

## CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

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### 2.1 INTRODUCTION AND CONTEXTUALIZATION OF THE STUDY

The study of instructional leadership and its possible contribution to learner performance has received scholarly attention for the past two decades. A considerable body of literature which deals with variables related to school effectiveness and improvement, leadership and different leadership practices, and the challenges faced by school principals with regard to poor performance of learners, has been produced. However, none of this literature has produced a definite answer on how to improve the pass rate in the matriculation examination in South Africa.

During this period, a large number of studies have reflected a growing interest by various researchers and leadership practitioners in the school leadership domain. In particular, research has revealed different views that exist between scholars as to whether instructional leadership practices of principals have a measurable effect on learner performance. This chapter therefore ventures into the literature to form a theoretical base for the investigation of the variables related to instructional leadership and their contribution to the improvement of learner performance in the matriculation examination.

### 2.2 CONCEPTUALIZATION OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

Instructional leadership is one of the fundamental concepts in this study. Instructional leadership has been conceptualized in many different ways by various scholars and researchers. Mullan (2007:23) refers to curriculum leadership and conceptualises it as the jurisdiction of the principal who, as the head of the organization, must be a “master generalist,”.....“one who knows curriculum management and the change processes for the whole school.” In the school effectiveness literature there is a distinction between *instructional* leadership and *administrative* leadership, although Hallinger and Heck (1996b) argue that these concepts cannot be separated. It is appropriate to analyse this construct by splitting it into its component parts, namely *instruction* and *leadership*, in order to gain a better understanding of what each of the two concepts implies.

*Instruction*, according to Calitz, cited by Kruger (1995a:43), concerns itself with the selection and arrangement of learning content, setting goals and objectives, the unfolding of knowledge, the transfer of skills and attitudes, and the provision of feedback to pupils in terms of their learning achievements. For Fraser, Loubser and Van Rooyen (1993), cited by Pitsoe (2005:62), the concept *instruction* is associated with the transfer of knowledge, skills, techniques and proficiencies, while Laska (1984:9) viewed instruction as “referring to formal education which occurs in a school or comparably structured setting.... it comprises those elements of an instructional activity that represent the delivery system for the curricular content.”

Leadership, according to Yukl (2002), is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how it can be done effectively, and facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives. From this definition of leadership, it follows that there must one person who wields the power and ability to influence others, and in this case it is the principal. Egwuonwu (2000) sees leadership as the “*moral and intellectual ability to visualize and work for what is better for the company and its employees...*” Ade (2003), on the other hand, defines leadership as a social influence process in which the leader seeks the voluntary participation of subordinates in an effort to reach organizational objectives. The word “voluntary” in Ade’s (2003) definition is the operational word which indicates that effective leadership does not connote the use of absolute power or authority alone. Successful leaders need to back up any authority and power vested in them with personal attributes and social skills (Asonibare, 1996).

Fapojuwu (2002) sees leadership as the ability to guide, conduct, direct or influence one’s followers for the purpose of achieving common goals or tasks. This implies that the leader possesses the ability to influence others to achieve results. The definitions of instructional leadership provided below should suffice to merge the meanings of instruction and leadership.

Wimpelberg, Teddlie and Stringfield (1989) define instructional leadership as specific policies, practices, and behaviours initiated by the principal. The concept can also be interpreted as development strategies, using a variety of management instruments to achieve a school’s most important task – the desired student results (Gaziel, 2007:17).

Hopkins (2001:114) contends that instructional leadership is about creating learning opportunities for both learners and teachers. This definition puts the development of both teachers and learners at the centre, and further proposes that developmental programmes for educators should be put in place. Weller (1999:36) adds more dimensions into the definition by referring to instructional leadership as *“the high visibility and involvement of the principal in every phase of the school programme.”*

Mullan (2007:18) indicates that curriculum leaders and curriculum leadership refer to active participation in moving schools forward to provide a learning programme that is vigorous and relevant in preparing learners for a successful future, and that demonstrates results over time. Curriculum leaders, according to Glatthorn (2000:18), rise above routine tasks, with the ultimate goal of maximizing student learning by providing quality in terms of learning content. This view reiterates the question of whether principals are supposed to manage and lead, or to lead and manage schools. Drawing on the definitions of leadership, routine has no place in leadership. Leadership calls for initiative, creativity and innovation on the part of the leader.

The following sections of this chapter deal with the development and practice of instructional leadership in five different countries: Nigeria, the United Kingdom, the United States of America, Norway and South Africa. Different features of instructional leadership are discussed, including aspects such as effective instructional leadership; visionary instructional leadership; instructional leadership and school effectiveness; instructional leadership and teaching and learning; and three different instructional leadership models. It is hoped that engagement with these aspects will provide a better understanding of the place and role of instructional leadership in the improvement of the performance of learners in the matriculation examination.

It is important to deal first with the following aspects to serve as the building blocks of instructional leadership, before considering how they manifest themselves in the practice of instructional leadership in the different countries: historical context of instructional leadership; purpose and functions of instructional leadership; instructional leadership and teaching and learning; key elements of instructional leadership, which will encapsulate the variables related to instructional leadership; instructional leadership and school culture and climate, and visionary instructional leadership; prerequisites for instructional leadership; professional development for instructional leadership; principals’ and teachers’ perceptions

of instructional leadership; and the practice of instructional leadership in the five different countries.

## 2.3 HISTORICAL CONTEXT AND MODELS OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

The historical context of instructional leadership includes the emergence of this concept in the educational field, and how it has impacted on the changing role of the principal from being a manager and school administrator, to being an instructional leader and ultimately sharing this role with all educators in a school. Mitchell and Castle (2005) contend that the concept of instructional leadership emerged during the 1970s as a factor to improve school effectiveness, an issue which appeared around the same time. Lashway (2004:1) indicates that in the 1980s instructional leadership became the dominant paradigm for school leaders after researchers noticed that effective schools usually had principals who maintained a high focus on curriculum and instruction. The following table presents the founding views which were held about instructional leadership since its conception in the 1970s. These views serve as a theoretical point of departure that has informed this investigation into the variables related to instructional leadership and their contribution to learner performance.

**TABLE 2.1: Founding views about instructional leadership**

References	Founding views
Cotton & Sarvad (1983:42)	After surveying seven major studies related to the performance of effective principals, they concluded that in schools where principals took an active role in instructional improvement, there was higher academic achievement of learners.
The National Education Association (1986:12)	In emphasizing the importance of instructional leadership in the promotion of excellent learner performance, they reported that excellent performance is achieved in schools where the principal aggressively promoted a point of view which boosted performance.
The National Education Association, Washington, D.C. (1986:32)	The principal's leadership does have a bearing on the performance of the learners.....the principal's instructional leadership facilitates a school climate that supports learner performance (see 2.5.5 below).
Thomas (1986:27)	A principal who builds professional relations among his/her teachers based on high standards, coupled with mutual trust and respect, is most likely to be successful.
Hall (1986:51)	There is a statistical correlation between learner performance on the one hand and educators' perceptions of their principal's instructional performance on the other hand.

References	Founding views
Larsen (1987:61)	The primary contributing factor of higher achieving schools is the quality of the principal's leadership which resulted in an orderly and efficient school climate with higher levels of cooperation from the learners, the staff and the parents.
Larsen (1987:60)	There is a definite relationship between the instructional leadership behaviour of the principal and learner achievement.
Dubin (1990:86)	Instructional skills are part of the teacher's equipment, which need to be developed by the principal to ensure that teachers become effective. The principal must talk and listen and know what they are doing. He/she must have his/her hand on the pulse of the school.
Chetty (1993:89)	The role of the principal in ensuring that the primary reason of a school (teaching and learning) is carried out is to help establish, develop and maintain a teaching staff which will provide the best possible opportunities for teaching and learning.

The conception of instructional leadership which was held in the 1970s changed during the first half of the 1990s when the notion of school-based management and facilitative leadership emerged. Due to the growth of standards-based accountability systems in the education systems of the world, including South Africa, instructional leadership has now surged back to the top of the leadership agenda (Lashway, 2004).

Phillips (2009:1) views instructional leadership by school leaders as a relatively new concept that emerged in the 1980s, which called for a shift in emphasis from principals as managers or administrators to instructional or academic leaders. While a sizeable number of scholars and researchers in the school leadership field have emphasized the importance of instructional leadership on learner performance in the matriculation examination, Phillips (*ibid.*) argues that instructional leadership is seldom used or practised. Among the reasons cited for the lack of instructional leadership or emphasis thereon, are the lack of in-depth training of principals for their role as instructional leaders, lack of time to execute instructional activities, increased paper work, and the community's expectation that the principal's role is that of a manager (Flath, 1989:20; Fullan, 1991:44). Another factor is the complexity of the principal's role, which involves understanding the historical context, purpose, function, personal qualities and behaviours of instructional leaders. McEwan (2002), focusing on the development of leadership in general and instructional leadership in particular, juxtaposes the development of leadership in the business world against its practice in schools. McEwan (2002:1) argues that:

*“Corporate executives can measure their success in terms of bottom lines, increased sales and productivity and rises in stock prices. Educators, particularly principals, face a different set of challenges. Although many of the lessons of leadership in the corporate world are applicable within the walls of our schools, we need our own model of leadership, one that incorporates the unique characteristics of teaching and learning.”*

In pursuit of the above view, and contrary to the classical management functions associated with a principal (planning, organizing, leading and monitoring/controlling), McEwan (2002) argues that today’s principals must be trained to become instructional leaders. The same view has been held by Hoy and Miskel (2005) and various other scholars, albeit at different times, have made reference to Sergiovanni (2006) who proposed one of the first models of instructional leadership. Sergiovanni identified five leadership forces, namely: *technical, human, educational, symbolic and cultural*.

The *technical aspect* of instructional leadership (IL) deals with the traditional practices of management, namely: planning, time management, leadership theory, and organizational development. The *human component* encompasses all the interpersonal aspects of IL which are essential to the communicating, motivating, and facilitating roles of the principal. The *educational force component* involves all the instructional aspects of the principal’s role: teaching, learning, and implementing the curriculum.

The *symbolic and cultural components*, according to McEwan (2002) and Hoy and Miskel (2008), derive from the instructional leader’s ability to become the symbol of what is important and purposeful about the school (symbolic), as well as to articulate the values and beliefs of the organization over time (cultural).

