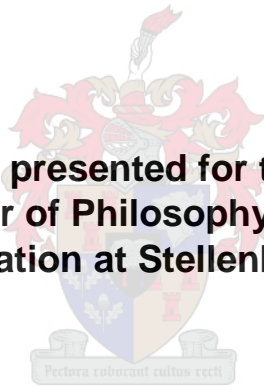# PRIMARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' LIVED EXPERIENCES OF THEIR ROLES AS INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERS IN SELECTED PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Jeremy Mark van Wyk

PTD, HDE, B.Tech (Education Management),
PGDE, Dipl. HRM,
MPhil (Education and Training for Lifelong Learning)

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Doctor of Philosophy in the
Faculty of Education at Stellenbosch University**

**Supervisor: Prof AE Carl
Co-supervisor: Prof LLL le Grange**

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DECLARATION

By submitting this dissertation electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualification.

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ABSTRACT

The role played by the principal as instructional leader worldwide is crucial as a result of his/her direct and indirect influence on teaching and learning. The role of the principal as instructional leader in improving teaching and learning is a pressing issue in South African primary schools, as most South African primary school learners perform far below par in the Annual National Assessments. These assessments are determined by benchmarking carried out by the Department of Basic Education and international education assessment agencies with reference to curriculum goals and literacy and numeracy. This phenomenological study describes the lived experiences of principals with regard to their instructional leadership roles in primary schools in the South African context with specific reference to selected schools in the Paarl and Wellington areas in the Western Cape. The study was informed by a literature study related to theoretical perspectives of instructional leadership. The data were collected through the use of phenomenological interviews (qualitative data) and analysis comprised the use of the ATLAS.ti qualitative data analysis qualitative data analysis programme. In the study, purposive sampling was used to include participants who could provide a rich description of their lived experiences of their roles as instructional leaders. This study describes the contextual factors which impact on the principal's roles as instructional leader and learner performance in the participating schools. The findings in the study reveal that the primary school principals, who participated in this study, have little experience of their instructional roles due to a lack of appropriate instructional practices to improve teaching and learning. They also tend to delegate most of their instructional leadership functions to their senior staff members. Based on the findings of the literature study on instructional leadership as well as the empirical inquiry, recommendations are made to address principals' instructional leadership practices, including a call for continuous collaboration and support for teachers through effective leadership. It is recommended that these principals become more involved in their core instructional leadership role, which is to improve teaching and learning. Furthermore, they need to continuously ensure their own professional development, as well as the development of his/her staff members, in order to acquire the needed knowledge and skills to improve their own instructional practices.

OPSOMMING

Die rol wat wêreldwyd deur die skoolhoof as onderrigleier gespeel word, is van kritieke belang vanweë sy/haar direkte en indirekte invloed op onderrig en leer. Die rol van die skoolhoof as onderrigleier in die verbetering van onderrig en leer is 'n dringende kwessie in Suid-Afrikaanse laerskole, aangesien die meeste leerders in Suid-Afrikaanse laerskole tydens die Jaarlikse Nasionale Assessering ver onder die gemiddelde presteer. Hierdie assesserings word deur middel van normbepaling vasgestel en word deur die Departement van Basiese Onderwys en Opleiding sowel as internasionale onderwysassesseringsagentskappe uitgevoer. Tydens hierdie assessering word daar spesifiek op kurrikulumdoelwitte, geletterdheid en gesyferdheid gefokus. Hierdie fenomenologiese studie beskryf die geleefde ervarings van die skoolhoof in laerskole in die Suid-Afrikaanse konteks met spesifieke verwysing na enkele uitgesoekte skole in die Paarl-, en Wellington-areas in die Wes-Kaap. 'n Literatuurstudie bied teoretiese perspektiewe ten opsigte van onderrigleierskap as teoretiese onderbou. Die data is ingesamel deur die gebruik van fenomenologiese onderhoude (kwalitatiewe data), terwyl die analise met behulp van die ATLAS.ti kwalitatiewe-dataontledingsprogram gedoen is. In die studie is doelgerigte monsterneming gebruik om deelnemers in te sluit wat 'n ryk beskrywing van hul geleefde ervarings van hul rolle as instruksionele leiers kon gee. Hierdie studie beskryf die kontekstuele faktore wat die skoolhoof se rol as onderrigleier en leerderprestasie in die deelnemende skole mag beïnvloed. Die studie se bevindinge het aan die lig gebring dat die deelnemende Suid-Afrikaanse laerskoolhoofde min ervaring van hul onderrigleiersrolle het as gevolg van 'n gebrek aan toepaslike onderrigpraktyke om onderrig en leer te verbeter en omdat hulle die meeste van hul onderrigrolle aan hul senior personeellede delegeer. Op grond van die bevindinge van die literatuurstudie oor onderrigleierskap en die empiriese ondersoek word aanbevelings gemaak om skoolhoofde se onderrigleierskappraktyke, insluitend 'n beroep op deurlopende samewerking met en ondersteuning vir onderwysers, deur middel van doeltreffende leierskap te verbeter. Daar word aanbeveel dat hierdie skoolhoofde meer betrokke by hul kernonderrigrol behoort te raak, naamlik om onderrig en leer te verbeter. Hulle moet ook deurlopend hul eie professionele ontwikkeling, sowel as dié van hul personeellede, bevorder ten einde toepaslike kennis en vaardighede te bekom om hul eie onderrigleerpraktyke te verbeter.

