CHAPTER TWO

Literature review on the dynamics of leadership and management contributing to school effectiveness

2.1   Introduction

This literature review illuminates how leadership and management may contribute to school effectiveness. In the last couple of years, escalating devotion has been paid to the meaning and significance of leadership. The have also been series of books and articles published in subject of leadership and nonetheless, leadership programmes leading to qualification awards flourish (Storey, 2004:249-260). Research around the world is also contributing to an increasingly rich understanding of how educational institutions are led and managed.

According to Bush (2007:391), excessive interest in the subject of leadership started at the beginning of the 21st century and that is attributed to the extensive believe that leadership quality makes a substantial difference in the school, hence, student achievement. In addition, "as the global economy gathers pace, more governments are realizing that their main assets are their people and that remaining or becoming competitive depends increasingly on the development of a highly skilled workforce, which requires trained and committed teachers, as well as the leadership of highly effective principals and the support of other senior managers". Therefore, this study is viewed in the light of "School-Based Management (SBM) which is often assumed as an important approach to improving school practices to meet the diverse expectations of stakeholders in a changing environment through autonomy and decentralization" (Cheng and Moc, 2007:517-542; Wong, 2009:157-179). Thus in this literature review, the key role players within the school system will be otherwise referred to as leaders and managers.

According to Bottery (2004), even though claims about educational leaders cannot be universal, there are lots of empowered western world leaders who derive pleasure and fulfilment from their jobs. "Perhaps most importantly, because of the conventional absence of any unique dependent variable internationally and across all countries, against which to

assess the various influences of the independent variables; which make the analysis of the causal factors determining the nature of educational systems in different countries" a difficulty. However, Earley and Weindling (2004) maintain that "leadership and management at all levels in school should be judged by their effect on the quality and standards of the school, despite the fact that school leaders have a broad (some would say), ever-burgeoning array of responsibilities".

Leadership provides the "drive and direction for raising achievement, whereas management makes best use of resources and processes to make this happen, it also requires effective evaluation, planning, performance management and staff development. Management is focused more on providing order and constituency in organisations whereas leadership is focused on producing change and movement" Earley and Weindling (2004).

In addition to the functions of leadership above, (Huber, 2004) states that leadership and management "oriented activities such as suitable application and utilization of resources for teaching, agreeing upon goals, promoting cooperative relationships between staff (e.g. preparing lessons cooperatively), evaluation and counselling of teachers during lessons through classroom observations, structured feedback and coaching" are actions geared towards school effectiveness through emphasis on the relevance of instruction

In summary, the introduction to this literature review study asserts the definition of leadership, which is about the provision of direction and the utilization of resources for the purpose of organizational (e.g. school) effectiveness and that is held world-wide. Even though leadership and management have been overwhelmingly acknowledged by education leadership and management scholars as having impacts on school effectiveness, the context in which it is exhibited world-wide, differs. The understanding of the concept of leadership and management is however necessary.

2.2   Clarification of concepts

According to Bush (2007:391), schools in many parts of the world acknowledge that effective leaders and managers are required, in order to provide the best education for their children. In the following paragraphs different definitions of leadership and management will be discussed with a view to determining how their dynamics contribute to school effectiveness.

2.2.1 Leadership

Hallinger and Heck (2010:149-147) state that a considerable number of scholars have studied the influence of school leadership on student learning over a period of time; Moreover, majority of these researchers have "framed leadership as an independent variable or driver for change, in relation to school effectiveness and school improvement. Yet, most scholars have observed that leadership is also influenced by features of the organisational setting in which it is enacted and they have framed leadership, sometimes explicitly, but more often implicitly as an independent variable that drives school change and effectiveness".

Leadership is the procedure whereby a person influences another individual or group member towards goal setting and goal achievement with no force or coercion (Greenberg and Baron, 1993:444; Mosley, Meggins and Pietri, 1993:260; Van Fleet, 1991:157). According to Kerry and Murdock (1993:221-230), "leadership is not a matter of passive status or of the mere possession of some combination of traits". Hence, "It appears rather to be a working relationship among members of a group, in which the leader acquires status through active participation and demonstration of his/her capacity for carrying cooperative tasks through to completion" (Leipzig, 2004:128-135).

Based on the above assertion, Gharehbaghi and Mcmanus (2003:56-58); Fry (2003:693-727) maintain that "leaders achieve objectives through energized and excited subordinates who share their passion, vision and direction and they feel confident to challenge the status quo and finding efficient, as well as long term solutions to leadership challenges; they develop through a never-ending process of self-analysis and the utilization of education, training and experience". That is, leaders they make use of uninterrupted working and studying to improve their leadership skills. Regarded as one of the fundamental management functions, leadership is defined by Cronje, Du Toit, Marais and Motlatla (2004:174) as the process of directing the behaviour of others towards the accomplishment of pre-determined goals, thus involves elements such as influencing people, giving orders, managing conflict , communicating with subordinates and motivating people - either as individuals or in groups.

According to Gerber, Nel and Van Dyk (1998:229), leadership is generally defined as one or other form of dominance in which the subordinates more or less have to accept the commands and control of the leader. All theories of leadership contain two important

concepts: authority and power. Thus, Earley and Weindling (2004) enumerate that any analysis of leadership ought to acknowledge at first based on two fundamental factors namely: the relationship between leadership, power and authority, which are discussed below.

2.2.2 Authority

Smith and Cronje (1992:117) maintain that every manager, regardless of his or her management level is also on occasion, a leader who ensures that subordinates work together to achieve the enterprise's (school) stated objectives. Authority has to do with the right of the manager to enforce certain actions within specific guidelines (policy) and the right to take action against those who will not cooperate to achieve certain goals. From the foregoing, it may be inferred that authority is related to leadership. In the school situation for example, the school principal as the executive officer of the school, is given authority by the head of education to enforce his/her authority within the school. It is therefore important to understand the difference between authority and power. According to Gerber, Nel and Van Dyk (1998:300), many people have authority (that is conferred), but do not possess power (which has to be acquired) to assert the authority effectively. Thus, it may be concluded accordingly that power is the basis for leadership.

2.2.3 Power

Subordinates give power to a leader or manager so that the leaders can influence them and exercise authority effectively, because they (leaders) ought to have some sort of power in order to be called leaders. In other words, power (the ability to influence the behaviour of others) has nothing to do with the hierarchical position an education leader holds and is not acquired along with a title or job description in an organisation (such as a school); however, the leader has to earn it (Smith et. al., 1992:117).

French and Raven (in Gerber et. al., 1998:301) distinguish between the following types of power:

- Legitimate power: Also known as position power and it is the delegated authority given

to a position.

- Power by reward: This is used either to give rewards or to withhold them. Such rewards include recognition and appreciation, challenging work, post-enrichment opportunities, opportunities for development, merits and promotions, etc.

- Coercive power: This is enforced by inspiring fear in followers, whether through psychological or physical means. It is however necessary for the education leader to use his or her coercive power under certain circumstances. For example, through a disciplinary interview, oral and written warnings, reprimands, etc.

- Referent power: This is also known as personal power and it is a rather abstract concept. Subordinates follow a leader with referent power simply because they like, respect, or identify with the leader.

- Expert power: This is based on expertise. A leader with this type of power wields it over those that need the knowledge and expertise. In education, expert power plays an important role. That is why for instance, students are dependent on the superior knowledge and experience of their education leaders (e.g. teacher). For instance, expert power indicates the capacity of a teacher, a lawyer, auditor, doctor, etc. All these professionals are respected for their specialised knowledge or expertise. Teachers will nonetheless be respected by colleagues, the parent-community and students for their specialised knowledge and expertise.

From the above definitions of leadership, it can be deduced that leadership is basically concerned about goal achievement and the initiation of change through the participation of group members or followers via communication, directing, and influencing; while at the same time, successful leadership is also about the willingness of energized followers, based on the commands or control of followers through the leader's influence, power (that is, knowledge or expertise, etc.) and authority.

Vesting of certain powers and authority on school leaders is not enough. It is important that they use their leadership authority and power to ensure successful task execution in a school, but the leaders should also realise that people must execute tasks. Therefore, it is important to create a school environment in which staff members' actions are directed by good leadership whereby human relationships are made important, people are happy and experience job satisfaction. In other words, an education leader must maintain a healthy

balance between a task-oriented and a people-oriented leadership style. Discussed below are the concept of management and its processes within the school system.

2.3   Management

A common view is that "management is getting things done through others" (McNamara, 2008; Earley and Weindly, 2004; Shead (*www.leadership501.com/definition-of-management/21/*). In addition, management is about making sure that set organisational goals are achieved and it is the overarching concept within which leadership is subsumed (Bush and Bell, 2002; Donald, Lazarus and Lolwana, 2004), thus it is not an end in itself. The central goal of positive school management is "the promotion of effective teaching and learning (quality education). The task of management in the provision of education service at all levels is to ultimately create favourable conditions which teachers and their students optimize during teaching and learning. The extent, to which effective learning is achieved therefore, becomes the criterion against which the quality of management is to be judged" (Bush, 2007:391-406).

Management simply plans, executes and measures and this process is an on-going cyclical process in schools (Shead**,** www.leadership501.com/definition-of-management/21/), thus, the four basic management functions that make up the management process are described as follow.

Planning: McNamara (2008) defines planning as the process of identifying the needs of the school and determining the goals, objectives and resources needed to realize the goals and objectives in order to carry out the planned tasks, responsibilities and dates for completion of school tasks.

Organising: Organising is the assignment of tasks which originate through the planning process; these tasks are distributed to individuals or groups within the organization for implementation, thereby putting into actions already crafted plans www.managementinnovations.wordpress.com/.../define-management-its-f.

Leading/influencing: This is an act of motivating, leading and or directing. It is also an act of guidance provision to subordinates, towards the direction of organizational goal(s) fulfilment.

The essence of influencing is to produce higher levels of outcome over a long term www.managementinnovations.wordpress.com/.../define-management-its-f.

Controlling: Controlling aims at collecting information that could be used to evaluate, that is, evaluation of performance through pre-established performance criteria. It is also used to determine the next plan of action by a school principal, for example, in order to make adjustments towards the pre-determined goals and objectives, hence, controlling it is a continuous process www.managementinnovations.wordpress.com/.../define-management-its-f.

In summary, it is also clear that managers are people who get work done through people, in order to effectively and efficiently reach school goals and objectives; act as a communication channel in the organisation, are responsible and accountable and; act as a mediator to negotiate differences, resolve conflicts and makes decisions.

Two concepts which are closely linked to leadership and management and the realisation of the vision, aims and objectives of a school are: responsibility and accountability. Both of these concepts are discussed in the subsequent paragraphs.

2.3.1   Responsibility

Responsibility refers to the duties of a person in terms of his/her post and the work allocated to him/her. The work need not necessarily be done by the person (e.g. principal) himself or herself. He or she may delegate tasks to other educational leaders and hold them responsible for the effective execution of the work delegated. These "goals can only be realized by ensuring that teachers are equipped with the knowledge of the subject matter of their tasks, an evidence and standards-based repertoire of pedagogical skills that are demonstrably effective in meeting the developmental and learning needs of all students for whom they have responsibility" (Darling-Hammond and Bransford, 2005). In addition, through strong instructional guidance by the principal, driven by aligned curriculum frameworks, teacher development, assessment, and learning support materials, substantial and sustained improvement could be achieved in schools (Fleish, 2006:369-382).

2.3.2 Accountability

Accountability is an essential element and professional repertoire of a modern school leader, thefore, "accountability refers to a person's duty to give an account of having executed his or her work in terms of set criteria and pre-determined standards" (Perry and McWilliam, 2007:32-43). Accountability places a duty or obligation on a person to act in accordance with a standard or expectation set for his/her performance or behaviour. In other words, every person must be able to account for their actions in relation to the standard or expectation set for those actions in specific situation (Nieuwenhuis, 2007:104). Teachers are particularly required to show proficiency and responsibility, as well as making as well as making essential professional judgements towards the discharge of their tasks (Kyriakides, Demetrious and Charalambus, 2006:1-20). Nevertheless, teachers are not only accountable to their superiors; they are also accountable to the parents and the students they teach in order to ensure quality education (Joubert and Prinsloo, 2009:231).

It is understood that taking responsibility as a manager (principal), implies taking care of teacher development and the provision of the latest strategies and technologies to help in achieving the instructional desires of the students. The measurement of teacher effectiveness based on their answerability and acceptance of blame are necessary tools of school management. Therefore at this stage, it is necessary to examine the relationship between leadership and management in order to clarify how both concepts can contribute to school effectiveness. Hence the paragraph below discusses the interrelatedness between leadership and management.

2.4 The relationship between leadership and management

Earley and Weindling (2004) affirm that there are many scholars who distinguish between leadership and management. For instance Bush and Bell (2002), Daresh (2006), Wallace and Paulson (2003); Tomlinson (2000) acknowledges that the two concepts overlap and that both are essential for the success of an organisation. Earley and Weindling (2004) affirm the Office for Standards in Education (Ofsted) (2003:3) findings regarding leadership and management as follow, that: "strong leadership and good management are very important in bringing about improvement in schools, particularly in schools which are implementing special programmes

to address low achievement and social inclusion and those facing challenging circumstances; monitoring, evaluation and development of teaching and; the school's strategy for appraisal and performance management are aspects of management which are still in need of improvement in many schools; there is a strong link between the quality of leadership and management of the head-teacher (Principal and the key staff member in a school) and the quality of teaching; strong leadership and good management are very important in ensuring a broad and balanced curriculum in primary schools and good subject teaching in secondary schools and; the way in which the characteristics of strong leadership and good management are applied in different circumstances is of fundamental importance".

Bush and Bell (2002); Huber (2004) believe that any dichotomy drawn between leadership and management is false and dangerous, because effective schools require good leadership and good management. However, Donald, et. al. (2004) clarify that "leadership is providing vision and direction in a school, whereas management is ensuring that the organisational goals are achieved". Moreover, Moorosi and Bush (2011:59-75) affirm that "equal prominence for leadership and management need to be given equal prominence if schools are to operate effectively and achieve their objectives, even though leading and managing are distinct, they are both important". They also add that in the day-to-day work of the schools, principals "are rarely aware whether they are leading or managing in practice; they are simply carrying out their work on behalf of the school and the students".

It is clear from the definitions of leadership and management that the two concepts are related and both are concerned with the realization of quality education in a school. However, the essence of management and leadership in a school is hinged on effectiveness. Therefore, the concept of school effectiveness is elaborately discussed below.

2.5   School effectiveness

"One of the primary concerns of School Effectiveness Research (SER) is the question of what constitutes school effectiveness. It is seen as a concept often used in the literature of school management and improvement and often confused with school efficiency. That is, the capacity of a school to maximize its functions or the degree to which a school can perform school functions, given a fixed amount of school input" (Saleem, 2010:161-183). In addition, school effectiveness research is thus concerned with exploring differences within and

between schools and the objective is to investigate the relationship between explanatory and outcome factors. This involves choosing an outcome variable, such as examination achievement and studying differences between schools after adjusting for relevant background variables" (Creemers and Kyriakide, 2006:347-366). Some school effectiveness scholars write that "it is a concept that needs to be sub-classified under five levels - individual, institutional, community, society and international. Moreover, it can also be classified under five components-economic, social, political, cultural and educational" (Saleem, 2010:161-183).

Effective schools tend to share common characteristics. They are distinguished and are well organized, school activities are planned properly and above all, those who lead such schools adopt a consultative management approach, tend to be proactive and have a powerful vision. They have foresight and therefore always plan ahead, adopt a positive attitude towards life despite all the challenges and perplexities that may come their way, believe in striving for excellence and quality work didactically and outside the classroom environment. More so, all their stakeholders embrace the spirit and attitude of win-win and communicate effectively with themselves (Covey, 1992:235).

Some of the factors that contribute to school effectiveness according to Raynolds (2006:536-560) are: "the level of the distinct behaviour exhibited by teachers such as; clarity of questioning, high expectations, a pledge to academic achievement, lesson structuring which formed the core constructs of the teacher effectiveness tradition". Raynolds (2006:536-560) concluded that "whilst a conceptual factor such as ''the quality of the principal'' is a universal factor determining the level of a school's effectiveness in all the various countries of the world, work done within the precise operationalization of the effective principal differed according to the cultural context of individual societies".

Although school effectiveness research and characteristics abound, but some of the identified characteristics shared by effective schools according to few SER scholars include the leadership role of the principal, productive school climate and culture, the crucial factor of well managed institutions, school concerning more of their efforts on teaching itself, while at the same time promoting empathetic student care and learning–centred approaches in the classroom, monitoring of student progress, orderly and discipline school environment, on-site staff development to ensure a happy and efficient staff, the quality of the staff, keeping

parents informed and involved in students leaning and activities, effective instructional organisation and teaching and high expectations and requirement of students (Scheerens, 1990; Henderson and Mapp, 2002; Reynolds, Creemers, Stringfield, Teddlie and Schaffer, 2002; Verdis, Kriemadis and Parshiardis, 2003:155-169; Van de Grift, et.al., 2006:255-273).

The above conceptualization of school effectiveness informs us of the fact that there are several characteristics that can be used to measure school effectiveness, but most importantly, school effectiveness scholars like Sheerens (1999:1-50); Reynolds, Sammons, De Fraine, Townsend and Van Damme (2011:1-43) and so on, caution that context matters in the application of each or some of the school effectiveness characteristic to deal with student achievement oriented problems. Below is a review of previous studies relating to leadership and management in developing countries and elsewhere is discussed below.

2.5.1 A review of previous studies relating to leadership and management and school effectiveness

"Effective schools factors have been rarely examined in developing countries and it was found that in over 100 studies, effective schools factors were examined only three or four times" (Teodorovic, 2011:215-136). Therefore, previous researches on leadership and management in relation to school effectiveness have been reported in fragmentary manners, however, this study deals with a holistic exploration of leadership and management practices contributing to school effectiveness. In addition many studies have not recognized the multi-level nature of schooling impact (e.g. student, teacher, classroom, school, and District/State) level of academic performance. In these studies, the most significant issue of concern is the use of effectiveness concept and its association with concept of efficiency in the literature (Jansen, 1995:181-200).

Nevertheless, "it is equally evident that the efforts towards effective schooling in Sub-Saharan African countries must be peculiar to their contexts, national cultures and various local conditions in Africa. Therefore it is essential to review school effectiveness research studies conducted in Sub-Saharan settings in order to identify factors that are unique in promoting or discouraging effective schooling in relevant and particular contexts" (Guoxing, 2007).

