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ABSTRACT

Even though secondary schools are located in the same area and receive their student intake from the same primary schools, they differ in their performance with regard to Grade 12 final examination results. This study focuses on three secondary schools, namely, Mpone, Leope and Noko which are in Bakenberg South Circuit (BSC), Waterberg District, Limpopo Province, South Africa. These schools were considered high performing by the National Department of Education.

Through a qualitative study in which interviews were conducted with eight school management teams (SMTs) of the three schools, the study examines the successful strategies employed by SMTs in managing and leading curriculum with special reference to teaching and learning. The study reaffirmed the importance of high quality leadership which promotes educators professional development. The study highlighted the importance of proper time and resource management and confirmed the vital role of parental involvement in their children’s education. The results further indicated that teachers, learners’ and general successes enjoyed by the school needed to be celebrated.

The overarching impulse emerging from the study is that for schools to enjoy successful management and leadership in teaching and learning leadership should be shared, the resources of stakeholders should be harnessed and conducive working conditions need to be established and maintained.

KEY WORDS:
Curriculum leadership
Curriculum management;
Collaborative leadership
Pupil achievement
# ACRONYMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Acronym</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ANC</td>
<td>African National Congress</td>
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<tr>
<td>AYP</td>
<td>Adequate Yearly Progress</td>
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<td>B4S</td>
<td>Bound for Success</td>
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<td>BSC</td>
<td>Bakenberg South Circuit</td>
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<td>CEC</td>
<td>Central Executive Committee</td>
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<td>CEO</td>
<td>Chief Executive Officer</td>
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<td>ELRC</td>
<td>Education Labour relations Council</td>
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<td>ESD</td>
<td>Education for Sustainable Development</td>
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<td>FET</td>
<td>Further Education and Training</td>
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<td>GET</td>
<td>General Education and Training</td>
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<td>ILP</td>
<td>Individual Learning Plan</td>
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<td>LDK</td>
<td>Leaders of Content Knowledge</td>
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<td>LPED</td>
<td>Limpopo Province Education Department</td>
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<td>MBWA</td>
<td>Management By Walking Around</td>
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<tr>
<td>NAPTOSA</td>
<td>National Professional Teachers’ Organisation of South Africa</td>
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<td>NCLB</td>
<td>No Child Left Behind</td>
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<td>NSC</td>
<td>National Senior Certificate</td>
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<td>OBE</td>
<td>Outcome Based Education</td>
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<td>PDS</td>
<td>Professional Development Schools</td>
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<td>SADTU</td>
<td>South African Democratic Teachers’ Union</td>
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<td>SAOU</td>
<td>Suid Afrikaanse Onderwysie Unie</td>
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<td>SMT</td>
<td>School Management Team</td>
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<td>SSS</td>
<td>Scope and Sequence statement</td>
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<td>US</td>
<td>United States</td>
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<tr>
<td>TPD</td>
<td>Teacher Professional Development</td>
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<td>UAHS</td>
<td>Urban Alternative High School</td>
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<td>WEC</td>
<td>Winter Enrichment Classes</td>
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DECLARATION

I, Keku Elizabeth Ngobeni, declare that this dissertation is my own work and has not been previously submitted to the University of Pretoria or any other University in the world by me for a degree on the topic.

CURRICULUM LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT IN SELECTED SCHOOLS IN LIMPOPO PROVINCE

SIGNATURE:

DATE: 15 June 2011
DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my brother John Saity Khumalo (deceased). He was the main source of my inspiration and sincere thanks go to my daughter Basambilu Portia. You did not give up on me girl; you took over where your late uncle has left. Your love, encouragement, and belief in my abilities have been a constant source of strength to me. Nkele, how can I forget you, girl. Thank you.
Introduction

The world is in a state of flux occasioned by profound natural forces, social, economic, and political changes and rapid scientific and technological advancement. The nations of the world, of which Bakenberg South Circuit in Limpopo Province, South Africa is a part, are also becoming more interconnected and interdependent. To avoid possible future shock, nations must respond quickly, preferably and proactively to these rapid changes. Regular curriculum renewal, which must consider new competencies, standards and trends, regional and international, is increasingly becoming a must in most educational systems of the world as a means of coping with these changes and challenges. Effective curriculum leadership and management is sine-qua-non to the successful implementation and institutionalization of curriculum change in order to achieve the desired goals (Peretomode, 2010:298).

Strong leadership in curriculum development is an essential element of any school improvement strategy and today’s School Management Team (SMT) play an important and ever-expanding role in the process. From the 1960s onwards, educational reforms of most industrialized countries have been experiencing problems and very few individual schools managed to bring about radical change which rarely last or spreads (Edwards et al, 2009: 97). According to Swart (2009:5), in South Africa, curriculum change was due to globalization and post 1994 government. Globalization stimulated the need to reform and modernise the curriculum to make it globally competitive. Post 1994 government wanted to make a clean break with apartheid. Jansen (1999a:4) indicated that core curricula were devised for all schools and were introduced into schools with vastly different resource environments and accordingly, produced vastly different consequences.

According to Coleman (2003: vii), changing the education system to meet South Africa’s present and future needs will not be easy. The new political dispensation in South Africa requires a new way of looking at the education system. A democratic Constitution based on the principles of human rights and the removal of discrimination on the grounds of race, sex and religion means that education must change and play its part in preparing learners to be responsible citizens.
The introduction of the NCS requires school principals to acknowledge, support and guide educators as coordinators of schools (RNCS Overview, 2002:4). The NCS emphasizes that educational leaders should be able to draw on the professional competencies of educators, build a sense of unity, propose and reinforce their beliefs that can encourage high performing learners. In American education landscape, the signing into the law of the federal education legislation, No Child Left Behind (NCLB) in 2002, dramatically transformed the nature of school leadership and accountability and redefined school leaders’ roles, responsibilities, and authority (Glatthorn, 2009:2).

**Contextual background**

Provincial Education Departments, as custodians of municipalities and educational structures, are responsible for monitoring how their circuits are progressing in terms of performance in schools. This research was conducted in Bakenberg South Circuit (BSC) in Waterberg District. BSC has twelve (12) secondary schools and eighteen (18) primary schools. Most learners from the BSC area either live alone or live with their elderly grandparents who are illiterate. Even after successful completion of the National Senior Certificate (NSC), most learners leave school to seek employment mostly as farm workers in order to take care of their siblings. Those who wish to continue with schooling, either lack money or do not know where to go to after completing matric. Those who go to school take education very serious as they regard education as the only source of inspiration and a solution to their destitute situation.

In Limpopo Province, schools which obtain above 50% matric pass rate are considered to be high performing schools by the National Department of Education. In BSC, only three secondary schools, namely, Mpone, Leope and Noko obtained above 50% for three consecutive years, 2005, 2006 and 2007. The question which prompted me to conduct this study was: What strategies were the School Management Teams (SMTs) of Mpone, Leope and Noko Secondary Schools employing in order to lead and manage successful teaching and learning? These despite all the twelve secondary schools in the District are located in the same rural area, and face insufficient resources.

In 2003, principals in Bakenberg South Circuit formed a forum that was called Bakenberg South Circuit Education Management Team. The main aim of the forum was to support the
Limpopo Province Education Department in improving the standard of education. In 2008, the District Official Management Team organized a workshop for under-performing schools in Modimolle, Limpopo Province. The attendees were principals of under-performing secondary schools and principals of their feeder primary schools. Based on what transpired at that workshop, it was clear that principals of under-performing schools blame academic underperformance in secondary schools on the feeder primary schools. They alleged that primary schools send them pupils who were academically unprepared for secondary school; that is pupils who can neither read nor write. These secondary school principals adopted a culture of blame and hopelessness; this despite the fact that, Mpone, Leope and Noko Secondary Schools, also receive learners from the same feeder primary schools. The question that emanated from this concern was: How did the three secondary schools cope and ultimately produce good results with the learners that were said to be unprepared for secondary school education?

On the next page is a map of Waterberg District council showing six municipalities of which Mogalakwena is one of them.
Most learners from the BSC area either live alone at home or live with their elderly grandparents who are illiterate. Even after successful completion of the National Senior Certificate (NSC), most learners leave schools to seek employment mostly as farm workers in order to take care of their siblings. Those who wish to continue with schooling, either lack money or do not know where to go after completing NCS. Those who go to school take education very serious as they regard education as the only source of inspiration and a solution to their destitute situation.

In her statement on the release of matric results on the 28th of December 2008, the Minister of Education, Naledi Pandor, indicated that performance has been declining since 2004. She continued to emphasise the implementation of effective strategies that would support increased success of all levels of schooling (Smith, 2007:10). Although Mr. A Motsoaledi (Limpopo Education MEC) was commended on the great results produced specifically in the fields of Maths and Science (http://www.pmg.org.za), in BSC, nine out of twelve schools are still under-performing. Only three schools are said to be high performing in this circuit. For the past three years, the following schools, Mpone, Leope and Noko (pseudonyms) have produced above 50% matric final results and this situated them in the high performing schools’ category. The question that emanated was: What were the strategies that the School Management Teams of Mpone, Leope and Noko Secondary Schools used to lead and manage teaching and learning?

Rationale

Principals met in BSC in Waterberg District, in Limpopo Province, South Africa in 2003 to form an Education Management Team (EMT). The aim was to support the Limpopo Province Education Department (LPED) through the Bakenberg South Circuit Education Management Team (BSCEMT) to improve the standard of education and to bring back the culture of teaching and learning in Limpopo Province.

I was elected the chairperson of the Education Desk in BSC. At the executive meeting, the Education Desk was requested to evaluate all the twelve secondary schools’ matric results in order to have a clear picture of how the secondary schools were performing at the Circuit. We analysed matric results for the three years, 2005, 2006 and 2007.
In 2008, the District Official Management Team organized a workshop for underperforming schools in Modimolle. The attendees were principals of under-performing secondary schools and principals of their feeder primary schools. Based on what transpired at the workshop, it was clear that principals of under-performing secondary schools blamed the type of intake that they received from primary schools. They were saying that primary schools were sending them learners who were not ready, learners who were unable to read and write. They were portraying a culture of blame and hopelessness which was not convincing because the three schools that were categorized under high performing schools’ category also received learners from the same feeder primary schools. The question that emanated from this concern was: How did the three secondary schools cope and ultimately produce good results with the learners that were said to be unprepared for secondary school education?

**Research statement:**

Strategies used by high performing school leadership in managing and leading curriculum with special reference to teaching and learning.

**Critical questions**

1. What successful strategies do performing secondary schools’ leadership use to enhance teaching and learning?
2. Which support mechanisms do high performing schools’ leadership use to provide instructional leadership?
3. How does performing schools’ leadership encourage teachers to accept their responsibilities for high performance?
4. How does performing schools’ leadership create working conditions that promote teacher development?
The aims of the study

The study aimed at:

1. Reviewing the successful strategies used by high performing schools’ leadership to enhance teaching and learning.
2. Exploring the support mechanisms used by high performing school’s leadership to provide instructional leadership.
3. Understanding how high performing schools’ leadership creates a culture that promote and sustain learner achievement.
4. Reviewing how the high performing schools’ leadership motivates educators.

Parameters of the study

This study was conducted in the three secondary schools; Mpone, Leope and Noko (pseudonyms) in BSC, Mogalakwena Municipality, Waterberg District, Limpopo Province in South Africa. The three secondary schools were chosen because they had produced more than 50% matriculation pass rates for the years 2005, 2006 and 2007 consecutively and they were labeled as high performing schools by the LPDE. This was in line with intervention strategies as reported by the Director–General (Eastern Cape) for the improvement of learner attainment in 2006. He said that the MEC intervened in schools that attained 20% pass rate and the focus was on the integrated Education Transformation Plan especially in those schools with pass rates below 50 % (Parliamentary Monitoring Group, 2006: 2).

Feeder primary schools were not included due to the type of research that was conducted; that of limited scope and the fact that both groups of secondary schools received learners from the same primary schools. A qualitative research method was used to obtain information from participants through semi-structured interviews.
Significance of the study

Since school leaders are considered to play a crucial role in the successful management and leadership of the curriculum, it is therefore important to know what other schools’ leadership are doing so that they be able to improve and sustain their schools’ students achievement.

Additionally, by being aware of the results of this study, school leaders may develop positive perceptions and attitudes toward managing and leading teaching and learning effectively. This will again assist underperforming schools to be able to diagnose their shortfalls before they select recovery pathways.

Again, exploring the support mechanisms used by high performing school’s leadership to provide instructional leadership may assist school leaders to know exactly what works for teachers and learners to finally achieve effective teaching and learning and improves student achievement.

Understanding how high performing schools’ leadership creates a culture that promote and sustain student achievement may help school leaders to understand teachers’ behaviour in order to be able to change the social reality created within the classroom.

Results on how the high performing schools’ leadership motivates educators may assist other schools’ leadership to engage in incentives that drives teachers and students to work hard for schools to achieve high.

The researcher therefore hopes that the results of this study will shed light on how curriculum should be managed and led so that all students pass.
CHAPTER 1

Perspectives on curriculum leadership and management

1.1 Introduction

In Limpopo (which is regarded as a socio-economically deprived province), like other provinces in South Africa, the underperformance of Grade 12 students (who are also referred to as matriculants who write a national exit exam) remains one of the most pressing issues facing education. In South Africa, Gauteng is regarded as a well-resourced province. However, it still underperforms in the Grade 12 examinations. Smith (2007: 1) expressed her surprise concerning the high failure rate in 2007 where 21 500 matriculants failed in Gauteng. She asked: “How is that possible in the wealthiest, best resourced province in Africa?” Her question gestures to the contention that it is not resources alone that lead to schools high performance or that leads to underperformance.

In 2007, the then Minister of Education, Naledi Pandor, expressed her disappointment at the poor quality of education delivery when she tabled the National Education Budget vote for the 2007/2008 financial year. She indicated that the prevalence of unprofessional educator conduct that manifested in teacher unpunctuality, little and sometimes no teaching taking place in schools is tolerated and this results in poor student achievement. Pandor further indicated that mediocrity is defended and apartheid is still blamed for teacher unprofessionalism and inadequate resources. In her statement on the release of matric results on the 28th of December 2008, the Minister of Education, Naledi Pandor, indicated that performance has been declining since 2004. She continued to emphasise the implementation of effective strategies that would support increased success at all levels of schooling (Smith, 2007:10).

This chapter presents the literature review on curriculum leadership and management with special reference to teaching and learning. A literature review is regarded as an investigation that involves reading what other people have written about one’s own area of research interest, gathering information to either support or refute one’s argument, and writing about one’s findings, and included in this review were books, articles, journals and newspapers to assist in understanding more about how other school leaders lead and manage their schools effectively.
1.2 Definition of terms:

Leadership, Management and Curriculum
According to Hoadley et al (2009: 6), leadership tends to be equated with vision and values, and management with processes and structures. Hoadley et al further argued that leadership can be exercised throughout the school, by different people at different levels, while management, in contrast, is a structural position, which carries with it specific roles and responsibilities. The terms leadership and management are used interchangeably in this study to include both the positioning of managers within the organisation and their exercise of leadership in the various aspects of their role.

Paine (2005: 189) viewed leadership as a ‘planned process that results in challenging people to work toward an ever-expanding vision of excellence in the achievement of organisational goals and objectives’. Paine further indicates that in many definitions of ‘a leader’, the word ‘relationship’ is common. In consensus, Nolan et al (2006: 20) acknowledged that much has been written about what it means to lead, but further argued that there may be no more elegant definition of leadership than Sirotnik’s in his book; Educating Teachers for Leadership and Change. According to Sirotnik (in Hinrichs, 2007: 239), ‘leadership is the exercise of significant and responsible influence’. Stated in School Leadership in the 21\textsuperscript{st} Century, Hinrichs further suggests that schools need school leadership that will portray the ability to shift from old ways of leading schools, that of being authoritative, to those who inspire others to develop leadership talent from within the school. Nolan et al (2006: 20) define leadership as a complex set of dispositions and norms that guide the decision making processes for the Professionally Development Schools (PDS). They identified trust and collegiality as characteristics of leadership and indicated that decisions-making is shared.

According to Hinrichs (2007: 240), leadership is communicating to people their worth and potential so clearly that they come to see it in themselves. Such leaders assist others to develop their own leadership talents, to reach the full potential of their talents and skills. According to Brubaker (1994: 67), curriculum leaders use their talents to help others identify and use their talents. Senge (in Hinrichs, 2007: 240) stated that ‘leadership for the 21\textsuperscript{st} century calls for a new state of mind which is collaborative and actively draws upon the strengths of all in building leadership’.

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For this kind of leadership to be developed, Hinrichs (2007: 240) suggested that the role of the principal has to be that of sharing vision, convening conversations, evoking and supporting leadership in others, insisting on student problem-learning focus, modeling and participating in collaborative practice.

Mullen (2007: 11) claims that there are more than 120 different definitions of the word curriculum appearing in different forms of literature. In this study, I aligned myself with the sense of curriculum as defined by Hoadley et al (2009: 61 & Coleman 2003: 3), as all-planned learning for which the school is responsible, that is, the formal academic programme provided by a school as reflected in subjects on the timetable. Hoadley et al further indicated that curriculum is produced by both curriculum planners and teachers. Williamson et al (2009: 4) viewed curriculum as comprising a challenging selection of subjects that help children and young people understand the world. Williamson et al further indicate that curriculum is also political in nature. They viewed decisions about ‘what’s in’ and ‘what’s out’ changing from time to time depending on political needs and aspirations, and emphasised that curriculum fundamentally establishes a vision of the kind of society we want in the future, and the kind of people we want to include in it. As such, many authors agree that it is not always possible for everyone to agree on what a curriculum should be (Hoadley et al 2009; Mullen, 2007 & Williamson et al, 2009).

1.3 The need for productive leadership

While the direct effects of leadership on student learning have been shown to be limited, Niesche et al (2007: 104-105 & Bryk, 2010: 26) maintained that educational leadership has a significant part to play not only in fostering an environment in which sound teaching and learning exists, but also in facilitating the implementation of school reforms. Hoadley et al (2009: 6) stated that there is a consensus in the United States (US) and European literature, and increasingly in South African research, that school managers play a crucial role in creating the conditions for improved instruction. But this seems impossible because of increasing external pressures such as the departmental policies and the demand to rise ‘test scores’.
School administrators find themselves under a lot of pressure and finally focus more on management functions than leadership roles (Jones, 2007: 8; Jansen, 2007: 97; Millward et al, 2009: 141; Paine, 2005: 187 & the Parliamentary Monitoring Group, 2006: 4). In his summary, Brubaker (1994) indicated that school administrators must nurture their own self-esteem while using the necessary political skills to realistically deal with external pressures for them to avoid burnout.

Niesche et al (2007: 105) believed that adherence to the notion of productive leadership is totally useful because it acknowledges the teacher as the most influential element in enhancing outcomes for students and therefore suggests that the work of those in formal leadership positions is to encourage sound classroom practices, while mediating policy effects.

Hayes et al (in Niesche et al, 2007: 105) described their notion of productive leadership as consisting of the following characteristics:

1. A commitment to leadership that supports the spread of leadership practices and collaboration decision-making processes in building common vision and purposes. This is an influential kind of leadership which is participatory.

   Paine (2005: 194) viewed this kind of leadership as that which involves the managing and leading of the professional activities of the school not through a hierarchical structure, but through a flat structure with flexible roles of members sharing responsibilities, empowering stake-holders, developing expertise and ensuring effectiveness through the creation of a culture of learning.

2. Supportive social relationships within the school, between the staff and students. The leadership may only thrive if supported by the followers.

3. Hands on knowledge about how educational theory translates into strategic action and is aligned with community concerns and relationships outside of the school. Development can thus take place where the school influences the community.

4. A focus on pedagogy in which leadership in a school is focused on improving students learning outcomes and learning within the school as a whole. The leadership that affects the learning outcomes has far reaching influence. Students’ academic performance should be placed first on the priority list of the school.
5. Support for the development of a culture of care which encourages teacher professional risk taking and a focus on structures and strategies in which leadership focuses on developing organisational processes that facilitate the smooth running of the school.

1.4 Leadership and change
Different authors identified and wrote about different leadership behaviours and they all agree that there is no single best way to lead. For example, according to behaviour theories, activities of leaders portray the style the leader is exercising. House and Mitchell (in Edwards et al, 2007: 101) identified directive, supportive, participative and achievement-oriented leadership behaviours which are often categorised as leadership styles.

Drake et al (1986: 107-108) identified laissez faire, autocratic and democratic leadership styles. Niesche et al (2007: 104) identified instructional leadership, educative leadership and pedagogical leadership as examples of leadership styles which when effectively exercised, learner achievement would be improved. From the research on organisational recovery outside of education, Murphy (2010: 162) learnt three things about leadership: ‘that it is critically important; that in almost all cases, current leaders need to be replaced; and that replacing those leaders with industry expertise are likely to be more successful than those without such experience and knowledge’.

House of Common Environment Audit Committee (in Edwards et al, 2007: 101), commented that; ‘without effective multilevel leadership, change is likely to be erratic and frail’. Moreover, governments throughout the world are increasingly viewing leadership as a panacea for a plethora of social, economic and environmental ills. According to Tjomsland (2010: 74), change in schools depends on what teachers do and think. Tjomsland further indicates that teachers often oppose change, partly because of the perception of a constant overload imposed by national reforms and improvement projects that compete for the teachers’ time and attention, as well as limited resources.
Jones (2007: 15) distinguishes administrators-as-managers and leaders of content knowledge in the way they handle change. According to Jones, administrators-as-managers and leaders of content knowledge approach the change initiative process as a series of tasks, which the supervisor in charge checks off one-by-one. They understand that changing the hearts and minds of those most directly working with children requires a process in which teachers are immersed in learning environments and conversational forums, where they are able to interact with colleagues and mentors about the theories, ideas, and practices they are being asked to apply in their classrooms. According to Murphy (2010: 162), effective leaders not only trigger change, they change the climate of the company, its vision and give it new direction. Jones (2007: 15) argues that teachers are willing to change very deeply about teaching and learning if the change makes sense to them, if they perceive a long-term commitment by an administrator to the change initiative, and if they receive proper support throughout the change process. In his remarks, Jones (2007: 11) claimed:

Teachers are much more open to an instructional improvement initiative if the leader agrees with ideas; ideas agree with actions, actions agree with practices. The most pervasive impediment to instructional improvement is the lack of a coherent framework for understanding the causes and possible solutions for an instructional problem.

