4.2 3.9	5.0 4.0 4.0 4.2 4.4	- 0.7 - 0.8 - 0.6 0.0 - 0.5
Mean Scores: Dimension 3		**3.80**	**4.32**	**- 0.52**
MEAN SCORES: ALL DIMENSION		**3.59**	**4.18**	**- 0.59**

5.3.5.1 Dimension 1 (sub-scales 1 – 2): Defining the School Mission

There was general agreement between the role groups that the principal defines the school's mission 'frequently' (T = 3.70; P = 3.90).

The principal spoke to the issue of "community" when addressing personal accountability issues and outlined his main roles and responsibilities as follows:

> "My main role is to provide leadership. It is also a management one. It is advisory. I provide support to teachers and the children. I need to keep the ship afloat. It is also about my personality and being able to influence others. I am accountable to the children for the education we give them and to the School's Governing Body and the parents. It stretches much wider than that to the entire community."

5.3.5.2 Dimension 2 (sub-scales 3 – 5): Managing the Instructional Programme

There was a considerable difference between the ratings of the two role groups in this dimension (T = 3.27; P = 4.33). The teachers identified the principal's management of the instructional programme to be his weakest area of instructional leadership.

Although the principal states that "I cannot take credit for the school's results" the principal believes that he is responsible for the academic core of the school (teaching and learning) and sees a direct link between his instructional leadership and his pupils' academic achievement:

> "My role largely contributes towards the attitude of Staff and that means that pupils perform. My role is not indirect. It's direct. I need to motivate Staff to produce results which means we are an effective school. It happens naturally that the Staff wants good results and the teachers perform naturally. [There is] internal accountability as there is a collective responsibility on the Staff for performance. They do not act as individuals but collectively. All I need to do more is encourage and motivate the situation."

Teachers' sub-scale 3 score (T = 2.6), evaluate and supervise instruction, is the lowest score given to any principal for any sub-scale and also represents the greatest difference in scores between the teachers and the principal himself (P = 3.6). Although sub-scale 3 is the lowest scored across the schools and for all sub-scales, it is only at School 2 and School 5 where the variation in scores of the role groups is so divergent. The principal reported the following:

> "Teachers take ownership of the classroom. I don't interfere [as] they are empowered to do that. Every classroom door has a window. I look through the window often. I show an interest."

Although the principal self-rated himself a 4.6 rating for co-ordinating the curriculum (sub-scale 4), he delegates this to an Academic Head to co-ordinates class visits and choice of teaching material. This may explain the teachers' rating of him of 3.7:

> "The Head of Academics runs it. I encourage cross-curricular visits outside of the formal IQMS process. Staff must visit another two subject departments each term and report what they saw so that they can learn from each other and see what's different. I leave choice of textbooks to subject departments [as] I have confidence in them [and] the Academic Head registers their choices. I meet with the Academic Head once a week. Everything is delegated to the Academic Head who meets with subject heads once a week. I cannot do it all [and] I inherited a system when I became principal 8 years ago and there was no need to change what works well."

The interview yielded little in terms of monitoring the progress pupils make each quarter (sub-scale 5: T = 3.5; P = 4.8). However, the principal believed that the exit-level qualification (matric) was all that counted. Furthermore, he believes that success is measured by his pupils' performance at university. The school is orientated towards preparing its pupils for tertiary studies:

> "There is only one curriculum, the matric curriculum. They need to finish that. We train our children for university as we are an academic school. Maintaining academic standards and leading the pack is pressure [but] we don't want to be judged by our ranking. I judge results by how our children succeed at university [and] I

> track them and for those who go to the University of Cape Town, 100 % of them graduate."

Whereas the principal considers himself to 'frequently' exercise instructional leadership in this dimension (4.33 mean score), the teachers perceive his management of the instructional programme as only 'sometimes' being present (3.27 mean score). His management of the instructional programme seems to be one of management control (oversight).

5.3.5.3 Dimension 3 (sub-scales 6 – 10): Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate

The principal of School 5 identified dimension 3 as his most active area of instructional leadership (4.32 mean score). This contrasts with the scores of his teachers (3.80 mean score).

The principal at School 5 considers the protection of instructional time (sub-scale 6) to be his strongest leadership focus (P = 5.0). This score is identical to the principal's self-score at School 2. The teachers at School 5 also recognise this as his strongest instructional leadership behaviour (T = 4.3). The principal of School 5 claimed that "protecting teaching contact time at all costs" is one of the instructional leadership actions he takes that impacts directly on pupils' academic achievement.

In terms of visibility (sub-scale 7), the principal manages by walking about (P = 4.0). The Staff perceives this to be an area of his leadership that is only 'sometimes' present (T = 3.2):

> "I manage by walking about and every classroom door has a window. I look through the window often [so that] I have a presence."