Scheerens (1990:1-50) reviewed school effectiveness research evidences from developed and developing countries and findings in sum indicate a moderate impact of resource input, school organisational factors and a medium-sized impact on instructional conditions. It was further revealed that developing countries show a strong predominance of the input-process-output production function type in terms of school effectiveness. The review of school effectiveness in developing countries also shows greater frequency of resource input factors have a more significant impact than in the case of industrialized countries, as against little evidence on the impact of instructional conditions.

Moreover Adewuyi's (2008) study which dealt with school effectiveness and English language certification in Nigeria indicates support for many school effectiveness characteristics that have been attested to in the literature Characteristics such as; strong and purposeful school leadership, clear and articulated goals, high students achievement expectations, and so on. He also found that extramural lessons seemed to be an important feature in certain schools that achieved effective examination results, despite the fact that they lacked effectiveness characteristics and which he assumes might be peculiar to a third world country like Nigeria.

Furthermore, Adewuyi (2008) found that language-focused instructional strategies utilized by effective language teachers in Nigeria yielded differential results when compared to the meditational instructional strategies used by effective language teachers in Californian classrooms in the United States of America. Thus, it was concluded that these differences were a result of contextual cultural dissimilarity in the two developed and developing world domains.

Guoxing (2007) reviews other empirical research studies relating to school effectiveness in Sub-Saharan African countries such as Ethiopia, South Africa, Tanzania, Nigeria and Kenya respectively. In Ethiopia, "the central aim of the SER was to understand how school-based interventions could boost female enrolment and achievement. Extensive differences in girls' persistence throughout the primary schools were found. That is, girls attending schools in urban areas persisted at a higher rate and achieved better results in the national examination. On the other hand, girls attending larger, more formalized schools persisted longer, after controlling the influence of community factors".

The review of SER was "based on the theme of black schooling in South Africa. Black students were reported to have perceived that the operation of schools is complex and sometimes contradictory in context, even though the schools may have similar socio-economic background as defined in many quantitative school effectiveness studies. Similarly, in relation to values of democratic school management in developing countries towards the improvement of school effectiveness, an assessment of whether school councils assisted school effectiveness was carried out in two secondary schools in Tanzania. The review of findings revealed that the advantages of having school councils outweighed the disadvantages in the two schools".

In addition, a review of research findings which examine "the effect of single-sex and co-educational schooling on Ninth Grade students in two public schools was carried out in Nigeria. The study compared the effects of these two school organisational types on students' academic achievements and stereotyped views of mathematics based on students' sex. It was revealed that single-sex schooling affects the Nigerian girls positively in increasing mathematics achievement and in engendering less stereotyped views on mathematics learning. It was thus assumed that such schools had a powerful and positive effect on their female students".

In continuation of review of SER evidence in developing countries, Guoxing (2007) also cites research findings which investigated the likelihood of dropout and academic achievement of adolescent girls and boys in rural areas of three districts in Kenya, as the outcome measures of the effects of school quality (for instance, teacher credentials, teacher in-service training, instruction on-time/not interrupted, only English spoken in classes, etc.). It was reported among other things that school quality did not matter much for school dropout, particularly in the case of girls.

Guoxing (2007) concluded his reviews that "although systematic searching and identification of empirical studies were conducted in Sub-Saharan African countries, the empirical studies reviewed were not exhaustive. That suggests paucity of research conducted from the 1990s compared with the 1970s-1980s. Therefore there was an urgent need for more empirical studies to be conducted for sustainable and sufficient understanding of issues surrounding school effectiveness". Nevertheless in these reviews Guoxing (2007) deliberately "kept an open-ended conclusion in order to welcome suggestion and advice, which would serve as a

basis to facilitate on-going discussions on school effectiveness research in Sub-Saharan African countries".

Beyond the continent of Africa, a study aimed at improving research capacity and the evaluation of educational quality in China was conducted by Peng, Thomas, Yang and Li (2006:135-154) and they established that a significant difference in value-added processes appear to exist between senior secondary schools . Value added process is a relative boost that a school gives to pupils' previous attainment in comparison with similar pupils in other schools in attaining school effectiveness. Thus, it was found that some schools were more effective in one subject than another. That is, some schools were not always consistently effective in two subject areas – Mathematics and English Language – because assessment and raw results were only used as measures of school effectiveness.

Based on the year 2000 reports on the relationships between schooling outcomes and various school policies and practices in 13 Latin American Countries (Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Chile, Honduras, Mexico, Paraguay, Peru, the Dominican Republic, and Venezuela). Consequently, it was found in all the 13 countries that "the most effective schools appear to be those possessing the following: schools with high levels of resources in the school; whose classrooms were not multi-grade and whose students were not grouped by ability; schools where students where children in the classroom were tested frequently; with classrooms and schools with a high level of parental involvement; school classrooms that have conducive climate, particularly with respect to classroom discipline".

From the above, it may be concluded that research on internal school leadership and management, including its influence on school effectiveness has not been explored holistically. Thus a good combination of leadership and management skills possession should assist a school principal to achieve set objectives and goals of the school, through committed and competent teachers who share similar passion and vision to achieve quality education. Hence different theories/models of leadership and management are discussed in the paragraphs that follow.

2.6   Theories and models of education management and leadership

The concept of 'theory' relates to ideas and views formulated by individuals in a certain scientific area (in this case, leadership and management). A theory usually consists of a number of assumptions and presuppositions (hypotheses) that are established by means of research and each theory offers an explanation of events and behaviour of people in educational institutions (2007:2007:391-406). Furthermore, Bush (2007:2007:391-406) categorizes the main theories on education management into eight major models with their corresponding leadership models, but the numbers of the models have been reduced to fit into this research. The reason for reducing the number of the models is that only four pairs of the selected models from Bush's (2007:394) typology of management and leadership models match the structure of this study as indicated in Table 2.1 below.

Table 2.1:   *Typology of management and leadership models (Bush, 2007:391-406)*

Management model	Leadership model
Bureaucratic (Formal)	Managerial
Collegial	Transformational
Political (micro)	Transactional
Cultural	Moral
	Visionary
	Instructional

An organisation, like a school does not always represent a specific model. Rather and very often, it is a mixture or combination of models. Bush (1995:20) remarks as follows in this regard: "… it is rare for a single model to capture the reality of management in any particular school or college. Rather, aspects of several perspectives are present in different proportions of each institution".

Models of education management provide separate aspects of school administration and role players in the school may apply them consciously or unconsciously in a bid to attain school effectiveness (Bush, 2002). The different elements in the models could also be considered as dynamics leading to school effectiveness. The link between the different models in the table

above indicates that leadership and management can be given equal prominence if schools operate effectively (Bush, 2007:391-406). According to Table 2.1 below, management models are linked to one or more leadership models. In the following paragraphs the management and leadership models will be briefly discussed.

2.6.1 Bureaucratic (formal) model

The concept of bureaucracy is associated with the work of the German sociologist, Max Weber and has been the most powerful and pervasive theory of educational management that is most preferred in many countries of the world. Bush (2002) quotes Weber:

> *The purely bureaucratic type of administrative organisation is, from a technical point of view, capable of attaining the highest degree of efficiency and is in this sense formally the most rational means of carrying out imperative control over human beings. It is superior to any other form in precision, in stability, in its stringency of its discipline and in its reliability.*

"Bureaucracy is not a neutral form of organisation. It carries with it too, a host of values, beliefs, assumptions, forms of communication and processes for making decisions, prioritizing issues time consideration, resources. It is harbours a powerful culture that may be distributed to all the other cultures" (Brown, 2004:112). "From a cultural perspective, when power distance is high, school staff members that heavily rely on the principal may not be able to improve their personal mastery, because they may perceive themselves to have little power and few opportunities to make changes in school processes. In addition, from a broader perspective, principals may also not perceive themselves powerful enough to make changes, because of a centralized bureaucracy. This reliance on bureaucratic processes may reduce teacher's motivation to create personal and shared visions, towards working collectively to develop learning schools (Abu-Tineh, Khasawneh, and Al-Omari, 2008:648-660; Alavi and McCormic, 2004:408-416).

Features of bureaucracy

Hierarchical authority structure: According to Bush (2007:391-406), this structure is designed to allow vertical staff to be accountable to their super-ordinate in the hierarchy. In schools teachers are accountable to the principal through middle managers such as Head of

Departments (HOD), because in most cases, power resides in the principal based on legal authority and accountability.

School goals: Schools and colleges are goal-oriented (achievement-oriented) and staff members are expected to work towards achieving those aims set by school leaders.

Division of labour: There is a division of labour with staff specializing on the basis of expertise.

Rules and regulations: Decisions and behaviour are governed by rules and regulations rather than personal initiative. Schools usually have rules for students and teachers' behaviour. These rules may be extended to the central issue of curriculum and pedagogy.

A threat to professionalism is one of the articulate criticisms of bureaucracy. When curriculums are tightly defined, teachers have limited scope to use their professional judgment to tailor provision to the specific needs of the students. The essence of bureaucracy is to lead by fear and create a system of control that contribute to the use of the least levels of effort, organisational commitment and output (Fry, 2003:693-727). Bush (2007:391-406) further illustrates how the above discussed management model links with the managerial leadership model in the next paragraph.

2.6.2   Managerial leadership model

According to Bush (2007:391-406), "managerial leadership assumes that the focus of the leader ought to be on the functions, tasks and behaviour. If these functions are carried out competently, the work of others in the organisation will be facilitated. Most approaches to managerial leadership also assume that the behaviour of organisational members is largely rational. Authority and influence are allocated to formal positions in proportion to the status of different individuals in the organisational hierarchy".

Bush (2007:391-406) further explains that "it is significant that managerial type of leadership does not include the concept of vision, which is central to most leadership models, that is, managerial leadership is focused on managing existing activities successfully rather than envisioning a better future for the school. This approach is very suitable for school leaders

working in centralized systems as it prioritizes the efficient implementation of external imperatives, notably those prescribed by higher levels within the bureaucratic hierarchy".

Bush (2007:391-406) also states that "managerial leadership still remains important in the 21st century and that the importance of achieving functional schools is an essential requirement if learning is to take place - school effectiveness requires calm and orderly schools and classrooms. Managerial leadership is also suggestive of an older notion of leadership. One that characterizes the leader as a 'know-all manager' based on the assumption that if the leader is performing well; the organisation will also do better. Juli and Atmadja (2005:99-112) argue that "leaders should be proactive and empowering which, requires both high managerial and leadership skills, rather than being reactive and de-energizing, which is characterised by low managerial and leadership skills".

2.6.3   Collegiality model of management

Collegiality is an attractive model for educational organisation, because it provides for the participation of teachers in those decisions which affect their work lives. "More recent conceptions of educational leadership reveal a move away from authoritarian models of decision-making towards more collegial views, on role relations between school principals and staff" (Steyn, 2005:44-49).

Features of collegiality model

- Collegiality assumes an authority of expertise in contrast to the positional authority associated with bureaucracy. That is, teachers have specific expertise as subject specialists as well as general competence as educational professionals. The authority of expertise also refers to the expert power of the teacher.
- Teachers have a common sense of values emanating from the socialization which occurs during the training and professional practice. These common values are taught in order to lead to shared aims.

The transformational leadership model is discussed below. This model has a link with the collegial model of management discusses above.

2.6.4 Transformational leadership model

Transformational leadership assumes that the fundamental emphasis of leadership ought to be about commitments and capacities of organisational members. Transformational leadership ensures commitment from the followers. Both leaders and followers want to achieve and become the best and are united in the pursuit of the higher-level goals common to them. Also, both leaders and followers want to shape the school in a certain direction. The transformational approach seems to be more people oriented (Leithwood et. al., 1999:9).

Wilmore and Thomas's (2001:115-123) description of transformational leadership is about power sharing between the leader and the followers, rather than the leaders' sole exercise of power over followers. The transformational leaders "are often associated with charisma, even though these types of leaders have additional characteristics such as vision development and abilities to motivate the followers, both of which reside in the relationship between the leaders and followers" (Juli and Atmanja, 2005: 99-112; Abu-Tineh, et. al., 2008:648-660). In addition, transformational leadership empowers followers, therefore the goal of leaders is to use their power to help followers "to accomplish what they think are important, help them become successful and experience a greater sense of efficiency". Anderson (2008:8-17) discusses the possibility of teachers being transformational in the classroom context and asserts that transformational leadership by teachers does exist in the classroom where effective teaching is practised. However, the main finding of Ross and Gray's (2006:179-199) study reveals that collective teacher efficacy is a partial rather than a complete mediator of the effects of transformation leadership on teacher commitment to organisational values.

Although relatively modest in size, the body of empirical evidence about the effects of transformational leadership in school contexts attests to its suitability in schools, but faced with a significant challenge for change and greater accountability (Day, Hall and Coles, 2000; Leithwood, et. al., 1999). It supports the contribution of this form of leadership, when exercised by principals to a wide array of individual and organisational outcomes (e.g. Leithwood et al., 1994) paralleling claims made for this approach to leadership in non-school contexts.

Hence, Eshbach and Henderson (2010:16-48) found that new elementary principals not only perceive their style of leadership to be more transformational in nature, but realize the

significant role that transformational leadership plays in effectively managing, building and maintaining the role of instructional leader. They concluded that principals' have strong understanding that a more transformational approach to leadership is more conducive to success as a principal.

Leithwood (1994) in Bush (2007:391-406) "conceptualises transformational leadership along eight dimensions as follow: building school vision; establishing school goals; providing intellectual stimulation, offering individualised support; modeling best practices and important values, demonstrating high performance expectations, creating a productive school culture and developing structures to foster participation in the school decisions". Niemann and Kotze (2006:609-624) thus claim that the arts of encouraging, modelling and encouraging the heart through principals engagement in challenging the process, were significantly related to the dimension of solidarity that should exist in a school with a positive culture.

Murphy (2005) as quoted by Anderson (2008:8-17) concludes:

> *"We have also learned that leadership is as much a property of the school and its culture as it is a dimension of administrative roles. In the current teacher leadership scenario it is not simply the principal that must be the instructional leader, butalso teachers by going wider and deeper: wider in extending their leadership to school wide concerns and deeper in using this school wide influence to increase teaching efficacy in the classroom".*

"In a very real sense, transformational leadership is conceptualized as time bounded and dependent on frontier thinking, but most people spend their work lives being led by individuals in an uninspired organisational core. However, inspired leadership occurs at a particular point in time, in a particular place during revolutionary moments and originate from the edges of organisations. This workforce goes about completing the day-to-day work that needs to be accomplished for the organisation to maintain its current operations and structure" (Leipzip, 2004:128-135).

The micro (political) model is discussed below.

2.6.5   Political micro-politics model

Micro-politics refer to political activity which takes place inside the school or colleges. It may be contrasted with macro-politics which relate to debate and disagreement within the wider policy-making process (Bush, 2007:391-406). Giese, Slate, Brown and Tejedo-Delgade (2009:1-10) suggest that at best principals strive to provide vision and unity of purpose within challenging, dynamic and highly political settings.

Features of micro-politics model

- Departmental and sectional approach to decision-making, because of focus on group activity rather than the whole institution.
- Individuals have a variety of interests which they pursue within the organisation.
- Individual groups and interest groups make conflict prevalent as a result of micro-politics.
- Interests are promoted in committees and decisions are reached during informal meetings, where differences may be resolved after a multi-stage process.
- The idea of power is central to micro-politics as decisions are made based on relative power of participants.
- The transactional leadership model is discussed below and it links with the political/micro-political management model above.

2.6.6   Transactional leadership model

"Transactional leadership is leadership in which relationships with teachers are based upon an exchange for some valued resource in the school" (Bush, 2007:391-406). Thus transactional leadership is pre-determined on exchange of rewards as against performance and focuses on motivating employees by pleasing their higher demand needs. (Fry, 2003:693-727 and Thomas, 2000) explains that transactional leadership can be seen as a contract between the leader and his or her followers. The leader gets an agreement from the followers that they would work towards the achievement of organisational goals, while the leader agrees to good working conditions and the satisfaction of the followers' needs, which thus leads to a condition of motivation.

In addition "though the contribution of transactional leadership may lead to a high level of intrinsic motivation in the workplace, but it requires some degree of autonomy or self-management. Intrinsically motivated workers feel competence and relatedness through working in empowered teams that directs team activities toward a meaningful purpose and doing something the staff members regard as significant and meaningful. Individuals in empowered teams have a sense of ownership of the work and are completely engaged in its tasks, which require their best thinking and creativity. They take pride in their work and are excited in having a sense of progress and seeing the results of their efforts" Extrinsic motivation otherwise comprise of activities that facilitate issues external to the individual. For example, promotions, pay increases, bonus cheques, pressure to perform, insurance benefits, and vacation time (Fry, 2003: 693-727). Extrinsic rewards originate externally and require meeting or exceeding the expectations of others. Under extrinsic motivation, individuals feel compelled to engage in task behaviour from an outside source, to satisfy lower order needs and to provide what they need (e.g. money) to survive.

Factors considered within the sphere of transactional leadership according to Harms and Knobloch (2005:101-124) are: "Contingent reward leaders – those leaders who engage in a constructive path-goal transaction of reward for performance, clarify expectations, exchange promises and resources, arrange mutually satisfactory agreements, negotiate for resources, exchange assistance for effort and provide commendations for successful follower performance; Management-by-Exception (active) leaders: these are leaders who monitor follower's performance and take corrective action if deviations from standards occur and enforce rules to avoid mistakes. and; Management-by-Exception (passive) leaders: those are leaders who fail to intervene until problems become serious and wait to take action until mistakes are brought to their attention". However, such transactional leadership will only bring about mediocre or worse results at work (Juli and Atmadja, 2005: 99-112).

2.6.7   Culture management model

Culture may be regarded as one of several alternative means of understanding organisations, or a holistic way of understanding the concept. The concept of organisational culture emphasizes the values, beliefs and norms of people in the organisation and how these individual perceptions combine to form shared organisational meanings (Bush, 2007:391-406).

Leithwood and Jantzi (2006:201-227) state that "there is a general consensus on the impact of lack of the existence of cultural resources on efficiency and effectiveness. For instance, legitimate teacher appraisal and evaluation in effective schools studies are non-existent, owing to a lack of consensus on the fundamental evaluation principles, evaluation criteria and evaluation instruments. While crucial initiatives on quality education surface through policy and public debate at all levels of government, the gap between policy and practical implementation of school culture is widening minute by minute".