Edwards et al (2009: 99 & Jansen, 2007: 96) claimed that change is not always planned and it is beyond rational control. Khalifa (2010: 622-625) agree with Blankstein (2004: 18) in his belief that school leaders who maintain a strong belief in the ultimate success of their staff and students, have far better results. According to their view, publicly identifying a school as failing has the effect of lowering morale and is not the best way to improve matters and can act as a barrier to progress (West et al, 2005: 78). Castallo (2001: 4 & Warrican, 2006: 1-2) emphasised meaningful involvement and consultation by the teachers throughout the process of change as the most important element in ensuring effective change.
From the perspective of complexity theory, Edwards et al (2009: 99) viewed organisations as ‘complex adaptive systems’ composed of a collection of interacting adaptive agents whose dynamic interactions generate novel behaviour that transforms the organisation from its current state to a largely determinate new state. Fullan (in Edwards et al, 2009: 99), provided a compelling analysis of curriculum change through the lens of complexity theory. His challenge was to understand how to make the educational system a learning organisation. His position is broadly consistent with a widely held view that in order to bring about sustainable change in education the school must be the basic unit of change. In his findings, Edwards et al concluded that organisations that improve do so because they create and nurture agreements on what is worth achieving, and set in motion the internal processes by which people progressively learn how to do what they need to do in order to achieve what is worthwhile.

1.4.1 School as organisational learning system

Much has been made and said of the potential of creating schools as learning organisations to address the problems of underachievement. Mulford and Harris (in Millward et al, 2009: 139-140) wrote about the importance of creating an organisational learning environment and the challenges faced by schools in trying to lift the achievement of learners. Millward et al (2009: 139) proposed three mechanisms for organizational change which included instructional leadership, tight coupling and boundary spanning. They further illustrated ways in which these processes might combine to create an organisational learning environment required for the kind of changes needed to raise student achievement. They did this with reference to the case of a New Zealand school that dramatically improved the learning outcomes of students in reading. A practice of a new principal who was relatively inexperienced in school management but experienced in curriculum leadership was described. The case study illustrates how through the principals’ instructional leadership, the principal is able to span the boundaries of his/her organisation so that within a relatively short space of time, the school become a more tightly coupled system that improve the learning outcomes of students.
West et al (2005: 83-84; 87) described changing the school culture mainly in terms of changing values and beliefs. They viewed the creation of a happy place to work as an important mechanism in improving learner achievement. They argued further that changing school culture involves building relationships, strengthening morale and raising expectations. Chew et al (2010: 61) indicated that teachers become fully alive when their schools and districts provide opportunities for skilful participation, inquiry, dialogue and reflection.

According to Millward et al (2009: 140-141), learning organisations occurs through the learning of individuals within the organisation and by the recruitment of new members who have knowledge that current members of the organisation do not possess. Hinrichs (2007: 243) emphasised bringing invested and valued stakeholders to the decision table and view it as the key to providing a positive and supportive learning environment for students. He perceived schools that learn as those which describe five learning disciplines of organisational learning; personal mastery, shared vision, mental models, team learning and systems thinking.

Jansen (2007: 92) maintained that strong, courageous, self-assured and committed leaders are required to act against the odds. He stated sense of moral purpose, sense of human frailty, sense of racial inclusion, sense of political complexity and a sense of personal growth as common strands that bind the narratives of three leaders who took up the challenge of unplanned transition. Slatter (in Murphy, 2010: 162) concluded that in organisational turnarounds, it is leadership that provides a sense of direction by setting priorities and short term goals; establishes a sense of urgency; defines responsibilities; resolves conflict; conveys enthusiasm and dedication; gives credit where it is due and rewards it accordingly.

1.4.2 Context of change

Law et al (2007: 143) perceived decentralisation of curriculum decision-making as a key debate in the broad discussion of the appropriate change strategies to enhance school improvement, teacher development and pupil learning for the past several decades. They viewed failure of the use of central agencies in designing and planning new curricula for implementation in schools, as well as a call for more democratic participation of the professional teachers in school and curriculum decision-making
processes in the 1960s and 1970s in developed countries such as United States (US) and Australia as one of the driving forces behind decentralisation. Law et al further defined decentralisation as a way of making decisions about what to teach more relevantly, how to teach more effectively and how to assess more accurately. When unpacking its meaning, Harris, Marsh, Ovens, Stenhouse, Wallace, Nesbit & Miller’s (in Law et al, 2007: 144) claimed that decentralisation calls for the change in traditional roles of the teachers from curriculum users to curriculum developers, taking up more responsibilities in making curriculum decisions for pupil learning. Decentralisation movements have also brought fundamental changes to the traditional role of schools as primarily concerned with pupil learning, to focusing on how pupil learning could be enhanced as a result of teaching learning and how schools become a learning community of pupils as well as for teachers. This new tradition, according to Law et al regards teacher participation as a necessary condition of enhancing transformational experiences for the professional development of teachers and therefore enhancement of student learning.

1.4.3 Teacher leaders as change agents
In response to increased performance expectations, schools and districts are turning to nonsupervisory, school-based, instructional teacher leader roles to help improve teachers’ instruction and enhance student learning (Mangin et al, 2010: 49). According to Chew et al (2010:61), a crucial role of the principal is to enable teachers to become leaders. In addition, Paine (2005: 12) observed that the presence of teacher leaders in schools makes any transformation easy, especially when the principal is receptive to the ideas of others and enjoys working in collaboration with others. According to a close review of research literature developed by Wallace Foundation, leadership is second only to classroom instruction among all school-related factors that contribute to what students learn at school. Leithwood et al (2004: 5) described how teacher leadership can provide the support and strategies that were needed, in part, due to the uniqueness of the close proximity that teachers have to their students. Master teachers who are up to speed with best practice strategies are in an important place to be able to assess student learning and provide an intervention or strategy that is needed (Hinrichs, 2007: 245).
Mangin et al (2010: 49; Jones, 2007: 15 & Pounder, 2006: 533) concluded that teacher leaders are excellent classroom performers and that there is a strong relationship between teacher leadership and transformational classroom leadership concepts. Mangin et al (2010: 49) argued further that instructional teacher-leaders commonly perform an array of activities. They conducted professional development workshops, co-planned and modeled lessons, observed teaching and provided feedback, collected and analysed data, facilitated dialogue and reflective critiques, and promoted shared practices among peers. Thus, the work of an instructional teacher-leader aims to improve teaching for the purpose of increasing student learning. This drive for collaboration is grounded in the epistemological assumptions that knowledge does not only exist objectively outside the knower, but that it is also subjectively created by experiences; that knowledge is generated and formalized through the sharing of different perspective about experiences.

Grant (2005: 513) claimed that principals who work alone deny a platform for educators to display their knowledge. In his elaboration, Grant proposed that educators needed to be encouraged to find their voices, take up their potential as leaders and agent of change to produce a liberating culture in their schools. Educators needed to be empowered, shifting from a follower role to operating as teacher-leaders, whether they are in an informal leadership position or in a formal one such as that of the deputy principal, head of department (HOD) or learning area coordinator /subject advisor. One principal indicated how easy it was for their school to unpack the new curriculum as he/she provided support to teachers in the form of team leaders (Niesche et al, 2010: 109-110). The interviewed principal commented:

I started by appointing team leaders, with one for the Individual Learning plan (ILP) and for different phases of learning and so we talked through working with the structure in that format. The teachers are using those descriptors very effectively here at the moment. But it’s really enabled them to plan for explicit teaching a lot more effectively, in planning, and they have thought about and understand the actual explicit teaching that they need to do in the classroom, whereas previously planning was a little more general in nature and open to making decisions on the spot, rather than planning with some thought behind it.
When analysing these comments, Niesche et al (2010: 110) suggested that this principal took a key role in the implementation process and the implementation was successfully carried out by the teaching staff. Appointing team leaders indicates intent to share leadership. Positions such as master, lead, and mentor teacher were seen as a way to decentralise authority, include teachers in shared decision making, improve morale, enhance teachers’ work and tap into previously underused resources.

The depth of teacher leaders’ content knowledge affects their ability to influence instructional improvement. Content experts, Manno and Firestone (in Mangin et al, 2010: 52) concluded that teacher-leaders recognise the deficiencies in their colleagues’ content knowledge and focus their work on those areas, contribute to teachers’ understanding of desired practice and provide the necessary knowledge and skills to enact that practice. In addition to content knowledge, instructional teacher-leaders posses the procedural knowledge necessary to facilitate collective instructional improvement and know how to deliver content to teachers in a way that promotes collaboration, dialogue and trust.

In sum, Mangin et al (2010: 53-54) maintained that principal leadership, school norms, school structure, and overall goal coherence have a critical influence on the work of teacher leaders and to the extent to which teacher leaders can contribute to the improvement of instructional practice. They indicated further that schools and districts’ need to focus on the set of interrelated components to deepen the potential effectiveness of instructional teacher-leader roles for improving teaching.

Mangin et al disclosed that the head teachers who wants to work alone usually finds themselves lonely, spending most of their time in the office or away from the school. This implies that it is important to develop teacher leaders and to share generously with them, support them on daily basis for the school to be successful.
1.5 Leadership approaches

1.5.1 Productive leadership

A productive leadership approach demonstrates support for the development of schools as communities focused on learning by emphasizing the role of professional learning communities and linking this with the notion of productive pedagogies. The productive pedagogies framework evolved from Queensland School Longitudinal Reform Study (QSLRS) and it outlined approaches to teaching that were based on the notions of intellectual quality, a supportive classroom environment, connectedness to the world and valuing difference. This framework concurred with the work of Lingard et al and Lambert (in Niesche et al, 2007: 105) in their argument that leadership dispersal is important for the promotion of productive leadership through the whole school community.

In their initial responses to the reforms, participants in QSLRS indicated that the change process was complicated mostly by the rushed roll-out of the curriculum document, but, at schools where principals acted in a hierarchical line management mode of operating, reforms were successfully implemented. The principal who was interviewed pointed out that he/she had supported teachers all the way through the implementation process. The principal commented:

And really, my role in that has been making sure that staff have the right understanding of the curriculum, have all the resources that they needed to implement that, and also understand how the assessment and the monitoring that come out of that – how there are obligations around that, that need to be met as well, so it’s really an ongoing thing for us all. I’m always feeding back to staff on the general items on our staff meetings. And I also do general one on one by supporting teachers to develop a task for implementing the literacy and numeracy programs in their classrooms (Niesche et al, 2007: 108).
1.5.2 Instructional leadership

Millward et al (2009: 141) pointed out that focusing leadership on instruction was instrumental in developing shared mental models focused on reducing underachievement. They claimed further that historically, school leaders have been identified as focusing on their managerial duties. This was supported by Jansen (2007: 97) in his statement which says; ‘schools continue to be over-managed and under-led, instead of having a strong hand of management working in tandem with the soft heart of leadership’. Paine (2005: 187 & Visscher, 2001: 204) claimed that school leaders are under a lot of pressure and found it difficult to lead and manage schools due to the technological and sociological revolutions that have overtaken today’s community. Visscher (2001: 204) argued further that instead of SMTs performing their educational tasks effectively. With the evolution of self-managing schools in many countries, Millward et al (2009: 141) explained that the focus by school leaders on purely management issues may be seen as a distraction that takes their attention away from leading the learning of their teachers and students.

Authors such as Bensimon (1993; Edwards et al, 2009; Jones, 2007; Jansen, 2007; Mullen, 2007; Niesche et al, 2007; Paine, 2005 & Khalifa, 2010) concurred on the issue of achieving good results by schools. They agree that for the school to achieve good results, expertise in teaching and learning are significant and that this calls for school leaders to become instructional leaders.

Coldren and Spillane (in Millward et al, 2009: 141) identified instructional leadership as the leadership practice that develop teachers’ professional practice in ways that improve students’ learning. They view instructional leadership as that leadership which requires leaders to demonstrate a strong sense of their role as leaders of teachers’ learning rather than just facilitators of collegial discussions.

In his findings, Pajak (2006: 116) commented that for teachers to be instructional leaders they are expected to know their subjects thoroughly in order to help students learn content and meet high standards of achievement. This emphasis on academic content shows how important is it for schools to have school leadership, as leaders of both instruction and curriculum, who are efficient in addressing appropriate pedagogic methods and academic subject matter when they work with teachers to help improve student achievement.
According to Hersey et al (1982: 3, 83-84 & Davis et al, 1997: 127), leaders should assume responsibility for what the literature calls ‘purposing’—the ability to create the capacity, vocabulary, and organisational configuration for the aims of the organisation to be realised in the daily functions of employees.

1.5.2.1 Qualities of instructional leaders
Edwards et al (2009: 101) indicated that trait theories maintained that certain individuals have innate qualities such as intelligence, self-confidence, determination, integrity and sociability that enable them to lead, and it is these qualities that distinguish them from non-leaders. Jones (2007: 9,12) viewed instructional leaders as those who possess a laser-like focus on what the organisation ought to be doing and an ability to transform the vision of the organisation into the everyday functions of their employees. The other quality that distinguishes instructional leaders from other leaders is their personal commitment to becoming students of their industry.

1.5.2.2 Tasks of instructional leaders
The most important role of School Management Teams (SMTs) is to manage and lead curriculum though Dada et al (2009: 58) indicated that there is a lack of clarity around the roles and responsibilities within SMTs for the mediation and implementation of the curriculum. Jones (2007: 12) remarked:

In the field of education, the quality of expert knowledge has recently been termed in the literature as, Leadership Content Knowledge (LDK). What is insightful about LDK is the expectation that a school leader not only be able to manage the instructional change, but more importantly, take responsibility for some degree of understanding of the various subject matters under their purview.
According to Stein et al (in Jones, 2007: 12), LDK is expected to carry on simultaneously the management function of instructional improvement and the teaching function of instructional improvement which requires that the educational leader become involved in an effort of instructional improvement and confront the day-to-day problems of how to teach the subject matter, and how students learn the subject matter.

In 2008, the South African Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) signed Collective Agreement 1. Annexure A of ELRC, which indicates that the main reason for having the school leadership team in the school is to provide effective school leadership and management that promote school ethos conducive to the delivery of quality education and positive learning experiences for all learners (Collective Agreement 1 of 2008: 48-54).

Blunt (in Edwards et al, 2009: 101), stated that the instructional leader shapes and shares a vision which provides direction, focus, meaning and inspiration. In agreement with Edwards et al, Millward et al (2009: 141-142) described focusing on the development of a shared vision of improved learning outcomes for students as the first effective leadership practice. They further viewed commitment to such a unifying goal and aligning practices to achieve it by an organisation as tight coupling which could be used to describe the operation of a school where the school leaders and teachers were all firmly focused on improving the achievement of students for whom they had responsibility regardless of their background. In such a system, the focus would be on developing teaching and learning programmes that clearly identify and address the needs of the learners, constantly monitoring their performance by measuring the students’ learning and adjusting teaching programmes as necessary to continuously enhance achievement.

According to Jones (2007: 11-13), one of the roles of instructional leaders is to address instructional problems that confront teachers on a daily basis. They approached implementation as a problem of teaching and learning–knowing about the subject matter; knowing about how children learn the subject matter; knowing about how teachers can assist students in learning the subject matter; and knowing how to hold teachers accountable for changing their practices to accommodate new theories, ideas, and practices.
The Eastern Cape Department of Education (2005: 7) maintained that effective school leadership incorporate good plans and an agreed approach to the achievement of targets.

Alton-Lee; Timperley and Timperley and Parr, (in Millward et al, 2009: 142) suggested constant monitoring of progress, resulting in a responsive review of teaching and learning programmes as a boundary spanning practice used by schools that have learned to improve the learning and teaching programmes. In their studies, the collection, collation and review of achievement data resulted in leaders and teachers identifying students’ learning gaps. In their study, teaching practices were reviewed and teaching and learning programmes refined in light of the findings. Groups of teachers collaboratively discussed their data to identify areas of strength and weakness in their teaching so that they could support one another and their learners. Data was shared across all boundaries of the organisation with students, parents and caregivers so that learning goals could be set and monitored. Effective leaders work as boundary spanners to connect and sustain connections between the different communities of practice within their organisation.

Jones (2007: 19) noted that in every situation where teachers come together to change what they do in classrooms, the leader of content plays the all important role of establishing an intellectual climate where teachers feel free to create the details of classroom instruction and at the same time maintaining boundaries for the faithful adherence to the theories, ideas, and practices that have been woven together to form a school’s response to the instructional challenge of the day.

There is a consensus between Hoadley et al (2009: 5 & Glickman, 2002: 2) on differentiating successful schools from dysfunctional schools. They viewed the following as management variables in relation to improved student outcomes:

1. The regulation of time. This implies that the SMT should ensure that time is well managed and students 'contact time well protected. In monitoring time, student achievement is assured.

2. Monitoring of and support for planning and delivery in relation to curriculum coverage. This is directed at achieving the desired objectives.
It is the role of school leaders to ensure that curriculum is covered and educators go to classes being well prepared; knowing what to teach, when and how.

3. The procurement and management of books and stationery. This ensures that teaching takes place as planned. Relevant Learner Teacher Support Material should be purchased and well managed.

4. The quality assurance of tests and the monitoring of results. The SMTs should quality assure and monitor the standard of tests because that ensures the success at the end of the year.

5. Developing staff, how personal evaluation and classroom assistance are used together, and how instructional leadership is defined and employed. This needs regular meetings and a well planned year plan which indicates time for those meetings to avoid inconveniencing educators. They must know when they are attending such meetings so that they plan their lessons accordingly.

Generally the task of the instructional leader is to improve curriculum and teaching in the school and to lead staff in making decisions about the learning that is to go on. Instructional leadership is seen as the supervision of all the activities leading to the improvement of instruction, activities related to morale, improvement of human relations, in-service education, curriculum development and the provision of direction and resources. Specifically, the task involves manipulating the technical variables such as time tabling, allocating staff to learning areas, providing the physical requirements and providing the necessary support and motivation for staff development and appraisal (Millward et al, 2009: 141; Sergiovanni, 1991: 16; Paine, 2005: 210 & Jones, 2007: 12)

According to the Eastern Cape Department of Education (2005: 5-8), the following are the core roles, functions and responsibilities of instructional leaders:

1. Ensuring that learning is relevant to developing the potential of every learner. It is the role of the school leadership to ensure that the learning material is suitable to the level and grade of the student. It is therefore important to work collaboratively with subject educators when requisitions are done for learning materials.
2. Improving teaching and learning directly and most powerfully through their influence on staff motivation. School leaders should be aware of challenges encountered by educators especially in their different subjects.

3. Supporting and motivating staff through acknowledgement and celebration of their work. This has a powerful influence on educators.

4. Giving honest feedback to teachers. Educators need to be clear on where, how and what to improve.

5. Assessing risks and ensuring safe learning environments. It is the role of the school leadership to ensure that the school environment is conducive for teaching and learning.

6. Assisting educators in monitoring and evaluating curriculum programmes. This acts as a tool for motivation and has far reaching results.

7. Developing and implementing Work Plans and Work Plan agreements which when well implemented, guarantee teamwork.

8. Ensuring that staff feels truly involved in the decisions made and the activities going on in the school. This ensures collaborative and democratic leadership.

9. Developing effective communication strategies. Without proper channels of communications, schools turn into battle-fields. Besides, communication is a major tool in teaching.

10. Keeping rigorous focus on the well being of children and young people. Safe measures should be in place for the safety of the children.

11. Giving teachers space to take risks. This helps teachers to develop their minds.

12. Experimenting and seeking ways to reinvent the wheel in the quest to find the best ways to teach the children in their charge. This will encourage research which is mostly needed in teaching.

Bensimon (1993: 1-2) viewed ideal leaders as those who know how to find and bring together diverse minds that reflect variety in their points of view. They do not claim to be experts in all tasks. They are able to pull a group of thinkers together and to facilitate their collective ‘mind work’ to finally reconceptualise and redesign schools, wherever they are, as self-organising systems capable of bringing about continuous self-renewal (Edwards et al, 2009: 109).
Jones (2007: 15) highlighted leaving the situation in good hands by distributing leadership and identifying and mentoring teacher leaders as agents of change as the most important task of an instructional leader.

1.5.3 Collaborative leadership

Nolan et al (2006: 21-24) proposed that in Professional Development Schools (PDS), decisions and leadership are shared among participants through collaboration and consensus. Nolan et al emphasised further that those who are in leadership positions serve as facilitators not as authority figures. They must be more distributive, more participatory, and more collaborative in word and in-deed. They must build community, nurture leadership in a variety of areas, and support and negotiate the change process. Hinrichs (2007: 241) maintained that it is time to adopt a ‘we’ versus ‘me’ model of leadership. Working collaboratively may be one of the best resolutions to the existence of school leadership in the teacher and administrative ranks.

Fullan (in Edwards et al, 2009: 102) endorsed distributing leadership across a broad spectrum of individuals rather than it being concentrated in a single leader.

Hinrichs (2007: 243-244) quoted the work of Friend and Cook in their Collaborative model of Interaction, which stated that ‘interpersonal collaboration is a style for direct interaction between at least two coequal parties voluntarily engaged in shared decision making, as they work toward a common goal’. Friend and Cook identified and developed six important characteristics of collaboration. They examined collaboration as voluntary, requiring parity among participants, based on mutual respect, dependant on shared responsibility for participation and decision making, sharing resources between individuals, and showing accountability for outcomes.

Calgren and Capel (in Tjomsland, 2010: 91) stated that:

The past decade has seen increased collaboration between teachers in planning the phases of teaching before and after classroom practice. This collaboration encourages teachers to move beyond the practical imperative that characterises teachers as doers or implementers of plans written by others.
Tjomsland further views collaboration between teachers and openness in communication as cornerstones in planning, teaching, and school development. In his demonstration of a study of school development in Norwegian schools, Tjomsland noted that collaboration in teaching and professional development are critical to creating a positive learning climate for students as well as positive working situations for teachers. Lowe (2010: 72) emphasised group work on the part of leaders by indicating that they usually report back on successes and failures to encourage creativity and innovation. Tjomsland (2010: 92) argued that teachers and principals working in collective oriented schools are more positive on issues related to the working situation, competence, agreement on vision, and collaboration among staff than are teachers and principals in individual-oriented schools.

According to Visscher (2001: 163 & Dale, 2004: 131), leadership is a joint undertaking of educators which is interactive, collaborative and shared. In support of the idea of collaborative leadership, Hulpia et al (2010: 566) suggested that an effective cooperating team is a cohesive group with open expression of feelings and (dis)agreements, mutual trust among the team members, and an open form of communication. Edwards et al (2009: 108) indicated perceptions by primary school teachers in the study of transformational leadership in Hong Kong that showed that principals needed to strengthen distributive leadership and the building of collaborative structures for enhancing teachers’ decision making. In this study, distributive leadership, participative leadership, shared leadership, parallelism and collaborative leadership will be used interchangeably.