Professional development is a feature of the school (sub-scale 9):

> "There is one professional development session per term. Otherwise Staff decides on its professional development needs. I consult with Staff."

Although the principal mentioned that he "encourages, supports, and watches pupils" (sub-scale 10), there was little mention of incentives for learning or teachers (sub-scale 8).

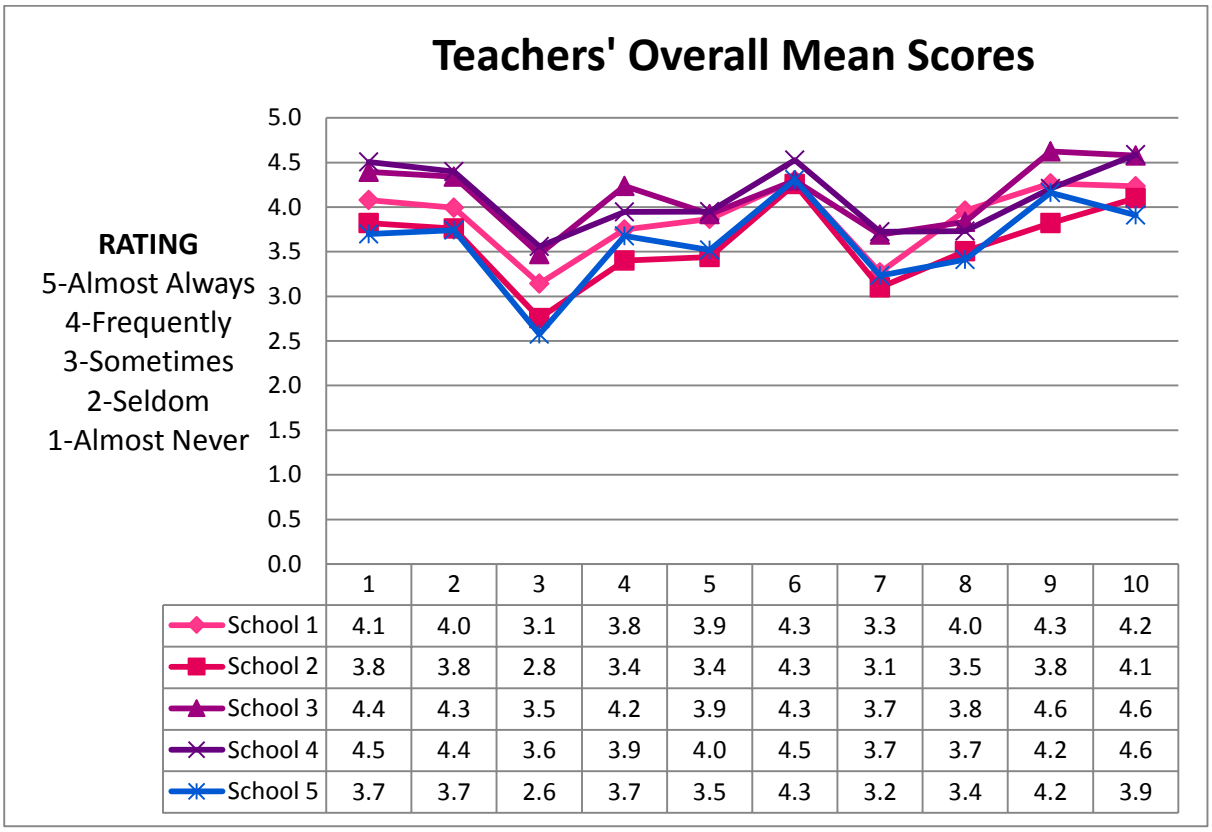
The teachers at School 5 consider the principal to 'sometimes' to 'frequently' promote a positive school climate whereas the principal self-scores himself slightly higher and perceives his instructional leadership behaviour to be 'frequently' present.

5.3.6 Summary and Conclusion of the PIMRS Results and Principals' Interviews by School

The preceding analysis focused on the five individual schools in order to examine particular features of instructional leadership. This sequence of analysis showed that the school by school results are very similar to the overall results as discussed on pages 73, 74 and 75.

At the five schools, teachers' responses to the PIMRS (Graph 5.3.6.1 below) match closely and the clustering of responses is evident. Teachers scored their principals' instructional leadership highest on sub-scale 6: Protect Instructional Time; sub-scale 9: Promote Professional Development; and sub-scale 10: Provide Incentives for Learning and lowest on sub-scale 3: Supervise and Evaluate Instruction; sub-scale 7: Maintain High Visibility; and sub-scale 8: Provide Incentives for Teachers. At a dimension level each school's teachers rated their individual principals lowest in Dimension 2: Managing the Instructional Programme. Dimension 1: Defining the School's Mission was the highest rated dimension of all teachers at all schools, with the exception of teachers at School 5 who considered the principal's best dimension to be that of Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate.