The emergence of instructional leadership is viewed by Hoy and Miskel (2008) as a critical breakthrough for educational organizations in the sense that it is directly linked to the performance of learners. These authors contend that a principal who is an instructional leader defines goals, works with teachers, provides authentic professional development and other resources for teachers and staff, and creates new learning opportunities for staff members. Chang (2001:8) summarizes the barriers to instructional leadership as follows (refer to table 2.2):

**Table 2.2: Barriers to instructional leadership (Adapted from Chang, 2001:8)**

Identified barriers	Examples
<b>Knowledge/Skills</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of knowledge and skills</li> <li>• Lack of qualified staff</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Limited training and education</li> <li>• Teachers teaching outside their field of study</li> </ul>
<b>Context</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Leadership attrition</li> <li>• Insufficient time</li> <li>• Multiple roles and responsibilities</li> <li>• Geographic isolation</li> <li>• Individual and group self-esteem, pride, etc.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Constant changes in leadership</li> <li>• Paperwork overload</li> <li>• Too many extra-curricular activities, work overload, e.g. some principals do not have assistant principals</li> <li>• Limited access to professional development</li> <li>• Leaders are not respected because they do not have the power and resources to solve the problems faced by the school and its personnel</li> </ul>
<b>Community</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Cultural incongruence with contemporary demands</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Traditional mores and practices may be in conflict with what the school is trying to do</li> </ul>
<b>Political/Legal</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Legal/contractual limitations</li> <li>• Conflicting priorities among decision makers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Teacher unions protect poor teachers, principals spend time in hearings with no legal assistance</li> <li>• Priorities of educators may differ from those of political leaders</li> </ul>
<b>Professional development</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Limited access to quality professional development</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Lack of mentors (principals and their assistants need mentors and support as they learn their roles in the school)</li> </ul>
<b>Resources</b> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Limited resources</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Insufficient facilities, equipment and other supplies</li> </ul>
<b>Lack of Incentives/Rewards</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Incentives (there should be a financial incentive for principals and assistant principals to accept leadership positions)</li> </ul>

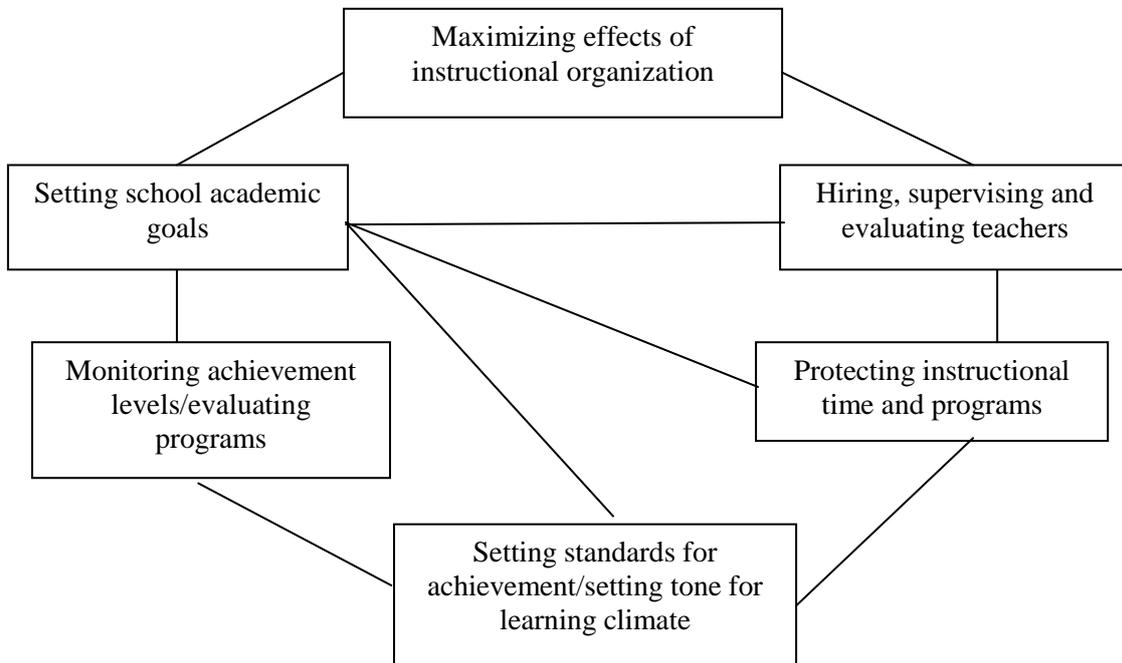
The views of Chang (2001) and Phillips (2009) are supported by Lahui-Ako (2000:233) who, by drawing on the works of scholars such as Wildy and Dimmock, (1993); Rosenblum *et al.* (1994); Hallinger and Heck (1995); and Mulford (1996), contends that while principals can and do make a difference to both teachers and learners through their skills as instructional leaders, instructional leadership has not been widely practised in schools. It is on these barriers (table 2.2) to instructional leadership as proposed by Chang (2001) that this study focused and investigated whether the preparation of principals for the practice of

instructional leadership would assist them to disentangle these barriers (*Subsidiary research question 3*).

## 2.4 PURPOSE AND FUNCTIONS OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

According to Weber (1987:7), a principal is the prime instructional leader and he/she works with leadership functions that are sometimes shared and sometimes not. This section investigates the development of instructional leadership, including different models that have been used to express the purpose and functions of this construct. The section concludes by considering the purpose and functions of instructional leadership as these have changed over time. The first model presented explores six interactive functions of instructional leadership. These functions are referred to as *interactive* because they affect one another. Each of the six functions is explained briefly after the structural representation of the functions shown in figure 2.1 below.

**FIGURE 2.1: Interrelationships among six major functions of instructional leadership (Adapted from Weber, 1987:9)**



From figure 2.1 above, two important concepts associated with instructional leadership are: supervision and school climate/culture. These concepts and their relationship with instructional leadership are dealt with in the ensuing sections of this chapter. Instructional

leadership should have as its primary goal the provision of leadership in terms of the teaching and learning processes in the school.

The function of setting academic goals refers to the responsibility of the principal in providing guidance and central themes for the school goals. Such guidance requires that the principal should be familiar with all levels of instruction in the school. Weber (1987:10) emphasizes that “the instructional leader must work with individuals of varying capacities and established score” which means that irrespective of the different capacities of the teaching staff, the instructional leader must ensure that all of them perform to achieve the same goals.

Maximizing the effects of instructional organization, which is also referred to as organizing the instructional program, is another function of instructional leadership, which is directly aligned with setting instructional goals for the school. According to Weber (1987:15), the strategies of bringing the goals of the school to reality depend on allocating staff and organizing resources to maximum effect. Again, in line with what was said about the varying capacities of the staff above, the instructional leader must be able to utilize each staff member fruitfully for the attainment of the school goals.

The hiring, supervising and evaluating of teachers is another major instructional leadership tasks of the principal. Weber (1987:23) indicates that the correct choice of people is vital to the health of an instructional programme and appropriate choices can save the principal difficulties and allow more time for instructional leadership. On the same score, even excellent teachers cannot renew themselves, but need the intervention of the instructional leader to provide in-service training opportunities. It is also important that the principal, as instructional leader, provides his/her staff with continuous/ongoing opportunities for in-service training in order to ensure that the school’s goals are realized.

The last and equally important function of instructional leadership is the protection of instructional time and programmes. The principal must be able to monitor unplanned distracters to instruction and put in place contingency measures to catch up on lost instructional time. Creating a climate for learning is regarded by Weber (1987:39) as a real factor in motivating teachers and learners to hold high expectations for themselves and to perform at their best academically. It is therefore imperative that the principal as

instructional leader creates and provides a suitable school environment, learning climate, social climate, or organizational climate.

Monitoring achievement and evaluating programmes is also a primary function of the principal as an instructional leader. It is through the instructional leader's enactment of this function that instructional programmes can be assessed and revised. The instructional leader must be able to use data collected from performance levels of learners to evaluate the school programmes.

Lashway (2004) argues that the practice of instructional leadership has consistently changed with time, from its inception during the 1970s and 1980s, to how it is practiced today. Lashway (2004:1), drawing on the work of King (2002) and DuFour (2002), indicates that current definitions of instructional leadership are richer and more expansive than those of the 1980s. The original role of the instructional leader involved traditional tasks such as setting clear goals, allocating resources to instruction, managing the curriculum, monitoring lesson plans, and evaluating teachers. Instructional leadership today includes much deeper involvement in the "core technology" of teaching and learning, carries more sophisticated views of professional development, and emphasizes the use of data in decision making.

#### **2.4.1 INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND TEACHING AND LEARNING**

A considerable body of literature in the domains of school effectiveness and instructional leadership has reiterated the power of the influence of principals on the instructional practices of teachers. The principals' instructional leadership behaviours were seen to have a significant influence on how teachers performed in their classes (Lahui-Ako, 2000; Larson-Knight, 2000; Blasé & Blasé, 2000).

Teaching and learning are the core business of schools and the main focus of this study is to establish the extent to which principals (instructional leaders) impact on these activities to improve learner achievement. According to Hoadley, Christie, Jacklin and Ward (2007), knowledge of how principals manage teaching and learning in schools in South Africa is limited. They further contend that while there is growing consensus in South African research that school principals play a crucial role in creating conditions for improved instruction, what is less understood is how principals may contribute to creating these conditions.

Ojo and Olaniyan (2008:173), in their investigation of the leadership roles of school administrators in Nigerian secondary schools, refer to the Institute of Educational Leadership (2000) which proposed that principals today must, over and above their traditional managerial responsibilities, serve as leaders for student learning; know academic content and pedagogical techniques; work with teachers to strengthen skills; and finally, principals must collect, analyse and use data in ways that fuel excellence.

Ojo and Olaniyan (2008) view curriculum development as one of the major responsibilities of principals. They indicate that a curriculum is NOT a record of “what has happened”, but a “plan of what will happen”. It specifies the learning experiences or opportunities designed for the learner. On the basis of this assertion, these authors argue that whoever owns/manages the school influences the implementation of the curriculum because he/she designs it in such a way that will satisfy some identified needs or purposes.

Following on the argument of Ojo and Olaniyan (2008:74) above, Arikewuyo (2009) poses the question of whether teaching experience is a sufficient condition/requirement for the appointment of principals, without any form of training on management and administration. In Nigeria, potential principals are expected to attend mandatory leadership courses at the National Institute for Educational Planning and Administration (NIEPA) before assuming managerial positions. According to Arikewuyo (2009:74), a principal is supposed to perform the following functions:

*“...provide leadership for curriculum development; provide leadership for instructional improvement; create an environment conducive for the realization of human potentials; influence the behaviour of staff members (this view is in concert with the view of Asonibare (1996) about the impact of the principal’s personal characteristics on the achievement of learners) and supervise instructional activities in the school.”*

Wong and NG (2003:37) indicate that the principal must be able to demonstrate his/her ability to lead in carrying out the above functions with professional knowledge; possess organizational and administrative competence; have the ability to work out a good school policy and put it into effect; display skill in the delegation of authority; show an ability to understand the professional problems of teachers and give professional guidance; and establish good working relationships with staff and parents.

All the above being said, Arikewuyo (2009:7) refers to the work of Akpa (1990) who found that principals in most African states, including Nigeria, ranked academic and instructional activities, including curriculum development, teaching and instructional supervision, second to staff and student management, liaison, coordinating, and financial management, which they treated with much vigour. This finding suggests that to these principals, management is regarded as being more important than instructional leadership. Although it appeared that some principals engage in instructional leadership activities, this is at a minimal level. Mulkeen, Chapman, DeJaeghere and Leu (2007) support the assertion by Akpa (1990) by indicating that principals in most African countries do not have any regard for instructional supervision and thus view it as not part of their duties. However, Bush and Jackson (2002); Bush and Oduro (2006); and Bush (2007; 2008) support the submissions made by Asonibare (1996), Arikewuyo (2009) and McKenzie *et al.* (2007) regarding the role of effective school leadership in the improvement of learner achievement, and the professional development of education leaders for school effectiveness and improvement.

Bush and Jackson (2002:418) argue that effective school leadership is a key to both continuous improvement and major system transformation. This implies that the transformation of the education system and ensuring uninterrupted improvement in the achievement of learners lies in the practice of effective school leadership. Hallinger and Heck (1999), in supporting the role of principals in ensuring effective school leadership for school effectiveness, say the following about the purposes of the school:

*“...leaders in all sectors are exhorted to articulate their vision, set clear goals for their organizations, and create a sense of shared mission. Our view supports the belief that formulating the school’s purposes represents an important leadership function. In fact, the research shows that mission building is the strongest and most consistent avenue of influence that school leaders use to influence learner achievement.”*

For school leadership to be effective, the leaders or leadership practitioners (the principals in this case) must have the necessary skills to enable them to perform their jobs. In response to this imperative, Bush (2007) indicates that there is little evidence of principals and other school leaders being developed for the central function of schools which is to promote learning, and that principals are further not found to be conceptualizing their role as leaders of learning. Bush and Oduro (2006) trace this lack of development of principals to the lack of capacity amongst those responsible for appointing, training, and supporting principals,

and indicate further that many of these officials are no better qualified than the principals. An example flowing from Bush and Oduro's (2006) assertion is that the principals who study the ACE School Leadership programmes will emerge from higher education institutions (HEIs) with more knowledge and leadership capacity than their circuit managers or Institutional Development Support Officers (IDSOs) and directors who control them.