Grant (2005: 513) observed assisting the internal management of schools in becoming more collaborative as one of the roles of the school leaders. He defined distributed leadership as an emergent property of a group or network of individuals in which group members pool their expertise. In corroboration, Chew et al (2010: 61) identified three essential characteristics of parallel leadership as mutualism, a sense of shared purpose and an allowance for individual expression. In Limpopo Province, the internal school management group is called the School Management Team (SMT) (Prinsloo, 2007: 148). SMTs include both the principal and educators in leadership positions at school. In the Eastern Cape Department of Education (2005: 5), the group is referred to as Curriculum Personnel.
Edwards et al (2009: 102) stressed the point that for schools to perform effectively in teaching and learning, leadership should be distributed across multiple people, sites and situations. Distributive leadership theory deconstructs the notion of ‘leader’ by postulating that leadership materialises not in a fixed leader-follower dichotomy but in the flow of activities in which a set of organisational members find themselves enmeshed. Grosser (2001: 76) argued that principals of effective schools share power with the staff, he/she does not exert total control over the staff, but consult them especially in decision-making such as division of work, curriculum guidelines and staff development issues. In short, all teachers in a school that exercise distributive leadership are active creators of leadership, not passive recipients of it.

Through working and learning together, teachers develop a sense of who they are and what they can or cannot do. What is important is for the leadership to believe in all educators’ ability to achieve as proposed by Anderson et al (2006: 137) in their studies on teacher efficacy. Educators learn about their own and each others’ strengths and weaknesses as long as their school leaders provide time for such development. Maxwell (2008: 71) emphasises Biott’s (1994: 203) belief and proposed that no one person can do something great, and that nothing significant was ever achieved by an individual acting alone. Bensimon (1993: 1) maintained that human cognition is limited. He clarified:

Anyone of us can sense and comprehend only so much, and that we are not the same, each of us is different. We differ not only in our viewpoints, values, and thinking modes but also in our limitations. Thus, what one person lacks another may possess, and what that person misses, yet another may have.

Bensimon preserved that if we could combine the minds of several people into one it might be beneficial. Even then we might not gain full understanding of the turbulent, complex reality before us, but we would certainly cover more ground than we can cover working alone.
1.5.4 Transformational leadership

Paine (2005: 203) defined educational /transformational leadership as the process of establishing, developing and maintaining a teaching staff that will provide the best opportunities for teaching and learning. Educational leadership also deals with school administration and management of the many facets that make up modern educational institutions. All administrative and managerial tasks that are carried out must support the main goal of schooling—that of providing quality instruction. Educational leadership is basically comprised of managerial, leadership and instructional components. The managerial role is task-orientated and informs people what tasks to perform, and thus applies to the maintenance of routine behaviours associated with the running of a school. These include issues related to curriculum, learner governance and discipline, maintenance of buildings, financial issues and co-ordination of resources. The leadership role encompasses influencing people’s behaviour in order to achieve goals. Leaders provide support and motivation to their followers by attending to curriculum, sociological and staff relational and appraisal issues. The instructional role covers the establishment and maintenance of the teaching staff that in turn provide the best possible opportunities for teaching and learning (Paine, 2005: 212).

Peretomode et al (2010: 300) defined transformational leader as that principal whose leadership style inspires extraordinary performance among his/her staff. They believed that transformative leadership assist in the ability of a leader to reach the souls of others in a fashion which raises human consciousness, builds meanings and inspires human intent. They maintained that transformational leadership can produce significant curriculum change and results because it understands the process of change. They further argued that, whether curriculum innovation is a success or failure depends very much on the effectiveness of the school administrators, who implement the curriculum reforms. According to Edwards et al (2009: 102), transformational leadership is contrasted with transactional leadership, and is positively related to satisfaction of subordinates, motivation and performance. It represents the transcendence of self-interest by both leader and the led.
Peretomode et al (2010: 300) identified the following as key practices of a transformational leader that will make his/her impact stand out, irrespective of the environment in which the curriculum reform is being implemented. A transformational leader;

1. Creates and communicates a compelling and acceptable shared vision of the future. This will ensure that focus is put on the vision of the school.
2. Shows personal excitement, enthusiasm and optimism about the vision.
3. Encourages creative problem solving; encourages rethinking about ideas or problems.
4. Express confidence in people’s capabilities to meet high performance expectations.
5. Expresses encouragement and support.
7. Provides people with appropriate challenges.
8. Shares information and resources and

In order to be able to accomplish all of the above tasks, less time must be spent on administrative and managerial tasks, and they should turn their hand to instructional leadership to ensure quality learning and teaching (Drake et al, 1986: 106 & Davis et al, 1997: 78).

1.5.5 Supervisory leadership

Supervision of classroom instruction has long been an important and fundamental instructional leadership task performed by principals and assistant principals (Pajak, 2006: 116). Beach (2006: 90) defined instructional supervision as evaluation of classroom teaching. Leithwood et al (in Pajak, 2006: 116) defined instructional leadership as a role that typically focuses on the behavior of teachers as they engage in activities directly affecting the growth of students. In corroboration,

Beach (2006: 89 & Dana, 2006: 40) viewed instructional supervision as an element of the concept of instructional leadership, and allow educators throughout the school system to engage in the function and process of supervision. Beach quoted one respondent who clearly remarked:
‘Nobody likes supervision. I never use the term supervision. Instead I use words like coaching and collaboration’.

It is evident that supervision requires school leaders to be experts in what is happening in classrooms and beyond classrooms. They need to be leaders of content. Unfortunately, most principals are often recruited from the ranks of classroom teachers and, therefore, can usually claim expertise in some, though not all, subjects’ areas, and their university and professional development typically overlook academic content as a topic of study. This then leads to them paying little attention to variations in content or instructional methods that are appropriate for teaching different subjects (Pajak, 2006: 116-117). Mosher, Purpel & Eisner (in Pajak, 2006: 116) were viewed as potentially the only prominent authors in the area of supervision, who recommend that knowledge of curriculum is important for supervisory success. According to Pajak, it is only now that educators pay closer attention to what Shulman (1987) termed ‘pedagogical content knowledge’, and recognise that somewhat different skills are needed by supervisors of instruction when they provide support for teachers in different subject matter areas.

Nolan et al (2006: 14) argued that supervision and its organizational context exert tremendous influence on the goals which supervision aims to achieve as well as on the specific procedures and activities that are carried out in hopes of fulfilling those goals. Nolan et al stated the creation of a school-wide climate and culture that values community, collaboration and continuous growth as the critical task of supervisors. They noted that different scholars agree and acknowledge the importance of the reciprocal relationships between culture and supervision. According to Sergiovanni & Starrat (1998: 203), ‘no matter how well intentioned and how hard the supervisor tries to improve the individual and collective practice of teaching in a school, little will be accomplished without first developing and nurturing the right school climate and culture’.

According to Nolan et al (2006: 17), their intention in establishing the PDS was to create and develop a community of adaptive inquirers. Wetherill et al (2006:54-58) illustrated intentionally structured environments. Another strong intentional structure that supports the integrity of the model is the Partnership
Conference held each semester with the ultimate focus on student learning and the belief that the partnership must engage members in on-going professional development, open communication and reflection in order to ensure and sustain continuous growth and improvement. Another intentionally structured environment is that which enables teacher voices to be heard. The supervision framework places a strong emphasis on the candidates’ ability to make decisions based on information and data from reliable and relevant resources. The supervision framework and the coaching processes require continual self-regulation and self-reflection.

The Principles of Learning-Centered Coaching /Supervision by DuFour et al (in Wetherill et al, 2006: 58) created a collaborative framework that supported the key beliefs inherent in the learning-centered supervision framework: building human relationships of trust and respect, working in collegial, collaborative ways to develop patterns of open communication with all participants, supporting growth and development through cycles of coaching, basing coaching/supervision on knowledge about the person being supervised, believing that supervision should guide growth and development.

1.6 Leadership development programme
The effective leadership development programme has diverse key characteristics which form the design principles and approaches of the current project and which echo the concept of transformative leadership within the school-based curriculum development tradition (Law et al, 2007: 144).

Harris (in Law et al, 2007: 144) proposed the following key characteristics in the programme of effective leadership where the development activities should be: school-based and problem-solving in nature, with a focus on enhancing student learning; collaborative to allow the emergence of social interaction equitably shared among the participating teachers; open and reflective in nature; formulated and organised in an enquiry mode of planning, implementing and reflecting upon actions which should be subjected to critical scrutiny; continuous and form spiral and cyclical models of operation to engineer and sustain a culture of change and lifelong learning.
Law et al (2007: 144) claimed that all teachers are responsible for making their own curriculum decisions for their pupils in their own classrooms, and by taking up this responsibility, participation creates opportunities for school improvement, teacher development and enhancement of pupil learning.

1.6.1 Coaching for equity

Coaching for Equity has its roots in clinical supervision or reflective coaching and is used to eliminate the gap and raise the notion of achievement for all (Jacobs, 2006: 105). Banks & Banks (in Jacobs, 2006: 105) asserted that an equity-oriented pedagogy involves a teacher working to develop student potential and to create a classroom environment that is encouraging and filled with opportunities for success for all students. According to Jacobs, critical reflection involves thinking about the effects of one’s actions on others, taking the broader historical, social, and/or political context into account, and questioning one’s practice. This evidenced the fact that such prospective teachers need continuous support from their mentors or coaches for them to attain a higher level of thinking. Jacobs mentioned reframing, modeling, and questioning as strategies a coach may employ in framing teachers concerns along dimensions of equity.

1.6.2 Elements of an equity-oriented pedagogy

Elements are classified firstly as foundations needed for the development of an equity-oriented pedagogy, which is; forming relationships with students, building a classroom community, having high expectations and analysing personal beliefs. The second category according to Jacobs (2006: 107) is the practices of a teacher who employs an equity-oriented pedagogy, which involves providing real life applications, helping students see a purpose, being consistent, differentiating instruction, paying attention to the whole child, being explicit about issues of fairness and monitoring individual understanding. In corroboration with Jacobs, Waite et al (2006: 85) indicated that an instructional supervisor leads, guides, motivates, monitors, provides and improves the teacher they coach. Such teachers are those who ultimately ensure that all learners achieve success. They monitor individual student understanding.
1.6.3 Educational importance of equity

Equity-oriented pedagogy shows the power of dialogue within a coaching relationship to transform a teacher and coach’s pedagogy. It is about making school a place where all students have an equal chance to learn and be successful (Jacobs, 2006: 112). Jacobs in conclusion, suggested that equity should be the centerpiece of all educators’ practice and a goal of a supervisor’s work with teachers.

1.6.4 Fostering a mentoring mindset

Mullen (2010: 1) argued that with a growth-oriented mentoring mindset, individuals actively take charge of their own learning and nurture that of others. She further indicated that flexible, motivated learners are vigorous about reflecting on their current practices in order to redirect them for the purpose of expanding human and organizational capacity. They are able to cope effectively with change, working constructively and creatively with both human weaknesses and system failures. Mentoring as a mindset becomes integral to how educators think and what they do in their professional practice. Mentoring leaders work toward ‘revisioning’ the professional culture of schools, communities and universities. In forms that are healthy, interdependent and inclusive, mentoring mindsets serve to guide best practices relative to the institutionally less powerful—that is university students, adjunct faculty members and beginning teachers.

Mullen (2010: 2) explored issues of administrative support and teacher mentoring. The researchers examined mentoring practices that teacher mentors consider indispensable for working well with beginning teachers. Based on their analysis, they identified the following as primary issues: teacher involvement/support, staff development and administrative support and resource materials. Importantly, the teacher mentors recommended more quality time with one’s mentees, better support from administration and clarification regarding their role with respect to mentoring guidelines and preparation. Mentors also asserted that new teachers need to be able to grow professionally without being overwhelmed by the pressures of high-stakes testing.
Hargreaves (2010: 64; 107-109) identified enabling teachers to assume a pedagogical leadership role and developing teacher leaders as one of the principals’ roles. He further examined the links between the construction of knowledge and personal relationship, considering personal relationship both of each mentor/coach with their clients, and among the mentors/coaches themselves. The emphasis should be on how, in personal relationships, people are free to be more fully themselves, more human and more open to creative individual construction and reciprocal co-construction of knowledge.

1.7 Leadership and sustainability
Edwards et al (2009: 103-104) identified a sustainability leader as anyone who consciously chooses to engage in collaborative, transformative change aimed toward the goal of a sustainable future. Tjomsland (2010: 74) indicated that sustained change and improvement may be equated with maintainability and how to make things last. Tjomsland indicated actively encouraging staff to assume leadership responsibilities and organising teacher discussions around the curriculum document, pedagogy, and assessment as other roles of productive leadership. In other words, the principal must support a collaborative culture and collective responsibility for the implementation of the reforms (Niesche et al, 2010: 113). In educational leadership, there are still arguments that are made for leadership that will bring about ‘sustained school improvement’ in terms of ‘student learning outcomes’, ‘sustainable improvement’, and ‘sustainable strategic success’. Tjomsland (2010: 89) in addition suggested teacher characteristics such as positive attitudes and beliefs, innovativeness, and internalisation of practice; and organizational characteristics such as school leadership, teacher climate and systemic work strategies as conditions associated with the sustainability of school improvement and learner performance.

1.8 Support services
According to Harris (2006: 151-152), a much-neglected aspect of efforts toward instructional improvements relate to special services that give direct and indirect support for various aspects of the change process. Instructional improvement efforts in schools often focus on the classroom, where teachers lead, guide, stimulate, and facilitate learning.
A staff development strategy commonly focuses on the classroom teacher too, and seeks changes in teaching practices through training. New and improved media as well as organisational changes such as grouping or scheduling may also be involved, while accountability measures may generate pressures for selected changes. What students learn is enormously dependent upon the curriculum, teaching knowledge and skill, time allocation, parental and community support, traditions and customs, funding, staff resources, policies and priorities.

Harris (2006: 53) indicated further and surveyed the three categories of support. He observed staff development as workshops, demonstrations, visitations, conferences, study groups, summer institutes, consultants, and individual study. The second category was facilitation services, which included team planning, mentoring, coaching, presenting, training, reporting, action research and networking. The third category was that of resources. He made mention of time for sharing, conferences, school visits, instructional materials, research reports, professional journals, professional books, and additional funds for travel, released time and other purposes.

1.9 Leadership skills
In order to facilitate improved learning outcomes for students, Robinson (in Millward et al, 2009: 146) identified four leadership practices which involves managing student’ behaviour; collecting and using achievement information; appraising teachers’ performance; and meetings of teams of teachers to discuss their students’ achievement. In their findings, Millward et al found it difficult to isolate these processes because their effectiveness appeared to arise from their combination rather than from their individual occurrences. They summarised those practices by stating that they could be seen as instructional leadership practices that would facilitate learning by the organisation, and that it may well be that it is what instructional leaders know and do that facilitates the learning that occurs for other individuals that is then transformed into learning by their organisations (Millward et al, 2009: 141).
1.9.1 Behaviour management

In the school that was studied in New Zealand, Millward et al (2009: 147) found the new principal initiating tighter coupling of the organisation by requiring the staff and school community to work together to develop acceptable standards of behavior so that the organisation could focus on its goal of improved student learning. The principal’s first priority was to change the classroom learning environment so that students were actually in classrooms learning what they were supposed to learn from teachers who were skilled at teaching students what they needed to learn. The principal realised that there was insufficient knowledge within the organisation at that time to manage students’ behaviour, so he/she had to bring expertise into the organisation from outside. The use of external expertise was an indication that the principal clearly supported teachers and was committed to developing them professionally. The combination of internal initiatives and the systemic use of external personnel contribute to the development of a culture that promotes continuous improvement. With effective behavior management strategies in place, teachers were at last able to focus on teaching (Millward et al, 2009: 147-148). The implementation of the behavior management plan requires the full support of teachers and parents/guardians so that all students adhered to acceptable standards of behavior.

1.9.2 The purposeful use of data

Jacobs (2006: 109) maintained that data assists in setting the correct pace of teachers’ lessons, whether the teacher is too slow or fast or has moved onto the assessment before students were ready. Millward et al (2009: 148-149) demonstrated how the instructional leader organised the collection of baseline data to identify how significant the school’s underachievement problem was in his/her school. Teachers were required to collect data using nationally benchmark assessments. The collated data identified each student’s proximity to achieving national levels of expectation, whether the child had received additional support and the regularity of the student’s attendance. Teachers were required to administer a range of assessments at the beginning, middle and end of each year. The assessments were selected to enable teachers to identify areas of strength, specific needs and the adequacy of progress. Teachers not only had to learn how to collect, collate and analyse reliable information about students’ achievement, but they also had to learn how to use the data to monitor and improve learning outcomes.
They required instructional leadership from the school leadership to make sense of the assessment data produced. Regular monitoring of students’ progress became a norm. Assessment data revealed that teachers were required to teach in response to different learning needs. The instructional leadership of the principal ensured that boundary spanning and tight coupling at the individual level was transformed to learning at the organisational level.

1.9.3 Teacher appraisal

According to Mangin et al (2010: 51), ‘the rise of instructionally-focused teacher-leader roles has been fueled by emergent knowledge of effective professional development’. Silins et al (2002: 618) explained professionalism as the extent to which staff keep up with best practice and are encouraged and given time to develop professionally. Such professional development may increase instructional capacity, resulting in improved practice and contributing to overall school improvement. Visscher (2001: 209) concurred with Mangin et al (2010: 51) on schools being pressured by the district leaders to seek effective ways to increase student achievement. This indicates that SMTs should ensure that, despite all challenges, teaching and learning is effective led and managed.

In the research by Millward et al (2009: 149-150), the new principal of New Zealand school was resolute in ensuring that her teachers were capable of teaching students with a long history of underachievement despite all the other challenges. One of such challenges that the principal had to overcome was having teachers who would or could not change their practice. The principal initiated processes to terminate the employment of unwilling teachers and recruited new teachers who displayed a willingness to learn even if they did not have prerequisite skills. The principal still found it necessary to exert his/her instructional leadership as he/she monitored the teachers’ acquisition of new skills. As the students’ achievement improved so did the self-efficacy of the teachers and they were able to take more responsibility for the learning outcomes of their low-progress students.
1.9.4 Team meetings

Law et al (2007: 150) used the interview data of one teacher to indicate the skills teachers acquired from programme used to develop curriculum leadership in Hong Kong schools. The teacher remarked that they investigated various approaches and explored alternatives in curriculum planning, which was done in collaboration.

One of the teachers said:

… We planned and designed teaching approaches … we found this method did not work and we found another method. … We also invited the senior pupils to help the lower pupils, drawing pictures … writing some narratives for demonstration … senior pupils can teach lower pupils … and we like peer observation … we learned something from others … we discussed together and we benefited … we also had some satisfaction ….

The interviewed teacher indicated further that discussing together benefited them. They made decisions about contents of learning, identified pupil needs by various methods, adjusted pedagogical strategies to the pupil needs, differentiated instructions to meet individual differences and reflected upon practical experiences.

West et al (2005: 84) indicated the need to support teachers to enable them to operate successfully. Niesche et al (2010: 112 & Eck et al, 2010: 2) maintained that for teachers to accept, own, commit and focus upon the district set goals, school leaders must arrange and conduct curriculum meetings to discuss those goals, as a way of ensuring that teachers understand them and carry out school level plans to achieve them.

Millward et al (2009: 153) argued that merely bringing teachers together to discuss student achievement is not enough. It requires the intervention of the principal to shift the focus from issues with little leverage in improving student improvement to focusing on teaching and learning. The principal’s direct involvement in the team meetings ensures that achievement problems are discussed in a way that gives teachers ownership over and a sense of commitment toward their resolution. In 2007, Education Queensland implemented an online toolkit that was aimed at increasing the effectiveness of monitoring students’ progress and the development of ILP.
This together with the Scope and Sequence Statement (SSS) curriculum document were seen as a significant aspect of the department’s bound for success (B4S) strategy to target the outcomes of indigenous students in the Cape York and Torres Strait Islands.

According to Niesche et al (2010: 104, 107-111), the implementation of the new curriculum along with some other reforms such as the ILP toolkit was viewed by participants as too much, too quickly. Though the strategy was not effective to other schools, there was one school that had a group of teachers conducting regular meetings to discuss how they were implementing the SSS document in their school, and it was beneficial to them. This was evidenced in the response of one principal, who said:

I do know that we have year level meetings that weren’t organised by admin staff, where teachers were able to get together and did their planning from the documents and looking at what they were doing next term. And to me, that is probably an example of the greatest success of the SSS, is that if we’re getting teachers to communicate and talk with each other and plan together, and feel that there is a need to, and they are not being forced to, I think there is an obvious success in what we’re doing.

The principal claimed that giving teachers time to communicate and talk with each other and plan together voluntarily, was an obvious success in what was done at schools. The process signified a school environment that supported and facilitated teachers to work in a more professional learning community capacity. Niesche et al (2010: 113) claimed that teachers who implemented the new curriculum effectively indicated that they firstly deconstructed what the descriptors meant so that they had a bigger picture of where the students need to be, where they were, and what they need to be taught in each grade in their phase meetings. In support of what Niesche et al said, Tjomsland (2010: 91) maintained that teachers must interpret the meaning of, and, based on their interpretation, actively construct and design content to fulfill. Emphasis was placed on developing systems that allowed members of staff to teach without interruptions.
At the same time, strategies should be used to challenge teachers to think about their ways of working. Target-setting and engagement with data are very important.

1.9.5 Changing school culture

DuFour et al (1987: 80 & Grosser, 2001: 7) retained that both educators and students are able to take shared responsibility for learning and are able to engage collaboratively in activities which promote the goals of the school if the environment is conducive for teaching and learning. The school culture should be such that it invites all stakeholders (learners, educators, parents) to foster attitudes of efficiency and effectiveness, and which supports all attempts at improving learner performance.

Grosser (2002: 7) claimed that schools with effective learning culture are those schools which have a clear school mission, promote an environment of inquiry, encourage educators and others to work collaboratively and collegially to seek aspects of school improvement, encourage educators to work collaboratively with each other and with the administration, to teach learners so that they can learn more, have leadership that invests in people; that decentralises decision making, trusts the judgment of others, facilitates participation, embraces the ethical implications in every decision, and recognises the complexity of contemporary society.

1.9.6 Focus on curriculum, pedagogy and assessment

Focus on curriculum, pedagogy and assessment calls for the principals to possess subject expertise and to be connected on the classroom (Hoadley et al, 2009: 15). When synthesising the characteristics of effective schools, Sergiovanni (1991: 88-93) perceived effective schools as learner-centered and gearing all their efforts towards quality teaching and learning.

1.9.7 Management By Walking Around (MBWA)

Brooks et al (2007: 8) claimed that Management by Walking Around (MBWA) is credited with improving classroom instruction, reducing student discipline problems, and improving teacher perception of principal effectiveness. The Three-Minute Classroom Walk Through is used to gather focused data in a very short period of time. It is structured as a five-step observational process in which principals collect information on both the curriculum being taught and the instructional teaching decisions being made.
The first step is to notice whether or not the students are engaged and the second one is to determine the actual curricular objectives being taught. The main purpose is to determine the alignment of the taught curriculum with the written or prescribed curriculum. The third step will be noting content, context and cognitive type. During this third step, principals would have noticed several instructional practices, e.g. questioning skills, grouping strategies, using examples, etc. The fourth step will be ‘walking the walls’. The walls, as well as student portfolios, graded papers, and other artifacts in the room can reveal previous curricular objectives and instructional practices. Step four happens naturally. By visiting classrooms regularly, the principal will be able to note particular health or safety issues, such as burn-out lights, lack of adequate ventilation, broken thresholds, etc.