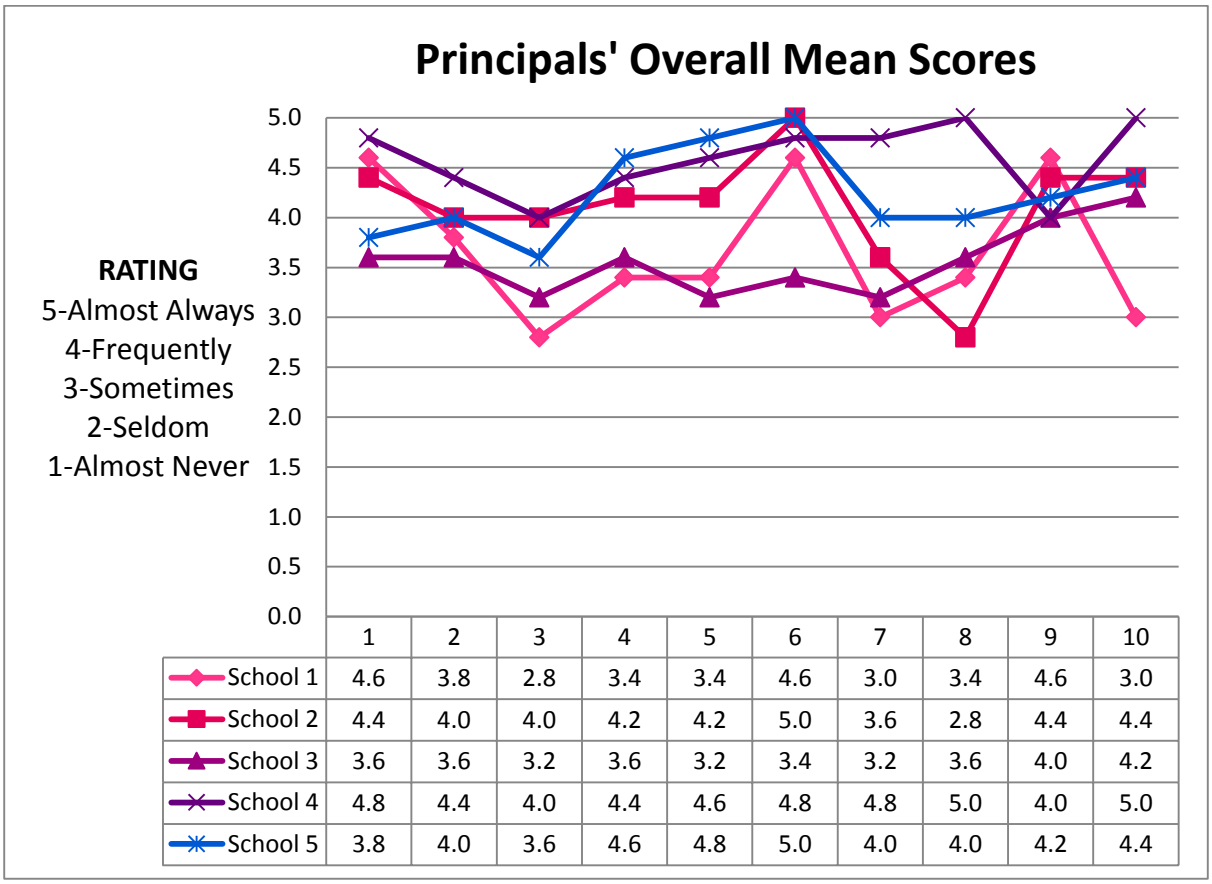
Graph 5.3.6.1: Teachers' mean scores by sub-scale per school



	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
School 1	4.1	4.0	3.1	3.8	3.9	4.3	3.3	4.0	4.3	4.2
School 2	3.8	3.8	2.8	3.4	3.4	4.3	3.1	3.5	3.8	4.1
School 3	4.4	4.3	3.5	4.2	3.9	4.3	3.7	3.8	4.6	4.6
School 4	4.5	4.4	3.6	3.9	4.0	4.5	3.7	3.7	4.2	4.6
School 5	3.7	3.7	2.6	3.7	3.5	4.3	3.2	3.4	4.2	3.9

Each principal completed the PIMRS as a self report of his/her own instructional leadership behaviours. Principals' self-ratings on the PIMRS (Graph 5.3.6.2 below) were more divergent with a larger range of responses. Analyses of interview data revealed similarities in responses by principals. Principals considered themselves to be most active in sub-scale 6: Protect Instructional Time; sub-scale 1: Frame the School Goals; and sub-scale 10: Provide Incentives for Learning and least active in sub-scale 3: Supervise and Evaluate Instruction; sub-scale 7: Maintain High Visibility; and sub-scale 8: Provide Incentives for Teachers. At a dimension level, principals' self-ratings ratings reveal no clear pattern of similarity across the five schools.