An investigation on learning-centred leadership establishes the central role of the school principal and leadership team and illustrates the extent to which school culture facilitates school improvement and shown the need to focus on raising achievement (Barker, 2003:21-43). The following are the features of cultural model:

Features of organisational culture model

- The central focus of organisational culture is on the values, beliefs and attitudes of individuals within the schools and colleges, but they may not always be explicit. Many beliefs are however so deeply buried that individuals do not even know what they are. Individual values combined gradually lead to shared norms and meaning which become parts of the school or college, symbolizing "the ways we do things around here".
- School culture is usually expressed through rituals and ceremonies such as assemblies' symbols, price 'givings', religious occasions and graduation ceremonies which are used to celebrate beliefs and norms. Culture assumes the existence of heroes and heroines as an embodiment of the school and the school gives prominence to those whose triumphs (e.g. in sport, music, drama, etc) match the aspirations of the school.

The relevance of the link between the cultural and the moral management model is apparent in the discussion of the following moral leadership model.

2.6.8   Moral leadership model

According to Bush (2007:400), moral leadership is linked to the cultural model of management. "This model assumes that the critical focus of leadership ought to be on the values, beliefs, and ethics of leaders themselves. Authority and influence are to be derived from defensible conceptions of what is right or good. Excellent schools have central zones composed of values and beliefs that take on sacred or cultural characteristics" and; moral leadership bring about the display of vision, deep humanitarian values; create vision and the core values of humility, altruistic love and genuineness that are also common to all ethics and value-based approaches to leadership (Fry, 2003:693-727).

Brown and Anafara Jr. (2003:16-34) "provide evidence that moral and ethical leadership allows teachers, parents, and kids to trust in the school. They always know there are honesty, integrity, mutual respect and trust, which create a culture in a school that allows all things to be possible when morals are exhibited". In addition, Easley ll (2008:25-38) found in her research that principals recognize teachers as professionals and support them through dialogue and focussing on the right things.

Principled-centred leaders exercise the above named elements of moral value principles from the 'inside-out' and at the personal, interpersonal, managerial, and organisational levels to unleash the creativity, talent and energy of a workforce. Bush (2007:391-406) also states that "moral and managerial leadership are required to develop a learning community". He writes further that the challenges of leadership for the principal are to make peace with the competing moral and managerial aspects of leadership, because they are two imperatives and the neglect of either creates problems.

The visionary leadership which may give rise to positive instructional leadership is discussed below.

2.6.9   Visionary leadership

In exhibiting visionary leadership (Nahavandi, 2003; Juli and Atmanja, 2005: 99-112; Abu-Tineh, et. al., 2008:648-660), the principal must be focused, be concerned to enhance individual student performance, through comprehensive and flexible curriculum and improved

status and means of teachers. Brown and Anafara Jr. (2003:16-34) research findings indicate that visionary leadership in action involves an initial exploration of possible change areas, discussions and education regarding the issues involved and support, commitment, and ownership. Niemann and Kotze (2006:609-642) found that a strong relationship between a principal's behaviour as regards an inspiration of a shared vision and his/her attempts to enable the staff to act in nurture sociable element in the school culture.

The combination of the education leadership and management models irrespective of the products of their paired links, categorically results in effective instructional delivery by teachers in the classroom, leading to school effectiveness. Therefore, the instructional leadership model is discussed below.

2.6.10   Instructional leadership model

"Instructional leadership is a very important dimension because it targets the school's central activities, teaching and learning. However, this paradigm underestimates other aspects of school life, such as sport, socialisation, student welfare, and self-esteem. Instructional leadership is strongly concerned with teaching and learning, including the professional learning of teachers as well as students' growth" (Bush, 2006:391-406). Good school instructional management must promote a positive school climate or hold an image or a vision of what should be accomplished (Greenfield, 1987:190). Also, it focuses on matters related to instruction and the classroom performance of teachers (Greenfield, 1987:60). Khan, Ahmad, Ali and ur-Rehman (2011:2668-2678) found that "school principals are aware of the importance and value of providing professional support and treating staff professionally, expecting a high standard of professionalism in return".

In a study of highly effective primary schools in England, Earley and Weindling (2004) found that the emphasis of learning was on giving feedback by both staff and students. The senior staff members were regarded with high esteem, offered much respect, credibility and seen as first-rate practitioners and as 'leaders of learning' by the school head. Quinn (2002:447-467) and (Printy, Marks and Bowers, 2009:504-532) also describe the principal as "an effective instructional leader performing at high school level in four areas – resources provider, instructional resource, communicator, rational planner and providing visible provision in the

school". This aims at improving students' achievement and also has a direct impact on teachers' instruction in the classroom. By implication, principals of schools strive to promote academic excellence in their schools by giving prominence to academic achievers.

However, the findings of Kruger (2003:206-211) indicate that principals did not have the time to practice instructional or educational leadership as they wished to. That is, many of the formal or structured instructional leadership tasks, which include aspects of curriculum management and supervision, are delegated to heads of department or subject heads and that, they as principals influenced the instructional programme in a more indirect way. In essence, the direct supervision of teaching in both schools is delegated to the various subject heads; hence, it was not effectively carried out, but Atanda and Jaiyeoba found a significant relationship between supervision of instruction by school principals, hence students' academic achievement.

In summary, the comparison between the various models of leadership and management point to some similarities and inter-relatedness. It also indicates that effective schools are characterized by hierarchical authority structures based on accountability of subordinates to superiors within the school (bureaucracy) and the ultimate regard for procedures, rules and regulations which are achieved through successful management of existing activities based on the vision of the school (managerial leadership). More so, collegiality is through a more participative and consensus decision making between key role players within the school (principal, vice-principal, HODs, teachers and students' leaders) and could result in mentorship and increased leadership capacities of the teachers and students.

More so, conflicts in effective school are also solved through the process of negotiation and consensus (political), which results in the exchange of values, for instance, reward for performance or vice-versa (transactional). These stem from the values, beliefs and norms that are consciously designed to constitute the culture of the school (cultural) and which are morally bounded - the formulation of what is accepted as good or bad - to regulate the activities of individuals in the school (morals). As a consequence, the connectivity of these models will definitely lead to the effective achievement of the core mission of the school through the instructional model, which is pivotal to the essence of a school.

Having briefly discussed the leadership and management models and their inter-relatedness, it is necessary to discuss how the literature contributes to the components of the theoretical model adopted in this research and in relation to school effectiveness.

2.7   Education leadership and management model

2.7.1   Brief description of the model

As indicated in paragraph 2.5, the concept "model", relates to the grouping or joining of a number of theories in a single model. A model is a representation of a matter in a reduced form. The Education Leadership and Management Model gives a holistic picture of the leadership and management roles of educational leaders in schools. The point of departure of the model is that education leadership and management ought to be basically concerned with the aim of education namely; to ensure quality teaching and learning. It also acknowledges the central role of the educational leader to direct the actions and activities of teachers, students and parents.

The model also recognizes the existence of the different management and leadership models from which education leaders can select from, when facing problems and dealing with every day issues. The model further acknowledges the managerial (bureaucratic), transformational, contingency, moral and instructional roles of the educational leader in the school. The Education Leadership and Management Model is however, a brief summary of the leadership and management role and task required of the principal and other members of the SLMT in a school (University of Pretoria, 2010:38).

Education leaders' decisions make the difference between conflict and harmony, disruption and stability, prosperity and decline, success and failure, work satisfaction and dissatisfaction, cooperation and obstruction and whether the school attains its goals or fails to do so. The principal and other SLMT members decide directly on cardinal matters such as, the vision, mission and the aims of the school; the quality of its service and the use and implementation of existing and new resources. Whatever management decides has a direct influence on the students, teachers, parents and indirectly, the broader community (Van Deventer and Kruger, 2003:65-68).

According to the Education Management and Leadership Model (adapted from Prinsloo 2009, illustrated in Figure 2.1 below), every actions and activities in a school revolves around the most important resources (middle circle) in the school. These include human resources (staff, students and parents, etc.), school finance (money), physical resources (buildings, furniture, text books, exercise books, educational aids, etc.) and time (tuition time-table). The effective utilization and development of resources in a school are dependent on the management and leadership skills of education leaders and they may have an influence on school effectiveness.

Kroon (1991:17) briefly describes the three basic management skills that managers should have, as follows:

- Conceptual management skills are the mental ability to see the organisation as a whole, co-ordinate, integrate all the interests and activities thereof. They mainly relate to effective task execution.
- Human skills are concerned with the ability to work with people, appreciate and to motivate them. This includes leadership abilities to lead, motivate individuals, enhancement of effective group communication and establishment of sound interpersonal relationships.
- Technical management skills concern the everyday ability to use techniques and procedures which aid the school's everyday smooth operation.

As stated earlier, excellence in a school relates to the quality of the discharge of its core activities - teaching and learning. Effective teaching and learning are not possible unless there is a healthy internal management environment in which optimal teaching and learning can take place. Knowledge of conceptual, human and technical management skills is required to create a positive organisational culture and climate in schools and to encourage change. In addition, the relationship between teachers, students, parents and the State Ministry of Education is regulated by legislation and policy, but leaders must also take into account the political, socio-economic, technological, demographic factors, because the school itself is also dynamically interactive with its external settings (Owens, 2001:143).

Effective leadership and management are crucial, because the present and future state of any school depends on its leader's ability to lead and manage a school effectively. The basic

responsibilities of any education leader are the realization of the school's vision and the achievement of predetermined aims and objectives; by means of effective planning, making or implementing policy, decision-making, problem-solving, organising, delegating, coordinating and control.

The first responsibility focuses on effective and successful task execution in order to contribute to school effectiveness. Therefore an education leader should be concerned with the level at which predetermined set of aims and objectives of the school are achieved; he should also make sure that followers define tasks according to predetermined standards and; should also see to it that the pre-determined aims and objectives are achieved according to a set time schedule (University of Pretoria, 2010:43).

2.8 Conceptual management (skills) contributing to effective task execution in a school

Conceptual skill consists of the ability of a school manager to analyze a situation, and differentiate between cause and effect. They are often gained through formal education, reflection and experience (Jones and George, 2009:17-18); and such skills are mostly vital in leadership (Mumford, Campion and Morgeson, 2007:154-166). Conceptual skills help managers to analyse complex situations (Robbins, 2000: 548). These comprise of skills related to competences such as collecting, processing, learning, disseminating information through oral and written communication (Mumford, Campion and Morgeson, 2007:154-166). Thus, school principals need more conceptual skills and less technical skills than teachers (Robbins, 2000:548). Moreover, position such as that of the school principal has been found to be significant in enacting a school's vision and performance (Voges, Tworoger and Bendixen, 2009:27-48).

The conceptual management skills are planning and visualizing (policy-making, decision-making and problem-solving; organizing, coordinating and control and will briefly are discussed as follow.

2.8.1   Planning and visualizing

Effective planning and visualizing is dependent on clear set aims and objectives, well formulated policy, informed decision-making and problem-solving. Planning is one of the most important skills to be mastered in order to become a successful principal or educational leader and it is dependent on a clear set of aims and objectives, well formulated policy, informed decision-making and problem-solving, forward thinking and assessment, as well as planning and deciding on priorities. The planning aspect of teaching and educating is so important that it alone can determine the failure or success of an education leader (University of Pretoria, 2010:45).
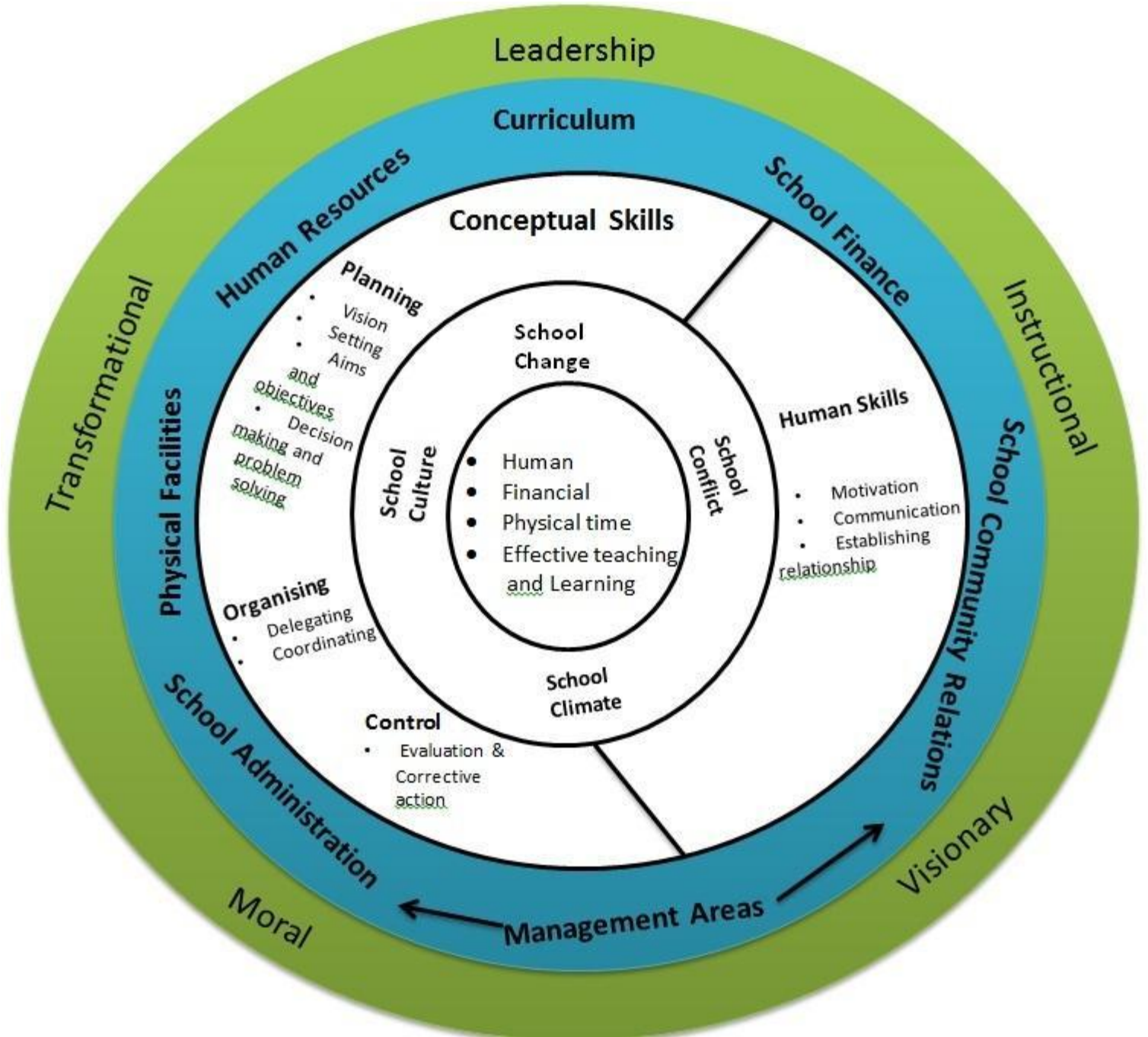
Figure 2.1: Education leadership and management model (Adapted from Prinsloo, 2009)

Planning can therefore be regarded as one of the most important functions of education managers, because it forms the basis of all the other management functions. Effective planning is time consuming and may be regarded as a creative/critical thinking activity, or often referred to as visualization. The leader has to think well ahead and focus attention on what is to be done, how and where it is to be done; who should do it and have a good reason for each step in order to achieve the aims and objectives of a school (Van Deventer, 2003:78).

Planning and visualizing is an essential process of team work and it describes the manner in which a team organizes its tasks. To plan one must first have a clear vision of the desired future for the organisation. A pioneer in interactive planning emphasizes that a picture of the organisation's aspirations and where it ultimately wants to be, are essential. Creating a vision is an integral part of the planning stage of interactive planning, where the current system is redesigned to create an idealized future design (Steinbacher and Smith, 2009:30-36), hence, Kung's (2008:31-46) finding explains that "when the extra-time and energy demanded by planning and decision-making are balanced by real authority, teachers report satisfaction and enthusiasm".

The development, communication and accomplishment of the school's vision are among the education leader's most important tasks. Leadership has much to do with what is going to happen in the future of the school (Love, 1994:123). Creating a vision for the school is like allowing the leader's creative imagination to develop what his or her school would be like when its potential is fully realised. Vision building is like imagining the end result and vision implementation in doing everything that is necessary to get to planned objectives and goal. It is the task of the education leader to accomplish this (Sterling and Davidoff, 2000:89; Love, 1994:124). Moreover, vision provides direction and a challenge towards something worthwhile to work for and to strive after. It is however, important that all stakeholders in the school identify with the vision (Sterling and Davidoff, 2000:89). The vision of a school should include:

Focus on teaching and learning - The visions of different schools will probably be the same in the sense that they will focus on the core business of schools, namely teaching and learning, but each school may formulate its vision differently depending on the context within which the school functions.

Values and vision - As values are at the heart of the vision formulation process, it is essential for the school leader to remember that the values that the leader embodies may tend to be the values shared by the staff and parent-community.

The vision should be inspirational - The vision must motivate everyone in the school community, so it needs to play on their imagination and willingness to strive towards an ideal. The right words to achieve this are important as it is the ability to formulate an ideal that is inspiring (Sterling and Davidoff, 2000:93).

The vision should be realistic - The vision must build on the school's real circumstances, strengths and possibilities for it needs to be realistic and achievable. If it is not, people will not be motivated to strive for it (Sterling and Davidoff, 2000:93-95).

The vision should be communicated - Education leaders need to take every opportunity to communicate the vision of the school to the school community orally and in a written format that is clear, regular, systematic and convincing manner. It is also important to always remember that an education leader is the most important communicators of the school vision (Love, 1994:132-133).

The vision should be implemented - This implies that there is no sense in formulating a vision that is not implemented.

Planning involves answering three basic questions, namely:

- Where are we now? (Assessment of the present situation/identifying the needs of the school)
- Where do we want to be? (Setting the aims and objectives)
- How can we get there (from here)? (Planning process)

The principal as the head of the school management team should "encourage the team planning process to involve cognitive and verbal elements, whereby team members jointly conceptualize and comprehend the various components of their task, its purpose and meaning to the team and how best to proceed with task execution" (DeChurch and Hass, 2008:542-568). Planning in the case of public secondary schools allows for the enhancement of the level of efficiency, effectiveness and quality education.

For planning to be effective, it must adhere to different requirements. For example, it must be realistic and feasible and requires much detailed attention before an activity is initiated. It should take place within the framework of national and regional educational policy; begin with the principal and be confirmed in writing, various people may contribute to the planning process, it should be ascertained that everyone concerned understands the plan and that it is interpreted correctly, the process of planning should include setting aims and objectives (Cele, 2005:223-236).