1.9.8 Stakeholder engagement

There is a strong agreement amongst different authors that linking with parents and community is another way in which new curriculum can be effectively implemented. If parents knew exactly what was expected from their children throughout the year, by either giving parent’s individual learning plan or regularly inviting them to school meetings, gives the parents more confidence and they become motivated to support the school in all respects (Niesche et al, 2010: 113; Khalifa, 2010: 636-638; Bryk, 2010: 24-25; Jones, 2007: 16 & Peretomode et al, 2010: 301). In the study conducted by Khalifa at Urban Alternative High School (UAHS), ways in which parents feel more accommodated were identified. School leaders exercised open door policies. Parents were allowed to regularly visit the school. They designed events for parents and guardians such as mandatory breakfast, report card delivery, open school invitation and mandatory interviews, where the principal interviewed every single learner and their parents or caregivers before they were allowed to enrolment into the school. The interview was not meant to turn any student away, but to inform parents of the structures and mechanisms that regulate the education of their children.

Eck et al (2010) emphasised a strong sense of collective efficacy as an additional element of high performing schools organisations. They observed that ‘if all teachers and parents share a belief that all students can learn, and that by working together, they can help all students in their school succeed, nothing will stand in the way of improved achievement’.

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Furthermore, Eck et al indicated that schools should empower individuals by quickly responding to under-achievers, maintain high expectations for school performance and celebrate initial successes beyond standard.

1.10 Aspects to be covered by the school leadership to ensure effective teaching and learning

Glickman (2002: 4-5) viewed improving teaching and learning as something very simple. He emphasises the notion that no one can improve his/her craft in isolation from others. In order to improve, one must have formats, structures, and plans for reflecting on, changing, and assessing his/her practice. Prinsloo (2007: 148) stated six main aspects of the roles of the School Management Team in curriculum management. In this study, I am concentrating on three aspects which have direct impact on instructional teaching and learning. Those aspects are having a view of the whole curriculum, having accountability for consistently high standards and developing an appropriate culture.

1.10.1 Having a view of the whole curriculum

Glickman (2002: 1-2), posed several questions which when honestly answered may assist school leaders in knowing what is happening behind closed classroom doors. His questions includes: "What are students learning? How are teachers teaching? Should school leaders open those doors and enter, or should they stay away? How often should they visit classrooms? How should they discover what is really going on between teacher and student? What recognition can they give to teachers who are already excelling, or what assistance can they give to those who are floundering or who are simply making it through each year?"

In unpacking the frustrations of the school leaders, Castallo (2001: 4-5) indicated that many school leaders were not trained in staff development efforts themselves and often lacked the understanding needed to ensure that initiatives were implemented and incorporated into the instructional repertoire of their staff members. The district office places expectations upon the administrators to improve grades and when they cannot meet those expectations, their credibility with staff is minimised.
Caught between the expectations of the central office and the difficulty in establishing credibility with staff as someone knowledgeable about teaching and learning, school leaders often find themselves satisfying neither.

It is clear from the literature that school leaders must look at the curriculum as a whole and operate through the different levels and types of curriculum. They must not lose focus of a school’s curricular intentions, providing children and young people with the knowledge and skills required in leading successful lives

(Williamson et al, 2009: 3).

1.10.1.1 Recommended curriculum

Glatthorn et al (2009: 109) described recommended curriculum as that which is recommended by scholars and professional organisations. In their book *Organising knowledge for classroom*, Hoadley et al (2009: 36-37) presented four different forms that the prescribed curriculum can take:

1. An official syllabus document or learning guide
2. A teachers’ teaching plan from one school
3. A textbook and

Hoadley et al further highlighted what they refer to as a narrow understanding of prescribed curriculum and indicates that if we assume that all teachers will teach what is prescribed, or that all learners will learn the prescription, then we will find it difficult to explain why for instance:

1. Different schools, with the same prescribed curricula, seem to teach in such different ways and, in some cases, teach different things;
2. Different learners, with the same prescribed curriculum and the same teacher, seem to learn different things.
According to Glatthorn (2009: 109) SMTs must verify that teachers teach that which is recommended by making class visits and moderating all classroom activities.

### 1.10.1.2 Written curriculum

The written curriculum is the curriculum that appears in state and locally produced documents, such as state standards, district scope and sequence charts, district curriculum guides, teachers’ planning documents and curriculum units (Glatthorn et al, 2009: 109). Glatthorn indicated further that a written curriculum seemed to have only a moderate influence on the taught curriculum.

Schwartz (2006: 449-450) argued that teachers should be consulted when the curriculum is written because their understanding of it, and their enthusiasm, or boredom with various aspects of it, colours its outworking. Schwartz discourages providing school leaders with ready-made guides because they do not assist in effective curriculum management and leadership. According to Schwartz, curriculum developers tend to overlook the fact that SMTs must develop a thorough knowledge and understanding of policies for them to be able to support teachers. Lack of that knowledge therefore pose a great challenge to school leaders, who are responsible for orientation and training of teachers and have to ensure that teachers are able to use policy documents and other curriculum support materials. SMTs must understand the written curriculum so that they help teachers to close the gap that exist between the suggestions of the guides and classroom realities. In so doing, they will be able to seek out experts in the field who have studied and written about the problem experienced at his/her school or would conduct research in the field before consulting the staff (Jones, 2007: 18).

Niesche et al (2010: 108) quoted one principal who suggested that he/she had supported teachers all the way through the implementation of their new curriculum in the Cape York. The principal indicated his/her role as that of ensuring that staff have the right understanding of the curriculum, have all the resources that they need to implement the curriculum, and also understand how obligations arise around the assessment and the monitoring.
This shows how important it is for SMTs to have the knowledge of the curriculum as a whole so that they understand the school curriculum as a site for exciting new and innovative classroom approaches; a change in terms of what is taught, and how it is taught (Williamson et al, 2009: 3).

1.10.1.3 Taught curriculum

“The taught curriculum is that which teachers actually deliver day by day” (Glatthorn et al, 2009: 109). Teachers need to be sure that what they are going to teach on that day is really what is supposed to be taught.

Jones et al (in Lowe, 2010: 70), maintained that today’s teachers are plagued by policy. Williamson et al (2009: 3) indicated the growing concern around the need to reconsider taught curriculum as it is too prescribed, incoherently arranged, and overloaded with content.

1.10.1.4 Assessed curriculum

Glatthorn et al (2009: 110-111) defined the assessed curriculum as that which appears in tests and performance measures: state tests, standardized tests, district tests and teacher-made tests. Teachers are much more influenced by the assessed curriculum, especially if they are held accountable for student’s results. Most learners ask the same question after being taught any content: “Is this going to be in the test”? This is evidence that they too are influenced by the assessed curriculum.

1.10.1.5 Learned and hidden curricula

The learned curriculum is the bottom-line curriculum; the curriculum that students actually learn. The hidden curriculum is the unintended curriculum and has an impact on student learning. It therefore deserves the special attention of the principal (Glatthorn et al, 2009: 110). Hoadley et al (2009: 50) regarded the term ‘hidden’ as appropriate because it refers to learning which is hidden from the teachers as well as from students.
In summary, Glatthorn et al (2009: 116) identified effective school leaders as those who are able to align different curricula in consultation with teachers either in a faculty meeting or a special workshop that would answer the following questions: What is the taught/learned gap, and why is it important? What student factors cause it? What can teachers do to reduce the gap? What next step should we take?

1.10.2 Having accountability for consistently high standards

The principal is ultimately accountable for the standards of education in the school, and a key aspect of their role therefore, is ensuring that these standards are of consistently high quality. The key to how effectively this is carried out is likely to lie in the way in which monitoring, evaluation and feedback are managed in the school.

According to Glatthorn (2007: 86-87), the curriculum needs to be teacher-friendly. Glatthorn indicated further that curriculum should provide time and space for teacher enrichment; be easily accessible, be clear and of quality that teachers respect and wish to implement. Unlike what Glatthorn, says, Coleman (2003: 48) indicated that in South Africa, curriculum is something not easily accessible, not clear and not respected by many educators. Coleman (2003: 51) said: ‘the curriculum is handed down to schools, not discussed with them’. There are learning programmes, work-schedules, learning outcomes and assessment standards which need to be followed.

The most important element here is that despite the fact that South Africa still has a formal prescriptive curriculum, the inescapable fact is that individual schools differ in the way they lead and manage curriculum and that we should consider the roles of those leading and managing curriculum at school level (Coleman, 2003: 65).

1.10.2.1 Test-based accountability

According to Hinrichs (2007: 237), education is experiencing a serious crisis with the many demands and restrains of No Child Left Behind legislation (NCLB), coupled with the dissatisfaction of public education in general. This forces the districts to need to tap their greatest resources, the collaborative strengths and passion of each educator for schools to avoid being sanctioned or closed.
Edwards et al (2009: 104) viewed good schools as those schools that maximise and sustain their effectiveness, measured in terms of their students’ performance in relation to externally imposed goals. Chapman et al (in Murphy, 2009: 157) highlighted the notion of turning around failing schools. They argued that the notion was fuelled by government’s accountability systems and an expanding body of knowledge about productive schooling for all students, educators, policymakers, and actors in the general community having been calling for dramatic action to turnaround schools that fail to effectively educate significant numbers of students. According to the report released by the American Institutes of Research and the Thomas B. Fordham Institute in 2007, it was argued that principals, who shoulder much of the burden of accountability systems, typically lack the authority they need to really improve student performance, especially when it comes to staffing. The research concluded that principals are provided with defined autonomy; that is effective superintendents set clear, non-negotiable goals for learning and instruction, yet provide school leadership teams with the responsibility and authority for determining how to meet those goals (Eck et al, 2010: 1-2).

Rutledge (2010: 78) noted the increased tension and decrease in satisfaction among principals as accountability to improve school and raise student achievement level. With standardized test scores and the central measure of performance, principals and teachers are expected to realign curricular, instructional, and programmatic practices to meet policy goals. Many of these policies, including the Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) provision of the federal NCLB, identified and sanctioned schools based on poor student performance, providing guidelines for remediation and, if benchmarks are not met, closure. Beabout (2010) viewed principals’ lives as those that have grown more complicated and less satisfying. In a recent study of urban school principals, Orr et al (in Beabout, 2010) found that participants reported being treated as incompetent because their schools had low test scores and they resented the overreliance on superficial data to evaluate leadership abilities.

Murphy (2010: 163) indicated that research on turnaround forces people to confront urgency for action. According to Beabout (2010), a study of literacy reform in San Diego noted how principals felt pressured into instructional leadership roles for which they were not ready.
Rutledge (2010: 80-81) argued that studies conducted by DeBray et al (2003) found that the extent of principals’ responses depend on the degree of sanctions; the greater the pressure on the school, the more principals will focus on instructional and managerial tasks. He further cited Firestone et al (2004) as an example, indicating that in the relatively weak accountability context of New Jersey, principals provided only a moderate focus on instruction.

In Chicago, Rutledge (2010: 82) noted that, once the school has been sanctioned, the principal is expected to design the school improvement plan and implement on-site learning opportunities for teachers, as well as develop a Corrective Action Plan. Administrators also increase their classroom observations with the assistant principal for curriculum and instruction visiting several classes daily. Subject committees are formed consisting of assistant principals, HODs and several teachers. Mandatory in-services and voluntary Saturday workshops for all educators are organised. The principal also set professional development time aside for departments to develop common course syllabi, midterms and final exams (Rutledge, 2010: 96-97).

1.10.2.2 Test-based accountability and the principals’ work
Rutledge (2010: 80) established roles of principals from research findings on test-based accountability and the principal’s work. He indicated that research found that principals play a central role by redirecting time, materials, personnel, and professional development toward improving student achievement on high-stakes assessments. They narrowed curricular and instructional time to high-stakes subjects such as reading and mathematics, and increased before and after-school activities geared toward improving students’ academic achievement. Principals provided material support in the form of books, test-prep materials, and content-area specialists in high-stakes testing areas. They also encouraged faculty to attend professional development programmes in areas related to the policy effort. Principals oversee the school while also managing expectations and pressure from external stakeholders. According to Murphy (2010: 162), leadership is a central variable in the equation of organisational success.
Rutledge (2010: 81) claimed that studies on test-based accountability offer common explanation that both principals and teachers are motivated by the fear of negative sanctions. Under this logic, Mintrop and Rice & Malen (in Rutledge, 2010: 81) reckoned that principals and teachers were influenced by the stigma associated with working in a sanctioned school, as well as potential job termination if the school does not meet set benchmarks. Studies have found that administrators and teachers at reconstituted schools reported embarrassment, humiliation, and stress associated with public sanctioning and the reorganisation of the school. The following are additional characteristics of a test-based accountability as identified by Booher-Jenings (2005): moral awakening by setting higher standards for high-poverty students, increased administrative pressure, way of teachers to draw on student data to target specific students’ skills and as matching messages in the institutional environment about ‘good’ and ‘bad’ teaching.

In conclusion, test-based accountability with its call to improve the academic achievement of low-performing students, proved to be a challenge that neither principal believed he/she could face. It took advantage of a lack of occupational consensus about what students should know and how they should be taught by redirecting work in schools toward mandated curricular and instructional standards and assessment (Rutledge, 2010: 99,101).

1.11 **International studies**

1.11.1 **Sustainable strategic success**

As a result of a study of over three hundred American schools conducted by West et al (2005: 79-80), the Education Trust (1999) identified practices that were effective with populations from low-income backgrounds, which included: careful tracking of students’ progress; increased emphasis on reading and mathematics to help students achieve basic skills; judicious use of pupil progress data in teacher evaluation programmes; specific efforts to involve parents, especially to support their children’s learning and increased professional development for teachers. Harris & Chapman (in West et al, 2005: 80) looked more specifically at the tasks of leadership in English secondary schools facing challenging circumstances.
As a result of a study of ten such schools, they drew attention to the need to manage tensions and problems related to particular circumstances and contexts. This led them to the conclusion that; the main task of those in leadership positions is to cope with unpredictability, conflict and dissent without discarding core values.

Bryk (2010: 24-25) developed tests and validated a framework of essential supports for school improvement. Through his research, Bryk further identified five organisational features of schools that interact with life inside classrooms and are essential to advancing student achievement; coherent instructional guidance system, professional capacity, strong parent-community-school ties, student-centered learning climate and leadership that drives change. Their data provided an extraordinary window to examine the complex interplay of how schools are organised and interact with the local community to alter dramatically the odds for improving student achievement. Summarising their findings, the way in which schools are organised is critical for student achievement. Improving schools entails coherent, orchestrated action across five essential supports.

1.11.2 Sustainable improvement

According to West et al (2005: 77 & 86), achieving sustainable improvement in schools is a major challenge for policy makers and practitioners alike. The head teachers in the study by West et al attributed the success that their schools had enjoyed to the hard work of staff and pupils. Once the hard work started to effect positive changes, most found that ‘success breeds success’, and early successes, were significant in improving and maintaining achievements. It seems that with success in motion, a ‘feel-good’ factor becomes present that strengthens staff and pupil confidence to achieve more. Expectations are raised, and this seems to underpin improvements. Success, on the other hand, generates visible, measurable returns in terms of the school’s possibilities. One of the head teachers remarked:
Having got your results up and parents having confidence in the school, leads to higher attainers joining the school. The higher form becoming academic, not a small vocational offer, giving the kids something to reach for, and seeing the students picking up A levels and going on to university, pushes the brighter ones into doing well.

According to Castallo (2001: 2-10), assessment, systems building, collaboration and communication are principles which provide solid structure for improved student achievement. In pursuing greater educational achievement for the children in the schools, administrators need to exercise skills and knowledge, which will result in students learning more, and most importantly, it means that the teachers who deliver curriculum every day can make a significant difference when they apply effective instructional approaches and assessments. After all, if one honestly assesses how well student perform, then one is better equipped to acknowledge the circumstances in which students have learned. If realistic comparisons have been made and results are not as good as they should be, then we need to determine what systems we should be reviewing for consideration. The best way to review systems is through collaboration since multiple views are likely to be richer and more informative than those of one individual.

Finally, once conclusions are made, they need to be communicated to others who can also benefit from the implementation of new knowledge. Parents as well as children themselves have an important part to play in the learning of children, while consultation and involvement is important for improving and sustaining learner achievement.

West et al (2005: 81-83) stated series of challenges that head teachers faced in order to move their schools forward. Many felt that the most significant of these were related to the need to raise the expectations of staff, students and parents. One head talked about ‘making students believe in themselves’. His main challenge was to raise their self-esteem and self-image. Other challenges were ensuring that all teachers stick to the set target, ensuring that classes are regularly attended by all teachers, getting learners to work outside classrooms on academic tasks and activities and recruiting and retaining good teachers.
Related to the importance of raising expectations, most of the heads saw the need to get their colleagues to set appropriate targets as the second most significant challenge they faced. Specifically, they saw this in terms of expectations during lessons. Indeed, many talked of the challenges of making sure that there was a continuous emphasis on the improvement of teaching and learning. Linked to this emphasis on teaching and learning, was the challenge of getting children to work outside of the classroom on academic tasks and activities.

1.12 Conclusion

If curriculum is a process for preparing children for a living and life in their own societies and for competition in the global economy of tomorrow, then it is only logical that secondary school curriculum, both formal and informal, contents and processes should be dynamic enough to adapt to the new socio-economic, political, scientific and technological realities of times. This then calls for productive leadership as this does not only have a significant part in fostering an environment in which sound teaching and learning exist, but also in facilitating the implementation of school reforms.

The successful management and leadership of curriculum reforms is dependent on strong leadership in school principals who adopt transformational leadership style. Such principals are able to build and provide the necessary support mechanisms for change. These mechanisms include meticulous planning, involvement of teachers, students, and other core stakeholders in decision making and building consensus on how to make the implementation of the curriculum innovation work. These mechanisms can best be provided by principals who have become transformational leaders and who use their leadership style to inspire subordinates, colleagues, workgroups, superiors and other stakeholders in accomplishing the renewal process and the desired outcome. It involves establishment of a climate of mutual trust and respect for people, staff capacity building through in-service professional development.
The terms leadership, management and curriculum were defined and leadership approaches discussed. Literature indicates that leadership and management need to be balanced for student achievement to be raised, and curriculum should be viewed as a whole.

It is therefore important for school principals to engage in staff development activities in transformational leadership so that they can acquire the necessary knowledge, skills, attitudes and other attributes of this leadership style.
CHAPTER 2
EXPLORING CURRICULUM LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT THROUGH CASE STUDY

2.1 Introduction
In the previous chapter, the literature regarding curriculum leadership and management with special reference to teaching and learning was reviewed. The aim of this chapter is to introduce the research design and methods. The definition of qualitative research and its characteristics are addressed using different authors and methods. The interview as a method used in this study and its advantages and disadvantages are also addressed and discussed. The research approach is also addressed. The sample used in the study is outlined and it is justified why the study was conducted in the three selected schools amongst the twelve secondary schools in Bakenberg South Circuit, Limpopo Province. The process of getting access to the schools for the field work is also outlined. The study attempts to answer the following critical questions with regard to school leadership’s experiences of the strategies used by high performing schools SMTs in managing and leading curriculum with special reference to teaching and learning.

| What successful strategies do performing schools’ leadership use to enhance teaching and learning in their schools? |
| Which support mechanisms do high performing schools’ leadership use to provide curriculum leadership? |
| How does performing schools’ leadership encourage teachers to accept their responsibilities for high performance? |
| How does performing schools’ leadership create working conditions that promote teacher development? |

The chapter also outlines ethical issues which were followed when conducting this study.
2.2 Research methodology
Van Niekerk (2009: 107) defined methodological design as the logic through which a researcher addresses the research questions and gains data for the study. She further alluded that research methodology encompasses the complete research process: the research approaches, procedures and data-collection or sampling methods.

Cohen et al (2000: 39-44) described methodology as the collection of approaches used in educational research to gather data to be used as a basis for inference and interpretation, for explanation and prediction. Traditionally, the term refers to those techniques associated with the positivistic model, in order to elicit responses to predetermined questions, such as recording measurements, describing phenomena, and performing experiments. Research methodology therefore aims to help us understand the processes and not the products of scientific inquiry.

2.3 Research approach
According to Van Heerden (2009: 164), the study requires specific and well-organised research methods for it to produce a credible outcome that may lead to better understanding of the phenomenon. I purposefully adapted to a case study approach because it offers an in-depth study of instances of a phenomenon in its natural context from the perspective of the participants involved in the phenomenon. This approach assisted me to learn more about the strategies used by SMTs in managing and leading curriculum with special reference to teaching and learning in their high-performing schools. Cohen (2005: 180-181) defined case study as a specific instance that is frequently designed to illustrate a more general principle, and that it is the study of an instance in action.

The most important strength of case study is that it observes effects in real contexts and its results are more easily understood by a wider audience. The schools under study are not situated far from each other and from where I work. I regularly interacted with the participants on their sites as indicated by Leedy et al (2001:149-150). Despite its advantages, case study’s findings are not easily open to cross-checking.
2.4 Research design
McMillan et al (in Moloi, 2009:101) contended that research design is a crucial part of an investigation due to the fact that certain limitations and cautions in interpreting the results are related to each design. Moloi described research design as a plan and a structure of the investigation used to obtain evidence to answer research question. According to Sebidi (2008: 43), research design can thus be seen as describing the procedures for conducting the study, which includes when, from whom and under what conditions the data will be obtained. Creswell, Marshall and Rossman (in Mphahlele, 2009: 35) defined research design as a roadmap, an overall plan for understanding a systematic phenomenon of interest. To achieve the stated purpose of understanding strategies employed by SMTs to effectively lead and manage curriculum, I undertook a qualitative, case study.

2.5 Qualitative research
Guro (2009: 54) described qualitative research as any research that uses qualitative data and usually came in words rather than in numbers. According to Van Niekerk (2009: 108), qualitative research is an umbrella concept that includes several research strategies, which are flexible to obtain valid and reliable data. McMillan et al (2001: 395) described qualitative research as an inquiry in which researchers collect data in face-to-face situations by interacting with selected persons in their settings.