Graph 5.3.6.2: Principals' mean scores by sub-scale per school



	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
School 1	4.6	3.8	2.8	3.4	3.4	4.6	3.0	3.4	4.6	3.0
School 2	4.4	4.0	4.0	4.2	4.2	5.0	3.6	2.8	4.4	4.4
School 3	3.6	3.6	3.2	3.6	3.2	3.4	3.2	3.6	4.0	4.2
School 4	4.8	4.4	4.0	4.4	4.6	4.8	4.8	5.0	4.0	5.0
School 5	3.8	4.0	3.6	4.6	4.8	5.0	4.0	4.0	4.2	4.4

Although international research reveals that principals generally score themselves higher on the PIMRS, three principals scored themselves higher (Schools 2, 4, 5) while two principals scored themselves lower than their teachers scored them (Schools 1 and 3). Two of the principals rated lowest by their teachers (Schools 2 and 5) rated themselves amongst the highest of the principals in terms of instructional leadership functions. The principal who rated herself the lowest score of all of the principals (School 3) was the highest rated by her staff. The perceptions of the principal and teachers were very similar at School 1 only.

The results reveal a neglect of teachers as a stakeholder group, in general, across the schools (with the exception of promoting professional development) with a strong focus on recognising pupils' achievement.

Across the sample as a whole, there is much that the five successful schools have in common when it comes to how the five principals exercise instructional leadership. All principals are perceived by their teachers to 'frequently' exercise instructional leadership behaviours in similar ways. Principals are strong at protecting instructional time, promoting professional development and providing incentives for learning but weak at supervising and evaluating instruction, maintaining high visibility and providing incentives for teachers[7]. At a sub-scale level, principals' ratings reveal a striking similarity too. As a result, there are elements of generalisability that can be applied to how instructional leadership is practised in these high performing schools.

5.4 Comparison of Teachers' and Principals' Scores: *t*-tests

The teachers rated the principals and the principals rated themselves in the three dimensions of the PIMRS. The issue here is whether or not the ratings are significantly different. To do this, a one-sample *t*-test was applied to test whether the average of the teachers' scores was significantly different from the relevant principals' scores. Table 5.4 shows the average score of the teachers and the principals (of each school) as well as the p-value[8] per dimension. The null hypothesis is that the teachers' mean score equals the principal's score. The alternative hypothesis is that the teachers' mean score does not equal the principal's score. Given the p-values from the *t*-test, we can reject the null hypothesis, in all cases, that the scores are equal. Apart from Dimension 1: Defining the School Mission at School 1, these results are significant at the 1 % significance level.

[7] The latter inference does not represent the rating of the principal of School 4 (he rates himself 5.0 for sub-scale 8)

[8] The formula used is $t_{obt} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{s/\sqrt{n}}$ (Nunez, 2002:147)

Table 5.4: Teacher mean scores, principal's mean score and p-value

SCHOOL	DIMENSION	mT	mP	p-value
SCHOOL 1	DIMENSION 1: Defining the School Mission	4.05	4.20	* 0.0566
	DIMENSION 2: Managing the Instructional Programme	3.60	3.20	0.0003
	DIMENSION 3: Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate	4.02	3.72	0.0001
SCHOOL 2	DIMENSION 1: Defining the School Mission	3.80	4.20	0.0013
	DIMENSION 2: Managing the Instructional Programme	3.20	4.13	0.0000
	DIMENSION 3: Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate	3.70	4.04	0.0009
SCHOOL 3	DIMENSION 1: Defining the School Mission	4.35	3.60	0.0000
	DIMENSION 2: Managing the Instructional Programme	3.90	3.30	0.0000
	DIMENSION 3: Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate	4.20	3.68	0.0000
SCHOOL 4	DIMENSION 1: Defining the School Mission	4.40	4.60	0.0001
	DIMENSION 2: Managing the Instructional Programme	3.80	4.30	0.0000
	DIMENSION 3: Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate	4.14	4.72	0.0000
SCHOOL 5	DIMENSION 1: Defining the School Mission	3.70	3.90	0.0034
	DIMENSION 2: Managing the Instructional Programme	3.27	4.33	0.0000
	DIMENSION 3: Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate	3.80	4.32	0.0000

***** Statistically significant at the 5 % level. The rest are statistically significant at the 1 % level.

It should be noted, however, that the *t*-test may indicate a statistically significant difference. However, how educationally significant is the difference? Does this difference have any impact on how teachers view their own internal accountability and autonomy? A second round of research may be needed where teachers are interviewed to gauge answers to these questions.