The above is also true in the situation where principals or candidates for principalship positions are recruited. The major challenge in the recruitment and subsequent appointment of individuals for these positions is whether the processes are appropriate to identify the most suitable person for the leadership position. It is worth indicating that the current approaches and procedures followed in the recruitment of principals in South Africa need to be revisited. There is a general trend of appointing people into principalship positions on the basis of their time spent in a particular school, the number of years as a Head of Department (HOD) and/or the number of degrees that the person holds, without establishing the person's leadership capacity. Without the necessary leadership skills, a principal may be unable to bring about effectiveness and improvement in the school, which are prerequisites for learner performance.

## **2.5 KEY ELEMENTS OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP**

Phillips (2009:2), in his analysis of instructional leadership, administration, and management, argues that instructional leadership involves: setting clear goals; allocating resources for instruction; managing the curriculum; monitoring lesson plans; and evaluating teachers. It also involves those actions that the principal performs or delegates to others to promote growth in student learning. Some of the key elements that characterize instructional leadership and distinguish it from management and administration include prioritization; a focus on alignment of the curriculum, instruction and assessment standards; data analysis; a culture of continuous learning for adults; school culture and climate; visionary instructional leadership; and the variables related to instructional leadership. These key elements of instructional leadership are discussed below.

### **2.5.1 PRIORITIZATION AS AN ELEMENT OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP**

This element emphasizes the fact that teaching and learning must constantly be a top priority. Phillips (2009:1) contends that leadership is a balance of management and vision

and that the instructional leader must bring that vision to realization. Bringing the vision to realization needs a principal who is in constant contact with his leadership team and the entire staff to evaluate their competencies in order to assist them to improve. This endeavour becomes possible only if the principal himself/herself as instructional leader is a knowledgeable, learning and thinking person, who appreciates the value of the intellect, who is interested in ideas, and responds to experimentation and innovation (Barends, 2004:2).

### **2.5.2 FOCUS ON ALIGNMENT OF CURRICULUM, INSTRUCTION, ASSESSMENT AND STANDARDS AS ELEMENTS OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP**

The principal as instructional leader must ensure that there is alignment between the curriculum, instruction, and assessment of the required standard to ensure learner achievement. In order to realise this aim, Phillips (2009:2) argues that the principal as an instructional leader should be a practising teacher. He further contends that instructional leaders need to know what is going on in the classroom, which is an opportunity to “walk the factory floor”.

Once the principal is in touch with what happens in the classroom, he/she will be able to appreciate some of the problems teachers and learners encounter, address instructional issues from a ‘hands on’ perspective rather than from their own teaching perspective, establish a base from which to address and make curriculum decisions, and strengthen the belief that “the sole purpose of the school is to serve the educational needs of students” (Harden, 1988:88).

In addition to the key elements addressed above, Phillips (2009) reiterates that the principal must display professional/leadership skills and human relations skills in his/her instructional role. These skills are essential for the development of educational excellence. Supporting Phillips (2009) in this view, Rosenblum (1994:17) proposes certain leadership behaviours and specific activities of principals that seem to have a positive effect on learner performance. These scholars contend that good leadership facilitates collaboration, communication, feedback, influence and professionalism through the establishment of a vision and a value system. In addition, good leadership presupposes having consistent policies to delegate and empower others, thus sharing leadership responsibility; modelling

risk taking; focusing on people; nurturing staff members and helping them to grow; and emphasizing the educational, rather than the purely technical aspects of schooling.

In support of Phillips (2009) and Lahui-Ako (2000), Whitaker (1997:156) identifies four skills which an instructional leader should have, as presented in the table that follows:

**TABLE 2.3: Instructional leadership and principal visibility (Adapted from Whitaker, 1997)**

Skills	Manifestation
1. Resource provider	In addition to their knowledge of strengths and weaknesses of their school, principals should recognise that teachers desire to be acknowledged and appreciated for a job well done.
2. Instructional resource	Teachers rely on their principals as resources of information on current trends and effective instructional practices.
3. Good communicator	Effective instructional leaders need to communicate essential beliefs regarding learning, such as the conviction that all learners can learn.
4. Create a visible presence	Leading the instructional programme of a school means a commitment to living and breathing a vision of success in teaching and learning.

### **2.5.3 DATA ANALYSIS AS AN ELEMENT OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP**

Principals as instructional leaders can use data to help guide the instructional focus and professional development of teachers. The principal must be able to collect data from the performance of learners in their previous grades and different learning areas and use this data to develop teaching and learning improvement initiatives. An analysis of data from previous and current learner performance can therefore be regarded as a stepping stone for principals in the practice of their role as instructional leaders.

### **2.5.4 CULTURE OF CONTINUOUS LEARNING FOR ADULTS AS AN ELEMENT OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP**

Instructional leaders who regard learning as a priority will provide release time for teachers to attend relevant training. They will follow up by monitoring and providing the support that sustains the new learning. This view supports the idea that principals have a duty to create and provide teacher development opportunities in their schools to ensure that educators keep abreast of new developments in their field.

Halverson (2002:5) argues that “...because instructional leadership is so strongly connected with student performance, accessing and communicating leadership practice is an important issue for policymakers, schools of education, and practitioners alike”. According to Halverson (*ibid*), instructional leadership is defined as establishing the possibility of instructional innovation in schools. This implies that school leadership matters for instructional innovation. This study aims to establish how leadership, particularly instructional leadership, matters in schools, with specific focus on the improvement of learner achievement.

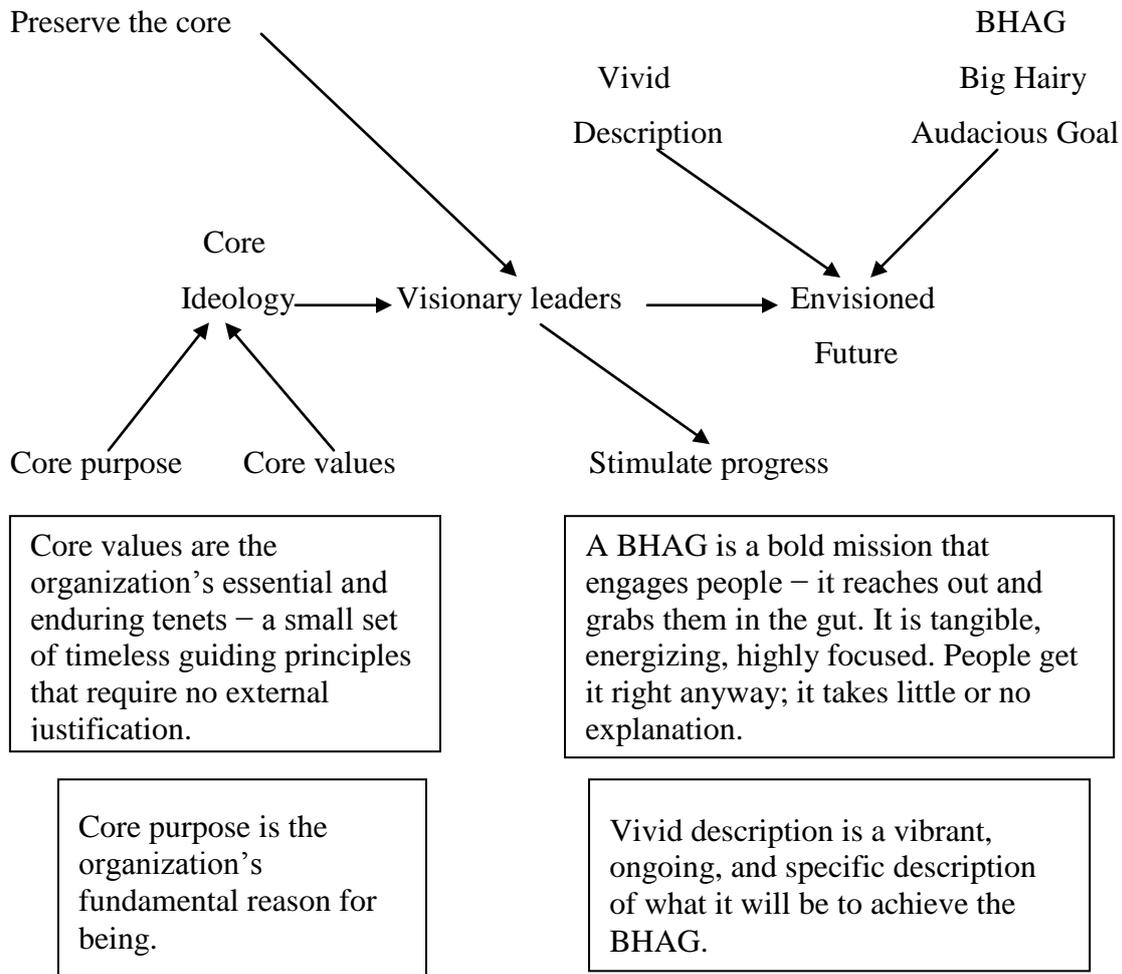
Halverson (2002:6) argues that for widespread instructional innovation to become a norm in schools, an exploration of how effective school leaders understand and implement instructional leadership practices becomes important. This position, it is assumed, will help to seal the gap that exists with regard to our knowledge of the conditions that promote leadership for innovative instruction in schools, how school leaders establish these conditions, how such conditions are artfully integrated into rich existing school cultures, and how these school cultures are communicated.

### **2.5.5 SCHOOL CULTURE AND CLIMATE AS ELEMENTS OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP**

One of the core variables of this study is the responsibility of the principal, as instructional leader, to create a shared vision for the school and to provide leadership that will shape the culture and climate of the school. There are three main concepts which need to be clarified for better understanding of this function, namely: vision, school culture, and school climate.

The Tennessee Instructional Leadership Standards (TILS) (2008) regard a school vision as a clearly articulated statement of goals, principles and expectations for the entire learning community. A vision becomes a guiding force when all educational decisions are based on its framework and goals. Collins and Porras (1991:32) describe a vision as an overarching concept under which a variety of concepts are subsumed. They further indicate that an organization’s vision consists of a well-defined “core ideology.” This ideology includes a “core purpose” as well as a set of fundamental values and beliefs, the “essential and enduring tenets” of an organization. These scholars propose the following structure which they call the “built to last vision framework” to explain their views about the concept of vision.

**FIGURE 2.2: “Built to last” vision framework (Source: Collins & Porras, 1991)**



Collins and Lazier (1992:2) explain the core aspects of this framework, emphasizing the fact that a clear vision is the single most powerful tool an organization can employ. According to these authors, the core values are where the vision begins and they are frequently referred to as the guiding philosophy of an organization. One of the variables related to instructional leadership that has been identified for this study is the communication of a clear vision and goals.

Gertz (1973), a renowned anthropologist, indicates that culture represents both written and implied messages. This means that a school's vision and mission statements may identify written goals for learner achievement, whereas unwritten goals may be evidenced by the value the school places on learner academic success. Stolp and Smith (1997) recognize school culture as everything from nonverbal communication (the warmth of the interaction between teachers and learners) to the patterns on the walls of the cafeteria. They further indicate that the most important aspects of culture are those whose meaning is shared by

members of the organization. A positive school culture is associated with higher learner motivation and performance, increased collaboration and improved attitudes among teachers towards their job.