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my late parents, Jack (Jackie) and Mildred (Millie) van Wyk, who made a tremendous contribution to my life and aspired towards my education.

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ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Chapter 1 focuses on the rationale and background to the study, a statement of the research problem, research question and sub-questions, aim of the study and research methodology (design and method). Ethical considerations, the structure of the dissertation, and a summary of Chapter 1 will then follow.

1.1.1   Reflexivity and the researcher

No researcher can distance him- or herself completely from the research they undertake. It is therefore crucial to understand one's own position in relation to the research being undertaken so that bias is acknowledged. De Vos, Strydom, Fouché and Delport (2011:263) posit that the concept of 'reflexivity' refers to the ability of a person to formulate an integrated understanding of one's own cognitive world, known as metacognition. Reflexivity, therefore, is a process of thoughtful, conscious awareness of the researcher positionality in the process of research.

Engward and Davis (2015:1530) posit that reflexivity is viewed as an essential means to develop and demonstrate rigor in all qualitative research and a way to achieve high-quality research. These scholars argue that reflexivity is about developing transparency in decision making in the research process at multiple levels, namely, personal, methodological, theoretical, epistemological, ethical and political (Engward & Davis, 2015). However, Palaganas, Sanchez, Molintas and Caricativo (2017:2) note that reflexivity is a form of critical thinking which aims to "articulate the contexts that shape the processes of doing research and subsequently the knowledge produced to map the implications, possibilities and limitations afforded by approaching the study of a topic in a particular way". Linked to this notion, Lazard and McAvoy (2017:159) assert that:

> The requirement for reflexivity during the process of doing and writing up research introduces some level of public disclosure which can be experienced by researchers as discomfiting. This requirement produces tensions around

what we should or need to disclose about ourselves in research and how those decisions impact what we can say about the research process. Disclosure, we would argue, needs to be managed in relation to ethical treatment of ourselves as researchers.

Furthermore, Braun and Clarke (2019:589) contend that reflexivity has two parts: (1) the researcher first talks about his or her experiences with the phenomenon being explored; and (2) the researcher discusses how these past experiences shape his or her interpretation of the phenomenon. However, Braun and Clarke (2019:590) argue that the second ingredient is at the heart of being reflexive, but that it is often overlooked or left out by researchers. They propose that researchers may include their reflexive comments about their "positions" in the introduction, literature review or methodology of the study. Researcher was thus sensitised to explore the rationale and assumptions of the study.

Next, I discuss the rationale and assumptions of the study so as to describe how my experiences shaped my interpretation of the phenomenon.

1.1.2 Rationale

The question which comes to the fore is why South African schools perform so poorly is what the possible cause(s) of the problem might be. There can be diverse reasons for this situation, of which leadership of educators may be one, specifically of school principals. Having been in education for 39 years, and a former school principal, I had first-hand experience of the effects of good leadership in schools. Seobi and Wood (2016:1) indicate that good instructional leadership is the path to good learning and teaching, as the principals can, as instructional leaders, ensure that there is at all times an effective culture of learning and teaching in their schools. The importance of the principal's instructional leadership behaviours, is critical as it impacts on learner performance. As such, the relationship between the principal as instructional leader and the learners' performance in South African primary schools can be enhanced if the principal as instructional leader is in the position to assume responsibility for the key aspects that build a productive school teaching and learning culture. The principal as instructional leader of the school is responsible for ensuring

that teachers remain informed of new curriculum strategies, like new teaching strategies which can contribute to the promotion of effective teaching and learning. Effective instructional leaders are concerned about the quality of teaching and learning, and thus also the level of learner performance (Ebuk & Bankole, 2019:133).