5.5 Findings and Conclusion

An analysis of the PIMRS as well as the interview data reveals that there are clear actions that these principals take as instructional leaders to facilitate instructional leadership. A comparison of teachers' and principals' ratings revealed that principals were considered frequently to exercise instructional leadership behaviours in all three dimensions. The administration of *t*-tests revealed statistically significant differences between the mean scores of teachers and the scores of principals. However, although statistically

significant at the 1 % level, the educational significance of the *t*-test is questionable given that the schools are academically high performing schools characterised by high levels of professionalism, internal coherence[9], accountability to the profession, pupils and their parents and shared commitment.

In answering Research Question 1 (*How do the perceptions of teachers differ from those of principals with respect to instructional leadership in high performing high schools?*), the researcher administered the PIMRS to determine perceptions of principals' instructional leadership roles and responsibilities. In all dimensions, one-sample *t*-tests revealed that there is a significant difference between teachers' mean scores and the principals' scores.

Principals scored highest on the dimension of Defining the School Mission (Dimension 1) and lowest on Managing the Instructional Programme (Dimension 2). Protecting instructional time, in order to enhance academic achievement as an aspect of their instructional leadership, featured strongly as an instructional leadership responsibility. Professional development, to enhance teaching and learning and to improve classroom practice, was considered to be priority at the schools. In addition, given the centrality of their passion for teaching teenage children, all five principals provided incentives for learning:

> *School 1*: "I enjoy boys' education because it's engaging."
>
> *School 2:* "I love what I do [and] would do it all over again [as] the kids are the motivator."
>
> *School 3:* "We affirm and reward our girls."
>
> *School 4*: "I love the boys [as] they enthuse and energize me."

[9] It is believed that the leadership of the principal is critical to this (see Elmore, 2003).

Principals did not consider themselves to be visible enough, due mainly to the complexity of their role. Frequent and regular visits to classrooms, to supervise and evaluate instruction, were rare. This was for a variety of reasons, some of which are policy prescriptions at national level as well as the shared nature of instructional leadership in these schools.

In answering Research Question 2 (*What decisions do instructional leaders make and how do instructional leaders behave with respect to influencing teaching and learning in the classroom, which, in turn, impacts on pupils' academic achievement?*) there appeared to be a strong relationship between the principal and the school in terms of mutual influence e.g. the principals are all affected by, and affect, school excellence, school tradition and school reputation. These factors are all contextual and impact on the decisions principals make on a daily basis. Accountability played a large role in their instructional leadership roles. The principals are mostly responsible for establishing a culture of learning in their schools, one in which the central issue is to secure the "climate" (Principal of School 3) and "set the bar" (Principal of School 4) for quality teaching and learning.

The principals are proud of their positions as their schools are seen as places where excellence is embraced. In some cases, recently-appointed principals referred to inherited systems and structures when they were appointed (Principals of School 2 and School 5) and, as a result, tradition, proven academic excellence and the School Governing Bodies' oversight role impacted on the nature of their functions, roles and responsibilities. It also frustrated them as change-agents. Three principals' claimed:

> *School 1*: "Managing [and] wanting change has been difficult [with] the SGB [as] tradition plays a large part at the school [and] people resist change."
>
> *School 3*: "There is a lot of accountability and explaining to the SGB."
>
> *School 5*: "I inherited a system [and] there was no need to change what worked well."

With regard to instructional leadership behaviours affecting academic achievement, principals perceived their influence to be indirect, but focused strongly on their leadership being the catalyst for academic success. The concept "enable" was often used to describe their role in influencing academic achievement. This aligns closely to research conducted by Hallinger (2005), Hallinger & Heck (1996), Hallinger & Murphy (1987), Heck & Hallinger (2010) and Supovitz *et al* (2010).

In answering Research Question 3 (*Does instructional leadership in the sample schools conform to, or differ from, the conceptualisation of Hallinger's instructional leadership model?*), both phases of the research cast light on aspects of instructional leadership not measured by the PIMRS and revealed how instructional leadership conformed to, or differed from, the PIMRS model. While the PIMRS articulates the role of the principal in purely instructional terms, principals in the sample group had responsibilities connected to other roles and responsibilities. All principals undertook important instructional leadership responsibilities - not all of which fell under the ambit of the PIMRS model. These include the appointment of Staff, interviewing and selecting pupils for their schools, collaborating with staff (especially senior staff such as HODs) and collaborating with stakeholder groups such as the SGB and Alumni.

Appointment of Staff

One of the principals' primary responsibilities is to manage the selection of staff, in collaboration with their respective SGB's. Once selected, teachers were placed and were trusted get on with their core roles i.e. teach well and produce good results. Teachers and subject departments were largely seen as semi-autonomous agents responsible for achieving success. Principals provided support when necessary (directly of delegated to subject heads) and there was opportunity for professional growth and development. Principals value their teachers and enjoy engaging with their staff both formally (staff meetings) and informally (a chat in their offices and corridors).