This study was conducted within a qualitative research framework because it addresses the direct experiences lived by members of the school management team as they manage and lead curriculum with special reference to teaching and learning. Strauss and Corbin (in Molope, 2006: 34) viewed qualitative research as any kind of research that produces findings not arrived at by means of statistical procedures or other means of quantification. Qualitative research is appropriate for this study because ‘the key to understanding qualitative research lies with the idea that meaning is socially constructed by individuals in interaction with their world (Meriam, 1998: 3).
According to McMillan et al (2006: 315), a qualitative study, allows for the exploration of people’s perceptions. Meriam (1998: 6) described qualitative research as an effort to understand situations in their uniqueness as part of a particular context. Sebidi (2008: 44) maintained that interactions do not necessarily attempt to predict what may happen in future, but to understand the nature of that setting, what it means for participants to be in that setting, what their lives are like, what is going on for them, what their meanings are, what the world looks like in that particular setting, and to be able to communicate that faithfully to others who are interested in that setting. On the basis of the research methodology adopted, the research method I used for data collection was one-on-one semi-structured interviews.

2.6 Contextual background
Provincial Education Departments, as custodians of municipalities and educational structures, are responsible for monitoring how their circuits are progressing in terms of performance in schools. This research was conducted in Bakenberg South Circuit (BSC) in Waterberg District. BSC has twelve (12) secondary schools and eighteen (18) primary schools. Most learners from the BSC area either live alone or live with their elderly grandparents who are illiterate. Even after successful completion of the National Senior Certificate (NSC), most learners leave school to seek employment mostly as farm workers in order to take care of their siblings. Those who wish to continue with schooling, either lack money or do not know where to go to after completing matric. Those who go to school take education very serious as they regard education as the only source of inspiration and a solution to their destitute situation.

In Limpopo Province, schools which obtain above 50% matric pass rate are considered to be high performing schools by the National Department of Education. In BSC, only three secondary schools, namely, Mpone, Leope and Noko obtained above 50% for three consecutive years, 2005, 2006 and 2007. The question which prompted me to conduct this study was: What strategies were the School Management Teams (SMTs) of Mpone, Leope and Noko Secondary Schools employing in order to lead and manage successful teaching and learning? These despite all the twelve secondary schools in the District are located in the same rural area, and face insufficient resources.
In 2003, principals in Bakenberg South Circuit formed a forum that was called Bakenberg South Circuit Education Management Team. The main aim of the forum was to support the Limpopo Province Education Department in improving the standard of education. In 2008, the District Official Management Team organized a workshop for under-performing schools in Modimolle, Limpopo Province. The attendees were principals of under-performing secondary schools and principals of their feeder primary schools. Based on what transpired at that workshop, it was clear that principals of under-performing schools blame academic underperformance in secondary schools on the feeder primary schools. They alleged that primary schools send them pupils who were academically unprepared for secondary school; that is pupils who can neither read nor write. These secondary school principals adopted a culture of blame and hopelessness; this despite the fact that, Mpone, Leope and Noko Secondary Schools, also receive learners from the same feeder primary schools. The question that emanated from this concern was: How did the three secondary schools cope and ultimately produce good results with the learners that were said to be unprepared for secondary school education?

2.7 Sampling and Methodology

According to Strydom (2005: 61), sampling should be done in such a way that participants are not engaged in a study merely because the researcher knows or does not know the person, or merely in that it is convenient for the researcher to include or exclude certain individuals. In this study, principals and two members in each school were sampled for the investigation. The process used for selecting participants involves enculturation and current involvement. Enculturation means that the participant has been engaged in what he/she is doing or have been doing for a long period of time and could therefore supply the researcher with relevant and rich information on the topic under investigation. Current involvement means that the participant is doing what is been investigated at the time when the study is undertaken (Sebidi, 2008: 48).

The principal and two other members on the school management team were regarded as suitable participants who could potentially offer rich information with regard to the critical questions that I wanted to explore. Mpone Secondary School principal, Mavuso, was 63 years old and had 22 years experience as the principal.
Kemishi, the principal of Leope Secondary School was 44 years old, and Noko’s principal, Nhlapo, was 36 years old. The principals at Leope and Noko Secondary Schools had principals who had 5 years experience in principalship positions. Amongst their SMTs, Leope and Noko had experienced Heads of Departments (HODs). At Leope, Bontle spent 18 years as an SMT member, and at Noko Secondary School, Lenyora has been in the SMT for 20 years. Cumulatively, the participants have been in leadership and management position for many years and they proved suitable participants to reflect on strategies that help their schools to be regarded as high performing in their District.

The central questions around which the study cohered were:

(i) What successful leadership strategies do performing schools employ to enhance teaching and learning?

(ii) What support mechanisms do they provide to improve and sustain learner achievement?

(iii) How do they motivate educators and learners to accept their responsibilities for high performance?

(iv) How do they create working conditions that promote teacher development?

In order to explore the above questions, I undertook a qualitative study because it allowed me to explore the direct experiences of members of the SMTs. Following the piloting of the interview schedule with colleagues, I drew primarily on one-on-one structured interviews to collect data because it is a more natural form of interacting with people and it is a powerful way of understanding fellow human beings. The interviews were audio-recorded and transcribed, verbatim. I adopted a case study approach because it favours in-depth study of instances of a phenomenon in their natural contexts. The most important strength of case study is that it observes effects in real contexts and its results are easily understood by a wider audience (Van Heerden, 2009:164).
Permission to conduct the research was secured from the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education at the University of Pretoria; from the Limpopo Department of Education; from the School Governing Bodies of the participating schools, as well as the participants. Participants were also assured of confidentiality and anonymity in their participation. In protecting the identity of their schools and their names, I used pseudonyms. I firstly phoned principals of the three schools and asked them to identify two educators who serve on their SMTs. Initially, only male educators agreed to participate in the study. This confirmed the phenomenon that management teams in secondary schools are predominantly the domain of male educators. The invisibility of women school management personnel concerned me–this especially in the climate of gender redress in post-apartheid South Africa. This prompted me to visit the schools to purposively solicit female educators who were in management positions to participate in the study. In the three participating schools, only one or two female educators served on the SMT. According to principals in this study, female educators are reluctant to be part of leadership in secondary schools. Following my visit to schools to solicit female participants, even though one female educator agreed to participate in the study, she withdrew a day before the interview was scheduled. Male participants on the other hand were very receptive and open to participating in the study.

For this research project, the key questions asked were derived from thirteen sub-questions which were finally coded into four main themes, namely:

(i) Findings on strategies for instructional improvement
(ii) Motivation
(iii) Working conditions; and
(iv) Support mechanisms
Table 1 below shows the biographical details of the research participants:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of the School</th>
<th>Name of Participant</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Race</th>
<th>Position held</th>
<th>No. of Years</th>
<th>Subjects taught</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MPONE</td>
<td>Mavuso</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>African</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MPONE</td>
<td>Keabetswe</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>African</td>
<td>HOD</td>
<td>04</td>
<td>English &amp; History</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEOPE</td>
<td>Kemishi</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>African</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>Geography, Life Orientation &amp; Social Sciences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEOPE</td>
<td>Jerry</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>African</td>
<td>Deputy Principal</td>
<td>07</td>
<td>Sepedi &amp; Maths</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LEOPE</td>
<td>Bontle</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>African</td>
<td>HOD</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>Life Orientation &amp; Afrikaans</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOKO</td>
<td>Nhlapo</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>African</td>
<td>Principal</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>Business Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOKO</td>
<td>Lenyora</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>African</td>
<td>HOD</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>Accounting &amp; Economics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NOKO</td>
<td>Lebone</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>African</td>
<td>HOD</td>
<td>05</td>
<td>Sepedi, Maths &amp; Maths Literacy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.8 Interviews

Interviews were my primary and only data collection strategy. The nature of the questions in the interview were such that they were intended to elicit educators’ responses about the strategies they employed to maintain high academic performance at their schools - especially for grade twelve learners. I conducted a pilot study with my colleagues first. Three SMT members agreed to participate in the piloting process. The questions were not amended and the entire piloting group confidently indicated that the questions helped them. I telephonically spoke to individual participants to verify if the set dates were still maintained. Two participants changed dates from the initial date and with others, we agreed on the time and venue.
Schulze (in Kamper, 2007: 12) mentioned interviews, observation and document analysis as methods used in qualitative studies whilst Fontana and Frey (in Govendor, 2008: 46) emphasised interviews as one of the most common and powerful ways in which researchers try to understand their fellow human beings. I chose to use interviews rather than other data collection instruments because I regarded them as particularly useful for obtaining large amounts of data quickly, with immediate follow-ups and clarification being possible if required. According to De Vos (2002: 300), interviews are regarded as a primary source of data collection. Cohen (2000: 268) indicated the following as aims of using interviews when conducting research:

1. To gather information having direct bearing on the research objectives by providing access to what is inside a person’s head.
2. To measure the person’s knowledge, values, preferences as well as his/her beliefs and attitudes.
3. To test hypotheses or suggest new ones.
4. To help identify variables and relationships, and
5. To follow up unexpected results, or to validate other methods, or to see deeper into the motivations of participants and their reasons for responding as they do.

In addition to the above purposes of interviews, McMillan et al (1989: 242) indicated the following as advantages of interviews:

1. That they have a high response rate, particularly if few participants are involved.
2. That both verbal and non-verbal behaviour can be observed because of the face-to-face nature of the communication between the interviewer and the interviewee, and
3. That the informants’ responses can be probed in order to achieve more accurate details.
Cohen et al (in Guro, 2009: 57) argued that an advantage of interviews is to gather data through direct verbal interaction. Guro further indicated adaptability as a major advantage of interviewing—especially for skillful interviewers who can follow up ideas, probe responses and investigate motives and feelings. Creswell (2005: 215) articulated four types of interviews: one-on-one interviews, focus group interviews, telephone interviews and electronic e-mail interviews. I used semi-structured interviews to gather information from the participants in this study. These interviews were used to gain insights into strategies used by school leadership to lead and manage curriculum. According to James (2009: 114), the advantage of using semi-structured interviews is that it enables participants to verbalise their own perceptions and expectations, and understanding of their roles. McMillan et al (1998: 41) claimed that semi-structured interviews involve direct interaction between the researcher and the participants. Sebidi (2008: 47) argued that such interviews are built on open-ended questions, which allow the participant to respond in whatever way they choose.

A semi-structured interview is an oral, in-person administration of a standard set of questions that are prepared in advance. Semi-structured questions are phrased to allow unique responses by each participant. Regardless of the type of questions, the responses are coded, tabulated and summarised numerically. The researcher in semi-structured interviews may have some initial guiding questions or core concepts, but there is no formally structured questionnaire (Sebidi, 2008: 46). Furthermore, the interviewer has the latitude to move the conversation to cover issues of interest that may surface. The interviewer may ask supplementary questions, which are not included in the schedule, so as to explore general views in a detailed fashion. Sebidi further argued that semi-structured interview schedule is aimed at exploring new issues and probing further.

Interviews gave me an opportunity to explore strategies the school leadership team employed to enhance teaching and learning in their schools, which support mechanisms were used by school leadership to provide effective curriculum leadership, how they encouraged educators to accept their responsibilities for high performance and how they created working conditions that promote staff development and instructional improvement.
According to Blanche et al (2006: 297), conducting an interview is a more natural form of interacting with people than making them fill out a questionnaire, do a test, or perform some experimental task, and therefore it fits well with the interpretive approach to research.

An audiotape was used to record the interviews. Permission to use audiotape was obtained from the participants as mentioned and agreed upon in the invitation letter. Recording was helpful. It allowed the researcher to keep a full record of the interview without having to be distracted by detailed note-keeping. The data from the interviews allowed me to validate and compare information gathered through the literature review. All responses were transcribed. I enlisted someone to help me conduct the transcription verbatim.

For this research project, the key questions asked were about curriculum meetings, achievement targets, organisation, infrastructure, policy on classroom, content, skills and standards, Lesson planning, assessment, parental involvement, motivation and commitment. The questions took into account the period from 2005 to 2007.

2.9 Preparation, orientation and closing
I started interviews with an introduction to the topic. Participants were reassured and the ethics of the project confirmed. The closing phase of the interview consisted of a short affirmation of opinions. I further promised participants that they will be engaged in further discussions if the study requires it. Finally I expressed thanks to participants.

2.10 Researcher reflection
As a researcher, the principal and a Circuit Co-ordinator in the principals’ forum in BSC, It was easy for me to access the permission of the principals to do fieldwork at their schools. Fieldwork involves among other things, visiting the sites that had been identified for conducting interviews and for locating participants to be involved in the interviews, crafting questions for interviews, formulating letters of informed consent and letters for permission to conduct the research (Sebidi, 2008: 45).
The first approach after my proposal was reviewed and approved by the Research Committee was through the telephone and only male educators indicated that they were interested in taking part. It was only after I visited the schools that female educators agreed to take part. This verified the highest number of male educators that were found in their SMTs. In all the schools, only one or two female educators were in the SMTs, which according to principals, indicates that female educators were afraid of being in leadership and management positions especially in secondary schools. This requires further research. Even after female educators in school leadership teams agreed to participate, in Mpone secondary school, the female participant withdrew a day before the interview was supposed to take place. Male participants on the other hand were very receptive and open to be interviewed.

In contextualizing, I did not probe enough to get evidence of the facts stated, though participants indicated that all the questions were clear and relevant.

2.11 Social network system, sampling and data collection strategy
According to Van Heerden (2009: 166), the nature of the study requires extensive networking to firstly identify key individuals to be targeted for interviews and secondly, to access those identified. Bakenberg South Circuit has twelve Secondary Schools and it was essential to identify specific schools, and individuals that may speak to the topic and contribute towards greater understanding of strategies employed in managing and leading the curriculum with special reference to teaching and learning.

2.12 Ethical issues
Guba and Lincoln (in Swart, 2009: 86) indicated that researchers should interact with the participants in a manner which respect their dignity, integrity and privacy. Cohen (in Sebidi, 2008: 50) defined ethics as ‘a matter of principled sensitivity to the rights of others’. According to McMillan et al (2001: 196), ethics are generally considered to deal with beliefs about what is right or wrong, proper or improper, good or bad. Moloi (2009: 117) argued that researchers must make sure that participants are not exposed to risks that are greater than the gains researchers might derive. Strydom (2005) defined ethics as follows:
Ethics are a set of moral principles, which suggested by an individual or group, are subsequently widely accepted, and which offers rules and behavioral expectations about the most correct conduct towards experimental subjects and respondents, employers, sponsors, other researchers, assistants and students.

The following measures and ethical issues were therefore taken and discussed while planning and conducting my study to ensure that the rights and welfare of my participants were protected during the research procedure.

2.12.1 Gaining access to schools
Permission for the research was granted by the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education, University of Pretoria, Faculty of Education after having filled in the application form and submitted a comprehensive research proposal accompanied by letters from the Limpopo Department of Education and letters from participants consenting to participate voluntarily in my study. I further wrote and requested permission to conduct research in schools of the department of Education. I was granted permission by the Limpopo Department of Education. I further requested and got permission to conduct this study from principals and then two SMT members from each of the three schools I selected.

2.12.2 Informed consent and voluntary participation
Moloi (2009: 117-118; Swart, 2009: 86 and Mphahlele, 2009: 21) suggested that informed consent ensures that participants take part in the study voluntarily and understand the nature of the study and the dangers and obligations that are involved. According to Madge (2007: 657), informed consent involves treating the participants of social research with respect, using easily understood language to inform them of the nature of the research, the time required the methods to be used and the way in which any findings might be used, before gaining their consent to take part. It is therefore important that accuracy and thorough information is emphasised so that the participants fully understand the study and as a result are able to voluntarily participate in the study (Moloi, 2009: 118).
In this study, I verbally (telephonically) informed principals of the three selected schools about my intentions to conduct research at their schools. I requested that they identify two members from the SMT to take part in the study. We finally made appointments to discuss the procedure face-to-face. On my arrival at schools, I met each of the participants and I told them what I wanted to do, why I wanted to do it and how I planned to go about it. I informed prospective participants of my intention not to identify them and of the measures I would take to ensure their anonymity. This gave them the opportunity to decide whether or not to take part in my study (Leedy et al, 2001: 107). I also assured them that there were no risks in participating in this study, and that instead, other schools will benefit from the study after recommendations were made. I had to inform them about any benefits or compensation that might be received based on the argument that participants have the right to be told of any benefits or compensation that might be received and that all participants should be made aware of the complaints procedure and were able to withdraw from the research at any point (Madge, 2007: 657). No coercion was used to convince participants. They willingly and freely read and signed the consent forms.

2.12.3 Confidentiality and privacy
Moloi (2009: 119) explained that the researcher can identify a given participant’s responses but essentially promises not to do so publicly. Moloi further argued that the main concern in the protection of participants’ interests and well-being is the protection of their identity. In this regard, Moloi (2009: 119) noted that researchers have the responsibility to protect the participants’ confidentiality with regards to persons in the setting and to protect the informants from the general reading public.

In this study, participants were assured of confidentiality both verbally and by a Guarantee of Confidentiality, which was presented and signed by them. In protecting the identity of their schools and their names, I decided not to use their real names or to name their schools, but rather to use pseudonyms for both (James, 2009: 137). Singleton et al and Strydom (in Moloi, 2009: 118), indicated the right to privacy as the individual’s right to decide when, where, to whom, and to what extent his or her attitudes, beliefs and behaviour will be disclosed.
This argument is supported by Leedy et al (2001: 108) who stated that any research study should respect participants’ right to privacy and that under no circumstances should a research report either oral or written, be presented in such a way that others become aware of how a particular participant has responded or behaved, unless the participant has specifically granted permission, in writing for this to happen. Moloi (2009: 118) highlighted that in order to avoid violating this principle, the researcher has to safeguard the privacy and identity of participants and act with sensitivity where the privacy of participants is relevant.

2.12.4 Trustworthiness

Mphahlele (2009: 22) indicated that the value of any inquiry depends on the extent to which the relationship between its central question and findings evokes confidence in the truth value of the findings and the credibility of the inquiry as such. Van Niekerk (2009: 114) stated validity and reliability as two important concepts to be kept in mind when doing research because in them the objectivity and credibility of research are at stake, and viewed reliability and validity as the two concepts contributing to the study’s trustworthiness. According to Paine (2005: 267), reliability relates to consistency, stability and dependability of results and the core meaning is the absence of random errors. Mampane (2008: 20) maintained that reliability and validity are very seldom used in qualitative research. She claimed that qualitative researchers strive to enhance trustworthiness, credibility, comparability and transferability.

Paine (2005: 267) further stated that in an attempt to eliminate random errors, qualitative researchers apply various measures such as internal and external reliability. In support of this idea, Mphahlele (2009: 114) emphasised the issue of considering multiple methods to collect, analyse and interpret data in order to produce reliable and valid knowledge in an ethical manner. Supporting this idea,

Weldon (2009: 49) signified that validation occurs through the use of multiple sources of information such as document analysis, workshop observation and analysis, individual and group interviews and through triangulation of workshops.
In this study, I did not use multiple sources of information due to the type of research that I was doing, that of limited scope. I prepared thirteen sub-questions which were expected to address the following four main questions: What successful strategies do performing school’s leadership use to enhance teaching and learning in their schools? Which support mechanisms do high performing schools’ leadership use to provide curriculum leadership? And, how does performing schools’ leadership encourage teachers to accept their responsibilities for high performance and how does performing schools’ leadership create working conditions that promote teacher development? Only semi-structured interviews were used to collect data.

To enhance the credibility and dependability of my findings I piloted the interview schedule with three colleagues from the school where I am the principal. According to Mampane (2008: 20), piloting the interview schedule enabled the researcher to fine-tune questions and/or eliminate those that did not seem to lend themselves to the generation of rich or relevant data. My pilot group confirmed that all the questions were focused on the curriculum leadership and management with special reference to teaching and learning in high-performing schools. I then started with the interviews in the three selected schools. To ensure confidence in the accuracy and truthfulness of my data, I tape recorded and transcribed all interviews, had each transcription verified by the respective participants.

2.13 Conclusion
This chapter focused on the research design and methodology applied in the study on curriculum leadership and management in selected schools in Bakenberg South, Limpopo province in South Africa. The qualitative data collection method was discussed and substantiation was given for choosing this particular research approach. Interviews were the main source of data collection. The sampling and reasons for the sampling procedures used were explained. The pilot study was also described and no modifications were made after responses were studied. The ethical considerations taken into account were outlined. Reflection on the researchers’ role was also presented and methodological validity and reliability were finally counted. The data analysis begins in the next chapter.
CHAPTER 3

Analysing curriculum leadership and management strategies to improve student achievement

3.1 Introduction

This chapter analyses the data of the study where the strategies that are used by high performing school leadership in managing and leading curriculum with special reference to teaching and learning were investigated. According to Kamper (2007:13), analysis will be interpreted to make meaning of experiences, views, knowledge and ideas of the participants regarding the problem. In the previous chapter I described the research design and methodology I used in this study. I justified the choices I made with regard to the selection of respondents.

Through reviewing the literature in chapter 2 and interviewing eight School Management Team Members of the three high performing schools in Bakenberg South Circuit, collected data was used to finally analyse and establish preliminary codes. Somo (2007:73) stated that data analysis involves the reduction and interpretation of data and establish emerging patterns. The researcher reduced a voluminous amount of data to the following themes:

3.1.1 Participants’ understanding of curriculum leadership and management
3.1.2 Managing time for learning
3.1.3 Managing facilities and teaching resources
3.1.4 Benchmarking
3.1.5 Staff and student performance incentives
3.1.6 Professional Development
3.1.7 Parental Involvement
3.1.8 Achievement Targets
3.1.9 Advantages of analysing learners’ performance
3.1.10 Strategies employed for instructional improvement
3.1.11 Parental Involvement
3.1.12 Support services
3.1.13 Teaching and learning policy
3.2 Participants’ understanding of curriculum leadership and management

The main reason for constituting SMTs is to lead and manage curriculum. Authors such as Edwards et al (2009: 101; Jones, 2007: 8 and Jansen, 2007: 97) agreed that for schools to perform well with regard to pupil achievement, expertise in teaching and learning were needed. In response to the question: *What is your understanding of curriculum leadership and management with special reference to teaching and learning?* Participants differed in their responses though there were aspects that were common in their understanding. In their responses, they unanimously indicated that for SMTs to be able to manage and lead the curriculum effectively, they should:

1. Understand the needs of the school
2. Ensure that educators have the relevant resources required for effective teaching and learning.
3. Actively be involved in the learners’ classroom activities.
4. Ensure that opportunities are provided for learners to acquire correct knowledge, skills and values
5. Ensures that teachers asses and evaluate pupils’ performance
6. Involve educators in all decisions-makings relating to teaching and learning.
7. Ensure the establishment of functional subject and learning area committees
8. Ensure that all structures that support teaching and learning are constituted and are functional
9. Ensure that both teachers and pupils honor their classes
10. Involve parents in their children’s learning.
11. Provides parents with feedback on learner performance
12. Create an atmosphere for Professional Teacher Development (PTD).
13. Mentor, monitor and motivate both educators and learners.

Their understanding supports Grosser’s (2001: 76) view when synthesizing schools which demonstrated effective characteristics. He stated that the kind of leadership needed is when the principal is actively involved and sharing power with the staff, consulting them in decision making on division of work, curriculum guidelines, and staff development issues. This is also supported by Jansen and Middlewood.
They maintained that teachers should be given freedom to decide what worked best in their classrooms on a particular day.