The TILS (2008) define school culture as the values, beliefs and stories of a school. This includes values, symbols, beliefs and the shared meanings of parents, learners, teachers and others conceived as being a group or community. Culture governs what is of value for the group and how members should think, feel and believe. Jerald (2006:1) makes the following remarks about school culture:

*“Walk into any truly excellent school and you can feel it almost immediately – a calm, orderly atmosphere that hums with an exciting, vibrant sense of purposefulness. This is a positive school culture, the kind that improves educational outcomes.”*

While the importance of school culture was recognized as early as the 1930s, it was only during the 1970s that educational researchers began to draw direct links between the quality of a school’s climate and its educational outcomes (Jerald, 2006:2). Deal and Peterson (1990) affirm that school culture refers to the deep patterns of values, beliefs and traditions that have been formed over the course of the school’s history and which are understood by members of the school community. They define school culture as an “underground flow of feelings and folkways wending its way within schools” in the form of vision and values, beliefs and assumptions, rituals and ceremonies, history and stories, and physical symbols. Deal and Peterson (1990) further indicate that principals and administrators are central to shaping strong, professional school cultures. The more understood, accepted and cohesive the culture of a school, the better the school is able to move in concert towards its ideals and pursue its objectives.

School climate refers to the social and educational atmosphere of a school (TILS, 2008). The elements that comprise a school’s climate are extensive and may include: the number and quality of interactions between adults and learners; learners’ and teachers’ perceptions of their school environment; academic performance; feelings of safeness in the school; and feelings of trust and respect for learners and teachers. The description of culture, as proposed above by the TILS (2008), contains similar descriptive concepts to those associated with leadership, namely: vision, mission and values.

Both South African and international literature on leadership and management support the view that school principals play a crucial role in creating the conditions for improved instruction. Such conditions include the creation of a positive school culture, and a school climate that is warm and conducive for teaching and learning. Both these conditions should work towards fulfilling the mission and vision of the school.

The TILS (2008) indicate that an effective instructional leader creates a school culture and climate based on high expectations that are conducive to the success of all learners. In order to fulfil this important role, the instructional leader should be able to do the following: develop and sustain a school culture based on ethics, diversity, equity and collaboration; advocate, nurture, and lead a culture conducive to learning; develop and sustain a safe, secure, and disciplined learning environment; model and communicate self-discipline and engagement in life-long learning to staff, learners and parents; facilitate and sustain a culture that protects and maximizes learning time; and develop a leadership team designed to share responsibilities and ownership in terms of meeting the school's learning goals.

#### **2.5.6 VISIONARY INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AS AN ELEMENT OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP**

One of the main variables related to effective instructional leadership is the role of the principal in creating and communicating a shared vision and goals to the teachers and learners. The concept "vision" is viewed by Mumford and Strange (2005) as a cognitive construction or a mental model, a conceptual representation used to both understand system operations and guide actions within the system. Kantabutra (2008) defines "vision" as a mental model that a leader defines, given that it is the actual mental model that guides his/her choices and actions. Reynolds and Cuttence (1996) contend that a principal who shares his vision and goals with his staff (visionary leadership) boosts the teachers' and learners' morale, thereby improving the performance levels of learners.

A visionary instructional leader attempts to transform the conformist culture in his/her school, partly by confronting the tendency of its members to resist change (Glatthorn, 2000:24). This position is supported by Henderson and Hawthorne (2002:53) who indicate that a visionary instructional leader "does not fiddle while Rome burns", meaning that such a leader provides a vision for the organization, lives the vision, and ensures that all members of the organization perform their duties to fulfil the vision.

## **2.5.7 VARIABLES RELATED TO INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP**

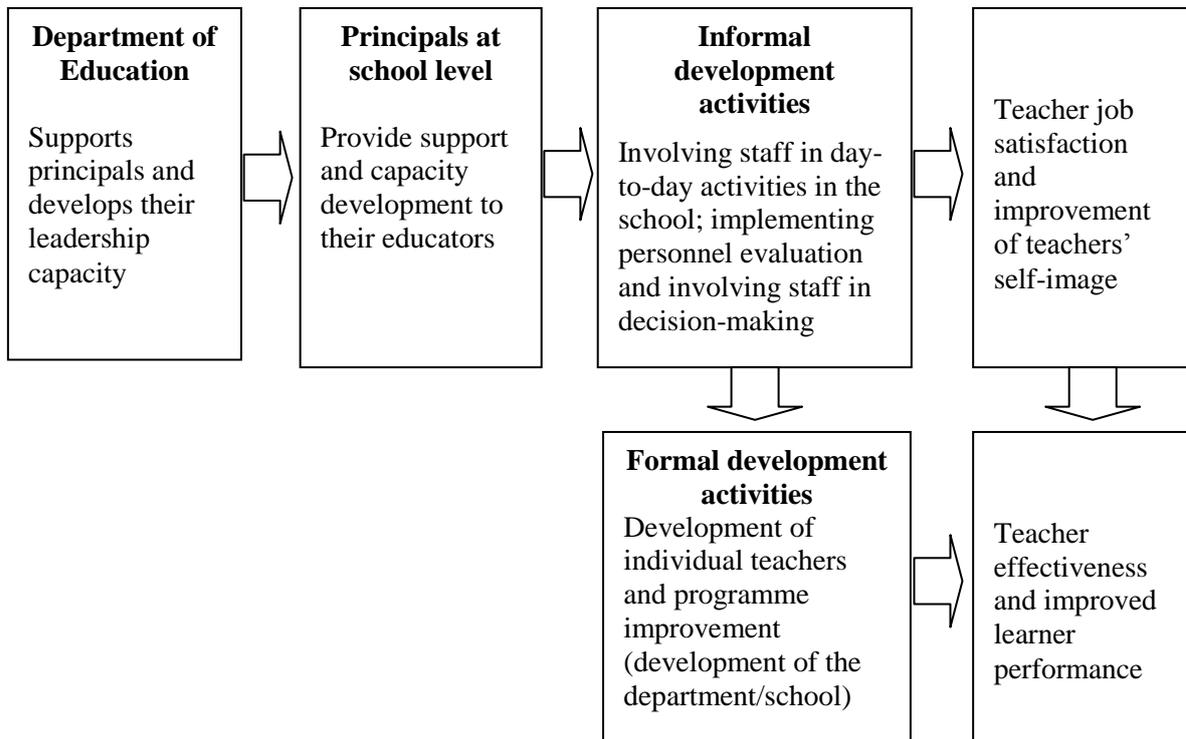
For the purpose of this study, four independent variables were identified. Their relationship with instructional leadership and their possible contribution to the improvement of learner performance are explored. These variables assisted the researcher to formulate questions for the deputy principals' and HODs' questionnaire. An exploration of each of the variables follows below:

### **2.5.7.1 Promoting frequent and appropriate school-wide teacher development activities**

Weber (1987:23) (refer to figure 1.1 for the six functions of instructional leadership) reiterates the fact that teacher development activities are a major task of the principal as an instructional leader. Teachers' capacity to deliver the curriculum needs to be prioritized by the principal by providing continuous in-service training for all teachers in the school irrespective of their performance records. Weber (*ibid.*) emphasizes the importance of in-service training opportunities for teachers by indicating that *“even the excellent teachers cannot renew themselves but need the intervention of the instructional leader to provide in-service training opportunities”*.

In support of the above views, Caldwell (2002) and Hallinger (2002) indicate that a school as an organization has become less in need of control and more in need of both support and capacity development. This implies that the national department of education has a duty to support and build the capacity of principals to carry out their leadership roles. The principals, in turn, need to support and build the capacity of their teachers in carrying out their teaching obligations. According to Leithwood (1996: xii), organizational needs such as described above are better served by practices associated with the concept of leadership than a focus purely on administration. The following diagram represents informal and formal teacher development activities and how they influence the performance of both teachers and learners:

**FIGURE 2.3: Representation of informal and formal teacher development activities**



In support of the representations in the figure above, Blasé and Blasé (2001) identify and emphasize *support* by principals for their teachers, which they view as a characteristic of instructional leadership. In a study conducted with 800 teachers in the Pacific Region, Blasé and Blasé (2000) found that both the teachers studied and their principals, emphasized teacher development and support as a characteristic of instructional leadership.

In the Blasé and Blasé (2001) study, the teachers indicated that their principals should support collaboration and build a culture based thereon; develop coaching relationships amongst them; apply principles of adult growth and development to all phases of the staff development programme, and use inquiry to drive staff development. The principals, on the other hand, indicated that in order to ensure professional development of their teachers, they should support and foster the teaching and learning process; develop and lead staff development based on teachers' needs; provide direction and support for professional development; conduct or assist in staff development; attend professional development activities with teachers; and support teacher implementation of these activities. The practice of attending professional development activities with teachers is vital for a principal in an instructional leadership role, since his/her exposure to the content of various learning areas will facilitate his/her intervention and assistance where teachers experience content-related

difficulties. This view is supported by Joubert and Van Rooyen (2010:17) who contend that *“simply providing more opportunities for professional development (workshops) is not enough. It is the quality of the interventions that counts.....effective principals enforce participation in development activities, leading by example”*.

### **2.5.7.2 Defining and communicating shared vision and goals**

Caldwell (2002:26) associates the concept of a vision with what he calls “strategic leadership” which is defined as seeing the “big picture”; discerning the “megatrends”; understanding the implications and ensuring that others in the school can do the same; establishing structures and processes to bring vision to realization, and monitoring the outcomes. It follows that a principal must prioritize the provision of a clear sense of mission, vision, goals and objectives that are understood and supported by all groups and by key decision makers.

Chang (2001:7) indicates that an instructional leader is a person with a vision who is able to assess the needs of the school and community. Such a leader is able to articulate his/her vision into a plan of action in which all parties can participate and feel a sense of ownership that will enable quality learning to occur. According to Chang (2001), giving life to the vision of a school depends on the commitment of the instructional leader (the principal) to empowering his/her staff, to ensuring that each individual can build his/her own self esteem; and where all the components of the school become part of the whole.

The view of Chang (2001) is shared by Lashway (1995:2) who contends that whilst the setting of high expectations for teachers and learners, establishing academic goals and creating a vision, were traditionally the role of the instructional leader, recent views and discussions emphasize the collaborative aspects of the process. The instructional leader therefore has a duty to articulate, publicize, and promote the vision and goals of the school by engaging all parties concerned (teachers, learners, parents and community) in continuous dialogue on the vision and goals of the school. This dialogue will ensure that all parties are aligned with the vision and goals of the school. It will further provide a platform on which the vision of the school can be contested and altered, in line with its changing circumstances.

The realization of all the above will depend on the principal's ability and willingness to communicate and engage all the involved parties in understanding what needs to be done and why. It also depends on the part that each individual needs to play in achieving the vision and goals of the school. O'Tool (1999) advises that principals should communicate the vision often, in both subtle and dramatic ways, tying every day events to the vision and underscoring its relevance, thereby allowing the vision to serve as a reminder to the team of their purpose and goals.

### **2.5.7.3 Monitoring and providing feedback on the teaching and learning processes**

Monitoring and providing feedback on the teaching and learning process is one of the variables that characterize instructional leadership. Lashway (2002:1) refers to this role of the instructional leader as "facilitative leadership" which means that the instructional leader (principal) needs to facilitate the provision of effective teaching by the teachers; the outcome of which will be reflected in the performance of the learners in the matriculation examination.