2.8.1.1 Setting aims and objectives

Aims and objectives give rise to planning, vision and mission. Aims and objectives are some of the platforms on which aims and objectives can be built. Some of these platforms can be very confusing, but the essence of all four concepts is directed at achieving specific results in the future and they are directly related to effective planning (University of Pretoria, 2010). They are:

Vision: This refers to a future expectation or idea (a dream) relating to the school. For example, when the sculptor looks at a dry tree trunk he has the ability to visualize the figure he wants to carve from the wood.

Mission: This refers to questions like: Why are we here? What is the purpose of our school? The answer to such questions will be, the mission of our school is to render a service of quality education with a view to educate independent and responsible citizens, etc.

Aims: Aims refer to the broad medium or long-term aims of your school. The following are examples of aims: to create a safe school environment in which effective teaching and learning can take place; to improve our Mathematics Grade 12 results within two years from 45% to 60% and to improve our parent involvement at school activities etc.

Objectives: Objectives refer to the more measurable, short-term objectives that should be accomplished in a specific time. Objectives could be used to achieve the aims of the school, for example: aims could be to improve the Mathematics results; hence the following objectives could be, to arrange extra Mathematics classes on Saturdays by an expert or to

encourage the teachers responsible for Mathematics to improve their qualifications in mathematics etc.

In conclusion, it is clear from the above that effective planning and visualizing is a product of conscious and modelled teamwork based on foresight. For planning to be effective, there must be aims and objectives and team members' vital contribution based on collective critical thinking ahead of what is to be done. All SLMT members must be incorporated in the planning of programmes in dealing with problems relating to curriculum issues in the school, because their contribution(s) will constitute part of the future goals (vision) of the school. However, decisions reached based on the internal planning in the school must be within the framework of regional or state and national education framework. The school principal should also let every SLMT member understand the various components and challenges of their task in the process of planning to enable a level of expected efficiency and effectiveness that will aid quality educational results.

Planning gives rise to policy-making, decision making and problem-solving; organizing, delegating coordinating and ultimately, controlling. In the next paragraph the importance of policy making will be discussed.

2.8.1.2   Policy making

In relation to the school, policy usually means some general plan of action that is designed to achieve the aims and objectives of the school. Policy consists of general statements or interpretations that guide the thinking of education leaders when making decisions. Since policy serves as a guideline for decision-making, it implies that management must allow some discretion by those who implement the policy otherwise it would be formulated as a set of rules (Prinsloo, 2003:42; Kruger and Van Schalkwyk, 1997:34). It should also serve as a guideline to the actions and behaviour of school teaching and non-teaching staff, students and parents (Prinsloo, 1993:42; Kruger and Van Schalkwyk, 1997:34). In any school, there should be well formulated policy regarding the six managerial areas in a school namely: The management of staff affairs; the management of student affairs (curriculum and extra-curriculum); the management of school finance; the management of the physical facilities; the management of school community relationships and the management of school administrative affairs.

According to Kruger and Van Deventer (2003:92), five steps in drawing up and administering policy are:

Step 1: Formulating policy: This starts by determining the purpose of the policy, development of a tentative outline, discussion of alternative courses of action, asking who will be affected by the policy, who will finally be responsible for the implementation and what the effect will be on the quality of education at the school?

Step 2: Approving policy: Review draft policy for accuracy, brevity and comprehensiveness, ascertain who should clear it before taking further action and find out what level of authority is required for the final recommendations.

Step 3: Releasing and interpreting policy: This implies Timing of the policy to be released, the manner of release and ensuring that every teacher receives a copy of the approved policy.

Step 4: Putting policies into effect: This is about ensuring responsibility, accountability and authority for putting policy into effect and clarification of administrative controls and determining who is accountable for what and the control that is established by the policy.

Step 5: Keeping policy up-to-date: Review, evaluate and report on the results of carrying out the policy.

Policy-making is never a once-off planning action. Schools are part of a dynamic and changing environment and it entails continuous management task. It also creates broad general guidelines, implies planning, relates to school aims and is based on values. It influences the management task of the educational leader and manager, has long-term validity and involves the utilization of resources (Van der Westhuizen, 1997:151). "The policy-making capacity of schools ought to therefore be developed as a concept and its possible application to other activities in schools should also be tested" (Vanhoof, et. al., 2009:667-686).

Policy makers at executive departmental level of education hold principals accountable for student achievement, but principals' ability to meet this challenge depends on their expertise (Spillane, White and Stephan, 2009:128-151). Hence, findings of Legotlo, Maaga, Sebego,

van der Westhuizen, Mosoge, Nieuwoudt and Steyn (2003:113-118) indicate that "some schools did not have clear policies relating to the instructional programme, such as classroom visits, homework policy, comprehensive subject policies that included policy on assessment and computation of final examination marks".

In summary, school policy is a general plan of action regarding the running of the school management areas namely; staff affairs, management of the curriculum, school finance, physical facilities, administrative affairs and the management of school-community relationships. Well-thought-out and good formulated school rules, procedures and policy serve as a detailed plan for school management. School rules and procedures also ensure that everybody knows what to do, when to do it and how to do it, especially where it concerns programmed or routine decisions. Thus decision-making and problem-solving will be briefly discussed in the next paragraph as it is a consequence of policy making.

2.8.1.3   *Decision-making and problem-solving*

According to Van Deventer (2003:95-97) decision-making involves a choice between one or more alternatives. It is a thought process directed at the achievement of the school's aims and objectives. Problem-solving is the process of making and carrying out a decision that will overcome an obstacle that stands in the way of achieving an aim or objective. The effectiveness of decisions plays a decisive role in determining the success of planning and eliminating problems. Furthermore, decision-making and problem-solving are two fundamental activities of the management process. The reason is that almost every management task, be it planning, organizing, leading, or control, involves a decision on a problem that must be solved; or a decision to overcome an obstacle, or to address a situation that needs to be changed. Every plan of action requires taking decisions on how to execute it and in the most effective way, who will be responsible for the execution and when it must be completed.

Decision-making is an attempt to solve problem(s) in the school. According to Lunenburg and Ornstein (1991) and Van Deventer (2003:103), an important principle of decision-making is participation in the decision-making process by all interested parties. Although, it is not possible for an education leader to consult everybody every time before he or she can make a decision or solve a problem, it is however important to involve those staff members,

students or parents in the decision-making process when it affects them. Participative management contributes to:

Increase decision quality: In a group, there is a greater sum total of expertise, knowledge and information than in any one individual.

Decision creativity: Group members have different perspectives from different frames of reference and experience which contribute to more creative thinking and thus to more feasible solutions to problems.

Decision acceptance: Participation increases the likelihood of the solution and the subsequent decision being accepted.

Decision understanding: Teachers who are involved in the decision-making process will have a better understanding of the context of the decision and will need no further information. Better cooperation between staff and staff members who feel involved are motivated to work together.

The first step in the decision-making process takes the form of asking questions as to when, where, how, why, of a problem in a bid to understand the nature and origin of the problem. Secondly, it's about the identification and understanding of the obstacles that stand in the way of solving the problem. Thirdly, is the identification of alternative solutions to the problem. The fourth step is about the evaluation of the different alternative solutions and deciding which one offers the best outcome. Lastly, it's about informing those that are likely to be affected by the preferred alternative and thereafter, the implementation of the decision chosen among the alternatives (Van Deventer, 2003:98-97). The Figure 3 below summarizes the decision-making process.
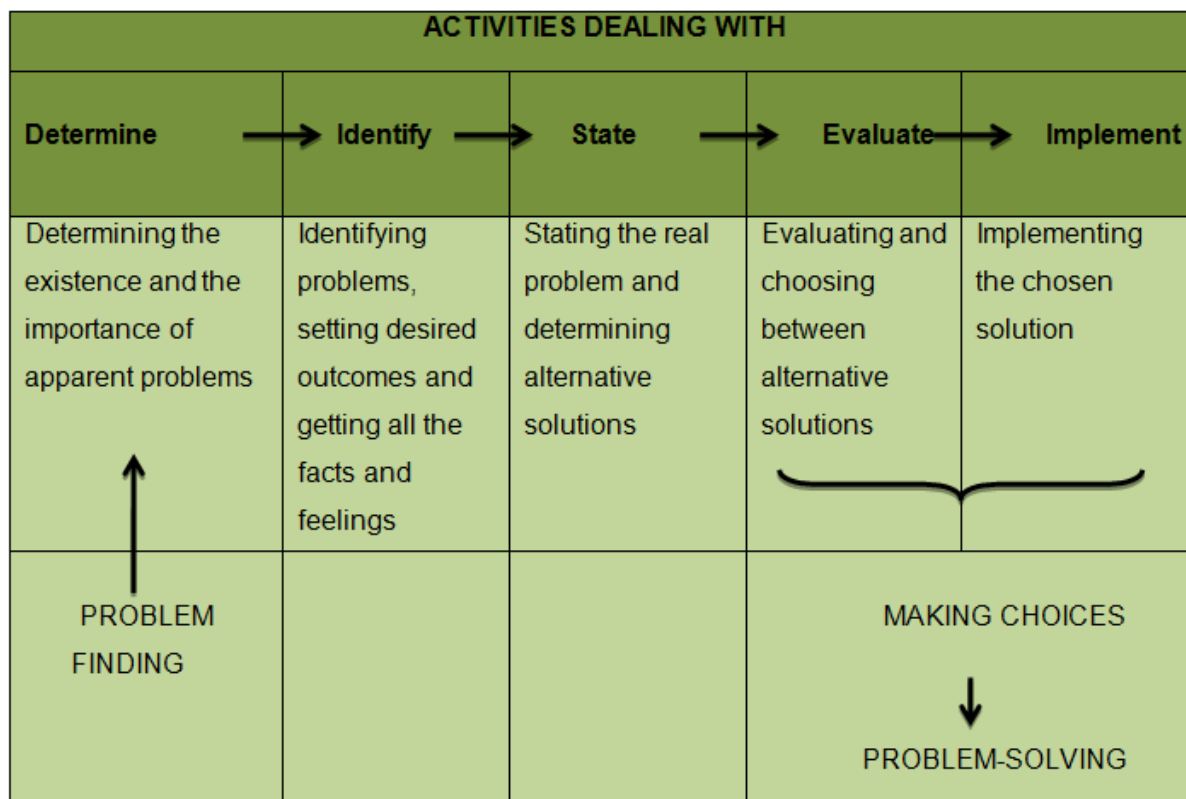
ACTIVITIES DEALING WITH				
Determine →	**Identify** →	**State** →	**Evaluate** →	**Implement**
Determining the existence and the importance of apparent problems	Identifying problems, setting desired outcomes and getting all the facts and feelings	Stating the real problem and determining alternative solutions	Evaluating and choosing between alternative solutions	Implementing the chosen solution
PROBLEM FINDING			MAKING CHOICES ↓ PROBLEM-SOLVING	

Figure 2.2: *Decision-Making Processes (Kruger and Van Deventer, 2003:97)*

The ideal decision-making process includes defining the problem clearly (principle of definition), all the relevant information required (principle of adequate evidence or information), having possible solutions or courses (the principle of differing perceptions). Although the following steps of the decision-making process may look relatively simple, decision-making and problem-solving are sometimes very difficult or even painful tasks. One of the greatest dangers is not to make any decisions at all, whenever a problem appears (Van Deventer 2003:97).

Research points to a changing role of the principal towards being the instructional leader of the school, good policy-makers and decision-makers (Lawrence and Spillane, 2008:435-468; Spillane, White and Stephan 2009:435-468). Spillane, White and Stephan's (2009:128-151) in their study, explained that proficient principals interpret and reflect on problem, reflect on their individual actions compared to intending principals.

Also, Kruger (2003:206-211) reveals that global changes are taking place in education that are resulting in the decentralisation of decision-making powers to school management level, which is further reinforces the principal to been recognized as the major the role of the principal as a key figure person providing effective teaching and learning.

It is clear from the foregoing that decision-making involves a choice between two or more alternatives to eliminate a problem. Therefore, for a school problem relating to the curriculum or student achievement to be solved, the school SLMT must work together through the necessary steps to solve problems; from the identification of the problem to the consideration of alternative solutions, through evaluation and the collective selection of the perceived best solution, down to the implementation and monitoring of the impact of the adopted solution to the problem. The process must however lead to a decision that leads to effective curriculum achievement. The best interest of the student and quality education should however always be taken into account when any curriculum-related decision is taken.

2.8.2   Organising in schools

Organising is the process of creating a structure for the school that enables its people to work together effectively towards achieving the school's aims and objectives. It is the implementation of what was planned and also based on the principle that tasks should be carried out effectively by people in the school in order to ensure the cultivation of a culture of teaching and learning. Organising involves developing *actions* or *mechanisms* that will contribute to the realisation of the school's aims and objectives.

In addition, organizing involves the implementation of planning and it is an indispensable step in the management process of a school (Van der Westhuizen, 1997:161; Prinsloo, 1993:52; Cronjé et. al., 1993: 94). Organising is a function that is most visibly and directly concerned with the systematic coordination of the many tasks of the school and consequently, of formal relationships between the people who perform these tasks (Smit and Cronjé, 1999:209). It is also the grouping of activities necessary to achieving common objectives. It however involves the assignment of each grouping to a manager with the authority necessary to perform the activities (Van Deventer: 207:150). Organizing is an indispensable step in the management process of a school based on the subsequent reasons:

Organizing - leads to a structure that indicates clearly who is responsible for what tasks in an organisation. It clarifies the staff's *responsibilities.*

Accountability- Whereby staff members account for the outcomes of the tasks that they are responsible for. Accountability links results directly to the actions of an individual or a group.

Clear channels of communication are established -This ensures that communication is effective and all information required by employees to perform their jobs effectively reaches them through the correct channels. If the meaningful distribution of *resources* is done, organizing helps*.*

The principle of synergy enhances the effectiveness a*nd quality* of the work perf*ormed.*

The total *workload of the school is divided* into activities to be performed by an individual or a group of individuals.

Organizing means systematically *grouping* a variety of tasks, procedures and resources, because the organising process entails in-depth analysis of the work to be done, so each person is aware of his/her duties.

The related tasks and activities of employees are *grouped together meaningfully*, in specialized departments so that experts in various fields can deal with certain tasks.

The school structure is responsible for creating a mechanism to coordinate the entire school (Smit and Cronjé, 1999:209). The organizing process in a school entails the work performed by managers in the school in arranging the workload and assigning the tasks necessary to achieve the objectives of the relevant departments or groups. It also provides the necessary co-ordination to ensure that these departments or groups work together as units – arranging the workload, assigning the tasks involved and setting up a framework or structure in accordance with which the work is to be done (Van Deventer, 2003:115).

In the process of organizing, the following questions must be answered: What must be done? Exposition of work - How should the work be divided? (Division of work – delegating tasks); which tasks must be grouped together? - Combination of work which tasks must be grouped

together? How should the work of the organisation be co-ordinated? - (Synchronise people and tasks to achieve the set aims and objectives) and How to evaluate and reorganize the work? – control and re-organisation - (Van Deventer, 2003:115). However, the following aspects of organizing must also be taken into consideration, that is, resources available to do the work (human; finance; physical/ and time); competency and willingness of staff members, time schedule to indicate when work should be completed, channels of communication to facilitate co-operation and leadership to guide and direct the work (Van Deventer, 2003:109).

Without organizing the successful implementation of plans and strategies would not be possible and the aim of creating a school environment in which effective teaching and learning will not be attained. It is imperative that there must be a systematic allocation of resources and people to execute the plans and this must be managed effectively (Kruger and Van Deventer, 2003:117).

Schools have various grouped structures, opportunities and processes for reflecting on teaching and organizing in a collective, all-encompassing way. This might have reflected in the way tasks and resources are distributed among the individuals or departments to set a plan or strategy in motion based on any of the four principles such as specialization and division of work, departmentalization, organisational structures and establishment of relations (Van der Merwe, 2003:111).

Without organizing, the successful implementation of plans and strategies would not be possible and the aim of creating a culture of effective teaching and learning would not be achieved. It is imperative that there should be a systematic allocation of resources (physical facilities, finance, educational aids, etc.) and competent people to execute the plans, and that this be managed effectively. Leadership and control is not possible if it does not clearly state who is responsible for carrying out and coordinating specific tasks (Van Deventer, 2003: 117-118). Therefore it is important to discuss the most efficient way to delegate tasks, responsibility to execute the task effectively and the authority to take independent decisions within the broad guidelines of departmental and school policy. Delegating will be discussed in the following paragraph.

2.8.2.1   Delegating tasks and responsibilities

The process by which the manager in a school distributes a portion of the total work load of teaching and learning to others is called delegation. It implies that the purpose of teaching and learning activities, extra-curricular and administrative works are entrusted in teachers and administrative staff by means of assignment. Hence, principals are held responsible not only for their performance, but also for the performance of all the teachers in the school (Van Deventer, 2003:108).

Capco (2007:2-3) explains that effective delegation "is usually methodical and meaningful. That is, the task that needs to be accomplished and the reason for it must firstly be identified. The expected results, timeframes and deadlines to get the information must also be clearly stated. Ultimate success with delegation includes a clear definition of what is to be accomplished, asking for commitment, showing support as a leader, and holding the person delegated for the task to be accountable. Therefore, the following steps must be followed consistently as a leader, when delegating: define the project, the goal, and deadline of the task, ask if there are any questions and make sure everyone is clear about the expectations; obtain an oral agreement to complete the task within the specified timeframe, let the staff know that the leader or leaders are available if any questions come up, provide a gentle reminder when the deadline is approaching, mark your calendar and ask for the results when the project is due and, say 'thank you' and acknowledge a job well done".

Delegation is the work managers perform when they entrust others with responsibilities and authority and when they create accountability for results. When managers delegate, they oblige others to do the work and to make decisions that otherwise would be theirs. When the principal delegate duties and tasks to a teacher, the responsibility and authority associated with the task must also be delegated. Through the delegating of authority teachers are given the authority they need to carry out their assigned responsibilities. By accepting responsibility and authority, teachers also agree to accept credit or blame for the way in which they carry out their assigned work (Van Deventer, 2003:118).

The concept of accountability has an added dimension for the principal. Principals are held responsible not only for their own performance, but also for the performance of all the teachers in the school. Thus, in spite of the fact that delegating means that responsibility and

authority are entrusted to others, the principal in this case the delegator remains primarily responsible and accountable for all activities as well as their execution. The principal's accountability cannot therefore be delegated to somebody else (Viljoen and Möller, 1992:151). What is however, important to understand is that deputy principals, HODs and teachers are not only accountable to the principal, but they are also accountable to the students and the parents-community.