The definition by the participants in curriculum leadership is included in the characteristics mentioned by Niesche et al (2007: 105) of a productive instructional leader. Niesche et al viewed curriculum leaders as having the following characteristics: a commitment to a leadership that supports the spread of leadership practices and collaboration decision-making processes in building common vision and purposes; supportive relationship within the school between the staff and students; hands on knowledge about how educational theory translates into strategic action and is aligned with community concerns and relationships outside of the school; a focus on pedagogy in which leadership in a school is focused on improving students learning outcomes and learning within the school as a whole; support for the development of a culture of care which encourages teacher professional risk taking and a focus on structures and strategies in which leadership focuses on developing organisational processes that facilitate the smooth running of the school.

Hoadley et al (2009: 40-41) mentioned human resources, material resources and time as the central resources required for learning, which the SMTs should manage. Hoadley et al further generated six categories on managing resources which include managing time for learning, staff performance incentives within the schools, Learner Teacher Support Materials (LTSM), school staffing, professional development and expenditure of funds on additional resources and instructional improvement. Only those which deal directly with teaching and learning and emerged from the data that I collected in this study will be discussed.

3.3 Managing time for learning

According to Hoadley et al (2009: 105), the time available for teaching and learning is an important teaching resource. In managing time for learning, participants in this study indicated that they have plans to protect time for learning at their schools and that in their distribution of work, the deputy principal ensures that time tables for different activities were developed, implemented and monitored. Lenyora confirmed that in a nutshell: He remarked: “Contact time is protected”.

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According to Dada et al (2009: 57), research has shown that one of the crucial obstacles to effective teaching and learning is the loss of teaching time. Dada et al further indicated that all training needs to focus on preparing teachers, both in terms of what they teach but also their professional orientation, towards teaching for a given number of hours a day, in this way, curriculum coverage and improved learning outcomes are likely to be supported.

Participants in this study further claimed that they effectively managed attendance of both teachers and pupils. Hoadley et al (2009: 41) further emphasise that improving schools would have fewer disruptions and would experience less teacher absenteeism. When responding to the question that sought to understand how they dealt with learners and teachers who were absent from school, participants indicated that they encouraged teachers to offer extra classes either in the morning or afternoon or even on weekend to cover the time lost. It was further indicated that some teachers become absent from classes because they attended cluster meetings or workshops. The participants indicated that in such instances, they ensure that learners in classes are attended. Nhlapo clarified:

As part of encouraging teamwork, the school has a contingency plan which ensures that teachers available at school take over the periods of those attending curriculum meetings, especially in Grades 10 to 12, to ensure that no contact time is lost.

Kemishi and Keabetswe claimed that they normally request teachers to prepare work which will be given to the pupils when they were absent or attended a cluster meeting or workshop. They monitor the curriculum as a whole, ensure that teachers plan their lessons accordingly and pupils do the work as requested by their subject teachers. This shows that they worked collaboratively. The idea of joint undertaking by teachers is substantiated and supported by many authors such as Sergiovanni (1991: 163; Biot, 1994: 203; Dale, 2004: 131; Maxwell, 2008: 71; Glickman, 2002: 2; Blankstein, 2004: 127; Edwards et al, 2009: 102 and Hinrichs, 2007: 241). Hinrichs (2007: 127) recommended that it was time for principals to adopt ‘us’ versus ‘me’ model of leadership, involving all major stakeholders, distributing leadership for schools to improve student achievement and be categorised under high performing schools’ category.
Participants further pointed out that feedback from teachers who attended a cluster meeting or workshop was given to those who were at schools teaching. They signified that their schools had report books wherein the attendees wrote a report and that report book was circulated to the rest of the teachers. Jerry summed this up:

Those who did not attend the curriculum meeting or workshop are called to a meeting or school-based workshop and feedback is given. We usually organize meetings or workshops after school on a day agreed upon in the staff meeting and set aside for teacher development and updating. At our school, we use Wednesdays, when pupils are busy with sports activities.

Holding meetings to share information by educators is also supported by Udelhofen (2005: 3) in her indication that the expertise and knowledge of teachers is vitally important to teaching and improve student learning. School leaders should put effective communication systems in place that provide structure and time for teachers to share and discuss their work.

In responding to the question: *How do you ensure that educators are not distracted during teaching and learning?* Participants’ pointed out that meetings and office calls were done during breaks and after school. Lebone substantiated by indicating that visitors were not allowed to directly look for educators. The educators were encouraged to switch off their cell phones when in class. Kemishi added: “We control visits and we do not call educators when they are in class. Visitors wait at the principal’s office for educators during breaks or free periods”. Nhlapo emphasised that he encourages learners to be punctual and to prepare their seating arrangement in such a way that no distractions occur during lessons. In addition, Keabetswe indicated that they have minimal movement in and out of the classes during lessons. Jerry claimed that their school adhered strictly to their school’s teaching and learning policy which states among other things that learners should be punctual in coming to class, ready to learn and educators should observe their periods on time as well.
3.4 Managing facilities and teaching resources

When defining his understanding of curriculum leadership and management, Nhlapo indicated that the SMT should also ensure that educators get relevant teaching and learning materials they need. Kemishi made mention of policies as one of the resources that the SMT should provide to educators. When mentioning management variables in relation to improved pupil outcomes, Hoadley et al (2009: 5) states the issue of procurement and management of books and stationery, while Guro (2009: 41) states that the image of the school in the African context has long been characterized by a solitary teacher standing before 70-80 pupils with a chalkboard and perhaps some chalk.

According to Hoadley et al and Middlewood (in Prinsloo, 2007: 147), it is not the presence of resources that is most important in student achievement or school improvement, but how these resources are managed. Middlewood further indicated the effectiveness of the SMT and the competence and motivation of the educators as the most important factors that assists in school improvement and student achievement. Guro (2009: 41) pointed out that improving working conditions enables educators to function better and students to perform better. When pupils perform better, teacher’s motivation is reinforced. Guro (2009: 41) viewed books as very important way of achieving the objectives outlined in an educational programme. According to Guro, even competent educators cannot teach effectively and efficiently without basic instructional resources. Hoadley et al (2009: 5) observed that even though resources are important, the key to the success of achieving any meaningful change in quality of schooling is finding ways of enabling schools to use their resources more efficiently.

As indicated by the rationale of this study, Mpone, Leope and Noko are the only three secondary schools out of twelve secondary schools which managed to obtain above 50% pass rate consecutively in matric for the years 2005, 2006 and 2007. All these schools are from the same rural area with insufficient resources.
Participants indicated their school’s overall matric pass percentage as stated in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Schools</th>
<th>2005</th>
<th>2006</th>
<th>2007</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mpone</td>
<td>70.0%</td>
<td>83.3%</td>
<td>76.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leope</td>
<td>73.9%</td>
<td>57.1%</td>
<td>78.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noko</td>
<td>83.7%</td>
<td>51.1%</td>
<td>64.3%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 2 (Percentage pass rate over three years)

3.5 **Benchmarking**

When asked whether they agree that their schools’ should be placed in the category of high performing schools, six participants confidently agreed. Only, Keabetswe and Kemishi disagreed. Kemishi responded: “Partially … I do agree but I should think there is still room for improvement”. Although Kemishi indicated shortage of facilities as a real challenge and a cause to high failure rate at their school, he still believes that students can do better than they are doing despite the issue of resources.

Five participants displayed satisfaction with regard to their schools’ performance. I asked the question: *If you were to be given the opportunity of categorizing schools into high performing and underperforming schools, which percentage will you benchmark in the performing schools’ category?* There was a vast difference in participants’ responses regarding the issue of benchmarking. The responses ranged from 50% to 100%. Mavuso and Kemishi seemed comfortable about the percentages their schools obtained. Only Nhlapo was doubtful. He felt that 80% would be his starting point because there was still 20% that failed. Jerry attested failure rate to changes that are still occurring within the curriculum.

According to Castallo (2001: 4), change can be effective only when the people delivering the program are meaningfully involved and are not just the recipients of orders from their superiors. Jansen and Middlewood (in Prinsloo, 2007: 139) indicated that in South Africa, teachers found themselves alienated from the curriculum by its sophisticated, complex and extensive language of innovation.
Schwartz (2006: 449) emphasised the point of consulting teachers when curriculum is written because it is their understanding and their enthusiasm or boredom with various aspects that colours its nature. Therefore, instructional leadership is concerned with stimulating and supporting those involved in teaching and learning in order to achieve the goals of the school.

In disagreement with Jerry, Keabetswe and Lenyora said that a 75% pass rate would be their benchmark. Lenyora motivated his benchmark of 75% by indicating that if he wanted to visit a doctor where his chances of survival are 50/50, he will not go. He would prefer to go to a doctor where his chances of survival would be from 75% upwards. Lebone and Bontle, the only two women research participants, indicated to be in favour of 100%. They believed that all students have potential to pass.

Paine (2005: 10) maintains that good schools create conditions in which each child can grow to his or her full potential. In this way, all children are given equal opportunity to succeed in society.

Of the eight participants, five did not show any interest in placing a benchmark beyond 80%. Seemingly they do not believe that their schools can pass all pupils. The issue of facilities that Kemishi mentioned seemed to have prohibited improvement in rural schools but increased the lack of faith that all pupils can pass. Blankstein (2004: 101) attributed this lack of faith on the principals’ own predisposition, initial bad experiences, or inabilities to reach all children themselves. Middlewood

(in Prinsloo, 2007: 147) refuted the issue of physical facilities being detrimental to morale and viewed effective leadership of the SMT and the competence and motivation of the teachers as most important things that help schools to be effective.

Participants mentioned overcrowding as their main challenge. There was a general agreement from all participants that the classes were not conducive for effective teaching and learning. Lenyora claimed that that their students were learning under trees for about four years. In addition, Lebone indicated that some students still attend classes in the mobile classrooms which are tremendously hot in summer and cold in winter. None of the three schools had a library or laboratory. Only Mpone Secondary School has a well established computer room.
Mpone, Leope and Noko’s matric class sizes and percentages obtained for the years under study are indicated in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of School</th>
<th>2005 : %</th>
<th>2006 : %</th>
<th>2007 : %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mpone</td>
<td>55 : 70,0</td>
<td>20 : 83,3</td>
<td>28 : 76,5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leope</td>
<td>49 : 73,9</td>
<td>45 : 57,1</td>
<td>70 : 78,1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noko</td>
<td>23 : 83,7</td>
<td>49 : 51,1</td>
<td>32 : 64,3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: 2005-2007 matric class sizes and percentages obtained

Mpone Secondary School had 20 learners in matric in 2006 and their pass rate was higher than in 2005 and in 2007. Mpone and Noko Secondary Schools’ matric results deteriorated as the number of learners increased.

When looking at the performance rate of Leope Secondary School, one starts to ask whether the number of learners in matric class determine the matric pass percentage or not. On the contrary, Leope Secondary School had fewer learners in 2006 and obtained the lowest matric pass percentage, 57, 1 %. Its matric pass percentages increased as the number of learners in the class increased. This is contrary to what participants’ claimed; that overcrowding hindered high performance at their schools. Leope managed to obtain the highest pass percentage in 2007, whilst having 70 learners in the class, which was larger than in 2005 and 2006. Noko Secondary School on the contrary, the lesser the students in the class, the higher the pass percentage. This proves that schools are unique and that there is no direct relationship between class size and the pass rate.

Nevertheless, participants agreed on how they handled the issue of assisting educators with overcrowding classes. They indicated that educators with overcrowded classes were given fewer subjects compared to those with small numbers in their classes. This balanced workload, in terms of marking and compilation of schedules. Kemishi indicated that they also ensure that extra work is inevitable with teachers handling large groups and such educators are excused from heading and leading extra-curricular activities, unless they do it on voluntary basis.
3.6 **Staff and student performance incentives**

According to Guro (2009: 41), poor working conditions de-motivate educators, weaken their professional commitment and affect student performance.

Hoadley et al (2009: 41) mentioned two key performance incentives schemes that encouraged educators to do their best when it comes to teaching and learning; financial and non-financial. They further indicated that very few schools were found to be able to offer educators financial performance incentives. Even in this study, when I wanted to investigate how SMTs reward individual educators who got the highest pass rate in their subject in a particular year, participants indicated that such educators were given awards such as trophies and certificates during ceremonies. Mavuso and Nhlapo indicated that they praised educators in front of other staff members first during staff briefing meetings.

This idea supports Van Niekerk’s (2009: 72) proposal that outcomes may come from the external environment in the form of praise, promotions/or financial rewards. In addition, Lebone clarified: “A mini-party is organised to award those educators and to motivate the rest of the educators”. Van Niekerk (2009: 71) defined motivation as a person’s desire to pursue a goal or perform a task and has an effect on learning and performance outcome.

In the case where pupils obtained the highest symbol in a particular subject for a particular year, the participants from Mpone Secondary school indicated that they awarded them in the form of either vouchers or merit certificates in the award giving ceremony that is organized by the parents. At Leope and Noko Secondary Schools, only certificates were given to such pupils. This is supported by Visscher (2001: 138) in his indication that compensation for teachers comes in various ways, such as salary, immaterial rewards, public recognition and so forth. In addition, Blankstein (2004: 93) emphasised celebrating school successes as the best strategy for building positive school culture.

On the issue of how participants inspired teachers who were absent from class to cover their work, there was a general agreement that such teachers were encouraged to give extra lessons in their spare time.
Keabetswe pointed out that he ensured that the lesson plan for the week was taught during that week. Jerry summed that up: “It is our motto that whoever misses a class, replaces the period immediately”.

3.7 Professional Development

Central to management structures and strategies for instructional improvement is the issue of professional development. According to Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon (2002) (in Blasé et al, 2004:51),

*Professional development must be geared to teachers’ needs and concerns. Research on successful professional development programs has shown an emphasis on involvement, long-term planning, problem-solving meetings, released time, experimentation and risk-taking, administrative support, small-group activities, peer feedback, demonstration and trials, coaching, and leader participation in activities.... It is time to change the perception that professional development is a waste of teachers’ time to the perception of professional development as time well spent. Viewing teachers as the agents rather than the objects of professional development will be the impetus for such change.*

According to Van Niekerk (2009: 152), Teacher Professional Development (TPD) influences teachers’ confidence levels, their inclination toward trying out innovative ideas, as well as their attitude towards the teaching profession and creative classroom practices. Sillins et al (2002: 618) defined professionalism as the extent to which staff keeps up with best practice and are encouraged and given time to develop. Sillins et al further indicated that professional development increase instructional capacity, resulting in improved practice and contributing to overall school improvement.

In Bakenberg South Circuit, participants indicated that they were constantly required to attend cluster curriculum meetings or workshops that were arranged by subject advisors or district officials. They indicated that there were four main such curriculum meetings, one per term. When asked about the frequency of attending those curriculum meetings, participants indicated that they only attended three meetings out of the four meetings per year, because the fourth one was usually organised in October/November when they were busy preparing and conducting final examinations.
When asked about the impact that curriculum meetings had on their schools’ performance for the three years that their schools obtained above 50%, it was clear from the participants’ responses that they viewed curriculum meetings as useful and added value to effective teaching and learning. In emphasising the value of curriculum meetings and their impact on Grade 12 results, participants used the following words: “informative”, “fruitful”, “motivational”, “effective”, “productive”, developmental” and “interactive”. In his response, Nhlapo said: “Curriculum meetings have been quite effective, because the teachers are exposed to different approaches in as far as lesson planning, monitoring and assessment are concerned”. To Nhlapo, curriculum meetings are worthwhile as teachers come back motivated. He claimed that after attending curriculum meetings, teachers worked harder. In addition, Mavuso explained: “Our pupils continued to achieve better because teachers were highly motivated and committed”. In her response, Lebone indicated curriculum meetings as a place where they shared experiences and challenges, thus improving teaching and learning with the possibility of discovering different teaching approaches. This is supported by Law et al (2007: 150) in their study. Law et al cited one teacher who was interviewed indicating that discussing together was of benefit to all teachers and the school in general. The teacher further stated that they investigated various approaches and explored alternatives in curriculum planning, which was done in collaboration.

Blasé et al (2004:51) believed that teachers needed new work habits that are collegial and public, and not solo and private. According to Van Niekerk (2009: 156), numerous authors agreed that collaboration allow teachers to support and motivate each other, share expertise, plan together, reflect on teaching and learning practices which in turn leads to co-operation, reduced work load, effective communication and increased teacher efficiency and confidence.

Participants revealed that curriculum meetings enabled educators to feel free and were able to expose their frustrations to their seniors and equals. Lebone further indicated that it was within the curriculum meetings where subject committees were formed and common papers for their schools were set by different educators in the subject committee.
This exposed students to different styles of questioning and alerted them to various types of questions to be expected in final examination. Prinsloo (2007: 93) indicated the following as advantages of meetings by professionals:

1. Changing ideas.
2. Sharing information.
3. Reducing semantic problems through face-to-face interaction, and
4. Getting the people present to be more committed to stated proposals or procedures than they might otherwise be.

Schools depended on professional meetings organised by external people such as subject advisors. The SMTs’ do not co-ordinate professional development activities for the educators at their schools. Insufficient time for TPD not only prohibits attendance of activities but also leads to a stressful working environment, which diminishes the quality of instruction, morale, effectiveness and commitment. Hoadley et al (2009: 43) indicated that SMTs might not have enough time to organise and co-ordinate TPD activities given the extent of recent curriculum change. They believed that most TPD activities would be expected to be organised by the Department of Education (DoE) contrary to what Hezel Associates (in Van Niekerk, 2009: 152) stated that; “principals have significant responsibilities when it comes to initiating, organizing, planning and implementing TPD”.

3.8 Parental involvement

Hoadley et al (2009: 47) perceived parental involvement in pupils’ schooling as one of the most significant issues outside the school that affect teaching and learning. This idea is totally supported by many authors such as, Niesche et al (2010: 113; Khalifa, 2010: 636; Bryk, 2010:24-25; Jones, 2007: 16 & Peretomode et al, 2010: 301).

They maintained that involving parents in the issues related to their children’s’ learning leads to raising higher levels of student achievement. I asked the question: What do you think are advantages of involving parents in the education of their children? Participants indicated that when parents have an interest in their children’s learning, they ensure that children do their school work efficiently. Lebone emphasised that parents would understand their children’s academic challenges better.
Bontle added that parents would be able to identify whether their children are struggling or not. This will also enable them to discipline their children from home.

In responding to the question: *How do you encourage parents to be actively involved in their children’s learning, and how do you ensure that parents come to school when invited?* Participants indicated that report cards were collected by parents on a quarterly basis. The parent countersigns the child’s report card at home, discuss it with the child and brings it back on a given day in the evening and meets the child’s class educator for further discussion, clarification and strategies to assist the child if need be. This activity results in parents having to come to school at least four times a year. Kemishi elaborated:

> We usually ensure that parents sign as a way of acknowledging receipt of the child’s report card and those parents who are absent, their children’s progress reports remain with class educators at school as there is no one to collect them”. Those parents come to the school immediately a day after re-opening. There is no chance of them not coming to school.

The three schools allowed parents to regularly visit the schools. There was a strong agreement among participants about parental involvement. Parents were part of setting achievement targets of the school and form a major part in organising awards giving ceremonies. They also assist in keeping discipline of the children as well as collecting the children’s progress report cards on a quarterly basis. Castallo (2001: 10) perceived consultation and involvement of parents by teachers as important elements in improving and sustaining student achievement.

In his statement, Blankstein (2004: 185) consider parent/school relationship in very strict terms - that is, in such terms where schools make the decisions, and parents are impelled to support those decisions unquestionably. That is a one-sided partnership. This kind of partnership is not only less appealing to parents; it is also less beneficial to the school.
3.9 Achievement targets

According to Hoadley et al (2009: 16), establishing a common purpose and direction involves building a shared sense of the position of the school or a sense of shared intention in the school as a whole. Participants were unanimous with regard to setting achievement targets yearly and further indicated that those targets were set at the beginning of each year after analysing final year-end results. They also agreed that the set targets were reviewed every first week of the beginning of each quarter after analysing quarterly results. Mavuso briefly responded: “We set improvement targets during the first week of January after analysing results, for all the classes”. Bontle clarified:

We give Grade 8 to 11 reports cards in December and announce results analysis in January when matric results are out. After analysing the results, the Schools’ Assessment Committee requests the staff meeting where we all discuss that analysis with the purpose of setting new goals. Parents meeting is then organised and analysis from Grade 8 to Grade 12 is shared with all the parents.

This is supported by Blankstein (2004: 141) who perceived the failure at the beginning of the year to put the data in front of teachers, have them look at it, and then generate a manageable number of measurable goals based on the previous years’ scores as an obvious impediment to a results orientation.

In responding to the questions that sought to know the stakeholders who were in charge of setting the improvement targets and how they ensured that all stakeholders were involved, Kemishi briefly said: “Basically, all stakeholders”. In ensuring that all stakeholders were involved, Mavuso and Nhlapo indicated that teachers and pupils are regularly reminded about punctuality in school and in classes, and regular attendance to school. Parents are conscientised to check and sign their children’s written books as requested by subject teachers.
3.10 Advantages of analysing learners’ performance

Blankstein (2004: 92) indicated that goals should be continuously monitored and evaluated over time to facilitate strengthening the goal if desired results are obtained, or amending it, or abandoning it if it is clear that it is not achieving desired results. Participants were unanimous with regard to analysing learners’ performance on quarterly basis. In responding to the question: *What is the advantage(s) of analysing learners’ performance on a quarterly basis?* Participants stated the following:

1. To measure whether academic progress is made or not.
2. To identify areas of underperformance.
3. To determine which subjects are deteriorating.
4. To dictate whether remedial work is needed or not.
5. To help in developing intervention strategies.
6. To compel teachers to engage in better approaches and other methods of teaching and learning in general.
7. To assist teachers in determining whether targets set for that quarter were reached or not.

Bontle summed this up: “It helps in keeping focus on the set targets”.

Regarding where you begin in the process of improving results, it is indeed essential to look at past data, new circumstances and processes that can be modified. After analysing the results, what is important is to ask the question that sought to understand what will be done differently this quarter from last? According to Blankstein (2004: 92), analysing results assisted teachers in evaluating whether they are on target or not, and to make them realize that if they do what they have always done, they will not improve.

3.11 Strategies employed for instructional improvement

The strategies that emerged from the data I collected from participants for this study are the following:
3.11.1 Motivation

All participants agreed that motivating all stakeholders yielded positive results in sustaining their Grade 12 results. Of the three schools, only one school indicated that the principal acted as a motivational speaker. The other two schools indicated that they invited external people to motivate their learners and educators. Nhlapo remarked: “On a quarterly basis we invite motivational speakers. We also identify and invite successful former learners for motivational purposes.