One principal (School 4) commented on his dual role of appointing teachers and selecting boys for his school:

> *School 4*: "Making good teacher appointments is important [as] we are a state school. We also take what we get in terms of pupils [and] we get them through matric."

It is surprising that more principals did not mention these as additional functions. These behaviours are not measured by the PIMRS. Principals are key resource persons in the appointment of teachers and the selection of pupils. Although South Africa's legislation requires SGB's to nominate candidates for a teaching post, the PED makes the final decision on appointment. This was not mentioned as a policy level impediment to their instructional leadership (Research Question 4). Ylimaki *et al* (2007:367) claim that successful principals manage curriculum and instructional improvement through staffing schools with teachers well matched to school priorities.

Selection of Pupils

The five schools have admissions' policies that limit, in most cases, the selection of pupils to those pupils who show a particular aptitude in academics, sport, culture, service and music. Besides the principals of School 4 and School 5, no other principal mentioned their selection of pupils as one of their core roles and responsibilities.[10] Pupils who do not make the grade are often not successful in gaining placement at these schools.

Leadership is not exclusively positional but is rooted in others who consistently, and situationally, take on leadership roles (see Supovitz *et al*, 2010:36). The principal is thus neither the focal point of instructional leadership nor the sole provider. There are team-level organisational structures characterised by shared instructional leadership and high levels of trust. Principals willingly shared instructional leadership responsibilities with senior members of staff e.g. Academic Heads, Deputy Principals and HODs in order to mitigate organisational impediments to instructional

[10] The principal of School 5 personally visits primary schools to interview, and hand pick, pupils for his school.

leadership such as organisation of subject departments, number of subjects offered, school size, complexity and the PAM's managerial restrictions. The principal of School 5 had his Deputy Principal at the interview to answer some of the questions.

Collaboration

Prior research conducted by Hallinger (2005) emphasised the notion that high schools are characterised by silo-type subject departments that acted in isolation from the office of the principal and principals rarely knew what happened in classrooms. This research study debunks that finding in this context. Principals are kept well informed about classroom instruction and curriculum delivery by their subject leaders.

Collaboration, with the principal leading processes around instructional leadership, features strongly. In support of this statement, and although the sole aim of the Teacher Form was to complete the PIMRS by choosing a rating on a Likert scale with the leading question "*To what extent does your principal …?*", one particular teacher at School 2 commented on the PIMRS instrument as a whole (and the overall instructional leadership of her principal), on specific sub-scales and on an individual item as follows (her comments provide valuable insight and may indicate a limitation of the PIMRS model):

> "I have answered this questionnaire generously. The principal might not do these activities herself but together with the leadership of the school, she makes sure the activities are done. The principal does much more than is covered in this questionnaire."
>
> Sub-scale 1: Frame the school goals: "Together with the SMT."
>
> Sub-scale 2: Communicate the school goals: "Together with the Deputy Head."
>
> Sub-scale 3: Supervise and evaluate instruction: "Done in IQMS by peer and supervisor."
>
> Sub-scale 5: Monitor student progress: "Faculty heads do this."

Item 28: Ensure that truant and tardy students suffer specific consequences for missing instructional time: "Others do this."

Stakeholder Groups

The role of the SGB featured prominently as a major stakeholder group and to whom the principals felt accountable. Liaison with the "old boys" and "old girls" (alumni) was an added responsibility. The principals are the daily custodians of school finances, and the retrieval of school fees from debtors was an added responsibility (in collaboration with the Bursar and debt collection agencies). The principal of School 3 commented as follows:

"I have a treasurer [as] the money side demands more expertise."

Building community was perceived to be one of the principals' main roles. The principals all felt accountable to parents and to the pupils' "hopes and dreams". The principals have a very public role to play. The schools are considered to be a part of the community, rather than apart from the community (see Harris, 2002:21). Item 33 mean scores (T = 4.6; P = 5.0) (sub-scale 6) indicate that the principals all have a high profile at events outside of the formal, taught curriculum. Principals place the institutions of the school above their own personal interests and often work 12 – 16 hour days and attend evening and weekend functions. Several functions were symbolic in nature and reflected the importance of the principal as connected to, and associated with, their individual school's brand and image. Three of the principals occupy houses located on their schools' property. Four of the schools have school hostels for boarders.

Research Question 4 (*What policy level factors at the national (DBE), provincial (HO) or district office (DO) levels and individual school factors hinder and/or support instructional leadership of principals in high performing high schools?*) reveals that principals get on with the job despite organisational impediments at their own schools and district and/or national edicts. Class size was considered to be a hindrance to academic achievement (this was mentioned by the principal of School 1). The

interference of extra-mural activity also impacted on curriculum delivery (mentioned by three of the principals). All of the principals considered the "department" to be too "bureaucratic" and a hindrance to their decision-making:

> *Principal of School 1:* "We ignore some policy [as] notional time is not always correct [so] we take risks [because] it's what we believe is best [and] there is a battle between policy dictates and what is right at one's school, such as the way we do exams."
>
> *Principal of School 3:* "The department dumps too much [and] there is no give and take. An example is not allowing the girls to stay at home during exams."