There are different steps in the delegation process which should result in more effective delegation. According to Smit and Cronjé (1999:249), delegation starts when the educational leader analyses the work with members of his or her SLMT, analyse the work and then decides on the aims and objectives that must be realized. The second step is to divide the work into different activities and determine what results are expected, keeping the time limits and available resources in mind. In the third place, the educational leaders have to decide which tasks should be delegated. Tasks needing expertise can serve to develop teachers and should be delegated.

The next step is to start planning the delegation by deciding on the applicable authority and responsibility, incorporating expected standards and feedback mechanisms. It is important to take note of the level of delegation, the specific task, the level of authority and responsibility. These factors are important to determine who would be the most appropriate member of staff that the task could be delegated. The delegator she has to explain the aim and importance of the task and provide sufficient information on what needs to be done. The leader must also ensure that the necessary resources are available, that the person understands his or her responsibility and accepts the delegation. Standards of performance must be set and there must be an indication to whom and when the person must report back (Smit and Cronjé, 1999:249).

The last step in the process is to follow up to ascertain if more guidance is needed or to provide feedback and recognition for a task well done. This is in-line with what was stated earlier that, managers are not only accountable for their own performance, but they are also accountable for the performance of their subordinates (Smit and Cronjé, 1999:249).

Smit and Cronjé (1999:249) further provide the following principles of effective delegation:

Set standards and objectives: This is part of the planning process and it is specifically participative planning, in which staff members participate in the process of formulating objectives and agree with the criteria laid down for measuring performance. For example, if the teachers in the school are part of the planning process for setting a higher standard with regard to academic achievements, they would comply with the criteria of regular tests, examination and revision of work, as well as keeping the parents informed of the progress of their children.

Ensure clarity of authority and responsibility: Teachers must understand the tasks of teaching and learning and the authority to carry out these tasks assigned to them; recognize their responsibility for achieving better academic results and be held accountable for the results that they achieve.

Involve staff members: Managers should motivate staff members by including them in the decision-making process, informing them properly at all times and improving their skills.

Request the completion of tasks: By providing the necessary direction and assistance, managers can ensure that teachers complete the tasks assigned to them.

The principle of willingness and proficiency: A task should not be delegated to a person who is unwilling or not qualified to complete it successfully (Van der Westhuizen, 1997:174).

It may be concluded that, because of the complexities inherent in the leadership and management of the curriculum, the principal can for example, delegate the task, responsibility and the authority to supervise how successful the curriculum is being implemented in the classrooms. Once order has been created and the work in a school has been divided and delegated to individual staff members, the education leaders must see to it that all parts function together and efficiently like a system. Effective coordinating of people, work, resources, time-schedules and activities of a school will accomplish this (Van Deventer, 2003:122).

The management task of coordinating will be discussed in the next paragraph.

2.8.2.2   Coordinating

Van Deventer (2003:123) describes the concept of coordinating as dividing teaching and learning into specialized functions and departments in order to increase productivity, efficiency and at the same time, creating the need for the coordination of the divided work activities, thus integrating the aims and objectives of the individual or one department with those of all staff members as well as with those of the school as a whole. Effective coordination starts with sound viewpoints, attitudes, planning, staff competence, mutual confidence, the continuous, consistent integration of staff activities, positive team spirit and high morale, none of which can be attained unless those affected are happy with their leadership. The purpose of coordinating is as follows: developing team spirit and promote team work; ensuring cooperation between teachers and ensure that the school policy is uniformly applied.

Even, curriculum tasks may be delegated as a means of task distribution, the complexities of school leadership and management warrant the coordination of curriculum tasks, because it increases job performance through synchronization, the development of staff cohesion through warm relationships and the creation of team spirit to achieve curriculum effectiveness in the school.

According to Van Deventer (2003:123), effective coordinating starts with sound viewpoints, attitudes and planning. It also requires competent staff, mutual confidence and the continuous, consistent integration of the activities of all members of staff, a positive team spirit and high morale, none of which can be attained unless those affected are happy with their leadership. The organisational structure influences coordinating, because it determines the framework that governs all lines of command, channels of communication and patterns of relationships that must be integrated into a harmonious composite result. Coordinating brings into focus and simultaneously applies all principles and techniques outlined in planning, problem- solving and decision-making and organizing.

The methods described below can be used to coordinate the work in a school (Van Deventer, 2003:123-124).

Management meeting: Management meeting is held weekly or bi-weekly and in real large schools, it might be held daily and it is usually chaired by the principal. The deputy/vice-principal and heads of department attend it. It is essential that transparent two-way communication upwards, downwards and horizontally should be ensured from this meeting as it is the starting-point of all planning, organizing, coordinating, guidance and control of school activities in the management areas, i.e. staff, student activities (curriculum and extra-mural), school finance, physical facilities, administrative affairs and school community relationships. Test dates and examination dates, dates for meetings, dates for sport and cultural activities and other school activities should be planned in advance and included in term and year programme at this type of meeting. The management meeting could thus be used to coordinate the planned activities of the school but also to provide feedback on activities that have already been completed (staff appraisal and staff development).

Informal staff meeting: Informal meeting could be held in the staffroom every morning for ten minutes before school starts. It could be used to coordinate the planned activities contained in the year and term programme of the school, to give feedback on activities that have already been completed. The principal can acknowledge staff for their contribution to certain activities and student achievements. The principal could also inform or remind staff about departmental circulars, courses, meetings, etc. (Prinsloo, 2003:163).

Departmental and or subject meetings: According to Buchel (1993:137), every HOD is responsible for holding regular departmental or subject meetings. These should be held at least once a month to address issues such as the following correlation and coordination of the pace of all the teachers teaching a subject, discussion of problems arising from the syllabus, discussion of departmental circulars regarding instructional leadership, guidance of new teachers in implementing subject content, planning, compilation and checking of examination and test papers and memorandums (Prinsloo, 2003:165).

In conclusion, if the above methods described are used to coordinate teaching tasks in school, they will lead to synchronization of work activities, develop team spirit and team work, ensure that policy is interpreted and applied uniformly, engender feelings of responsibility for carrying out delegated tasks and to accept accountability for the successful execution of tasks, greater job satisfaction, improved productivity, better cooperation between teachers and better involvement in activities. Under these mentioned circumstances, the staff will be

happy and work together harmoniously. Controlling as a management function to ensure effective task execution in a school will be discussed in the following paragraph.

2.8.2.3   *Controlling (effective control of planned activities)*

Effective control is the management process through which education managers ensure the assessment and regulation of teaching and learning, work in progress and deviations from or failures of planned activities are kept to a minimum so that the school's objectives may be accomplished with as little disturbance as possible (Stoner and Wankel, 1986:574., Allen, 1997:5). Controlling is similar to planning in many ways. The major difference between planning and controlling is that, controlling usually takes place during or after the activity or action; whereas planning takes place before the activity or action (Rue and Byers, 2007:327). By implication, they planning and control are two important ends of the school management continuum.

During the planning stage of the school's activities the fundamental aims and objectives and the methods for attaining them are established. The control process measures progress towards those aims and objectives of the school and enable the principal and the staff members to detect deviations from initial plan in time to take corrective action before it is too late. During the planning process fundamental aims and objectives are established and methods to achieve them are decided upon. (Van Deventer, 2003:128). An effective education manager is therefore someone who follows up the planned activities and sees to it that the things that need to be done are in fact, carried out and the planned objectives thus attained. Each teacher and staff member of a school has an obligation to be involved in the control process, thereby ensuring that each one is engaged in the process of realizing the objectives of the school (Van Deventer, 2003:128).

Control is complementary to planning, because apart from revealing deviations, it also indicates whether plans should be revised as a result of environmental or other factors (Cronjé et. al., 1993:110). Control is the regulatory task of management in the sense that it enables the actual implementation of the plans and it is an important measurement aid in the execution of plans, hence it measures the performance of the whole school (Smit and Cronjé, 1999: 398). The people who do the planning are not always the same ones who control the

plans, but they must communicate with each other for both planning and control to be effective.

According to Smit and Cronjé (1999:399), the control system will indicate to management whether activities are proceeding according to plan and if so, plans that have been made must be simply continued with and therefore whether activities are proceeding according to plan or not. This may force the leader to adjust his or her plans if the situation has changed completely, leading to the formulation of a new plan. According to Van Deventer (2003:129), there are four steps in the control process, namely:

The first step involves the establishment of standards and criteria as well as methods to measure performance. For this step to be effective the standards must be specified in meaningful terms and be accepted by all teachers and students involved.

The second step is to actually measure or evaluate the performance. This should be an on-going, repetitive process. It is important not to allow too long a period of time to pass between performance appraisals/evaluations, especially as far as students are concerned.

Step three is actually the easiest in the control process, namely comparing the evaluation results with the standards previously set. If the performance matches the standards set, the educational manager can assume that "everything is under control".

The final step is to take corrective action if the performance falls short of the set criteria. The emphasis must be on constructive ways to bring performance up to standard.

Nevertheless, there are several requirements for effective control of which the following are the most important (Van Deventer, 2003:133). They are:

Control must be flexible: Control must not be rigid, but must make provision for changes and exceptions as well as unknown variables.

Control must be adaptable: Control and control measures must be adaptable to the tasks of individuals and to specific situations or areas of control. For example, the task of managerial

control of the school principal will be different from the control task of the teacher in the classroom.

Control must lead to corrective action: Control must provide for corrective actions, because effective control should provide a clear indication of what went wrong and how it should be corrected.

Control standards and methods must be clear: It is essential that the purpose, function, standards and methods of managerial control must be clearly spelt out and understood by all concerned, namely the person executing the control as well as the person being controlled.

Control must be vested in formal authority: The organising function must be reflected by the managerial function of control in that it should be executed by means of formal authority and the accompanying responsibility and accountability.

The following are some important guidelines to ensure that the managerial function of control will be effective (Van Deventer, 2003:131):

Instructions: regarding control should be clear and specific, because these instructions set a standard for what is expected and how the task will be evaluated.

Guidelines: should be drawn up and criteria that are realistic, flexible, understandable and acceptable must be established. These criteria should be determined during the planning process and, if at all possible, teachers should also be involved.

Feedbacks: It is imperative that teachers receive feedback on their performance in written or oral form. The feedback exercise should be handled with care and the education manager must be well prepared to provide this feedback.

Evaluation: This is an integral part of the control function and careful and well-planned evaluation is essential for the individual teacher's development as well as the improvement of the school's performance.

Corrective action: This forms part of the control process and must be taken if deviation from the set standards occurs. The purpose of these actions is to correct mistakes as quickly and effectively as possible and to prevent repetition of the same mistakes in future.

The behavioural theory mechanism of control is used to work out the explanation and improvement of instruction in the classroom. It is also utilized in explaining and improving the impact of curricula on student achievement. The rationale for control in organisations such as the school "depends on monitoring, evaluation and appraisal of the functioning of the (people within) organisations. This is also closely related to the common findings in school effectiveness research which consistently demonstrates that evaluation and assessment are associated with high achievement" (Creemers and Reezgt, 2005:359-371).

On perceived benefits and concerns about teacher appraisal for the purpose of corrective action and evaluation, Odhiambo (2005:402-416) explains that "educational administrators generally felt that 'proper feedback' is important for teachers' improvement of classroom performance, good results of appraisal are important for promotion, appraisal encourages effective teaching, which in turn produces quality education, appraisal acts as a reminder for the teachers about what they are expected to do (accountability), appraisal identifies areas of weaknesses and strengths. It further motivates teachers and increases awareness of curriculum issues".

It is important to note the two major reasons for exercising control are to bring about the correct and most effective task execution in the school and to develop and utilize staff effectively by expanding the merit system and the steps for corrective action (Van Deventer, 2003:135). Timely and accurate reports should be issued to teachers on a regular basis. This will enable them to compare their performance with predetermined standards and to overcome their shortcomings. The manager (principal) should not therefore wait for the end of year examinations before controlling the academic work of teachers, but should do so after each test and exam cycle. In the light of the above, it appears that effective control not only focuses on task completion, but also on the person carrying out the task. Recognition and appreciation can extend the merit system and shortcomings addressed by taking corrective action, which stimulates staff development.

The focus of paragraph 2.8 is on the conceptual skills needed by education leaders to ensure effective task execution in a school. The realisation of the school's vision and the achievement of predetermined aims and objectives by means of effective plans, making or implementing policy, decision-making, problem-solving, organising, delegating, coordinating and control. The first responsibility thus, focuses on effective and successful task execution. In other words, it is concerned with the extent to which a manager fulfils his or her task of achieving a particular set of aims and objectives. Therefore, an educational manager should ensure that subordinates define tasks in accordance with predetermined standards and also see to it that predetermined aims and objectives are achieved according to a set time schedule (University of Pretoria, 2010:62).

The general purpose of the above stated exercises is to ensure quality education and student academic achievement; because the successful completion of school activity is dependent on people Education leaders must have the ability to direct the actions of staff, so that they willingly achieve the set objectives. The leader also has the responsibility to motivate staff, to communicate effectively and to establish sound interpersonal relationships in the school, built on mutual respect and trust.

In the next paragraphs human skills needed by education leaders to create an internal school environment inductive to effective teaching and learning will be discussed.

2.9   Human skills

The purpose of the human management skills is to direct the actions of people and to establish sound interpersonal relationships through effective leadership, communication and motivation (Brown, 2004:112). Teachers who believe in themselves want to be part of a competent school staff and are less afraid of parental feedback school practices. That suggests that there is a relationship between support for community partnerships and collective teacher efficacy (Tam, 2007:350-366).

Human skills give the manager the ability to work with people, to understand and to motivate them. This includes leadership abilities, individual and group skills. The following are examples of human skills namely: leadership, motivation of people, effective communication and the establishment of sound interpersonal relationships (Kroon, 1991:17). The following

human management skills will briefly be discussed in the subsequent paragraphs namely motivation, communication and the establishment of sound relations.

2.9.1 Motivation

Shadare and Hammed (2009:7-17) view employee (teacher) motivation as one of the strategies of managers to enhance effective job performance among workers in the school and it is a basic psychological process in the organisation. Motivation "also arouses, energizes, directs and sustains behaviour and performance as a result of the stimulant it provides to act and achieve a desired task. A process of stimulating people is to employ effective motivation, which makes workers more satisfied with and committed to their jobs". A high degree of effort can also be exerted on the job, if there is an encouraging environment (Rue and Byers, 2007:58); "which brings out the best in people as they achieve and receive individual, group, and system-wide rewards" (Harms and Knobloch, 2005 (101-124).

Moreover, no two people are alike, because they differ and therefore, their behaviour differs. Although people display the same type of behaviour, it is often not for the same reason; however, encouraging behaviour is motivated. The state of mind that directs a person's behaviour and energy to the following achievement can be seen as a process or a cycle.
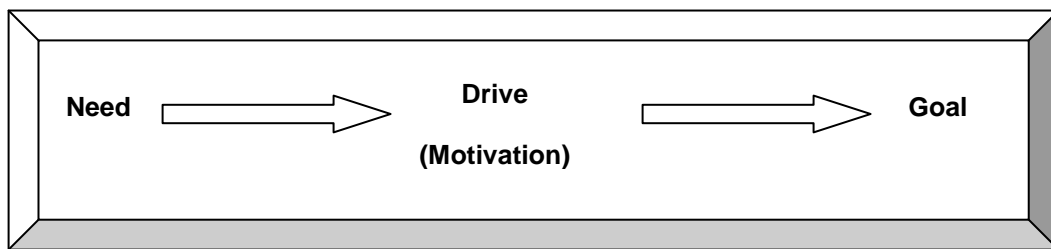
Figure 2.3: *The motivational cycle (Cronje, 1992:323)*

Motivation cycle, in its simplest form, is represented in Figure 2.3 above. If for example, a teacher has a need to improve his/her qualifications and decides to register for the B.Ed. degree, the need that developed supplied the driving force or the motivation for achieving the goal or objective (the degree). The motivation cycle consists of three interdependent elements (Cronje, 1992:323):

Need: A physiological imbalance caused by a lack of something or other. For example, a physiological need develops when a person has no food or water. For a teacher, the physiological need for food, clothes, shelter (housing), etc. is satisfied by a reasonable salary.

Driving force: (motivation): An individual's needs motivate (or drive) him to achieve the goal (which he/she believes will satisfy his/her needs). A need to earn and to be self-supporting supplies the drive to study, to qualify for a profession in order to earn money to supply a person with his/her basic needs.

Goal: What satisfied the needs is the goal of the motivation process. The achievement of the goal (e.g. to obtain a teaching qualification, to be appointed in a post, to earn a salary to fulfil one's basic needs) will restore the physiological balance (Smit and Cronje, 1992:323).

2.9.1.1 *Abraham Maslow hierarchy of needs*

Abraham Maslow's theory is based on two important suppositions thus:

Firstly, people are always striving for more and their needs depend on what they already have. A satisfied need is no longer a motivator; only unsatisfied needs can influence behaviour.

Secondly, people's needs are arranged in order of importance. When one's need has been partly satisfied, the next will come to the fore to be satisfied (Smit and Cronje, 1992:328).

Figure 2.4: *Abraham Maslow's needs hierarchy (Gerber, et al., 1998:262)*

Gerber, et al. (1998:262) state that Maslow arranged human needs into five categories and in order of importance. Only when the lower order needs have been satisfied to higher order needs become motivators of behaviour. The levels of needs in Maslow's hierarchy are as follows:

Physiological needs: These needs are essential for the human being's biological functioning and survival (e.g. the need for food, water and warmth). These are the most basic needs and if they are unsatisfied, human behaviour will be directed primarily towards their satisfaction. The teacher receives a salary to provide for these basic needs. Should the education department neglect to pay the teacher's salary, however, it would not be possible to satisfy them.

Safety needs: When the physiological needs have been satisfied, a worker's needs moves to the second level of the hierarchy and the importance of the first level fades. These needs include the need for security and protection against physical and psychological pain. Job security, insurance, medical aid and pension schemes all satisfy the human's need for security. If the school principal and teachers at a school are threatened by fellow colleagues or students, they may become demotivated, because a basic need for security has not been met.

Social needs: As people start to feel secure and get potential threats under control, social needs come into play. A person's need for love, friendship, acceptance and understanding by

other people and groups are all social needs. In a school, staff members interact in the different interest groups. These groups include the different standards, subjects, sports and cultural groups. By forming formal work groups in a school, the principal and his/her team can ensure that all the staff's social needs are met and the organisation of social functions will strengthen social links further. Therefore, it is important that new staff members are socially assimilated into a school and the principal could even appoint a suitable person to help new members of staff to settle in.