According to Gamage, Adams and McCormack (2009), the following behaviours by the instructional leader have a significant impact on learner performance: providing instructional leadership through discussion of instructional issues; observing classroom teaching and giving feedback; supporting teacher autonomy and protecting instructional time; providing and supporting improvement through monitoring progress; and using learner progress data for programme improvement. Furthermore, Chang (2001:1) recommends that the instructional leader should spend much time in classrooms, observing teaching and learning and encouraging high performance; track learners' scores and other indicators of student learning to help teachers focus attention where it is most needed; and provide opportunities for teachers to share information and work together to plan curriculum and instruction.

In concert with Gamage *et al.* (2009) and Chang (2001), DuFour (2002) and the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP, 2002) assert that the principal should encourage networks among teachers to discuss their work and ensure that the teachers do not work in isolation but share their expertise with each other. In support of this view, Blasé and Blasé (2000) indicate that the instructional leader should support teacher networks by making suggestions, giving feedback on the successes/strengths and weaknesses/challenges

that teachers experience in their practice, model effective instruction, solicit opinions, provide professional development opportunities, and give praise for effective teaching.

Research on the role of the principal as instructional leader has always emphasized his/her responsibility to set high standards and expectations for both teachers and learners. Furthermore, the instructional leader must communicate these standards to both teachers and learners. Al-ghanabousi (2010:384) identifies teacher appraisal as a formal means for instructional leaders to communicate organizational goals, conceptions of teaching, standards and values to teachers. It is therefore important that once the goals of the school are set, the instructional leader monitors the implementation of strategies to achieve these goals and provides feedback to the teachers with regard to their attainment.

#### **2.5.7.4 Monitoring the curriculum and instruction**

The success of any school depends squarely on what happens in the classrooms. What the teachers do in the classrooms with their learners (curriculum delivery and instruction) will be reflected in the performance of learners. Research on the role of the principal as instructional leader shows that principals must possess an array of skills and competencies in order to lead schools effectively towards the accomplishment of educational goals and one of these skills is monitoring the curriculum and instruction. Erlandson and Witters-Churchill (1990:123) suggest that a successful principal must:

*“Understand the dynamics of the classroom; identify and apply effective instructional strategies. This understanding will enable the principal to implement educational programs/curriculum development. The principal must also be able to master and coordinate the auxiliary services that support instruction, and also establish productive relationships with parents and the community.”*

In order to fulfil the above role, DuFour (2002) indicates that the instructional leader needs to have up-to-date knowledge of three areas of education: curriculum, instruction, and assessment. For the purpose of this part of the study, I will focus on curriculum and instruction.

With regard to curriculum, DuFour (2002) indicates that principals need to know about the changing conceptions of curriculum, educational philosophies and beliefs, curricular sources and conflict, and curricular evaluation and improvement. In order to be able to do this, the

principal needs not only to be a “head teacher” or “principal teacher” but he/she must be the school’s “head learner” (Hallinger, 2002:3; Hallinger, 2003:17). The principal should keep abreast of new conceptions with regard to curriculum by attending curriculum workshops with his/her teachers which will assist him/her to give the necessary support to the teachers with regard to the implementation of the curriculum.

With regard to instruction, the principal needs to know about different models of teaching, the theoretical reasons for adopting a particular teaching model, and the theories underlying the technology-based learning environment (Jenkins, 2009:36). In support of Hallinger (2002; 2003) and Jenkins (2009), Mednick (2003:3) emphasizes the importance of classroom visits by the instructional leader to work with teachers and learners, and the participation of the principal in curriculum-related meetings to assist in the development of effective teaching and learning strategies. This, in Mednick’s view, enables the principal to provide instructional resources and professional development opportunities that improve learning, teaching, and assessment practices.

## **2.6 INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND SUPERVISION**

This section of the study is concerned with juxtaposing instructional leadership and supervision as two related concepts that have been developed and enacted differently by education leaders to achieve the same purpose of influencing teacher behaviour to ensure improved teaching and learning for better learner performance. Supervision (instructional supervision) has been assigned various definitions by different scholars at different times. Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (2001:1) view supervision as identical to instructional leadership for the improvement of instruction. Drawing on this view, instructional leadership can be viewed as “a function and process” rather than a role or position. This implies that educators throughout the school system, from the top to the bottom of the organization, can engage in the function and process of supervision. In concert with this view and the fact that many studies have emphasized and isolated principals as instructional leaders, Glickman *et al.* (2001:10) argue that “*what is crucial is not the person’s title, but rather his or her responsibilities*”. This is based on the assumption that typical supervisors are principals, assistant principals, instructional lead teachers, department heads, master teachers and teachers.

Supervision, like instructional leadership, is related directly to helping teachers with instruction, and indirectly to instructing learners. It is not the act of instructing learners but rather the actions that enable teachers to improve instruction for learners. Burke and Krey (2005:6) argue that early definitions of supervision indicate that its major purpose was to make judgements about the teacher rather than about the instruction or the students' learning. This approach to supervision led to decisions being made on the basis of what the supervisor or inspector had observed and the situation being remedied by, inter alia, displacing or replacing the teacher. This could be viewed as “negative supervision” in the sense that the displaced teacher is not professionally developed through the intervention of the supervisor. It is also untypical of the perceived influence that characterizes leadership.

During the period leading to and including 1936, the practice of supervision changed, with emphasis being placed on the function of aiding the teacher in terms of the improvement of instruction (Burke *et al.*, 2005:9). In line with the new emphasis on supervision, Burke and Krey (2005:21) define supervision as instructional leadership that relates perspectives to behaviour, focuses on purpose, contributes to and supports organizational actions, coordinates interactions, provides for improvement and maintenance of the instructional program, and assesses goal achievement. This definition is based on the following specific point of view:

*“Personal perspectives influence behavioural choices; definition, identification, and participation are essential to the understanding and acceptance of purposes; supervision is both a contributory and a supportive action; human interactions need to be facilitated and coordinated; improvements and maintenance accomplishments are based on analysis and appraisal; and determination of goal development, progress, and achievement is essential to a productive enterprise”* (Burke & Krey, 2005:21).

Drawing on the juxtaposition of instructional leadership and instructional supervision as discussed above, it is safe to argue that while the two concepts cannot be assumed to be synonymous, they have the same focus and purpose. Both focus on how people interact with one another and also on the purpose of such interaction. A supervisor providing instructional leadership must focus on the common purpose(s) that bring the supervised and the supervisor together: which in this case, is the improvement of instruction for improved learner performance.

## 2.7 PREREQUISITES FOR INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

This section explores the different conditions that must prevail in order for the principal to be an instructional leader. Some of these conditions need to be provided by the department of education, while others have to be created and developed by the principal in collaboration with the whole staff and in some cases, with the school community. The department of education has a duty to provide all forms of support to the principal in order for him/her to carry out his/her instructional leadership obligations. According to Keefe and Jenkins (2000) the department of education should, in its effort to support the principal, adopt and provide the school(s) with a comprehensive set of policies which include the following matters:

- Learner expectations – policies indicating what is expected of learners behaviourally and academically;
- Safeguarding time – policies outlining the importance of protecting instructional learning time and optimizing academic learning time;
- Empowerment – policies specifying who will be involved in instructional decisions relating to the classroom, the building, and the district;
- Supervision – policies emphasizing the collaborative role of the teacher and principal in developing instructional processes and practices;
- Curriculum and staff development – policies requiring a vertically and horizontally aligned curriculum; continuity between the written, taught, and tested curriculum; sufficient allocation of resources to implement these policies; and
- Instructional practices – policies requiring that instructional content and delivery be based on sound research and educational practice (Keefe & Jenkins, 2000).

The support that principals receive from the department of education, particularly from the circuit, district and provincial level, is an important prerequisite. Fink and Resnick (2001) examined school districts' efforts to develop principals into instructional leaders. They developed core strategies for developing the role of the principal as instructional leader which included nested learning communities, peer learning, principal institutes, leadership for instruction, and individual coaching as reinforcing strategic activities.

Goldring, Preston and Huff (2002:2) add more to the obligations of the department of education by indicating that it should provide principal development programmes which are focused directly on the problem of developing professional practice, competence and

expertise for instructional improvement and improved learner performance. The principal, in collaboration with the staff and the school community, must ensure that there is programme coherence in the school. Programme coherence, according to Newmann, King and Youngs (2001) is a measure of the extent to which a school is programmatically integrated. Newmann *et al.* (2001) contend that unrelated and unfocused improvement programmes may affect learner performance negatively. As instructional leader, the principal must ensure that there is alignment and coordination of curriculum and instruction with learning goals and assessment. This will ensure that learner performance is improved (Schmoker & Marzano, 1999).

King and Youngs (2000) contend that the development of school capacity is a crucial prerequisite affecting instructional quality and improved learner performance. They indicate that at the heart of school capacity, are principals who are focused on the development of teachers' knowledge and skills, a professional community, programme coherence, and technical resources. Newmann *et al.* (2000:300) define school capacity as the collective power of the full staff to improve learner performance. This definition suggests that in the development of learner and school performance efforts, individual teachers and the whole school must be taken into consideration.

Lambert (1998:18) asserts that building capacity in schools embodies a new understanding of leadership by using the term “constructivist leadership” to refer to leadership as a reciprocal learning process that enables participants in a community to construct meaning towards a shared purpose. Lambert (1998:18) upholds the view that in the enactment of their instructional leadership roles, principals must distribute responsibilities to all teachers, thereby broadening the school's capacity to improve instruction. Hopkins (2001:68) indicates that principals as instructional leaders must create, within a context of values, synergy between a focus on teaching and learning on the one hand, and building professional learning communities on the other.

The prerequisites for instructional leadership can be summed up using the six standards of what principals should know and be able to do, as set out by the National Association of Elementary School Principals (2002:6-7). The six standards include: leading schools in a way that places learners' learning at the centre; setting high expectations for academic and social development of all learners and educators; demanding content and instruction that ensure that learners achieve agreed-upon academic standards; creating a culture of

continuous learning for adults tied to learners' learning and other school goals; using multiple sources of data as tools to diagnose shortfalls in instructional improvement; and actively engaging the community to create a shared responsibility for the improvement of the school and learner performance.

Regarding the autonomy of the principal, he/she must be given a measure of authority within departmental guidelines, to make decisions in key areas that directly affect the instructional process. The principal must have the authority to select and place employees; and must be held accountable for the outcomes achieved by staff members. The principal must exercise his/her authority to establish objectives and indicators of success and to develop a comprehensive evaluation process, while being held accountable for monitoring the evaluation of programmes, students, and staff. Finally, the principal has, and must exercise, the authority to involve staff, students, parents, and other members of the school community in any matter that will promote the school mission and vision, while being accountable for the impact of those decisions.

With regard to the elements required for an effective and positive student learning environment, the principal must give high priority to the elements of school culture. The principal must cultivate a school culture that will guarantee a school climate that is pleasant and free of all health and safety hazards. Such an environment will be conducive for high expectations for achievement and appropriate behaviour of students, instructional and administrative staff.

The principal must also inculcate a culture of open communication and collaborative decision making. Such a culture will go a long way to cultivating an attitude of caring, respect, support, and positive reinforcement among learners, instructional staff, and the principal. Furthermore, the principal should prioritize learner achievement and continuously monitor group and individual achievement levels. The principal should be a role model, capable of establishing and displaying high achievement expectations for herself/himself as an example to others. The principal who is an instructional leader should be entrepreneurial in obtaining resources to support the instructional programme by seeking assistance from institutions such as civic groups, business, industry, and foundations. This can be achieved by establishing clear, continuous and open communication with staff members, parents, students, and community members to build broad-based ownership of the school's mission.