The PIMRS, Hallinger's standard given model of instructional leadership (as described in Chapter 3), places the principal at the centre of instructional leadership in three dimensions: Defining the School Mission, Managing the Instructional Programme and Promoting a Positive School Learning Climate. Significantly, this research has demonstrated that:

1. These successful schools are not characterised by traditional concepts of instructional leadership;
2. Principals at these schools relied heavily on delegated or distributed leadership for day-to-day classroom teaching and curriculum delivery to take place;
3. Delegation was made possible by, firstly, them having had a hand in the appointment of Staff and, secondly, having Staff on board who showed high levels of internal accountability.

It may be in schools where Staff professionalism is not as apparent that principals have a more direct role to play but in these high performing schools principals have a more indirect role, with the caveat that they set the framework for academic achievement through creating the vision, mission and a climate of high expectations.

Shared instructional leadership is present in high performing schools in the metropolitan area of Cape Town, Western Cape. Instructional leadership practices are prioritised as shared behaviours and not the sole preserve of the principal.

CHAPTER 6
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study investigated the instructional leadership of principals in five high performing high schools in Cape Town, Western Cape. The study has shown that performing instructional leadership as a primary responsibility is impractical. In practice, the principals in the research group do not display instructional leadership commonly defined because they have to multi-task a variety of management-related activities. As a result, shared or distributed instructional leadership characterises the five schools. The principals build community in a wide sense by developing and involving others. This finding confirms research by Elmore (2000), King (2002) and Spillane *et al* (2000) who say that instructional leadership is distributed across the school community with principals and teachers having complementary responsibilities.

Hallinger's model proposes three sets of leadership dimensions: Defining the School's Mission, Managing the Instructional Programme and Promoting a Positive Learning Climate. The one-sample *t*-tests showed statistically significant differences between the two sets of respondents at the 1 % level, but add limited value to the study because the difference does not impact on the successful ways in which these schools operate.

The study also confirms that the PIMRS is a highly directive model that expects principals to be the main providers of instructional leadership when they cannot be. This may point to weaknesses in Hallinger's construction of the PIMRS on two levels. Firstly, on a theoretical level, as Clabo (2010:251) points out, the PIMRS:

> "… does not wholly translate to the secondary school context, where the larger size, structure, and complexity preclude the highly directive form of instructional leadership forwarded by this model."

This has also been acknowledged by Hallinger (2005) who argues that the instrument may have to be further adapted for use in high schools.

Secondly, and related, is that there are contextual differences between the roles and responsibilities of principals in different countries. It is not possible for principals, in addition to the roles and responsibilities listed in the PAM, to be directly concerned with classroom-based instructional leadership. Nevertheless, leaders need to understand learning (Hoadley *et al*, 2009: 377).

Although not in respect of direct, classroom-level intervention, the staff at all five schools perceive principals to be frequently engaged in instructional leadership behaviours. The principals are still the focal point of instructional leadership as strong, directive leaders who establish a culture of excellence, and who share a common commitment to teaching and learning, within an atmosphere of trust. Shared instructional leadership is a manifestation of this trust and its delegated nature may be a reason for the academic achievement success at the schools. Furthermore, principals create processes to ensure that subject teams focus on the critical issues associated with pupil learning: curriculum coverage, school-based and external assessment, analyses of pupil achievement and strategies for improving results (see also DuFour & DuFour, 2006; Eaker & Gonzalez, 2006). Professional role definition is clear and units of collaborative accountability are the result.

A major contribution of this research is to show the significant indirect relationships which mediate instructional leadership, teachers' behaviours and pupils' learning. Principals foster the conditions necessary for teachers to deliver the curriculum in a climate of professional collaboration and communication (see questions raised on pages 57 & 58). This is reinforced by protection of teaching time, professional development and significantly, the way that successful schools' principals focus most of their energies on the pupils at a social, emotional, pastoral, extra-mural and academic level.

They immerse themselves in the lives of their pupils both during the school day and at events where their pupils represent their schools, while successfully delegating instructional leadership functions to experienced senior members of staff e.g. Subject Heads, Heads of Department and Academic Heads.