3.11.2 Commitment

Participants believed that commitment by parents, teachers and pupils helped them in sustaining their results above 50%. This is emphasised by Castallo (2001: 27) when he stated that commitment must be from all stakeholders.

3.11.3 Discipline

Kemishi briefly said: “Basically, it is because of the discipline that we have been trying to maintain at our school that results are sustained”. All participants indicated that time, resources and attendance by both educators and learners were well managed.

3.11.4 Teamwork

Teachers and learners were encouraged to work in groups. In short, Mavuso said: “Group work is encouraged at all times”. According to Prinsloo (2007: 122), working as a group has the following advantages: co-operation, information sharing, rising morale and yielding better results.

3.11.5 Seeking external help from subjects’ experts

Participants indicated that inviting experts and subjects’ specialists to conduct workshops to their teachers has been helpful; they therefore invited subject external examiners or consultants once a year.
3.11.6 Compulsory extra classes

Participants maintained that extra lessons provided extra advantage to both teachers and pupils. The work is covered before time, giving both teachers and pupils’ opportunities for revision. This is done either in the morning before normal school hours or in the afternoon after normal school hours, or during weekends.

3.11.7 Previous question papers

There was a strong agreement amongst participants on the advantages of using previous question papers by both teachers and pupils. They indicated that previous question papers were used in order to prepare pupils for the final examinations and to develop different skills such as time management. This is supported by Castallo (2001: 68) when indicating that data from other local districts, as well as other districts in the State are often accessible to those teachers who are interested in reviewing it for comparison purposes. Van Niekerk (2009: 154) indicated that allowing teachers to attend courses at other schools and Provinces, making use of correspondence programmes and visiting other schools that are better informed are also important and successful TPD activities that promote teaching and learning.

3.11.8 Winter Enrichment Classes (WEC)

WEC were organized every June. Two or three schools are selected by the District Officials to host Grade 12 pupils from neighboring schools and are taught by teachers from different schools.

3.11.9 Written work

Participants indicated that giving pupils enough written work assisted teachers and SMTs in identifying struggling pupils.

3.11.10 Parental involvement

Inviting Grade 12 pupils’ parents at the end of the year and the beginning of the third term, which is first week of re-opening of schools after winter vacation to discuss strategies that can be used to support learners, was stated by all participants as being useful. All the three schools invited parents and discussed their children’s half-yearly academic progress in the presence of those children to allow both parties to state their challenges, possible solutions and commitments.
3.12 Support services

Much has been made of the potential of creating schools as learning organizations to address problems of underachievement. Millward et al (2009: 140), proposed the importance of creating an organisational learning environment that is required for raising student achievement. One of the most important aspects to be taken into consideration is managing instructional time through daily time tabling so that educators know when to go to which class for which subject. This entails proper planning.

3.12.1 Supporting time table committee

All participants indicated that they assisted time table committees in compiling school general time table that are in compliance with national requirements. They further indicated that they provided the format and guidelines of policies on instructional time in assisting the committee to be flexible in allocating learning areas on the time table. Bontle remarked:

We ensure that the time table committee compiles a time table that is in compliance with national requirements by ensuring that each learning area is allocated its proper time. We also give the committee relevant documents.

On the question that sought to understand if they monitor how periods are spread across the week, participants said that they verified the number of periods versus the time allocation per learning area as stated in the policy on notional time. Bontle clarified: “We check the periods and time allocation as specified by NCS policy handbook”. Of the eight participants, six pointed out that they advised the time table committee to spread periods in such a way that Maths and Science were offered before a break, which is in the morning before ten ’o’ clock. Bontle adds: “Preferably, Science subjects in the morning.” Mavuso added:

Each subject is to appear at least once per day. Appearance should alternate. Some other days some learning areas appears in the morning and others in the afternoon, but Maths and Science are allocated time mostly in the morning.
The idea of placing mathematics and physical science in the morning was supported by majority of participants. They called the two subjects ‘killer subjects’ as they were the ones which are mostly failed in their schools. They think that when they are taught before pupils are tired and the weather is still cool, that may assist pupils to comprehend what they are taught and that may raise achievement in those subjects.

3.13 Teaching and learning policy

According to Hoadley et al (2009: 47), schools with a better understanding of policy would have greater Student Achievement Gains over Time. This is true even at school level according to the research participants in this study. When asked whether their schools had policies for teaching and learning, participants undoubtedly agreed. They all indicated that the policies were drawn by all stakeholders except Mavuso, who said their policy was drawn by subject committees. This indicates that subject committees worked in isolation at their school. There is no inclusive teaching and learning policy. This was however contrary to what Keabetswe, Mavuso’s HOD said, in agreement with all other participants.

Participants further indicated that they assisted educators to accommodate different pupils with different learning abilities in their classes. Nhlapo indicated that teachers reflected time on which they were going to do remedial work to accommodate slow pupils. They asserted that struggling and non-struggling pupils were grouped together and teachers’ lessons were more practical and questions set accommodate high achievers, average achievers and low achievers. Bontle remarked:

I encourage educators to create room for struggling pupils to do remedial work. I advise teachers to ensure that struggling pupils are evenly grouped with non-struggling pupils but ask them to guard against non-struggling pupils overshadowing struggling ones.

Lebone indicated further that in order to cope with daily lessons, struggling pupils were given less challenging tasks as homework. Lenyora added that most of their teachers are specialists in their learning areas and their lesson plans are prepared in such a way that they cover both the gifted and the slow pupils. That enabled them to give individual attention to slow pupils.
Keabetswe claimed that he encouraged teachers in his department to use baseline assessment to track identifying level of pupils’ current knowledge and potential. He further said that it required patience and compassion to work with slow pupils because they needed more time to complete given tasks.

3.14 Content, Skills and Standard

According to Pajak (2006: 116-117), SMTs must be experts in what is happening in classrooms and beyond classrooms. He further indicated that knowledge of curriculum is important for supervisory success and, for supervisors of instruction to be able to provide support for teachers in different subject matter areas, pedagogical content knowledge is significant. Participants agreed that they encouraged teachers to research topics they were teaching. In responding to the question that sought to understand how they ensured that teachers taught content and skills that were intricately linked to the set standard, Nhlapo pointed out that their teachers used pace setters from the Province and followed their lesson plans. They further indicated that they regularly monitored and supported teachers, encouraged collective planning per subject in phases and used current resources such as internet.

In ensuring that teachers had basic subject knowledge, Mavuso responded: “They all have a minimum of M+4 (REQV 13) that is; matric plus three year diploma, and has majored in the subjects they are teaching”. Subject specialization and the school curricular needs were perceived as important in the employment of teachers. Participants regarded the attendance of curriculum meetings by teachers as the main factor that assisted them to have basic subject knowledge. Nhlapo added: “I encourage teachers to attend curriculum meetings, workshops and seminars as well as organise experts to come to our school to capacitate us”.

Participants agreed that their schools’ standards were measured on matric results only, but indicated that all grades were taken very seriously. Keabetswe concluded by saying that they assessed all grades and met frequently with grade heads to ensure that the standard that was set is maintained. Matric was therefore regarded as the end product of five years of struggle, according to Keabetswe.
3.15 Teaching Methodology

Instructional leaders take responsibility for some degree of understanding of the various subject matters under their purview (Jones, 2007: 12). Jones further indicated that leaders should know how to teach the subject matter and how pupils should learn it. When responding to the question: How do you challenge your educators to ensure that learners know how to anticipate test or examination question papers, participants claimed that the best method was to give pupils regular activities from previous question papers. In this way, pupils become acquainted with different ways in which papers might be set in preparation for the final examinations. Mavuso indicated that he ensured that teachers gave regular written work and encouraged HODs to monitor and moderate teachers’ lesson plans. Moderation was viewed by all participants as an important aspect in managing and leading teaching and learning.

Moderation assisted them to make sure that work given to pupils was valid, and addressed the targeted learning outcomes and assessment standards. In addition, participants mentioned the following as advantages of moderating formal tasks:

1. To ensure that the subject assessment programme is followed.
2. To check if the subject content is relevant to pupils’ level in a particular grade.
3. To ensure that pupils receive enough written work, and
4. To check if allocation of marks is correctly done.

Lenyora indicated that teachers also used other high performing schools’ question papers. Nhlapo stressed that he encouraged and provided teachers’ opportunities to participate in marking external National Grade 12 final papers. This exposed them to what was expected of them and the pupils at the end of the year. In responding to the question which sought to understand how participants ensured that information taught add to pupils’ experiential work, participants stated that teachers were encouraged to approach lessons in such a way that they teach from the known to the unknown. Lebone emphasised that before the new subject matter was introduced, teachers were encouraged to first check what pupils already know in relation to what he/she has prepared. In addition, Keabetswe maintained that tasks and assignments must relate to the pupils’ environment.
I asked the question: *How do you ensure that learners re-read and summarise on their own?* Nhlapo clarified: “That depends on the content of the learning area”. He went on to indicate that pupils were requested to make presentations to the whole class for the purpose of peer evaluation. Mavuso added: “Teachers gave learners texts to read and summarise”. Participants indicated the following methods as key styles that their teachers used: Lecture method, group work, research and question and answer method.

### 3.16 Conclusion

This chapter concentrated on the presentation and interpretation of qualitative results. Participants’ perspectives were analysed on how they responded to the interview questions.

The next chapter will focus on the summary of the main findings of the literature review and the empirical study, and recommendations.
CHAPTER 4
FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

4.1 Introduction
This chapter presents the summary of the main findings, conclusions, recommendations and their implications. The conclusions are based on the summary of the problem, research questions and the aim of the study, and its main functions are drawn from qualitative research instruments and from the literature review. The chapter ends with the researcher’s recommendations and recommendations for future research.

4.2 The main problem, research questions, purposes and objectives
As stated in the preamble, Bakenberg South circuit has twelve secondary schools of which only three are categorised under high performing schools category due to their consistency in obtaining above 50% matric pass rate. This study intends to determine how the three selected high performing schools, namely Mpone, Leope and Noko managed to obtain above 50% matric pass rate in three consecutive years, namely, 2005, 2006 and 2007, whereas the other nine secondary schools that are in the same area with the three high schools obtained less than 50%.

The objectives of the study were: to investigate the successful strategies used by the school’s leadership to enhance teaching and learning, explore the support mechanisms used by school’s leadership to provide effective instructional learning and teaching, create a culture that promotes and sustains student achievement and to determine how the school’s leadership motivates and develops its staff. In answering the above questions, the study had to focus on what the literature indicates about curriculum leadership and management, focusing more on teaching and learning. The data needed to answer the research questions was obtained via semi-structured interviews.
4.3 Main findings

As it was indicated in the preamble that the sample of this study were members of the SMT who are also called curriculum leaders/instructional leaders or simply the school leadership, my introductory question was to understand how the SMT understood their role with special reference to teaching and learning. In their response, common elements that appeared were that as curriculum leaders; they have to understand the needs of the school, be actively involved in classroom activities, and be able to involve parents and educators in all decision-makings, create an atmosphere for professional teacher development and mentoring, monitor and motivate both teachers and pupils.

From the literature review, the main role of curriculum leaders is to create the conditions for improved instruction (Hoadley et al, 2009: 6). That includes demonstrating support for the development of schools as communities focused on learning, by emphasising professional learning communities and linking this with the notion of productive pedagogies (Niesche et al, 2007: 105).

According to Nolan et al (2006: 20), curriculum leaders guide the decision-making processes for professional development, display trust and collegiality and ensures that decision-making is always shared. Hinrichs (2007: 240) maintained that curriculum leaders share vision, convene conversations, evoke and support leadership in others, insist on student problem-learning focus, model and participate in collaborative practice.

Law et al (2007: 144) described curriculum decision-making as a responsibility in which all teachers should equally share and engage. In conclusion, Pajak (2006: 116) appealed to all instructional leaders to become Leaders of Content Knowledge in order to be able to help students learn content and meet high standards of achievement. In that way, curriculum/instructional leaders will be able to able to supervise instruction in an effective way. Millward et al (2009: 141) proposed that focusing leadership on instruction appears to be instrumental in developing shared mental models focused on reducing underachievement.
4.4 Findings on strategies for instructional improvement

A review of the literature highlighted that the strategies that are more successful in raising achievement in schools are interconnected. West et al (2005: 83, 79) identified changing the school culture, focusing on teaching and learning, reviewing the school day and the purposeful use of data as strategies that could not be separated for school improvement and student achievement. They further identified; sharing a strong commitment within the school communities towards the belief that all students can achieve; recognising that leadership must extend into the classroom; developing teams with a strong sense of ownership for change; understanding that accountability, commitment and motivation grow with involvement; careful tracking of students’ progress; increased emphasis on reading and mathematics to help students to achieve basic skills; judicious use of student progress data in teacher evaluation programmes and increased professional development for teachers, as sustainable strategies for schools’ improvement and student achievement.

Millward et al (2009: 146) outlined four leadership practices which facilitates improved learning outcomes for students. He identified managing students’ behaviour, collecting and using achievement information, appraising teachers’ performance and organising meetings of teams of teachers to discuss their student achievement. Millward et al (2009: 151-153) posited that through the principal’s instructional leadership, teachers become involved in constructive problem solving, assess student achievement collaboratively, establish learning communities, strengthen and confirm their understandings of what student achievement at a particular time should look like.

Hoadley et al (2009: 15) confirmed that homework policies, afternoon classes, Saturday extra lessons and employed data-driven decision-making as strategies that improve student achievement. Prinsloo (2007: 148) suggested having a view of the whole curriculum and having accountability for consistently high standards as aspects to be covered by the curriculum leaders to ensure effective teaching and learning. Castallo (2001: 2) identified honest assessment of student performance, systems building, ongoing collaboration and regular communication as principles providing an underpinning for improvement.
4.5 Strategies employed by participants to improve learner achievement

Participants were unanimous in their responses regarding the factors that contributed to effective curriculum leadership and management with special reference to teaching and learning. They concurred that;

4.5.1 Providing relevant resources,
4.5.2 Being involved in classroom activities,
4.5.3 Creating conducive working conditions,
4.5.4 Involving all stakeholders in decision making,
4.5.5 Seeking external assistance,
4.5.6 Utilizing previous question papers and
4.5.7 Organising Winter Enrichment Classes as strategies that were employed in their schools that assisted them to obtain higher in regard to matric results.

4.5.1 Providing relevant resources

The literature maintained that human resources, material resources and time are the central resource required for learning and should therefore be well managed (Hoadley et al, 2009: 40-41). Participants indicated that for schools to be effective, the school leadership must ensure that teachers receive relevant teaching and learning materials. Dada et al (2009: 57) argued that one of the crucial obstacles to effective teaching and learning is the loss of teaching time. In addition to the emerging evidence that high quality leadership makes a significant difference to school improvement and learning outcomes (Bush et al, 2011: 31), Kemishi mentioned policies as one of the resources that the SMT must provide. Guro (2009:41) and Hoadley et al (2009:5) concurred on the issue of procurement and management of books and stationary; and viewed books as important in achieving the objectives outlined in an educational programme. According to Guro, even competent educators cannot teach effectively without basic instructional resources. On the contrary, Hoadley et al (2009:5) asserted that it is not the presence of resources that is most important in pupil achievement, but how these resources were managed.
In managing time for learning, participants stated that they have plans to protect time for learning. They indicated that they effectively manage attendance of both teachers and pupils. When responding to the question that sought to understand how they dealt with pupils and teachers who were absent from school, participants indicated that they encouraged teachers to offer extra classes either in the morning or afternoon or even on weekends to cover the time lost. They further indicated that they ensured that pupils were attended to at all times. Nhlapo clarified: “We have a plan which ensures that teachers available at school take over the periods of those attending curriculum meetings, especially in Grades 10 to 12, to ensure that no contact time is lost”.

Teachers were encouraged to prepare work to be given to pupils when they were absent. Participants indicated that they guard against any distractions of teachers during teaching and learning by making sure that meetings and office calls were done during breaks and after school. Cell phones were switched off in classes and feedback was given to the teachers who did not attend curriculum meetings or workshops. Attendees wrote reports which were circulated to the rest of the educators. Jerry summed this up:

Those who did not attend the workshop are called to a meeting and feedback is given. We usually organize meetings or workshops after school on a day agreed upon in the staff meeting and set aside for teacher development and reporting. We use Wednesdays when pupils are busy with sports activities.

According to participants, lack of physical infrastructures poses a serious challenge to providing the desired results. Lenyora claimed that their pupils had been learning under trees for about four years. In addition, Lebone indicated that some students still attend classes in the mobile classrooms which are tremendously hot in summer and cold in winter. None of the three schools had a library or laboratory. Nevertheless, participants outlined how they handled the issue of overcrowding. Teachers with overcrowded classes were given fewer subjects compared to those with small numbers in their classes. This balanced workload, in terms of marking and compilation of schedules and progress report cards. Teachers with overcrowding classes were also excused from heading and leading extra-curricular activities, unless they do it on voluntary basis.
4.5.2 Involvement in classroom activities

Literature review states that SMTs must be experts in what is happening in classrooms and beyond classrooms. According to Pajak (2006: 116 & Prinsloo, 2008: 148), knowledge of curriculum as a whole is important for SMTs to be able to provide support for teachers in different subject matter areas. SMTs must not lose focus of schools’ curricular intention. One of the most important aspects to be taken into consideration is managing instructional time through daily time tabling so that teachers know when to go to which class for which subject (Millward et al, 2009: 140). Participants were unanimous in their responses with regard to assisting the time table committee to compile time tables that are in compliance with national requirements by ensuring that each learning area is allocated its proper time.

According to Hoadley et al (2009: 47), schools with a better understanding of policy would have greater Student Achievement Gains over Time. Participants were unanimous with regard to their schools possessing teaching and learning policy. They further indicated that policies were drawn by all stakeholders. Participants further asserted that they assisted teachers to accommodate different pupils with different learning abilities in their classes. They indicated that they created a room for struggling learners and encouraged teachers to research topics they were teaching. Teachers were also given and encouraged to use pace setters from the Provincial Officials and their lesson plans in order to make sure that they teach content and skills that were intricately linked to the set standard and pupils were ready for answering quarterly common papers. They further indicated that they regularly monitored educators’ lesson plans and learners’ written work, class-works, home-works, assignments and other tasks that were given to pupils.

4.5.3 Utilising previous question papers

School leaders in South Africa begin their profession careers as teachers and they are often appointed on the basis of a successful record as teachers (Bush et al, 2011: 32). When responding to the question: How do you challenge your teachers to ensure that pupils know how to anticipate test or examination question papers, participants claimed that the best method they followed was to give pupils regular written activities from previous question papers.
In this way, pupils become acquainted with different ways in which question papers were set in preparation for final examinations and to develop different skills such as managing the time. All activities (written work) were said to be moderated and moderation assisted them in assuring that work given to learners was valid, and addressed the targeted learning outcomes and assessment standards.

4.5.4 Seeking external assistance

Seeing that inviting specialists and experts has helped a lot, they went on to invite subject examiners or consultants once per year.

According to Van Niekerk (2009: 154), allowing teachers to attend courses at other schools and provinces, making use of correspondence programmes and visiting other schools that perform high are helps teachers in acquiring and comprehending content knowledge in the subjects they are teaching.

4.5.5 Creating conducive working conditions

Sillins et al (2002: 618) argued that professional development is most useful when it focuses on instruction, occurred within the school context, and includes collaborative interaction that is sustained over time. DuFour et al (1987: 80 & Grosser, 2001: 7) claimed that putting structures, strategies and systems in place, and ensuring that the school culture is dynamic, is the most important factor for successful schools. According to Sergiovanni (1991: 88), effective schools offer academically rich programmes and address higher, as well as lower-order cognitive objectives.

Van Niekerk (2009: 160) stated that teachers require time to integrate their newly attained skills into their teaching and learning practices. According to Chew et al (2010: 61) teachers become fully alive when their schools and districts provide opportunities for skillful participation, inquiry, dialogue, and reflection.

Sacks (2010: 3) discovered that by helping teachers recognise that they are leaders, by offering opportunities to develop their leadership skills, and by creating school cultures that honour their leadership, the sleeping giant of teacher leadership can be awaken.

According to Blasé et al (2004:63), successful principals encourage attendance at workshops, seminars and conferences. They inform teachers of innovative seminars and workshops and offers to send them if they choose.
Blasé et al suggested that teachers’ participation in workshops, seminars and conferences positively affect their self-esteem and sense of being supported, their motivation, classroom reflection, and reflective informed behaviour.

Participants asserted that educators constantly attended cluster curriculum meetings. When asked about the impact that curriculum meetings had on their schools’ performance, they indicated that curriculum meetings were useful and added value to effective teaching and learning. In emphasising the value of curriculum meetings and their impact, participants used the following words: “informative”, “fruitful”, “motivational”, “effective”, “productive”, “developmental” and “interactive”. In his response, Nhlapo said: “Meetings have been quite effective, because the teachers are exposed to different approaches in lesson planning, monitoring and assessment”.

In her response, Lebone viewed curriculum meetings as a place where they shared experiences and challenges and further indicates that it was within the curriculum meetings where subject committees were formed and common papers were set. This exposed pupils to different styles of questioning and alerted them to various types of questions to be expected in final examinations. Relatedly, Senge et al (1993) (in Moloi, 2011: 2007: 469) observed that teachers continually expand their capacity to create the results they truly desire, nurture expansive patterns of thinking, set collective aspirations and continually learn how to learn together in learning organisations such as curriculum meetings.

Participants agreed that they allowed and encouraged educators to attend curriculum activities meant for teacher development. They realised that such environments stimulate and grow teacher leaders. According to Blasé et al (2004:63), successful principals encourage attendance at workshops, seminars and conferences. They inform educators of innovative seminars and workshops and offers to send them if they choose. Blasé et al (2004: 63) further maintained that educators ‘s participation in workshops, seminars and conferences positively affect their self-esteem and sense of being supported, their motivation, classroom reflection, and reflective informed behaviour. Sacks (2010: 2) indicates that by using the energy of teacher leaders as change agents of school change, public education will stand a better chance of ensuring that every child has a high quality teacher.
Participants also indicated that they encouraged teachers to research topics they were teaching. They further indicated that teachers were encouraged to use pace setters to ensure that they teach content and skills that were intricately linked to the set standards. Hoadley et al (2009: 35-36) conclude that there is a strong relationship between curriculum coverage and student achievement, so the SMT has to ensure that the curriculum is covered.

In ensuring that educators have basic subject knowledge, qualified educators were employed, taking into consideration schools’ curricular needs and the needs of the vacant post. Jones (2007: 12) maintained that school leaders should know how to teach the subject matter and how students learn the subject matter. Participants indicated lecture method, group method and research as the key styles that the teachers at their schools used.