The principal should recognize those who achieve at a high level and strive to build and maintain a positive school climate that focuses on student welfare and achievement. Finally, he/she must be a strong decision maker, involving others collaboratively and focusing on the best interests of the learners, the school and the community.

The latter prerequisite of instructional leadership is summed up by Leithwood and Riehl (2003) as one for effective educational leaders. All the prerequisites for successful instructional leadership are informed by the view that principals need certain leadership abilities to achieve and maintain quality schools in complex environments, which, according to Vick (2004:11), implies that principals should be equipped with “multifaceted skills”. Leithwood and Riehl (2003) propose the following prerequisites for successful leadership, with their associated performance indicators.

### **2.7.1 SETTING DIRECTION AS A PREREQUISITE FOR INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP**

This prerequisite includes three activities which the principal should perform, each of which has its own associated performance indicators. The first activity is creating and sharing a focused vision and mission to improve learner performance. This can be achieved by aligning the vision and mission, priorities and values with the context of the school and coupling this with charismatic leadership.

The second activity is cultivating the acceptance of cooperative goals through developing and valuing collaboration and caring about each other, thereby building trust and support among the people involved. The third activity that contributes to setting direction for the school is creating high performance expectations of staff members. This could lead to improved learner performance if the principal informs staff about their performance expectations.

### **2.7.2 DEVELOPING PEOPLE AS A PREREQUISITE FOR INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP**

This prerequisite includes sharing leadership in professional communities, providing an appropriate model, cultivating learning among all members of the professional community, and providing individual support. Much of the literature on leadership has consistently emphasized the fact that leadership should not reside in one person (e.g. the principal), but the role should be distributed among staff members in the organization. The principal must

therefore know how and be willing to share and distribute instructional leadership, and empower his staff by providing them with opportunities to innovate, develop and learn together. The principal, by being an appropriate role model, should teach and help his staff to become better followers; to set appropriate examples which are consistent with school leaders' values; to manage time effectively to meet school goals; and to cultivate higher levels of commitment to organizational goals.

Cultivating learning among all members in the professional community involves the principal in facilitating learning among all staff members; implementing good teaching practices; facilitating change to cultivate a warm learning environment; instituting relationship structures to improve learner performance; monitoring the performance of learners; behaving in ways consistent with leaders' personal values, attitudes and beliefs; and promoting ethical practice. The principal must also provide individualized support to his staff by acquiring and using resources intelligently to support and monitor high levels of staff performance and needs; demonstrate respect for and concern about people's personal feelings and needs; and provide emotional, psychological and logistical support.

### **2.7.3 DEVELOPING THE ORGANIZATION AS A PREREQUISITE FOR INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP**

This final prerequisite concerns the responsibility of the instructional leader (the principal) to develop the technical skills of his staff, emphasize learner-centred leadership, strengthen the school culture, and monitor organizational performance. In developing the technical skills of his workforce, the principal/instructional leader needs to implement site-based management, work in teams, plan strategically for the future, apply educational law to specific conditions, and maintain effective discipline. Learner-centred leadership can be achieved by employing instructional leadership. Strengthening the school culture requires the principal, in concert with the other stakeholders in the school, to create and maintain a safe learning environment, promote ethical practices, and possess advanced conflict management skills in order to deal with conflict situations when they arise. The instructional leader can monitor organizational performance by using indicators to determine the school's effectiveness, and monitoring both staff and learner performance.

To sum up the prerequisites of instructional leadership and those of effective school leaders as outlined above, Keefe and Jenkins (2000) indicate that

*“...desire alone is not enough to ensure that instructional leadership takes place in schools. Instructional leadership can only be successfully enacted if the principal is accorded the necessary support by the department of education, his/her autonomy is recognized, an effective and positive student learning environment prevails, and if the principal is accorded the space to implement the critical roles of instructional leadership.”*

Considering all the prerequisites for instructional leadership, and drawing on Daresh, Gantner, Dunlap & Hvizdak (2000); Fennel (2005); Hale & Moorman (2003); and Vick (2004), who indicate that principals need certain leadership abilities and should be equipped with multifaceted skills in order to achieve and maintain quality in schools, the question that may be asked is “Where do principals acquire these skills?” Are they inherent qualities, or do they have to acquire these skills through some process of learning? The following section responds to this question by briefly reviewing literature that deals with preparation programmes for principals (school leaders). This discussion examines arguments for and against recognition of principal preparation programmes as necessary and sufficient preconditions for the improvement of both leadership practice and learner performance.

A sizeable number of principals in South African public schools and in other countries need to acquire management and leadership skills which will be relevant to address the changing contexts of education. The 21<sup>st</sup> century context of education is different from that of previous centuries and on this basis, Wong (2004:143) proposes that different types of leadership preparation are necessary to produce a new breed of school leaders who will be able to address the 21<sup>st</sup> century educational context. Wong (2004:140) and Levine (2005:166) are critical of current preparation programmes for school leaders, which they claim, equip principals only with skills to run schools as they exist today, rather than forming leaders who can guide and develop schools for the future.

Drawing on Bush (1998); Hess & Kelly (2005); Johnson & Uline (2005); and Vick (2004), who conclude that leadership quality is a key factor in determining the success or failure of schools, principals need to be prepared by means of tailor-made preparation programmes. These programmes will, in turn, enable the principals to prepare their teachers for instruction so that learners can attain high levels of performance. The central concept in this paragraph is *leadership quality* and on the basis of a literature review conducted by Brundett (2005) and Levine (2005), it cannot be confirmed that current preparation programmes for

school leaders offer the quality of leadership that will become a necessary and sufficient precondition for effective school practice and improved learner performance. The major concern here is that the content of the preparation programmes is not effective in changing the practice of principals and thus ensuring improved learner performance.

Daresh, Gantner, Dunlap and Hvizdak (2000) propose that preparation programmes must be able to address the changing environment of schooling through the use of simulations, case studies, and other means to reflect the conditions principals face in the real world. In support of Daresh *et al.* (2000), Menter, Holligan and Mthenjwa (2005:11) surveyed the influence of the Scottish Qualification for Headship and concluded as follows with regard to what should be achieved through preparation programmes:

*“Preparation programmes for principals should enhance the principal’s ability to support others, increase his/her effectiveness as a leader, extend the principal’s professional practice, make the principal a more reflective practitioner, and must effectively develop the principal’s professional values.”*

The ultimate goal of this study is to make headway into understanding how we can access, document, communicate and implement good instructional leadership practices in schools. Understanding how principals and educators in general can be assisted in identifying, adopting and implementing best practices for student achievement is today, more than ever before, a central goal of education and leadership. For the purpose of this section of the study, various aspects related to instructional leadership are explored. These include an analysis of this construct by reviewing its historical context, its purpose, function, qualities of instructional leaders, and the impact of instructional leadership on the performance of learners. This analysis of instructional leadership is followed by an exploration of the concept of instructional supervision and a comparison between the two concepts is made.

## **2.8 PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP**

The concept of professional development and its relationship with instructional leadership has been touched on a number of times by Sweitzer (2009), Lashway (2004), and Blasé and Blasé (2000). Professional development in the instructional leadership paradigm is concerned with the role of principals as instructional leaders in influencing the professional development of educators in their schools and also the responsibility of principals to develop themselves professionally in order to be able perform their new role. Banfi

(1997:15) views professional development as comprising those activities in which professionals are engaged for the purpose of achieving professional competence. It is further perceived as a variety of activities in which educators are involved to be able to improve their practice.

It has been mentioned a number of times in the preceding paragraphs that although from its inception, instructional leadership has been documented as being on top of the agenda with regard to its influence on learner achievement, it has not been implemented. This failure to implement instructional leadership may be as a result of the principals' lack of expertise in this new role, which necessitates the implementation of a professional development programme to deal with this challenge. An example of such a programme in South Africa is the Advanced Certificate in Education (Leadership and Management) for principals. This programme is tailor-made for principals and one of its main aims is to address the leadership and management challenges that principals contend with in their practice.

According to the Centre for Comprehensive School Reform and Improvement (2005), the professional development of staff members in terms of instructional leadership is one of the major responsibilities of school principals. The principal has a duty to provide guidance that improves teachers' classroom practices. Leithwood, Seashore-Louis, Anderson and Wahlstrom (2004:24) cite the following specific leadership practices that help in the professional development of staff members:

*“The principal must stimulate the teachers intellectually by engaging them in professional development sessions at conferences, or visits to high-performing schools; provide them with individualized support through modelling lessons by experts in the subject, classroom observation, and providing constructive feedback to teachers. The teachers can also benefit from peer observations, debriefing sessions with colleagues, and feedback from the principal.”*

*“The principal can also provide them with an appropriate model by providing the services of an instructional coach whose function would be to serve as a mentor for new teachers and help experienced teachers to develop strong leadership skill”.*

In order for principals to successfully engage in the practices described above, Buffie (1989) identifies knowledge, skills and context as vital components in the development of instructional leadership. Buffie (1989) further contends that knowledge is central to

effective decision making and is fundamental to the skills development necessary to carry out instructional goals. Knowledge and skills are applied within the context of a set of beliefs or values and one's beliefs and value system is what serves as a foundation for decision making. Table 2.4 represents the knowledge, skills, and context for principals as instructional leaders:

**TABLE 2.4: Knowledge, skills, and context of principals as instructional leaders (Adapted from Buffie, 1989, cited by Chang, 2001)**

<b>Knowledge</b> The instructional leader should know and understand:	<b>Skills</b> The instructional leader should be able to:	<b>Context</b> The context should show evidence of:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• What goes on in every classroom</li> <li>• How to assess entire school and expectations at various grade levels</li> <li>• Curriculum development, standards, accountability</li> <li>• As “captain of the ship”, the principal should know the “trade” inside out</li> <li>• All members of his/her staff</li> <li>• People’s strengths and areas for development</li> <li>• Learning activities to produce desired learner outcomes</li> <li>• Supervision models (e.g. clinical supervision)</li> <li>• Political dynamics in the community</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Facilitate</li> <li>• Mediate</li> <li>• Coordinate</li> <li>• Problem solve</li> <li>• Be emphatic</li> <li>• Be visionary</li> <li>• Take risks</li> <li>• Establish a good working relationship with teachers</li> <li>• Plan and coordinate curricular, social, and cultural diversity</li> <li>• Perform multiple tasks</li> <li>• Synthesize</li> <li>• Implement educational goals</li> <li>• Manage time effectively</li> <li>• Build effective master schedules</li> <li>• Support teachers in providing quality education for all students</li> <li>• Forge partnerships and garner resources</li> <li>• Nurture cooperation between schools and communities they serve</li> <li>• Assess the needs and strengths of the school and the community</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Students’ learning</li> <li>• Effective discipline</li> <li>• Principals’ willingness to be the “jack of all trades”</li> <li>• Good instruction with a process for handling “bad” teaching and teachers</li> <li>• Adults talking with kids, watching them, and learning from them</li> <li>• Teaching that addresses children’s ethnicity, culture, language, differences in learning styles, and why they act the way they do</li> <li>• Excitement, collaboration, empowerment of teachers and students</li> <li>• Community involvement and good customer service</li> <li>• Trust at all levels</li> <li>• Active community partnerships</li> </ul>

## 2.9 PRINCIPALS' AND TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP PRACTICE

This section is concerned with understanding the perceptions of principals and teachers regarding the practice of instructional leadership. The majority of the literature used as background to this study has focused on the school principals as instructional leaders. This approach has thus exalted principalship above all other participants in the teaching and learning enterprise. Bush, Joubert, Kiggundu and Van Rooyen (2009:1) indicate that the core purpose of principalship is to provide leadership and management in all areas of the school to enable the creation and support of conditions under which high quality teaching and learning take place, and which promote the highest possible standards of learner achievement. In supporting this view Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris and Hopkins (2006:5) indicate that *“there is no single documented case of a school successfully turning around its pupil achievement trajectory in the absence of talented leadership.”* In the same vein, Robinson (2007) contends that the impact of student outcomes is likely to be greater where there is direct leader involvement in the oversight of, and participation in, curriculum planning and coordination, and teacher learning and professional development *“.....the closer leaders are to the core business of teaching and learning, the more likely they are to make a difference to learners”*.