Given the focus of this study on instructional leadership, the study shows that the following elements are present at the schools in the study and work inter-dependently with, and in alignment to, one another:

- The principals' main role is to engage teachers in determining and articulating a vision of academic excellence. Principals are leaders of learning (see also Fullan, 2002; Hallinger, 2011; Southworth, 2002). Although these schools have shown high levels of collaboration as empowered professionals, this does not eliminate the need for strong, highly directive leaders. The principals in the sample define their role as shapers and keepers of culture committed to learning and building leadership – for pupils and adults (see also DuFour & DuFour, 2006; Eaker & Gonzalez, 2006).
- Teachers consider principals to frequently exercise instructional leadership, in all three dimensions, despite its shared nature. Instructional leadership is not principal-centred. School principals practise instructional leadership indirectly through actions they take to delegate this function to others and, as a result, build professional, social and decisional capital (see also Hargreaves & Fullan, 2012). Instructional practice is directed, managed and supported by senior staff without the interference of the principal. In a different study, as pointed out by Hoadley *et al* (2009:377) "… leadership of learning does not inhere exclusively, or even primarily, in the principal."
- This is confirmed by the data which showed that principals are strongest in 'Defining the School Mission' and weakest in 'Managing the Instructional Programme', the latter of which is the core of most definitions of instructional leadership. Principals' main strengths include protecting instructional time, promoting professional

development, providing incentives for learning and framing the school's goals but they do not maintain a high visibility, neither supervise nor evaluate instruction or provide incentives for teachers. These are considered to be weaknesses.

- Both principals and teachers have a sense of responsibility for pupils' learning and academic performance and are accountable to the profession, the pupils, their parents, the community and each other. A high degree of internal coherence characterises the schools with teachers galvanised around a common set of professional values, and standards, where teamwork produces success and where pupils' excellence is recognised (see questions raised on page 58).
- Instructional leadership is an important enabler of pupil achievement and school principals help to create the conditions within high performing schools, called internal accountability, that leverage high quality teaching and learning which, in turn, impacts positively on pupils' learning. This research study found that the schools in the sample display high levels of shared instructional leadership and strong internal accountability systems. Teachers work closely with the principals to improve pupils' academic outcomes and to enhance their effectiveness as professionals for the pupils' benefit. Principals create a community of teachers with shared norms and values with high expectations of pupils. These schools could be termed 'professional learning communities' (see also Stoll *et al,* 2006).

With this as backdrop, it is questionable whether or not characterising instructional leadership as the principal's primary role is enough to transform South Africa's schools - as called for by NEEDU – given the elasticity of the concept of instructional leadership. As discussed, NEEDU has articulated the importance of instructional leadership due to emerging pressure to provide tangible evidence of success against explicit standards of learning. However, as Hoadley *et al* (2009:376) note South Africa needs more robust understandings of leadership practices and of responses to external policy initiatives before we move to training schemes and policy demands

based on unrealistic definitions. Instructional leadership is a valuable first step in increasing pupil learning but is too narrow a concept to carry the weight of educational transformation that will create the schools we need for the future:

> "The role of the principal as instructional leader has taken us only so far in the quest for continual school improvement. We must now set our sights and focus on principals as leaders in a culture of change" (Fullan, 2002:20).

Ultimately, proposing, and advancing, this type of leadership will require a paradigm shift in how education authorities in South Africa view educational leadership. An understanding of what instructional leaders do at high performing schools can begin to shape future studies on this type of leadership and act as a catalyst for policy development able to address current shortcomings around the "how" of leadership in South Africa's schools. In a nation-wide context, district supervision, monitoring and support will have to embed support for principals if this role is to be a part of their daily functioning. This must not limit high performing schools that, through this study, are shown to have an internal accountability culture that promotes shared instructional leadership practises and that act independently of certain policy and legislative impediments e.g. the PAM. Importantly though, if instructional leadership is to be the leadership model of choice in our schools, continued research is needed which studies this model within a myriad of school contexts in South Africa such as high and low performing schools, primary and secondary schools and urban and rural schools. That said, Leithwood *et al* (2004:6) caution against the "leadership by adjective literature".

Given the job restrictions that extant legislation imposes on them, as constituted in the PAM, coupled with the accountability inadequacies of IQMS (or the proposed QMS), it is unlikely that principals can carry out instructional leadership successfully on their own. Historical changes to the role of the principal have expanded the role of the principal thereby increasing its complexity and demanding more time than ever before. It is

encouraging to note that proposed legislation, released in Pretoria on 7 August 2014, called 'The South African Standard for Principalship' (DBE, 2014b:8) states the following:

> "There is an imperative to establish a clear and agreed understanding of what the South African education system expects of those who are entrusted with the leadership of schools [as] currently no such understanding exists although limited definitions are included in both the PAM and IQMS."

To conclude, this research contributes to the field of leadership by providing an analysis of what instructional leadership looks like in practice in a South African high performing, high school context. The research may extend beyond this and may be used for principal preparation programmes and professional development (in-service training) in a country where the call for higher academic standards, and improved academic performance, are a common and growing expectation. Understanding instructional leadership in practice, and building knowledge about it in research, may require significant shifts in national education policy on how principals are appointed, mentored, professionally developed and appraised. Put differently, change is more likely to be realised if policy and practice are aligned.

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