Esteem needs: This level represents the higher-order needs. These include a person's need for self-respect and the esteem of others, the need for success, self-confidence, recognition and appreciation of one's achievements. It is on this level particularly that principals and other education leaders can play a large role by allowing staff to take part in the decision-making process, delegating tasks, responsibilities and authority, and expressing enough appreciation and acknowledgement for each staff member.

Self-actualisation needs: The highest level of Maslow's hierarchy of needs is the need for self-actualisation. This represents the highest pint of a person's needs. Self-actualisation is the full achievement of a person's potential – to be his/her true unique self. Maslow describes the self-actualisation need as follows: 'A musician must produce music, an artist must paint, a poet must write, if he is to be ultimately happy. What a man can be, he must be. This need we may call self-actualisation'.

The principal and the other education leaders can help to meet these needs by creating a climate within the school in which self-actualisation is possible. For example, the principal can set challenging but attainable goals for the staff, delegate responsibilities, authority and make staff development a high priority in the school.

Table 2.2: *Illustration of a practical application of Maslow's hierarchy of needs to the school*

Need level	Application: Department/management
• Self-actualisation:	Challenging work Opportunities for development Opportunities for creativity Opportunities for enrichment

• Esteem:	Acknowledgement and appreciation
	Participative management
	Tasks, responsibilities and authority
• Social:	Social interaction among staff (social gatherings)
	Interest groups (departments, subjects, standards, activities)
	Work groups (fete committees, etc.)
• Security:	Safe working conditions
	Job security
	Benefits (medical aid, pension)
	Clear policy documents
• Physiological:	Reasonable salaries
	Comfortable working environment
	Warmth, light, space

2.9.1.2 Herzberg's two-factor theory of motivation

In Herzberg's two-factor theory, motivation appears to arise from a separate cluster of conditions, different from and distinct from those related to the sources of dissatisfaction. For example, achievement, recognition, the challenge of work itself, responsibility, advancement and promotion, and personal or professional growth appear to motivate people and are, therefore, associated with job satisfaction. The theory further suggests that it is not possible to motivate people at work through hygiene or maintenance factors. In other words reducing class size and improving the fringe benefits and salaries of teachers will do two things: (1) reduce or eliminate the dissatisfaction of teachers and (2) create conditions wherein they may be motivated.
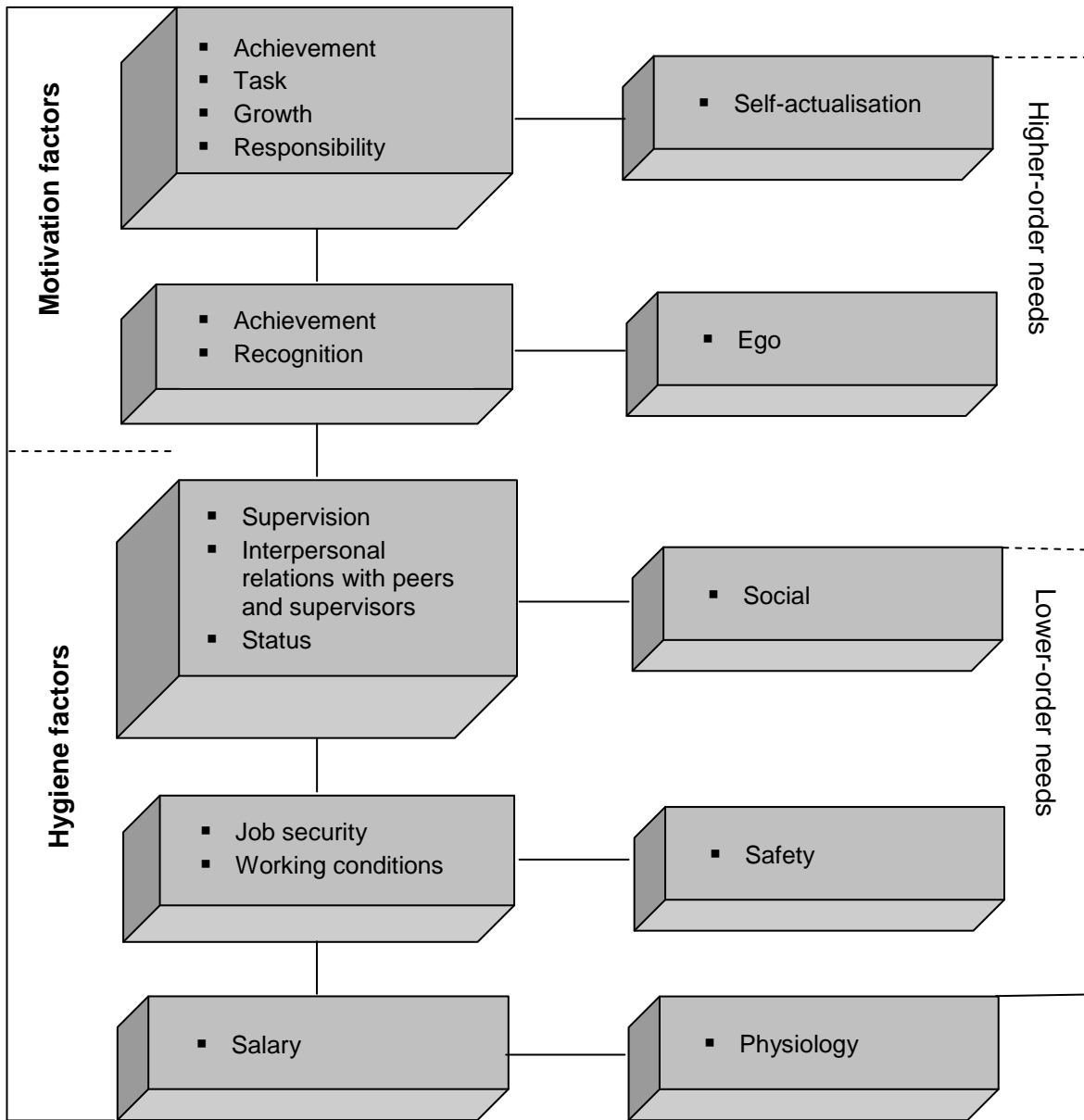
Figure 2.5: *Comparison between the theories of Maslow and Herzberg*
(Gerber *et al.,* 1998:267)

In comparing the motivational factors of Maslow and Herzberg, the lower needs of Maslow's hierarchy of needs closely approximate the hygiene of maintenance needs as outlined by Herzberg. For example, salary, working conditions, policy, administration and supervision are generally physiological and safety-oriented needs. In contrast, the intrinsic motivational factors of recognition, advancement, responsibility, growth, achievement and the work itself tend to be closely related to the desire for esteem and self-realisation. Herzberg calls the

process whereby motivators are included in the job situation, post-enrichment and he sets certain guidelines for a successful post enrichment programme. This is to provide a challenging and attractive work programme for the individual so that the task in itself is worth doing. Post enrichment is the key to motivation. The work itself rather than the payment is the key to job satisfaction and motivation (Kroon, 1990:362).

2.9.1.3   Post enrichment

Post-enrichment refers to the vertical expansion of a post. Vertical work loading takes place when the planning and control of work, which was previously done by people on a higher management level, is now done by the person who carries out the task. Herzberg identifies post-enrichment as an important motivation technique, because it offers greater potential for achievement and recognition by expanding the post which may result in greater job satisfaction (Smit and Cronje, 1992:343). Post enrichment in its simplest form (Figure 2.6) implies the addition of measurable goals, responsibilities, level of decision-making, control and feedback.
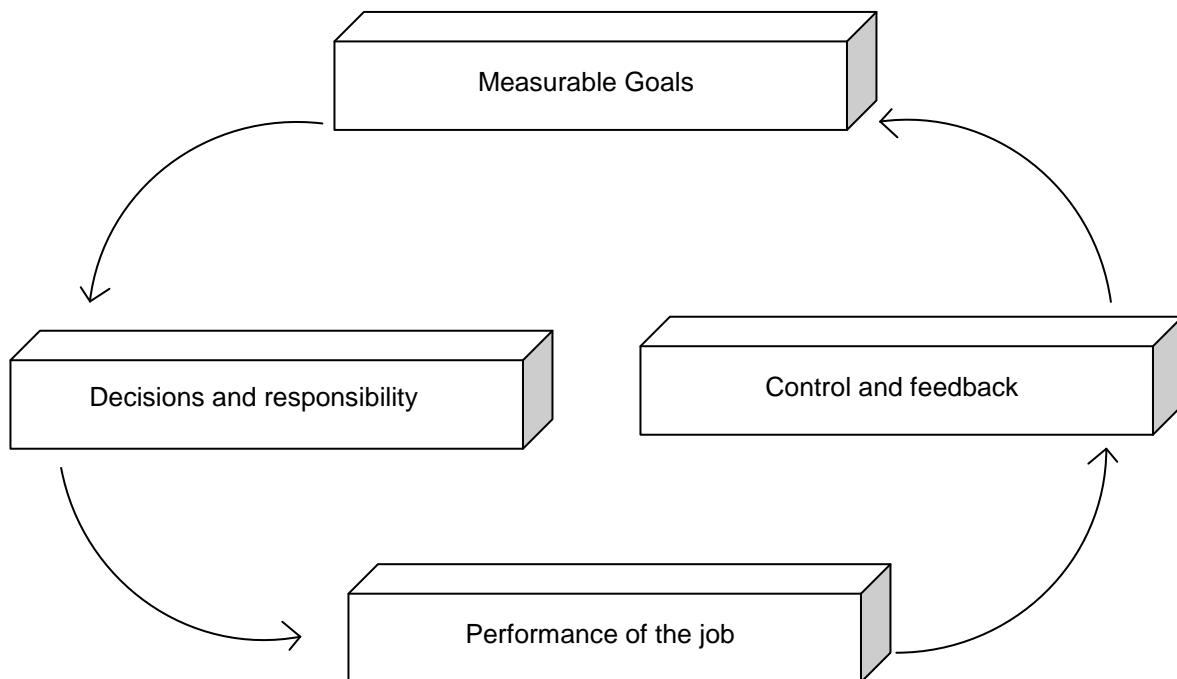

Figure 2.6: *Post-enrichment (Smith and Cronje, 1992:343)*

As far as teaching is concerned, post enrichment can be used very effectively in the school situation in order to give capable and experienced staff job satisfaction by involving them in worthwhile activities Harms and Knobloch (2005:101-124). Through idealized influence, the leader arouses followers' strong conviction and identification with the leader (Printy, Marks and Bowers, 2009:504-532). The inspiration motivational leader listens to followers effectively, use two-way communication, demonstrate high performance expectations, decision-making structures and relate to followers in a friendly manner (Van de Grift, et. al., 2006:255-273). Moreover Khan, Ahmad, Ali and ur-Rehman (2011:2668-2678) study explored that school management trainings lead to enhanced teacher motivation and satisfaction.

The success of motivation rests on arousing followers' emotions, encouragement of new ideas or perspectives to issues, coach, support followers and invoking good inter-personal relationship with people at work and that can be achieved through proper communication. The following paragraphs therefore discuss communication in relation to the leadership and management of the school for the purpose of student achievement.

2.9.2   Communication

Communication is the act of exchanging information between people. Communication can also be used to inform and command, instruct, assess, influence and persuade workers. However, communication skills are required to give direction to subordinates, motivate them to become excited about their jobs and to be able to understand and accept other peoples' view-point when necessary (Rue and Byars, 2007:39). Listening is a veritable means of understanding other people and it results in the understanding, appraising and reaction to the message (Prinsloo, 2003:166).

Communication is one of the most important functions of management. Without effective communication it will not be possible to plan, communicate the school's vision, set aims and objectives to teachers, parents and students. Communication is the main tool in the decision-making process and in solving problems. The success of the policy-making process is dependent on effective two-way communication. Written communication in the form of the departmental policy documents, the school policy, subject policies serves as important guidelines for teachers. Oral and written communications are used to convey messages, to

keep teachers, parents and students informed etc. It can be said that effective communication is a prerequisite for management functions in the school. The following example shows the link between few management functions and communication (University of Pretoria, 2010):

Communication could be oral or written depending on the medium of communication used (written or oral/verbal) and feedback in communication is a feature of effective communication. It is also worth mentioning that communication is a two-way process between the sender and the receiver of the information (Rue and Byars, 2007:44). Written and oral face-to-face communication is usually used in the school and can be much more effective if, the leadership and management of the school empathize with the recipient, use language that is easily understood to communicate, repeat the message to ensure understanding, knowing the actual purpose of the communication, develop listening habits, choose the correct medium and channel of communication, disseminate honest communication and strive to abide by the principle of good management through effective leadership style and a healthy inter-personal relationship (Prinsloo, 2003:172).

The communication from the organisations' higher echelons to the lower is known as downward communication and it comprises orders and directives. Igzar (2008:535-548) reports that there is a significant relationship between leadership and two-way downward communication behaviour, but it was also reported that head-teachers who demonstrate higher scores on downward communication behaviour, transmit the orders to their subordinates without commenting and making any change. This situation enables them to deal with organisational problems effectively. Contrary, educational administrators who use this power excessively or insufficiently undermine the aim of communication.

Upward communication is the transmission of information from subordinates to superiors; therefore, school principals who demonstrate higher levels of upward communication behaviour can create a link with their superiors. There is also a significant relationship between leadership and upward communication behaviour and the reflective approach, monitoring approach, problem-solving confidence approach and the planned approach (Igzar, 2008:535-548). The table below illustrates the channels of communication and their brief characteristics.

Downward channels from higher to lower levels. Used to convey policy and guidelines for teaching and for coordinating school activities.	Upward channels from lower to higher levels. Used to convey personal information and information on students. Used mainly for feedback.	Horizontal channels occur between the school's management team; subject and grade groups; activity groups.	Diagonal channels between members of the staff and support services: for example subject committees and the education aid centres. Information passes from advisors to staff.

Table 2.3: *Formal channels of communication (adapted from Van Niekerk, 1987:225)*

2.9.3   The establishment of sound human relationships in a school

The term, "human relations" is broad and refers to the interactions between people in all manners to achieve some purpose. It also refers to knowledge about human behaviour and the ability to work well with people (Rue and Byars, 2007:6). "Teacher attitudes stemming from job satisfaction and organisational commitment are relates to characteristics like, their career task performance, relationships with supervisors, co-workers and students. More so, school characteristics have been shown to predict high-school principal satisfaction and role conflict" (Creemers and Kyriakide, 2006:347-366).

High interaction may be used to increase trust and openness among team members. The activities that may be used for comprise goal setting, development of interpersonal relationships among team members, role analysis to clarify each member's role and responsibilities and team process analysis (Bipath, 2008:84). Teachers who have worked in the same building for a long time have established certain emotional compromises with their colleagues and students and will feel risky to re-negotiate them because relationships involve emotions. Some teachers and principals possess a good deal of insight and can accept

constructive criticism, although, some barely know themselves and shatter when asked innocuous questions about what they are doing (Abu-Tineh, et. al., 2008:648-660.)

Moye, Henkin and Egley (2005:260-277) findings reveal that "teachers who have never had administrative responsibilities or were less involved in committee work in their schools reported having higher interpersonal trust in their principals; Whereas teachers who find their work personally meaningful, who have significant autonomy in their work, and who feel they have a great deal of influence on what happens in their department indicated higher levels interpersonal trust".

Other guidelines for the establishment of interpersonal relationships by a principal, according to Prinsloo (2003:199), are that; the school principal must always remember that people are important and take an interest in them and not just the service they deliver, opinion, insights and feelings of the staff must be taken into account; the school principal must believe in staff's ability and contributions to job achievement; the needs of staff, particularly the younger members of staff the must be taken into account; the principal should create opportunities for staff members to fulfil their own needs, that is, to realize their own potential, staff should be involved in long and short-term goals formulation in the school; staff exchange of ideas should be enhanced to bring about heightened creativity, there must be openness between principals and staff to encourage growth in healthier relationships, which may then flourish and grow.

In summary, the school is a unique organisation in which specific activities take place. These activities require technical skills such as prescribed policy, procedures, methods and techniques in each of the managerial areas highlighted in the Prinsloo (2009) model. Moreover, excellence in a school relates to the quality of its core activities, which is teaching and learning. Thus, effective teaching and learning are not possible unless there is a healthy internal management environment in which optimal teaching and learning may take place.

The internal management areas that may boost the workability of the leadership and management efforts of the school principal in ensuring school effectiveness are discussed below.

2.10 Internal management dimensions contributing to the creation of a healthy school environment

The internal management environment usually has a direct and immediate influence on the management of the school and it includes important variables such as organisational climate, organisational culture, change, and conflict in a school. The spirit of the school, the social environment in which effective education will take place dependent on the way in which the principal and the senior management team of the school utilize and develop the available resources of the school and the way in which they execute the management functions of the school (Nieuwenhuis, 2007a). By implication, the leadership style of the principal may also influence the school climate and culture of the school and the resistance and acceptance of change and how conflict is effectively managed in the school. Strong leadership and particularly human skills are also required to create a positive school climate conducive to quality education.

2.10.1 School climate and culture

The early use of school climate in recent past denotes the "ethos or spirit, of an organisation. More recently, school climate is thought to represent the attitude of a school and the collective mood, or morale, of a group of people. It seems that a happy teacher is considered a better teacher and this attitude influences the quality of instruction, therefore, if happy teachers truly perform better, then leaders must create school conditions in which happiness thrives" (Gruenert, 2008:57). Hence, Price (2011:1-47) found that principals' relationships with their teachers affect both principals and teachers' fulfilment, cohesion and commitment levels which sequentially affects school climate.

According to Owen (2001:140), school climate is generally defined as "the characteristics of the total environment in a school building, or the total environment in an organisation, that is, the organisational climate" which is comprises of four dimensions as follow.

Ecology: Ecology refers to the physical and material factors in a school organisation, for example, the size, age, design, facilities and conditions of the buildings. It also refers to the

technology used by people in the organisation, for instance, desks, chairs, chalkboards elevators and every other thing used to carry out the school activities.

Milieu: Milieu involves the social dimensions in the organisation. This includes virtually everything relating to the people in a school organisation. For example how many people are there, who they are and what they look like. This would include race, and ethnicity, salary level of teachers, socio-economic level of students, education levels attained by the teachers, the morale and motivation of adults and students who attend the school, the level of job satisfaction and a host of other characteristics of the people in the school organisation.