Based on the above views, the question that arises is: “What are perceptions of both principals and teachers with regard to the practice of instructional leadership?” In view of the emphasis that is placed on the principal (ship) in the school leadership and effectiveness literature, teachers would expect principals to be the sole providers of leadership for the improvement of learner achievement. The distributed leadership literature, on the contrary, sees teachers as leaders and therefore as important as principals in providing instructional leadership.

Jorgenson and Peal (2008:52) argue that *“..... there exists, in many instances where the principals distance themselves from the day-to-day challenges of teaching, a perception gap between principals and teachers that needs to be closed if they are to work together for their mutual benefit and that of the children they serve”*. Teachers therefore feel that principals should be visible in the school and also in the classroom, so that teachers do not feel isolated and left to their own devices. Where teachers feel that they are working together with the principal, their morale and performance are boosted. According to Jorgenson and Peal

(2008:54), teachers appreciate administrators who occasionally offer to relieve a class, take every opportunity to be guest teachers, and demonstrate their skills and engagement in classroom life. Teachers do not always appreciate a principal who tells them what to do, but one who models what should be happening in the classroom is always appreciated.

Gordon, Stockard, and Williford (1992) found a lack of congruence between principals' and teachers' perceptions with regard to the practice of instructional leadership. While teachers would be comfortable with the visible presence of the principal in the classroom, principals need to have skills to enable them to enact this role. The effective-schools research domain has shown that principals do not necessarily have these skills. Furthermore, some principals cling to their traditional management roles, whilst others do not see themselves as instructional leaders but as managers of their schools.

## **2.10 INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP IN FIVE DIFFERENT COUNTRIES**

This section explores the practice of instructional leadership (IL) in five different countries, namely: two African countries (Nigeria and South Africa), two European countries (the United Kingdom and Norway) and the United States of America. The discussion of the practice of IL in these countries provides an overview of the standard requirements for appointment as a principal, the procedures followed in the recruitment of individuals for appointment as principals, and the general functions of the principal in each country.

### **2.10.1 NIGERIA**

The functions of the principal, as identified by Arikewuyo (1999:70) and the Commonwealth Secretariat (1993), indicate that the Nigerian principal is not only an instructional leader, but performs both managerial and instructional functions. The following functions are directly related to the principal's instructional leadership practice:

*“Providing leadership for curriculum development; providing leadership for instructional improvement; creating an environment conducive for the realization of human potential; influencing the behaviour of staff and learners; supervising instructional activities in the school (Arikewuyo, 1999:70); guiding curriculum implementation and change, creating a professional ethos within the school by involving staff members in decision-making” (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1993:35).*

The managerial functions of the Nigerian principal which are performed concurrently with the above functions include, but are not limited to:

*“Managing and deploying resources efficiently; allocating school accommodation appropriately; ensuring satisfactory standards of maintenance and cleanliness of school facilities; managing the restructuring and redeployment of teachers; and managing the Developmental Appraisal System (DAS), Whole School Evaluation (WSE), and Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS)”* (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1993:35).

On the whole, principals in Nigeria ranked academic and instructional activities, including curriculum development, teaching and instructional supervision, second to staff and student management, liaison, coordinating, and financial management which were treated with much vigour (Arikewuyo, 2009:7). This assertion is supported by Mulkeen *et al.* (2007) who indicate that principals in most African countries do not have regard for instructional supervision and thus do not view instructional supervision as part of their duties.

### **2.10.2 UNITED KINGDOM (UK)**

In the United Kingdom, according to Tjeldvoll, Wales and Welle-Strand (2005:25), the concepts of leadership and management were rethought in the 1990s. McBeath (2003) argues that leadership itself is *“a term full of ambiguities and a range of interpretations that can mean what we want it to mean”*. Leadership has been exalted above management, thereby creating a distance between leadership and management, and in the process management is seen as a more limited concept and too closely associated with managerialism, a somewhat discredited approach based on rational, scientific principles.

As in Nigeria, Tjeldvoll *et al.* (2005) highlight a need for potential principals to receive proper professional training and induction before taking up leadership positions in United Kingdom (UK) schools. According to Hopkins (2001), instructional leadership is an approach that emphasizes the behaviours of teachers as they engage in activities directly affecting the growth of students. The focus of instructional leadership needs to be on two key skill clusters, namely, strategies for effective teaching and learning, and the conditions that support implementation, in particular staff development and planning.

Successful teachers in the UK are expected to create powerful cognitive and social tasks for their learners and teach them how to make productive use of such tasks; and the purpose of instructional leadership is to facilitate and support this approach to teaching and learning. From the above statements, it follows that in the UK, instructional leadership is not necessarily a responsibility of principals only, in relation to teachers. It also involves the role of teachers in relation to their students.

### **2.10.3 UNITED STATES OF AMERICA (USA)**

Hallinger (2005:1) regards instructional leadership as “one lasting legacy of the effective schools movement”, which has been integrated into the vocabulary of educational administration. He further indicates that the global emphasis on accountability since the turn of the 21<sup>st</sup> century seems to have re-ignited interest in instructional leadership. This suggests that instructional leadership is a 20th century construct that has begun to enjoy more prominence in the 21st century.

The practice of instructional leadership in the USA was highly conservative, conceived as a role carried out by the principal with little reference made to teachers, department heads, or even to assistant principals as instructional leaders (Hallinger, 2005:3). There was little discussion of instructional leadership as a distributed characteristic or function to be shared.

During the 1980s, policymakers in the USA realized that principals in instructionally effective schools exercised strong instructional leadership and this prompted them to encourage all principals to assume this role in order to make their schools more effective. In spite of some criticisms levelled against instructional leadership, it became strongly identified as a normatively desirable role that principals who wish to be effective should fulfil. The following are some of the reasons why instructional leadership survived all the criticisms in the USA:

*Instructional leaders were viewed as strong, directive leaders who had been successful at “turning their schools around.” They were viewed as culture builders, who sought to build an “academic press” that fostered high expectations and standards for students as well as for teachers (Ali-Mielcarek, 2003). They were regarded as goal oriented; able to define a clear direction for the school and motivate others to join in the school’s achievement, and the effective instructional leader is able to align the strategies and activities of the school with the school’s*

*academic mission. On the basis of this, instructional leaders focused not only on leading but also on managing where their management roles include coordinating, controlling, supervising, and developing curriculum and instruction (Hallinger, 2007).*

Instructional leaders in the USA led with a combination of charisma and expertise. According to Hallinger (2005:4), these were “hands-on principals, hip-deep in curriculum and instruction”, not afraid of working directly with teachers on the improvement of teaching and learning.

#### **2.10.4 NORWAY**

In Norway, the concept of “principal” did not carry as much weight as it did in other parts of the world. According to Tjeldvoll *et al.* (2005:27) it was only in 1936 that the concept of “principal” as a school leader who was “first among equals” first appeared. This meant that the school leader (principal) did not wield so much power and authority over the other teachers. In the 1970s, focus was placed on the assumed authoritarian relationship between teacher and pupil.

The Norwegian education system developed firstly along encyclopaedic curriculum lines and then towards progressivism, within the social democratic tradition of Scandinavia, and needs to be seen in the light of regionalism (Tjeldvoll *et al.*, 2005:27). Developments in the 1990s moved the principal from being the first among equals to a professional management representative for the education system. In the Norwegian context, “leadership used to mean, in principle, to control the relationship between the inside and outside of an organization, with the result that as long as clear rules and regulations were followed, a leader with authority was not needed, merely a gifted administrator.”

Tjeldvoll *et al.* (2005:28) indicate that the leadership focus in schools should be on “pedagogical leadership”, that is, to concentrate on planning for and inspiring the main pedagogical processes of the school, learning and development. Globalization has impacted the Norwegian education system, forcing changes upon the authorities, with the result that school leadership increasingly started to focus on specific goals. From the 1970s, the education authorities began instigating in-service training courses which were tailor-made to prepare principals for their instructional leadership roles.

On the whole, school principals in Norway tend towards a more administrative style of school leadership rather than an instructional style. The extent to which instructional leadership is reported (supervision of instruction, supporting teachers' professional development, setting the school goals) is relatively weak in Norway compared to countries such as the United Kingdom, United States of America, Nigeria and South Africa, to mention just a few.

### **2.10.5 SOUTH AFRICA**

Hoadley, Christie, Jacklin and Ward (2007) conducted a study in some South African secondary schools with the primary purpose of gaining an understanding of the issue of growing prominence in policy and research discussions as to how school management might contribute to improved student achievement outcomes. The study revealed that most leadership studies in South Africa indicate that the majority of principals have not received adequate specialist training, especially in financial management and instructional leadership. Bush and Oduro (2006), in their review of research on leadership and management, argue that most of the research into leadership is “not conceptually rich”, and assert the need for a theory of leadership relevant to the South African context.

Hoadley *et al.* (2007) indicate that knowledge of how principals manage the curriculum in schools in South Africa is limited. They further argue that while there is growing consensus in South African research that school principals play a crucial role in creating the conditions for improved instruction, what is less understood is how they contribute towards this cause. Hallinger and Heck (1998) contend that the principal's influence on schooling outcomes is in shaping the direction of the school – the setting of visions, missions and goals. This implies that principals need to create “conditions of possibility” for teaching and learning and establish a form of “organizational containment” which enables teaching and learning and sets a “climate of expectations”.