### 4.5.6 Parental involvement

Hoadley et al (2009: 47) perceived parental involvement in their children’s schooling as one of the most significant issues outside the school that affect teaching and learning. They maintain that involving parents in the issues related to their children’s learning leads to raising higher levels of student/pupils’ achievement. Participants indicated that the interest and involvement of parents in school matters motivated pupils to do their school work effectively. Parents further assisted in keeping and maintaining discipline which is a serious challenge these days. Moloi (2007: 475) considers discipline as an element that makes it difficult to establish a culture of teaching and learning. Moloi further argue that discipline has its roots in the years of protest against the apartheid government. Lebone observed that parents understand their children’s academic challenges better and are able to identify whether their children are struggling or not, if they are involved.

All participants viewed inviting Grade 12 pupils’ parents as very helpful. Grade 12 pupils’ parents were invited to a special meeting twice per year, at the beginning of the year and in the beginning of the third term, which is the first week of re-opening of schools after winter vacation (in July), to discuss strategies that can be used to support learners.
When responding to the question: *How do you encourage parents to be actively involved in their children’s learning, and how do you ensure that parents come to school when invited,* participants stated that report cards were collected by parents on a quarterly basis. The parent countersign the child’s report card at home, discuss it with the child and brings it back on a given day in the evening and meets the child’s subject teacher for further discussion, clarification and setting strategies to assist the child if needed. Blankstein (2004: 185) argued not to define parent/school relationship in very strict terms—that is, in such terms where schools make the decisions, and parents are impelled to support those decisions unquestionably. According to Hinrichs (2007: 240), the kind of leadership to be developed these days are those of sharing the vision, convening conversations, evoking and supporting leadership in others, modeling and participating in collaborative practice.

Participants indicated that they set achievement targets yearly after analysing final year-end results. They also agreed that the set targets are reviewed every first week of the beginning of each quarter after analysing quarterly results. Bontle clarifies:

> We give Grade 8 to 11 pupils’ progress reports cards in December and present analysis of results in January when matric results are out. After analysing the results, the Schools’ Assessment Committee conducts the staff meeting where we all discuss that analysis with the purpose of setting new goals. Parents meeting is then organised and analysis from Grade 8 to 12 is presented and shared with all the parents.

Setting goals in the beginning of the year is an idea that is supported by Blankstein (2004: 141) who perceived failure at the beginning of the year to put the data in front of teachers, have them look at it, and then generate a manageable number of measurable goals based on the previous years’ scores as an obvious impediment to a results orientation. In responding to the questions that sought to know the stakeholders who were in charge of setting goals, Kemishi briefly said: “Basically, all stakeholders”. Blankstein (2004: 92) further indicated that goals should be continuously monitored and evaluated over time to facilitate strengthening the goal if desired results are obtained, or amending it, or abandoning it if it is clear that it is not achieving desired results. Participants viewed analysing learner’s progress quarterly as very important and advantageous.
They argued that analysing results assist them in measuring whether academic progress is made or not, identifying areas of underperformance, helping in developing the intervention strategies, compelling teachers to engage in better approaches and other methods of teaching and learning in general, and assisting teachers in determining whether targets set for that quarter are reached or not. Bontle summed it up: “It helps in keeping focus on the set targets”.

4.5.7 Winter Enrichment Classes (WEC):

WEC are organized every June. Two or three schools are selected by the District Officials to host Grade 12 pupils from neighboring schools (cluster). Teachers are appointed from different schools and the appointment is influenced by the good results the teacher produced for two years in Grade 12 and the teacher is supposed to be teaching the same subject in Grade 12 that year. Pace setters are given out and pre-tests and post-tests are administered in each subject. Monitoring is done regularly by the principal who is appointed as chief manager and the District officials assist in monitoring the progress and attendance by both teachers and pupils.

4.5.8 Motivation

Lumby (2003) (in Moloi, 2007: 472) argued that teacher motivation has been affected by multiple education changes and by the ‘wretched physical conditions’ in many schools. She further adds that ‘if motivation and morale are low, then teaching and learning suffer’. Successful principals praise teachers in formal interactions.

Blasé et al (2004:123-129) viewed the principals’ praise as the overall positive reaction to teachers’ instructional performance. According to Blasé et al, principals praise teachers to motivate and reward, to enhance self-esteem, to demonstrate caring and to gain compliance with expectations. Blasé et al assert that praise have a strong effect on educators by reinforcing existing positive classroom behaviours as one educator reported:

His praise made me want to continue to work hard with all of my students because hard work does not go unnoticed. Praise made me feel that teaching was worth every struggle and that you must endure and not give up so easily. It also made me realise that all students don’t have to be doing the same thing to learn. Sometimes as educators we get into a rut, feeling like that (Blasé et al, 2004:128).
Van Niekerk (2009: 71) defined motivation as a person’s desire to pursue a goal or perform a task and has an effect on learning and performance outcome. According to Visscher (2001: 138), compensation for teachers comes in various ways, such as salary, immaterial rewards and public recognition. West et al (2005: 86), concluded that with success in motion, a ‘feel-good’ factor becomes present, and it strengthens staff and pupil confidence to achieve more.

Participants indicated that teachers and pupils who performed outstandingly were given awards in the form of trophies or certificates during ceremonies. External people were invited into their schools. Nhlapo remarked: “We invite motivational speakers and successful former pupils for motivational purposes”. On the issue of how SMTs inspire teachers who were absent from class to cover their work, it was pointed out that such teachers gave extra lessons. Participants claimed that the lesson planned for the week was taught during that week. Jerry summed that up: “It is our motto that whoever misses a class, replaces the period immediately”.

Participants indicated that they set achievement targets which were discussed and adopted by all stakeholders, and reviewed on a quarterly basis. This indicates that they consulted and worked collaboratively with parents, students and teachers. Participants further claimed that they analysed pupils’ performance on a quarterly basis and gave parents their children’s academic reports on quarterly basis. Giving out academic reports quarterly motivates parents to come to school at least four times a year except when invited for special matters such as when the child has been absent without a reason or committed something that requires the parent’s attention or presence.

I also found out that the three schools had a plan of motivating both teachers and pupils. Motivational speakers were invited once per year.

To sum up, participants indicated the following as strategies they used in 2005, 2006 and 2007-which helped them to achieve higher than other schools in the circuit: commitment and teamwork was encouraged, discipline was maintained, attendance to cluster meetings and workshops was compulsory, external subject’s specialists were invited, other high performing schools outside the circuit were visited, compulsory extra classes were encouraged, previous
question papers were used, schools were involved in Winter Enrichment Programmes, teachers and pupils’ work were monitored and parental involvement was exercised.

4.6 Recommendations

On the basis of the results of the empirical investigation and the conclusions made from this study, the following recommendations are made:

4.6.1 That the Department of Education must ensure that SMTs attend refresher courses at least twice per year to ensure that they are not left behind when it comes to managing and leading curriculum, and to be able to cope with challenges in managing teaching and learning. Collaborative teaching is recommended and in-service training should be implemented (Dada et al, 2009: 57).

4.6.2 That Provincial Department of Education curriculum advisors compiles a list of strategies used by high performing schools and sends them to all the schools in the last term of each year and on quarterly basis request reports from the Circuit curriculum advisors on which strategies schools have been implementing. In their recommendations, Dada et al (2009: 57) stated that: “subject advisors should be trained to work as supportive, training and development-oriented advisors, who offer in-class support as well as training and development to teachers”.

4.6.3 That the District’s year plan that assist schools to draw their year plans should indicate the dates for teacher development activities to avoid abrupt disturbances and to encourage curriculum leaders and managers to include such activities in their schools’ year plans.

4.6.4 That it ‘be’ stated in the policy and a follow-up be made that schools’ financial policies provide a budget that allows the SMTs to reward educators who excel with regard to matric results. Getting trophies and certificates should be in addition to financial support.

4.6.5 Those SMTs should have a common understanding as to when, what and how they should provide support to educators to ensure efficient teaching and learning. Regular meeting and quarterly workshops should be organised by circuit officials or district officials.
4.7 **Recommendations for future research**

As indicated in the limitations, this study is a small-scale qualitative survey of strategies employed by curriculum leaders and managers to raise student achievement for Grade 12 classes. Thus, future research should explore the following:

4.7.1 Research with a larger sample, including various provinces of the country should be done in order to better determine the strategies employed by the school leadership of high performing schools.

4.7.2 The research should also include instructional teacher leaders in order to gain better insight into their perspectives with regard to instructional supervision.

4.7.3 Future research should employ various methods of data collection such as quantitative interviews, observation and document analysis, in order to corroborate the findings of the investigation. The results of such an investigation will provide further evidence and better insight into the strategies employed by school leadership in managing and leading teaching and learning.

4.8 **Conclusion**

In conclusion, despite the fact that schools are in the same area with the same resources and following the same prescribed curriculum, they usually differ in how they perform. This indicates that the difference lies with the school leadership and how they manage and lead teaching and learning. School leaders need to be committed to the leadership that supports the spread of leadership practices and collaboration decision-making processes in building common vision and purposes. They should be able to support relationship within the school between the staff and pupils. More importantly, they should be hands on, on knowledge about how educational theory translates into strategic action.

Findings were outlined with regard to literature review and the empirical study that was conducted. Findings were based on how participants understood their role as curriculum managers in managing and leading teaching and learning and the four research questions that assisted me to understand the strategies that they employ to enhance teaching and learning,
the support mechanisms they use to provide instructional leadership, how they motivate educators to accept their responsibilities for high performance, and how they create working conditions that promote teacher development.

Findings from this study were that, for schools to perform well, effective leadership and management are vital. The school leaders must understand the needs of the school, provide relevant resources and manage them effectively, have content knowledge, develop teachers, involve all stakeholders, encourage educators to attend curriculum meetings or workshops and organise vacation classes. The SMT is responsible for supporting and monitoring all committees within the school and must encourage team work at all times. Involving parents in the affairs of the school and motivating teachers and pupils benefit schools in raising pupil achievement thus placing the school in high performance category.

Recommendations were made and future research with a larger sample of schools is to be conducted.
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School of Educational Studies/Skool
van Opvoedkundige Studies
Department of Education Management and Policy Studies/Departement

Enquiries: Ngobeni KE  P.O. Box 4787
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10 October 2008

The Principal/Educator in school leadership team

SIR / MADAM

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN A MED RESEARCH MINI-DISSERTATION

I Keku Elizabeth Ngobeni, am a Masters student in Education Management, Law and Policy Studies at the University of Pretoria and the completion of the degree requires my conducting a mini-dissertation.

I hereby request you to participate in my research study. The title of my study is:

*Curriculum Management and Leadership in select schools in Limpopo Province, South Africa.*

The main aims of my study are to:

- Review the successful strategies used by ‘high’-performing schools’ leadership to enhance teaching and learning,
- Explore the support mechanisms used by ‘high’-performing school’s leadership to provide curriculum leadership,
- Understand how ‘high’-performing schools’ leadership creates a culture that promote and sustain learner achievement and
- Review how the ‘high’-performing schools motivate and develop curriculum leaders.
I chose your school because it has been classified as ‘high’-performing according to the Limpopo Department of Education’s criterion of categorizing schools into performing and underperforming schools.

I am going to conduct interviews using an audiotape at a time and place that will be convenient to you. The duration of the interview will be one hour thirty minutes. The interviews will be conducted primarily in English and where necessary, Sepedi will be used to clarify issues which I will later translate into English.

Everything you are going to say or do will be confidential. I will use pseudonyms to protect the identity of your school. You will receive transcripts of the interviews to verify its accuracy. Should you wish to correct information in the transcripts, this should be communicated to me in writing within seven days of the receipt of the transcript.

The study will benefit not only your school but other schools also as recommendations will be made to the Limpopo Education Department. The records pertaining to the research project will be stored at the University of Pretoria for 15 years.

Should you feel uncomfortable during the research study, you may withdraw.

Looking forward to your participation in the study.

Yours truly

Ngobeni KE (Researcher)

Signature: .................. Date: ..................
APPENDIX 2:

CONSENT AND CONFIDENTIALITY

Faculty of Education/
Fakulteit Opvoedkunde

School of Educational Studies/
Skool van Opvoedkundige Studies
Department of Education Management
and Policy Studies/Departement

PART A: LETTER OF CONSENT

I ........................................................................................................ the principal/ educator in school
leadership team of .............................................................................. ..School, have
read and understood the purpose of Ngobeni KE’s research study and hereby agree to
participate in this research study.

Signature:.............................................  Signature:.............................................

(Participant)  (Researcher)

Date:.............................................  Date: ..........................
APPENDIX 3

CONSENT AND CONFIDENTIALITY (CONTINUED)

PART B: GUARANTEE OF CONFIDENTIALITY LETTER

(To be signed by all research participants)

Guarantee of Confidentiality

I, Ngobeni Keku Elizabeth, hereby guarantee anonymity and confidentiality to ..................................................in his /her participation in my MEd studies based on the Curriculum Management and Leadership in select schools in Limpopo Province, South Africa.

This confidentiality will be guaranteed both during and after the research process as well as in the final research report.

.................................................. Date:........................................
Participant

.................................................. Date:........................................
Researcher: Ngobeni KE

.................................................. Date:........................................
Supervisor: Dr. Juliet Perumal
APPENDIX 4

LETTER REQUESTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SCHOOLS FROM THE HEAD OF DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION IN LIMPOPO PROVINCE.

Enquiries: Ngobeni KE
Contact No.: 073 130 6008
E-mail: e.keku@yahoo.com
P.O. Box 4787
MOKOPANE
0600
10 October 2008

The Head of Department
Limpopo Department of Education
Private Bag X9486
POLOKWANE
0700

APPLICATION FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN THE FOLLOWING THREE SCHOOLS SITUATED IN BAKENBERG SOUTH CIRCUIT, WATERBERG DISTRICT, MOGALAKWENA MUNICIPALITY, NAMELY, MATHULAMISHA SECONDARY SCHOOL, MOOKAMEDI HIGH SCHOOL AND NKGORU HIGH SCHOOL.

My name is Keku Elizabeth Ngobeni and I am registered for a Master’s Degree in Leadership Management, Law and Policy at the University of Pretoria. My supervisor is Doctor Juliet Perumal. As part of the requirements for the degree, I have to do mini-dissertation. I hereby request permission to conduct research at Mpone Secondary School, Leope Secondary School and Noko Secondary School in Bakenberg South Circuit.

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The title of my study is: *Curriculum leadership and management in select schools in Limpopo Province, South Africa.*

The main aims of my study are to:

1. Review the successful strategies used by high performing schools’ leadership to enhance teaching and learning.
2. Explore the support mechanisms used by high performing school’s leadership to provide curriculum leadership.
3. Understand how high performing schools’ leadership creates a culture that promote and sustain learner achievement and
4. Review how the high performing schools motivate and develop their staff.

I chose those schools because they have been classified as a performing school according to the Limpopo Department of Education’s criterion of categorizing schools into performing and underperforming schools.

My participants will be the principal and one educator who are in school leadership team. I am going to conduct interviews using an audio-tape at a time and place that will be convenient to the participants. The duration of the interview will be one hour fifteen minutes. The interviews will be conducted primarily in English and where necessary Sepedi will be used to clarify issues which I will later translate into English.

I request to conduct my study in Mpone, Leope and Noko (pseudonyms) as these schools have consistently produced more than 50% matriculation results for the three consecutive years, which is 2005, 2006 and 2007 out of twelve secondary schools in Bakenberg South Circuit.

Should you have any queries, you may contact me Ngobeni KE at 073 130 6008 or my supervisor Dr. Juliet Perumal at 083 428 6355.

Thank you.

Yours truly,

Ngobeni KE (Applicant) .................................................................

Dr Juliet Perumal (Supervisor) .....................................................

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APPENDIX 5:
INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

Interview questions in this study are going to cover educating children to high standards, content, skills and standards, teacher planning, annual programme of assessment, parental involvement, collaborative leadership and motivation and commitment.

1. **Curriculum meetings**
   As an instructional leader/curriculum manager in your school, your core role is to manage and lead curriculum, especially teaching and learning.

1.1 What is your understanding of the word curriculum?

1.2 How often do you attend cluster or district curriculum meetings?

1.3 Teachers are usually requested to attend curriculum meetings too. What happens to the learners whose subject teacher(s) have attended a cluster or district curriculum meeting?

1.4 How do you feel about those cluster or district curriculum meetings?

1.5 How is feedback given to those who did not attend the curriculum meeting?

1.6 What impact did those curriculum meetings have on your school’s matric results for the year 2005, 2006 and 2007?

2. Your school has been labeled as a performing school for the years 2005, 2006 and 2007 in Bakenberg South Circuit, in Limpopo Province.

2.1 What position did your school obtain and what was the overall percentage for matric results in 2005, 2006 and 2007?

2.2 Looking at your school’s overall matric pass percentage for 2005, 2006 and 2007, do you agree that your school is performing and should be placed within this category, performing schools?
2.3 What are the strategies that you employed to consecutively achieve above 50% in final year matric results? Give three main strategies.

2.4 If you were to be given the opportunity of categorizing schools according to final year matric pass percentage into high performing and under-performing schools, which percentage will you benchmark in the performing schools’ category? Motivate your answer.

3 Achievement targets

3.1 As an instructional leader/curriculum manager in your school, you set specific improvement targets.

3.2 If so, when is that improvement target set?

3.3 By whom is the improvement target set?

3.4 How often is the improvement target reviewed?

3.5 How do you ensure that every stakeholder focus on the set target?

3.6 What is the advantage (s) of analyzing learner’s performance quarterly?

3.7 In order to involve all stakeholders, what do you do after analyzing the results? Briefly elaborate.

4 Organisation

As an instructional/curriculum manager in your school, you are responsible for supporting and monitoring different sub-committees of which the time table committee is the most important one to ensure effective teaching and learning.

4.1 How do you assist the time table committee to end up with the time table that is in compliance with National requirements?

4.2 How do you ensure that all subjects receive their rightful periods as per National requirement?

4.3 Do you monitor how periods are spread across the week?

4.4 How are the periods spread across the week?
5 Infrastructure

As an instructional leader/curriculum manager in your school, you are concerned and are in charge of allocating resources to the learners in such a way that distractions are limited and teaching and learning is effective.

5.1 How are your school’s classes conducive for effective teaching and learning?

5.2 How do you ensure that teachers are not distracted while they are in class?

5.3 What were the matric class sizes of your school in 2005, 2006 and in 2007?

5.4 How do you assist those educators with overcrowded classes?

6 Policy on classroom

6.1 Does your school have a teaching and learning policy?

6.2 How was it compiled?

6.3 As an instructional leader/curriculum manager in your school, you are aware and acknowledge that learners have different learning styles.

6.3.1 Which strategies do you use to identify struggling learners?

6.3.2 What do you do to assist educators to accommodate such differences in their classes?

6.3.3 How do you ensure that struggling learners cope with daily lessons?

6.3.4 How do you assist educators to plan lessons that accommodate such differences?

7 Content, skills and standards

As an instructional leader/curriculum manager in your school, you need to ensure that your educators are aware of the standard you are working toward in relation to teaching and learning.

7.1 What is the main standard you work toward in relation to teaching and learning?

7.2 How do you ensure that your educators teach content and skills that are intricately linked to the said standards?
7.3 Is the standard measured on matriculation results only? Briefly motivate your answer.

7.4 How do you ensure that your educators have basic subject knowledge?

7.5 Do you encourage your educators to research on topics that they are teaching?

7.6 What type of resources do you give for educators to increase their subject knowledge?

8 Lesson planning
As an instructional leader/curriculum manager in your school, to what extent do you encourage your teachers to plan their lessons before they go to their classes?

8.1 How do you encourage your teachers to plan their lessons before they go to their classes?

8.2 How do you ensure that lesson plans have explicit objectives that learners understand?

8.3 How do you ensure that all educators have common understanding of what a well-designed lesson plan should entail?

8.4 How often do you supervise educators’ lesson plans?

8.5 How does lesson planning occurs, is it individually or in teamwork?

8.6 If “individually”, how do you ensure that lessons in all subjects are according to the learner’s level?

8.7 Do you think that teachers should be held accountable for whether their students performed well or not? Motivate your answer.

8.8 Should the responsibility for accountability lie with the individual teacher or the team? Motivate your answer.

9 Teaching Methodology
As an instructional leader or curriculum manager in your school, you are curious about effective teaching because it leads to effective learning and excellent matric results which provide your school a good status such as what you have now: Performing school.

9.1 How do you challenge your educators to ensure that learners know how to anticipate tests or exam questions?

9.2 How do you ensure that learners re-read and summarise in their own words?

9.3 How do you ensure that learners at different cognitive stages are taken on board?

9.4 Do you encourage your educators to allow enough time to learners to reflect on their work?
9.5 How do you ensure that information taught adds to learner’s experiential work?
9.6 Give at least two teaching styles used by your educators that you think key to your schools’ performance in matric results?

10 Assessment
As an instructional leader/curriculum manager in your school, you have to quality assured that learners are taught what they are supposed to be taught.

10.1 How do you know which activities are taking place in classes?
10.2 How often do you monitor written work in grade 12 classes?
10.3 Are formal assessment tasks moderated?
10.4 Who does moderation of assessment tasks?
10.5 What are the advantages of moderating assessment tasks?
10.6 When do you conduct common assessment at your school?
10.7 Is your school in possession of annual programme of assessment?
10.8 Are parents provided with the school annual programme of assessment?
10.9 How does the school benefit from providing parents with school annual programme?
10.10 When do parents or guardians receive feedback on the performance of their children?

11 Parental/Guardian/Child-minder involvement
As an instructional leader/curriculum manager in your school:

11.1 What do you think are the advantages of instilling parents/guardians/child minders interest in their children’s learning?
11.2 How do you encourage parents/guardians/child minders to be actively involved in their children’s learning?
11.3 How often do you invite learners’ parents/guardians/child minders to discuss their children’s academic progress?
11.4 How do you ensure that all parents/guardians/child minders come when invited to school to discuss their children’s progress in matric classes?
12 Motivation and commitment
Your school has produced fifty percent and above for three consecutive years for it to be labeled as performing in Bakenberg South, Limpopo province.

12.1 How do you ensure that your matric learners keep and maintain this status for your school?

Like any other school, as an instructional leader/curriculum manager, you are faced with learners and teachers who absent themselves from school or bank classes:

12.2 How do you deal with those learners who miss lessons?

12.3 Which strategy do you use to inspire educators who were absent from class to cover their work?

12.4 How do you reward individual educators who got the highest pass rate in their subject in a particular year?

12.5 How do you reward individual learners who obtained the highest symbol in a particular subject for a particular year?

13 Professional development

As an instructional leader/curriculum manager in your school, you are responsible for the teachers’ growth and professional development.

13.1 How do you ensure that your teachers are professionally developed?

13.2 Does your school have professional development plan?

13.3 By who is the plan developed?

13.4 What informs those who develop the professional plan?

13.5 How often is your school’s professional development plan reviewed?

13.6 How much time do you allocate to your teacher’s to participate in professional development meetings per year?