Organisation: Social system (organisation) refers to the organisational and administrative structure of the organisation: It includes how the school is organized, the ways in which decisions are made and who is involved in making them, the communication patterns among people (who talks to whom about what), what work groups there are, etc.

Culture: Culture refers to the values and belief systems, norms and ways of thinking that are characteristics of the people in the organisation. Culture is commonly referred to "the way we do things around here". This aspect of the organisation's total environment is described more fully in later paragraphs (Owens, 2001:140-142). Figure 2.7below is an illustration of school organisational climate. It also shows the relationship between school climate and culture.
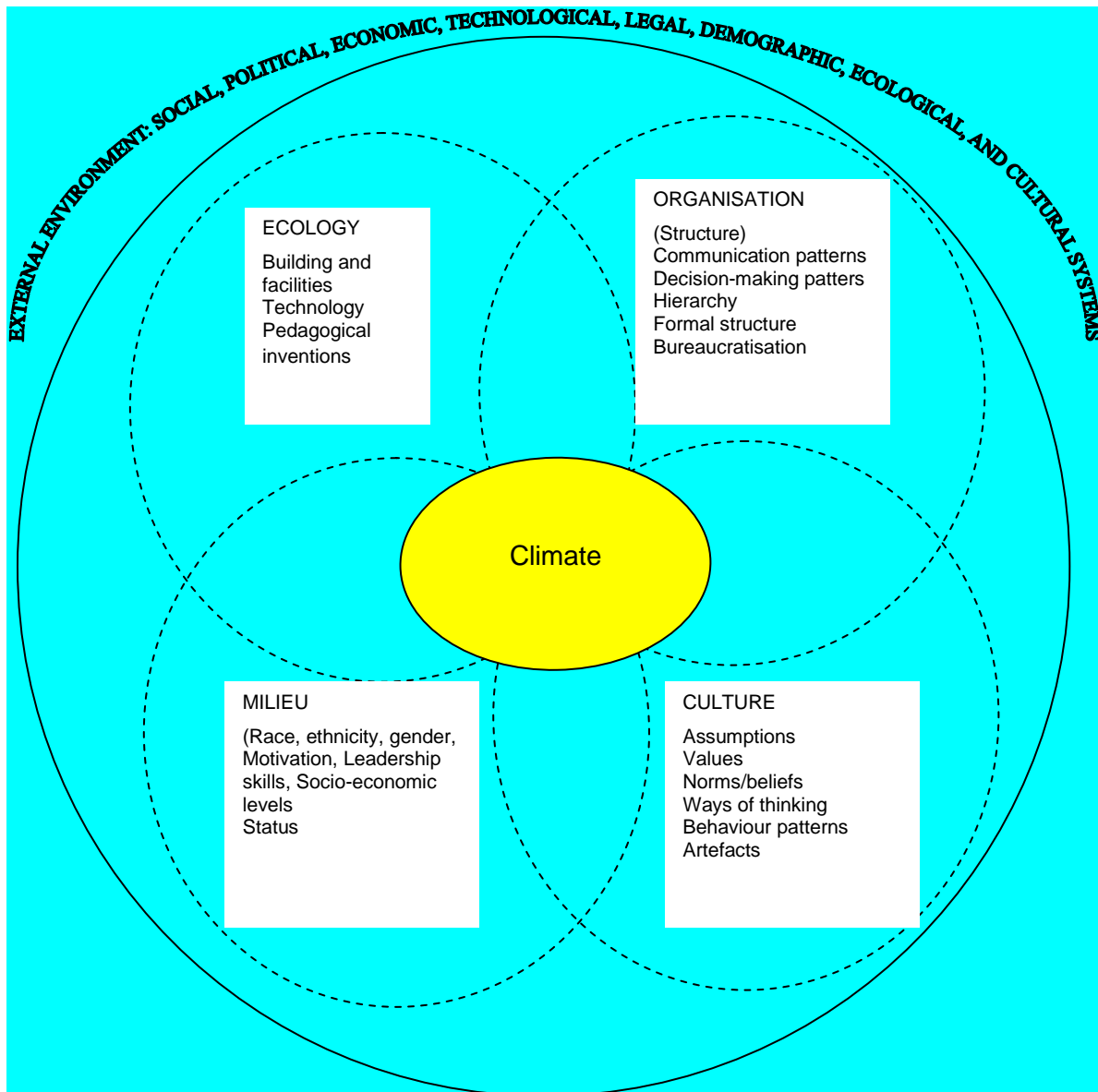
Figure 2.7: *Illustration of school organisational climate*

Understanding the differences and similarities between culture and climate may give us a more accurate means through which schools might be improved (Gruenert, 2008:56-59). "These unwritten expectations build up over time as teachers, administrators, parents, and students work together, solve problems, deal with challenges and at times cope with failures. For example, good teaching techniques, staff willingness and adaptation to change, importance attached to staff development, schools rituals and ceremonies, e.g. communal events to celebrate success, provide closure during collective transitions and to recognize people's contributions to the school. School cultures also include symbols and stories that

communicate core values, reinforce the mission and build a shared sense of commitment" (Peterson, 2002, www.learningforward.org/news/getDocument.cfm?articleID=430).

School culture and climate are related. That is, school culture is a body of solutions to the external and internal problems that have worked consistently for a group and taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think about and feel in relations to those problems, whereas school climate reflects those cultures. Learning in a school is significantly influenced by the quality and characteristics of the school climate (Ownes, 2001:145).
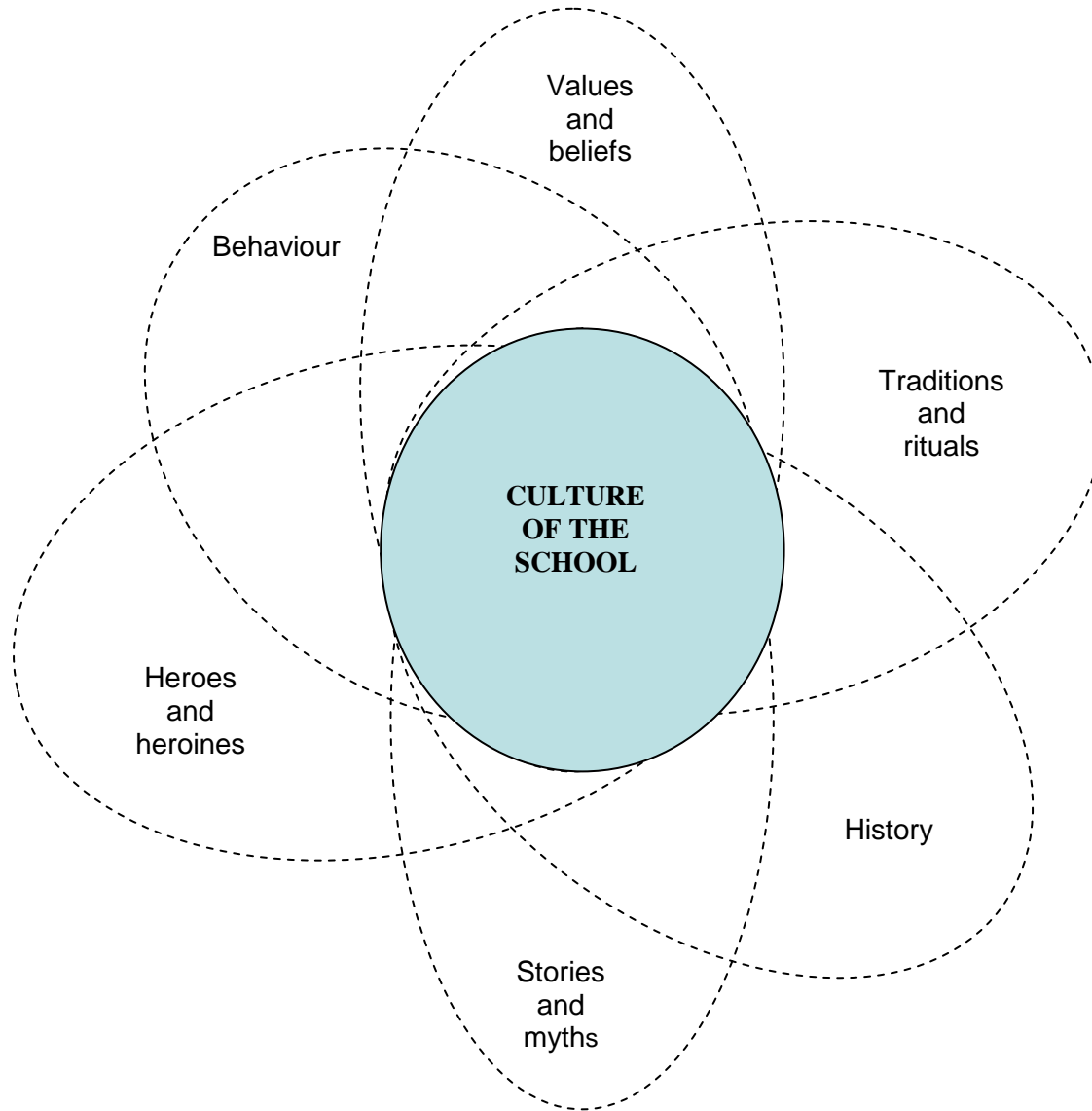
Figure 2.8: *Illustration of the school organisational culture*

In terms of a positive school culture, Toremen, Ekinci and Karakus (2006:490-499) explain that "an empathic manager makes teachers feel supported and cared about, influences and renders their unbearable feelings more bearable, makes them feel valued, understood, satisfies their needs and creates a moral climate in school. An empathic manager, who is concerned about teachers' physical and emotional needs, tends to conduct more ethically to build a moral climate in the school. For schools in which the human factor is the most important indicator of effectiveness, it can be said that managers' empathic skills are closely

related to success". Furthermore, Toremen, et. al. (2006:490-499) found that "successful schools' managers clearly had better empathic skills and unsuccessful school managers had few empathic skills". Also, Khan, Ahmad, Ali and ur-Rehman (2011:2668-2678) found that school principals are not solely responsible for the outstanding educational outcomes observed in the school, but their leadership has been found an unavoidable factor in producing the environment (climate) where these outcomes occur.

Furthermore Rhodes, Camic, Milburn and Lowe (2009:25-35) suggest that teacher participation and encouraged critical analysis can foster a sense of ownership among the various constituents and long-term engagement and investment from key stakeholders which is crucial to successful implementation. Such processes can also result in a more productive teacher–principal relationship climate. Macneil, Prater and Busch (2009:73-84) warned that if the climate and culture of a school is not hospitable to learning, then student achievement may suffer. Kruger, et. al. (2007:1-20) indicate that teachers perceive the school climate and culture more favourably as the quality of the school organisation is higher- stressing the importance of a well-organized school. Moreover, teachers' perceptions of the quality of their school climate and culture are affected by characteristics of the student and teacher population. That is, if the student-teacher population is commensurate in terms of ratio, there is likelihood that the teaching culture of the school is positive, but if not, the reverse will be the case.

Macneil, et. al. (2009:73-84) provide evidence that school culture and climate were among the top influences affecting improved student achievement, asserting that state and local policies, school organisation and student demographics exert the least influence on student learning. Accordingly, unhealthy schools lack an effective leader and the teachers are generally unhappy with their job and colleagues. On the other hand, healthy schools that promote high academic standards and appropriate leadership and collegiality provide a climate more conducive to student success and achievement.

They elucidate an argument that compatibility through tests has become a threat. School principals need to work on long-term cultural goals in order to strengthen the learning environment. They further assert that is important to realize that culture is complex, because it has very unique and idiosyncratic way of working. Therefore, Macneil, et. al. (2009:73-84) confirm that school principals who choose to lead rather than just manage must first

understand the school culture. They further state: "When an organisation has a clear understanding of its purpose, why it exists and what it must do and how it should serve the culture, it will ensure that things work well. When the complex patterns of beliefs, values, attitudes, expectation, ideas and behaviour in organisation are in appropriate or incongruent, the culture will ensure that things work badly. Successful school principals comprehend the critical role that the organisational culture plays in developing a successful school".

"Some schools have a generally 'positive' culture that is focused on student achievement and success but too weak to motivate students and teachers. For example, school leaders might talk about values and beliefs, but no follow-up actions, traditions, ceremonies, or rituals reinforce those messages. Similarly, a teacher might be told that improving professional practice is a value, but find that the school budget provides few resources for professional development, or be asked to embrace a more collegial culture only to find that no time is designated for teachers to meet and plan together" (Jerald, 2006:2-7). The school climate could aid the introduction and management of change or otherwise. Hence change is discussed in the next paragraphs.

2.10.2 Management of change

Change is an inevitable part of life and it represents a struggle between what exists and what is desired. Changes result in a reflection of behaviour of staff members towards educational innovations, the level to which they adapt to extent to changes and have an open attitude towards educational improvements (Tondeur, Devos, Houtte, Braak and Valcke 2009:223-235 and Van der Merwe, 2003:37). In addition, Bridges (2003:3) defines change as a way of doing things to make a difference. It is a shift in the externals of any situation, for example, setting up a new curriculum program, restructuring of the departmental functioning, moving the school to a new location or changing its name, and so on. Moreover, change is made up visible and tangible events; they can happen quickly and concerns the outcome to be achieved.

Van der Merwe (2003:38) categorises the forces of school change into environmental forces and internal forces. The environmental forces comprise economic factors, e.g. a decentralized educational system which may lead to schools making decisions to run and manage themselves. Thus resulting in school fee increase, technology forces, e.g. the

introduction of computers to enable teachers to function adequately by learning how to use and manipulate the computer to aid teaching and learning. Social and political forces, e.g. the introduction of a new policy in the education sector by the government and an alarming increase in school violence may lead to the introduction of legislation and processes to curb school indiscipline. On the other hand, the internal forces of change within the school organisation may be due to breakdown in communication and decision-making and behavioural levels leading to low level of morale and absenteeism among school staff and students.

Nevertheless, Hughes and Norris (2003) maintain that leadership is "characterized by change and constant improvement. A leader persistently analyses the standard to ensure that the organisation is accomplishing its goals; otherwise the leader initiates change to improve the standard". Fullan (2001) claims that leadership's focus is on co-operation between the actors in the organisation, the cultural context of their actions, the dialogue they develop, and how they choose to negotiate and act when confronted with the various dilemmas of daily practice. A pedagogical leader is thus a person who initiates and promotes processes of change in the organisation, and works for the development of the individual, group and 'whole' school level. Leadership is therefore perceived as a process in which both the formal leaders and the people being led are participating.

Swanepoel (2008:461-474) reports that the findings of the consortium for Cross-cultural Research in Education indicates that, the more teachers participated in responsible and initiating roles in school change, the more positive they felt about the change, and the more willing they were to seriously engage in future change. Furthermore, the investigation revealed that the most positive consequences of work life change for teachers and for their school's improvement occurred if they were involved at the highest level of change activity (initiating, planning, and shared decision-making). However, Brown and Anafara Jr. (2003:16-34) confirm that substantial change requires time and continuity to be more self-aware through reflection, processing and debriefing.

In addition, Van der Westhuizen (2003:41) outlined common reasons that give rise to resistance to change. They are:

Loss of familiarity: As soon as any deviation from a familiar situation or existing practices occurs, resistance to change occurs as a result of feelings of insecurity of staff.

Loss of personal choice and values: This results when there is a change of environment by teachers, leading to loss of self-confidence, trust, security and practices as a result of unfamiliarity of staff with the new environment.

Possible loss of authority: Change can affect an individual's existing position of authority, thus the unwillingness to surrender the status-quo (status or prestige) of a staff or teachers results in fear, leading to résistance to change.

Not understanding the reason for the change: Insufficient information and lack of persuasion as to why the change is necessary results in the resistance to change.

Lack of skills and motivation: Lack of necessary skills to discharge the introduced change lead to the refusal of teachers to accept change.

In addition, according to Fullan (2009:9-20) the following drivers are keys to effective and lasting change in the school: "Engaging people's moral purposes, building capacity, understanding the change process, developing cultures for learning and developing cultures of evaluation. The management of change can be effective if the education leader convinces the teacher of the need for change, exposes the process and strategies of the intended change and exhibiting the best leadership morals to enable the teachers accept intended change which reflects its management capability".

School conflict is discussed in the following paragraph.

2.10.3 Managing conflict

Conflict may arise from change and therefore is inevitable. This is because conflict is part and parcel of school organisations and a total lack of conflict in schools would be unbelievable, boring, and a strong indication that conflicts are being suppressed. Therefore, conflict may occur in the form of interpersonal conflicts among staff authorities as well as the students. Also, "characteristics of conflict include decreased productivity, frustration, decreased morale,

alienation of individuals, unaddressed problems, confusion and a climate of mistrust" (Okotoni and Okotoni, 2003:23-38).

Van der Merwe (2003:26) defines conflict as a situation that arises out of incompatibility of aims and of opposing behaviour or disagreement among parties, but it is an inevitable feature of organisational life (like the school). It can also be defined as a situation of confrontation provoked by contrary interests in relation to the same issue or the belief that the aims of the different parts (where the conflict is interpersonal) may not be achieved simultaneously (García and Martínez, 2001:15). Thus, Sackney and Walker (2006:341-358) found that school principals need skills in group process facilitation, communication, conflict compromise, investigation and data management in order to deal with conflict.

The categories in which conflict may fall are:

Conflict between individuals: Such conflict involves colleagues, employees and their managers. For example, a clash of personalities, strong differences of opinion over work, an 'overspill' from personal issues outside work or when for example, a principal's management style is too authoritarian or too weak, or when he usually favours other work colleagues when you assign tasks.

Conflict between groups: Such conflicts involve teams or large group of employees and management. For example, rivalry between colleagues, disagreements over a team's goals or shared values, resentment that one team is not pulling their weight in a collective work (www.bollettinoadapt.unimoreit/.../07_17_41CONFLITTI_DI).

Just as conflict is part of everyday organisational life, other different sources of conflict that may occur between employees in the school could arise from mutual dependence of academic departments, unequal dependence of the academic department on each other, role dissatisfaction in terms of recognition by the school, ambiguities of roles, dependence on common resources and dependence and competition, e.g. promotion, job assignment, etc. Some of the ways of resolving conflict between and among school staff is by compromise, pretending conflict does not exist, forcing and imposition of a solution and confrontation for prompt solution of grievances, etc. (Rue and Byars, 2004:262-264).

Thus, the "absence of conflict usually signals the absence of meaningful communication. Conflict by itself is neither good nor bad. However, the manner in which conflict is handled indicates whether it is constructive or destructive" (Ramani and Zhimin, 2010:242-256). Therefore ability to deal effectively with conflict is a key aspect of managerial success as no teacher can permanently escape conflict in the school environment, hence the need to understand.