## **2.11 EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP**

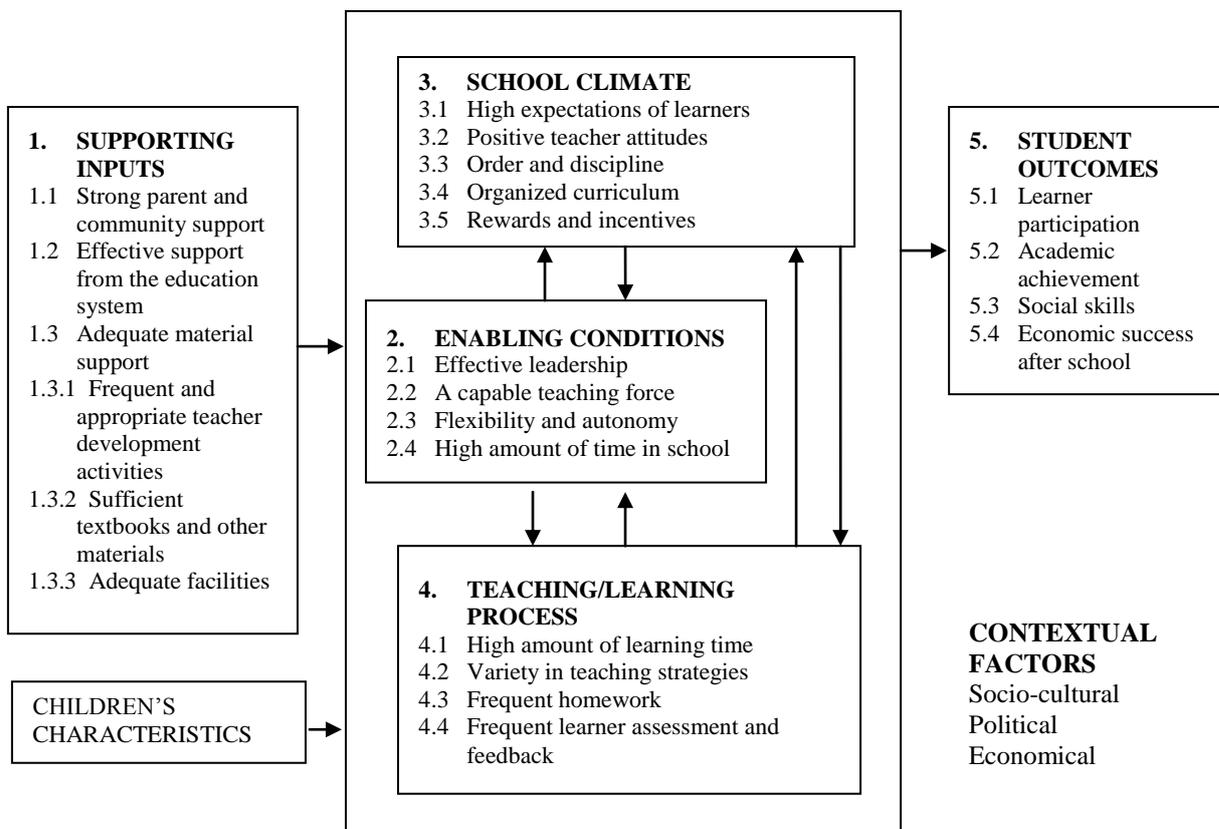
Effective instructional leadership breeds effective schools which, in turn, produce successful learners. It is important at this point to briefly indicate the characteristics of effective schools, as this will assist in providing a broader scope of what instructional leaders do to

make schools effective. Rowe (2007:5) summarizes the features of effective schools into what has become known as the “five factor model” of school effectiveness, namely:

*“a purposeful educational leadership; challenging teaching and high expectations of students’ achievement; involvement and consistency among teachers; a positive and orderly climate; and frequent evaluation of student progress.”*

This “five factor model” continues to form what might be termed the “optimistic account” of school effectiveness – an account that presents a positive view of the role and efficacy of structural or contextual school influences. In concert with Rowe’s (2007) five factor model and the optimistic account of school effectiveness, Heneveld and Craig (1996) present a comprehensive framework, based upon a review of key factors that influence student outcomes. This framework identifies eighteen factors divided into four categories, namely: supporting inputs from outside the school, enabling conditions, school climate, and teaching and learning processes. The following figure represents Heneveld and Craig’s (1996) framework:

**FIGURE 2.4: School factors related to effectiveness (Adapted from Heneveld & Craig, 1996)**



The supporting inputs are regarded as the necessary conditions that sustain the school. Heneveld and Craig (1996) indicate that the inputs can be either prerequisite conditions (material supports) or supports from outside the school (parents and educational system) and all these factors are necessary for creating an effective school.

The enabling conditions are regarded as the necessary factors relating to leadership, capable teachers, flexibility, and amount of time in the school. Schools need effective leadership with a vision and one that is capable of influencing others (teachers, learners and the community) to buy into the vision of the school. With regard to school climate, the following factors are necessary for effective schools: high expectations, positive teacher attitudes, order and discipline, organized curriculum, and rewards and incentives.

The final category in the above model is the teaching/learning process, which is regarded as very important because the quality of the instruction determines the outcomes of education. Furthermore, the teacher is regarded as the central component in the instruction, since he/she is the person who implements the pedagogical strategies, assesses performance, and

provides homework and learning time (Skipper, 2006; Craig & Heneveld, 1996; Rowe, 2007).

To recap this section of the study, the experiences gathered from the enactment of instructional leadership in the five countries discussed above adds to the perceptions that are held with regard to the practice of instructional leadership. In terms of the two African countries discussed, principals in Nigeria do not perceive instructional leadership and supervision as being part of their duties, and this is a new concept to principals in South Africa, which necessitates them having to undergo specialized training. The introduction of the ACE School Leadership programme by the South African National Department of Education in 2007 can be regarded as a starting point in the department's strategy to improve educational standards (Bush, Kiggundu & Moorosi, 2011:1).

According to Bush et al. (2011:3) the ACE leadership programme consists of the following core modules:

Module 1: Understanding school leadership in the South African context

Module 2: Managing teaching and learning

Module 3: Leading and managing people

Module 4: Managing organizational systems, physical and financial resources

Module 5: Managing policy, planning, school development and governance.

Bush et al. (2011) hold the view that effective leadership and management are vital if schools are to be successful in providing good learning opportunities for learners; and there is emerging evidence that high quality leadership makes a significant difference to school improvement and learning outcomes. The ACE school leadership programme was therefore designed to accomplish just that through its vision which is “to provide structured learning opportunities that promote quality education in South African schools through the development of a corps of education leaders who apply understanding, values, knowledge and skills to school leadership and management within the vision of democratic transformation” (Centre for Educational Leadership, University of Stellenbosch, 2011:1).

The core module that is relevant to this study is the second one: managing teaching and learning. This module focuses on what is required to improve teaching and learning in order to enhance learner outcomes. This is a cross-cutting module that draws upon the work covered in the other modules of the programme. The major thrust of this module is in

addressing topics such as leadership qualities and strategies for instructional leadership, distributed leadership, stimulating and motivating educators, establishing a learning culture in the school, and developing plans to manage and lead (DoE, 2008). All the topics that have been indicated above were discussed earlier in this chapter as characteristics of instructional leadership.

In the United Kingdom, the enactment of instructional leadership embraced not only the responsibility of principals to teachers, but also the role of teachers in relation to their learners (distributed leadership), while the opposite was the case in the United States where instructional leadership was seen as the absolute province of principals. In Norway, the enactment of instructional leadership carries less weight in that principals tend towards a more administrative style of leadership.

## **2.12 SUMMARY OF THE LITERATURE REVIEW**

This chapter has focused on the review of literature on instructional leadership and learner performance in order to enable the researcher and the readers to gain a better theoretical understanding of this study. The literature reviewed includes, inter alia, literature about the historical development of the instructional leadership construct and how it manifests itself in the school context. Scholarly articles that were reviewed reiterate the fact that there is a direct relationship between instructional leadership, school culture and school climate; and how the school principal, in developing a vision for the school, develops the culture and climate of the school. This review has been a vehicle through which the researcher has established what other researchers and leadership practitioners contend about the role of school principals as instructional leaders.

This literature review assisted the researcher to develop a focus in attempting to answer the research questions that are the focus of this study. Table 2.5 represents the most important scholarly articles which were used in the study to respond to the research questions, which are as follows:

Primary question:

*What are the variables related to instructional leadership practices of secondary school principals and what is their effect on learner performance in the matriculation examination?*

Secondary questions:

1. *How can instructional leadership possibly contribute to learner performance in the matriculation examinations?*
2. *How do HODs and deputy principals perceive the role of their principals with regard to instructional leadership?*
3. *How are the principals prepared with regard to their role as instructional leaders?*

The research questions above were addressed in the study through various sub-sections that form the major part of the literature review. The table below reflects the research questions, the appropriate subheading(s) responding to each question, the key references, and the predominant constructs and emerging ideas regarding the practice of instructional leadership.

**TABLE 2.5: Summary of the research questions, subheadings responding to each question, key references, predominant constructs and emerging ideas from the literature review**

Research questions	Subheading(s) responding to each research question	Key references	Predominant constructs and emerging ideas about instructional leadership
<p><b>Primary question:</b> <i>What are the variables related to instructional leadership practices of secondary school principals and what is their effect on learner performance in the matriculation examination?</i></p>	<p><b>1. Variables related to instructional leadership</b></p>	<p>Keefe &amp; Jenkins (1992); Hallinger (2002); Cladwell (2002); Chang (2001); Harris (2010); Lashway (1995); Blasé &amp; Blasé (2001)</p>	<p>The instructional leader has the responsibility to perform the following functions in an attempt to improve the achievement of learners: promote frequent and appropriate school-wide teacher development activities; define and communicate shared vision and goals of the school; monitor and provide feedback on the teaching and learning process, and manage the curriculum and instruction.</p>
<p><b>Secondary question 1:</b> <i>How can instructional leadership possibly contribute to the improvement of learner performance in the matriculation examination?</i></p>	<p><b>1. Purpose and functions of instructional leadership</b> <b>2. Instructional leadership and teaching and learning</b></p>	<p>Lashway (2000); Du Four (2002); King (2002); Lahui-Ako (2000)</p>	<p>All primary activities undertaken by the school's leadership should be tightly coupled to the core technology of schooling, which is teaching and learning. This view implies that a principal's primary role is instructional leadership and, as such, the principal must guide and direct changes to teaching and learning. Distributing leadership to others in the school further explains the perceptions of the principal with regard to his/her role as instructional leader.</p>

Research questions	Subheading(s) responding to each research question	Key references	Predominant constructs and emerging ideas about instructional leadership
<p><b>Secondary question 2:</b> <i>How do HODs and deputy principals perceive the role of their principals regarding instructional leadership?</i></p>	<p><b>1. Principals' and teachers' perceptions about instructional leadership</b></p>	<p>Robinson (2007) in Bush, Joubert, Kiggundu &amp; Van Rooyen (2009); Jorgenson &amp; Peal (2008); Goddard, Stockard &amp; Williford (1992) in Kochamba &amp; Murray (2008); Arikewuyo (2009); Mulkeen <i>et al.</i> (2007)</p>	<p>The improvement of student outcomes is likely to be greater where there is direct leader involvement in the oversight of, and participation in curriculum planning and coordination, teacher learning and professional development. The closer leaders are to the core business of teaching and learning, the more likely they are to make a difference to learners.</p> <p>Teachers appreciate administrators who occasionally offer to relieve a class, take every opportunity to be guest teachers, and demonstrate their skills and engagement in classroom life. A principal who models what should be happening in the classroom is more appreciated by teachers than one who tells them what to do.</p> <p>There is a lack of congruence between teachers' and principals' perceptions with regard to the practice of instructional leadership. The visible presence of the principal in the classroom will not have any impact on teachers unless if it is accompanied by skills that enable the principal to enact the role of instructional leadership. Research on effective schools has shown that most principals do not have such skills; further that some principals cling to their traditional management roles; and others do not see themselves as instructional leaders but as managers of their schools.</p> <p>Principals in most African states ranked academic and instructional activities including curriculum development, teaching and instructional supervision, second to staff and student management, coordinating, and financial management, which they treat with much vigour. Principals in most African countries do not have any regard for instructional supervision and thus do not view it as part of their duties.</p>

Research Questions	Subheading(s) responding to each research question	Key references	Predominant constructs and emerging ideas about instructional leadership
<p><i>Primary research question 3: How are principals prepared with regard to their role as instructional leaders?</i></p>	<p><b>1. Professional development and instructional leadership</b></p>	<p>Bush and Oduro (2006); Kelly (2005); Bush (2007); Bush and Jackson (2000)</p>	<p>Bush (2007) argues that there is little evidence of principals and other school leaders being developed for the central function of schools promotion and that principals are further not found to be conceptualizing their role as leaders of learning. Professional development of principals and their capacity to develop others in the school in line with curriculum development, management and supervision, will serve as a key to ensuring continuous and uninterrupted improvement in learner performance.</p>