Conflicts can thus be managed through the following ways, according to Van der Merwe (2003:33-34):

Peaceful coexistence: This could be achieved by avoiding conflict outright or better still, by playing down the differences among workers and emphasizing their common interest and similarities, but the following must be considered when the peaceful co-existence is being utilized. They are: do not criticize, threaten, admonish, humiliate, belittle and act over-hastily. Rather, be friendly, polite and sympathetic, listen attentively with understanding and appeal to the other party's noble motives.

Compromise: Compromise is a "give–and-take exchange", resulting in either party winning or losing. The characteristic of the approach is that there is no "right" or "best" answer. Compromise is achieved by means of one group yielding a point and gaining something in exchange from the other party. Since no force or manipulation takes place within this process, both parties accept the solution they are committed to, and this leads to less hostility and tolerance in both parties.

Problem-solving: Problem-solving is a process of resolving school conflict and it is mainly concerned about face-to-face confrontation of the parties. The outcome of this approach is to have the persons present their views and opinions to each other and work out their difference in attitudes and perceptions.

It is clear from the above discussion that the education leader (principal) plays a major role in creating an internal school environment conducive to quality teaching and learning. On the one hand, there should be a strong focus on the establishment of a sound internal management climate in schools, because it nurtures and advances human relationships and teacher development. On the other hand, certain managerial functions must be maintained to

ensure the effectiveness and efficiency of schools in order to increase their public accountability. It is therefore important for the education leader to strike a balance between school tasks and the interest of the staff in order to minimize conflict.

Therefore leadership style of the principal, decision making, communication and motivation patterns in a school will play a role in creating a sound and open internal school environment. In schools where teachers and other staff members have a voice in decisions that affect them and where their views and opinions are taken into account, particularly regarding instruction will indicate to the teachers that they are respected and valued. This approach will not only encourage two-way communication and the motivation of the staff, but will contribute to a favourable school climate.

The next paragraphs discuss the management areas in the school. They embrace the essential elements leadership and processes of management. The management areas are discussed below.

2.11 Managerial areas

The school is a unique organisation in which specific activities of teaching and learning take place. Therefore, it also requires the carrying out of some managerial activities in the school. These activities require the six management areas in the school (Prinsloo, 2003:138). In the next sections, they will be discussed in relation to how they may contribute to school effectiveness.

2.11.1 The management of administrative affairs

Opportunity to learn is also related to student engagement and time on task (Kyriakids and Demetrious (2006).   535-560). Overemphasis on evaluation might reduce the actual time spent on teaching and learning. However, it is important to find out just how efficiently and effectively each school is using its time (time audit). Therefore, sufficient time for teachers and students to do their work well is recommended by as a recipe for the support of a school culture of hard work and high achievement of students (Brown, 2004:112). Effective administrative management includes, among others:

School time-table: The instructional programme of the school should be organized according to a practical school time-table for both curricular and extracurricular activities. By allocating the correct time and periods, introducing fixed test periods and avoiding unnecessary infringement on lesson periods, the efficient use of teaching time can be ensured.

Providing resources: Resources in the school should be used equitably and judiciously. Apart from resources provided by the department, the school should also use its own budget to supplement these resources. Here the principal plays a key role to ensure that there is an effective provisioning system to adequately support the teaching programme.

Implementing an effective administrative system: Administration is a support function and should promote effectiveness: There should be clear policy directives that spell out what is expected from staff, students and parents. Good record-keeping and filing systems are essential for an efficient administrative system (Nieuwenhuis, 2007a:139).

Opportunity to learn is also related to student engagement and time on task (Kyriakids and Demetrious: (2006:535-560). Overemphasis on evaluation might reduce the actual time spent on teaching and learning. However, the necessity of knowing how a school is spending its tome must be upheld so that it can be known whether time is being efficiently and effectively used in the school (Brown, 2004:112).

2.11.2 The management of physical facilities

The management of physical facilities in the school can play an important role in building an effective school. The architecture of the building and the way in which the buildings, the grounds and other school assets are maintained also reflect the values that the school upholds and the climate of the school. "One unexamined link between school facilities and student achievement may be the climate of a school. School climate may be a mediating variable, explaining at least in part, the deleterious impact that poor school facilities have on learning. Moreover, dilapidated, crowded, or uncomfortable school buildings may lead to low morale and reduced effort on the part of teachers and students alike, leading to reduced community engagement with a school and even to less positive forms of school leadership" (Perry and McWilliam, 2007:32-43).

Findings indicate that quality facilities were significantly positively related to all of the school climate variables, but quality facilities was surprisingly found to be uncorrelated to students' Social Economic Status (SES). As in earlier research, the qualities of facilities were found to be related to student achievement (Bezzina and Duignan, 2006:1-11). Also, students' achievement synthesizes with "building quality, newer buildings, improved lighting and thermal comfort and indoor air quality, as well as specific building features such as science laboratories, libraries, quality of a school's physical environment and student achievement", since the physical state of a school was a predictor of student achievement (Buckley, Schneider and Shang, 2004).

Further studies have also found that that building design criteria and conditions related to human comfort, indoor air quality, lighting, acoustical control and secondary science laboratories have a demonstrable impact on student achievement (Earthman, 2004; Higgins, Hall, Wall, Woolner, and McCaughey, 2005). Temperature, heating and air quality were the most important individual elements affecting student achievement (Earthman, 2004). Overcrowding has been found to have a deleterious effect on student learning; moreover, chronic noise exposure hinders cognitive functioning and impairs pre-reading and reading skills. Quality of school buildings has also been related to student behaviour resulting in vandalism, absenteeism, suspensions, disciplinary incidents, violence and smoking.

2.11.3 The management of human resources

Schools' improvement through human resources development is a life-long process as teachers enter into new phases of their teaching career through promotion and maturity. In a certain sense they are the most valuable resource of the school and should be nurtured and developed. Principals should facilitate the process of appointing staff with the potential to add value to the quality of education offered at the school and develop the potential of every teacher (Nieuwenhuis and Potvin, 2005). The principal can make use of an instructional leadership team to assist him with teacher development. Deputy Principals, Heads of Departments (HODs) and experienced teachers can contribute to the improvement of teaching and the development of abilities of the staff (Nieuwenhuis, 2007a:138-139).

The findings of James and Hopkins (2003:50-64) indicate that the leadership authority of educational middle managers is dynamic in that, it is continually under construction, subject

to unpredictable influences and responses and therefore, in a sense, at risk and as such, subject leaders and/HODs need to focus on the management of the departmental boundary not simply because it is part of their role, but because of its potential to significantly enhance their leadership authority. They also identified three factors relating to aspects of leadership activities and behaviours of HODs, namely; 'reflective visioning', 'facilitative enabling' and 'formal structuring'.

However, Kerry (2005:65-80) provides evidence that robust leadership by HODs seems to have been sacrificed in a quest for a more democratic and open school ethos through flattening the organisational structures. The way in which the principal and the other members of the Senior Management Team of the school act as instructional leaders will have a major influence on school effectiveness and student achievement. (see Instructional Leadership, 2.6.9).

2.11.4 The management of curriculum and student activities

Emphasizing the sharing of visions among principal, teachers and administrative staff have been identified as an important aspect of learning schools, which may enhance collective actions, for instance, the degree of centralization, role and power of principals, leadership styles, staff/principal, teacher/students relationships and purposes of curriculum (Alavi and McCormik, 2004:408-416) impacts on school instructional activities. The principal as an instructional leader must also ensure that the management components of the curriculum are well-balanced in the school and that each aspect receives due attention.

The principal must also ensure that the activities listed below are performed and that appropriate resources needed in the teaching-learning situation are available to the entire school so that they can be realized, that is, to achieve a successful school, a good leader (Nieuwenhuis and Potvin, 2005) should provide appropriate help and support to teachers and students to ensure effective classroom management, ensure effective classroom planning, support teachers to deal effectively with diversity in the classroom, implement continuous assessment of students' progress and sustained development of teachers; more so, that educational institution's instructional programme consists of curricular and extracurricular activities. The curriculum as part of the instructional programme could be divided into an academic programme which involves the academic activities of the school and which

comprise the various study directions such as, subject packages, learning areas and guidance programme which include guardianship, vocational guidance and physical activities.

Southworth (2005:101) enumerates that the following should be the focus and attention of leaders in providing equitable learning: Making learning central to their work, consistent communicating the centrality of students learning, drawing public attention to the focus on powerful, equitable learning, and paying public attention to efforts to support learning. Therefore, in achieving the goal of the curriculum, financial management is an essential component to enable schools to meet their educational aims and targets. Therefore, sufficient school finance and the effective management thereof will play a major role in building an effective school (Kruger, 2003:236-243). Bisschoff (1997) suggests that the financial planning of the school should reflect the vision and mission of the school and a whole school development approach should be followed to draft a budget, which means everyone who is involved in implementing the budget should also be involved in drawing it up (Kruger, 2003: 236-243).

Van de Grift, et. al. (2006:255-273) reports that "management, in terms of supporting and stimulating teachers and appropriate use of the school budget, was much better in out-performing schools than in average schools. However, principals performed these tasks less well in under-achieving schools, than in average schools. The same was true for school boards. Situational factors seemed to be more of a disadvantage for under-achieving schools, but were of advantage for performing schools, because under-performing schools were less geared up to improving educational quality".

2.11.5 The management of school finance

Financial management is an essential component to enable schools to meet their educational aims and targets. Therefore, sufficient school finance and the effective management thereof will play a major role in building an effective school (Kruger, 2003:236-243). Bisschoff (1997) also suggests that the financial planning of the school should reflect the vision and mission of the school and a whole school development approach should be followed to draft a budget, which means everyone who is involved in implementing the budget should also be involved in drawing it up (Kruger, 2003: 236-243).

Van de Grift, et. al. (2006:255-273) reports that management, in terms of supporting and stimulating teachers and appropriate use of the school budget, was much better in out-performing schools than in average schools. However, principals performed these tasks less well in under-achieving schools, than in average schools. The same was true for school boards. Situational factors seemed to be more of a disadvantage for under-achieving schools, but were of advantage for performing schools, because under-performing schools were less geared up to improving educational quality.

2.11.6 The management of school-community relationships

The school community links are of a mutually beneficial relationship in which the principal should play a leading role. The community can support the learning climate of the school in many ways (e.g. providing direction for the mission of the school, recruiting volunteers to help at school functions, assisting as class presenters or as mentors, and in creating a sense of stability in the community). Their on-going support and involvement are important for teacher development and school improvement. School principal and teachers have to win the trust and respect of the parent-community. Parents must feel they are valued and accepted as equal partners of the school, as schools are dependent on the support and goodwill of their parent-community and the creation of positive relationships with parents (Nieuwenhuis and Potvin, 2005).

Cranston (2001:1-24) research in two schools found that principals need to demonstrate particular skills, capacities and attitudes with regard to community involvement. However, findings further indicate that for the two schools regarding community involvement in decision-making, the two schools moved into different operational contexts where teachers and parents have significantly enhanced roles in decision-making compared with earlier times because of the application of 'School-Based Management' (SBM). In planning the curriculum to be offered, the school principal and the management team should also take the community needs into consideration (Nieuwenhuis, 2007a:137).

Conclusively, the discussed elements of school management above point to the fact that the internal school environment technically bases its concern more on the management of human resources development - particularly teachers, the curriculum, leadership and classroom management, optimal and positive support from administrative staff, availability of funds to

procure necessary teaching tools, equipment, materials, adequacy of school physical facilities and their prompt maintenance and school/community relationship management. Thus it implies that the school SLMT should be prepared to achieve the goal of well-balanced students' activities, with a guarantee to monitor and guide student instructional programme, which ultimately results in to school effectiveness.

By implication, it is clear that effective schools prioritize a rigorous instructional program that provides all students with equitable opportunities to learn and enable them to master challenging contents, skills, learning strategies, continuous engagement of the school community and as a result, meeting student needs and addressing achievement gaps (New Vision for Public Schools, 2006). The external management area leading to school effectiveness, though not dealt with in this study, is briefly described below.

2.12 Management of the external school environment

The external management environment of a school contains all external factors that may have a direct effect on school effectiveness and thus student achievements. They are namely: the political legislative (support from the Ministry of Education), socio-economic environment, technological change, values and culture of the parent-community of the school and they must be taken into account by school management (Nieuwenhuis, 2007a:221). School leadership and management are also greatly influenced by the earlier mentioned factors, stemming from the external environment (see Figure 2.1), but these aspects of school management leading to school effectiveness are not discussed in this study, because this study deals specifically with the internal leadership and management practices of the school, which may influence school effectiveness.

2.13 Conclusion

It is clear from the literature that leadership and management are some of the most important dynamics contributing to school effectiveness. The different leadership models emphasize the complexity of the task of principal and other education leaders in a school. All the aforementioned leadership models in this chapter have a function in a school in contributing to quality teaching and learning. Leaders must therefore have a set of values which provide a

basis of self-awareness. The second category of the model is "moral confidence", the capacity to act in a way that is consistent with an ethical manner in a school system over time.

The role of the transformational leader focuses on building a school vision; establishing realistic attainable school aims and objectives, offering individualized support to teachers, modeling best teaching practices and important values, demonstrating high performance expectations, developing structures to foster participation in the school decisions and creating a positive school climate and culture. The instructional leader should be strongly concerned with teaching and learning, including the professional development of the teaching staff as well as the students' growth and development. The focus of educational leadership is thus on effective teaching and quality education.

Moreover, sometimes it will be necessary for the education leader to put on his or her formal management model and managerial hat and to be able to enforce the performance of the formal activities of a school when the situation demands. Therefore, the importance of management as a dynamic of school effectiveness is also emphasized. In other words, the same person must have the adaptability to encourage participative management, establish and maintain sound relationships with staff, parents and students and to motivate all concerned to assist in realizing the vision, aims and objectives of the school. Education leaders could according to the situation apply elements of the management and leadership models in practice. The school must be transformed based on an effective learning community.

The two basic responsibilities of any educational manager are emphasized in the chapter namely: the achievement of predetermined aims and objectives by means of effective planning, the setting of aims and objectives, the implementation of policy, decision making, delegating, coordinating and control. The first responsibility therefore focuses on task execution. An education leader should ensure that subordinates define tasks in accordance with predetermined standards. He or she should also see to it that the predetermined objectives are achieving according to a set time schedule. With this objective in view, education leaders should use the conceptual management skills that have been discussed, to execute specific activities and prescribed procedures in the six management areas. The

effective execution of tasks in a school should always be focused on quality educational management to ensure school effectiveness.

The second responsibility focuses on the creation and maintenance of harmonious relationships with staff, students and parents by means of effective leadership through motivation, communication skills necessary to form effective groups and to establish a sound relationship with staff, students and parents by means of effective leadership, motivation, communication skills necessary to form effective groups and to establish sound relationships in a school. The successful completion of a task is dependent on the leader's ability to direct the actions of the teachers and students so that they willingly achieve the set objectives of the school. The leader has the responsibility of reinforcing sound interpersonal relations in the school, built on mutual respect and trust. This is because leadership is characterized by adaptability and flexibility. Hence, a good leader is therefore a person who can maintain good human relations, but who is also able to enforce the performance of the formal activities of a school when the situation demands.

As stated earlier, excellence in a school relates to its core activities which are, teaching and learning. Effective teaching and learning are not possible unless there is a healthy internal school environment in which optimal teaching and learning can take place. Knowledge of conceptual, human and technical management skills is required to create a positive organisational climate and culture in schools to manage conflict in school and to encourage effective change. The values and culture of the parent-community should also be taken into account in the management of the internal environment of the school.

The effective management of the managerial areas in a school is also emphasized, implying that that all actions and activities centre on the resources of the school. These include administrative staff and technology to ensure effective school administration, human resources with the emphasis on the teaching staff, physical resources (buildings, furniture, textbooks, exercise books, educational aids, etc.); school finance (money) and the management of the curriculum and extra-curriculum activities. The available resources must be utilized, maintained and developed to support effective and quality teaching and learning.

Lastly, the influence of the external school environment was briefly discussed. It includes the political influence (legislation applicable to education), socio-economic environment,

technological change; values and culture of the parent-community of the school. These variables must also be taken into account of by school management.

This Chapter 2 literature review will bring about possible derivation of school effectiveness criteria from the different dimensions (sub-themes) of leadership and management. These sub-themes or indicators produced the criteria that were used to measure leadership and management actions of education leaders in the school. This featured in Chapter 5 and 6.

Nevertheless, the conceptual framework of Scheerens (1990) and Prinsloo's (2009) model have some differences and some features in common. Though they are used to shape the research perspectives of this study and they both possess the basic system variables of a school with input processes and context of the school in terms of leadership, management climate and culture and parental input, school facilities, resources etc. (see Fig. 1.1 and 2.1). The conceptual framework and model are also both multi-layered and multi-leveled with respect to how series of variables in a level are independent and inter-dependent on other variables at other levels, to produce an effective school system.

It is clear from the literature review that the major difference in the Prinsloo (2009) model and the Scheerens (1990) conceptual framework is that Prinsloo's model elaborates on how different leadership and management indicators can combine to produce an effective leader and manager in attaining an effective school; whereas Scheerens's (1990) conceptual framework is seen as indicating clearly, classroom management indicators that may contribute to school effectiveness, which Prinsloo's model does not possess in elaborate terms. These indicators are teacher experience, time spent on task (including homework); structure of teaching, opportunity to learn, high expectation of pupils' progress, degree of evaluation and a number of other classroom leadership and management-related factors, which may determine a teacher's management ability, hence the essence of Chapter 3 of this study.

School leadership and management processes and functions transform into classroom management, resulting in the attainment of the core goal and mission of the school - effective student learning. Hence Rowe (2004:13) cites key findings from the initial stages of the Victorian Quality Schools Project (VQSP) which articulates that:

"…on the basis of our findings to date, it could be argued that effective schools are only *effective* to the extent that they have *effective teachers*" (p. 15).

The citation above is necessary because teachers serve as leaders and managers during teaching and learning in the classroom. Furthermore, Rowe (2004:10) quotes Muijs and Raynolds (2001: p. vii) in a British research as follows:

"All the evidence that has been generated in the school effectiveness research community shows that classrooms are far more important than schools in determining how children perform at school".

The consistency of the above quotations implies that attainment of effective student learning is possible if classroom leadership and management are given the necessary attention. Therefore, Chapter 3 emphasizes the dynamics of classroom leadership and management and how it contributes to school effectiveness.