The Department of Basic Education (DBE) (2013:2–5) wants to utilise the quality of instructional leadership which is found in the best schools to address the concern of poor instructional leadership in others. From this view point the DBE and the Provincial Education Departments of the nine provinces will be able to design programmes to enhance professional leadership and management development for both aspirant as well as serving principals with the aim to improve learner performance in South African schools. A further rationale for doing this study into how instructional leadership manifests itself in schools, comes from researcher's own experience at both a primary and secondary school level. Researcher was motivated to investigate the phenomenon of poor learner performance and how principals perceive and experience their roles as instructional leaders to shed light on how the problem can be possibly addressed. Further perspectives of the pre-1994 South African school context will be discussed in Section 1.2 to provide more insight into the school system.

1.1.3   Literature study

It should be highlighted at the start of the study that the literature study with regards to leadership and instructional leadership, comprises of two chapters, namely in Chapter 1 (see 1.2) and Chapter 2.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.2.1   The South African schooling system since 1994

It is necessary to provide an overview of the South African context early in the study and therefore 1.2 serves as a background to what is to follow in the study. Literature indicates that, although the South African schooling system has been undergoing major educational transformation since 1994, there are still significant differences in the quality of education results (Bush & Heystek, 2006; Heystek, Nieman, Van

Rooyen, Mosoge & Bipath, 2008; Hoadley, Christie & Ward, 2009; Bantwini, 2012; Heystek & Terhoven, 2015). According to Heystek and Terhoven (2015:626), these differences in the quality of education results can be ascribed to a huge disparity between the infrastructure and resources of schools classified as previously advantaged and those classified as previously disadvantaged. The majority of these previously disadvantaged schools, which are situated in townships and which were established for people of colour during apartheid in South Africa, are categorised as underperforming schools (Christie, 2010a; Moloi, 2010).

Township schools often experience and are exposed to the effects of poverty, vandalism, crime, violence, poor infrastructure, lack of resources, absenteeism, high dropout rates, overcrowded classes, gangsterism, drug abuse, teenage pregnancies and a large number of learners from one-parent households (Christie, 2010a:283; Moloi, 2010:622; Mampane & Bouwer, 2011:1–14). According to Christie (2010a:283), poor management in the majority of schools forms part of the problem. Hoadley *et al.* (2009:374) argue that equally disturbing is the patterns of continuing inequality in the post 1994 era, with former Model C-schools achieving the best results in the system and rural, township and the former African 'homeland' school the lowest. Spaull (2012:3) claims that most South African primary school learners perform far below par in terms of curriculum goals as determined by benchmarking carried out by local and international education assessment agencies. Additionally, other scholars such as Mestry, Moonsammy-Koopasammy and Schmidt (2013:50), are of the opinion that the poor learner performance in the Annual National Assessments (ANAS) in South African schools could be ascribed to a lack of effective leadership and commitment.

In the light of the aforementioned perspectives given on the ANA-results and outcomes as discussed in 1.2.1, the bigger picture becomes more dismal when one also takes into account the above-mentioned factors of poverty, lack of resources, vandalism, violence, poor infrastructure, alarming drop-out rates, overcrowding of classrooms and drug abuse which tend to exacerbate the situation. It is within this challenging context that principals need to perform as instructional leaders to improve teaching and learning. But, is it possible for the principal to demonstrate

effective instructional leadership on his/her own? There is a shared responsibility as will be discussed in 1.2.4.

1.2.2 Shared decision-making between principals and school governing bodies (SGBs)

To address the aforementioned challenges, the South African government-initiated processes of shared decision-making between principals and school governing bodies (SGBs). This initiative is a move towards institutional autonomy, referred to as school-based management (SBM) (Khattri, Ling & Jha, 2010). According to Khattri *et al.* (2010:2), the concept of 'SBM' can be viewed as a formal alteration of governance structures, as a form of decentralisation that identifies the individual school as the primary unit of improvement, and relies on the redistribution of the decision-making authority as the primary means through which improvement might be stimulated and sustained. Therefore, in SBM, responsibility for and decision-making authority over school operations are transferred to principals, teachers, parents, and sometimes to learners and other school community members (Beasley & Huillery, 2014). Literature, however, suggests that to strengthen their professional motivation and their sense of ownership of the school, these 'school-level actors' have to operate within SGBs, according to a set of policies determined by the central government (Vernez, Karam & Marshall, 2012). Scholars such as Vernez *et al.* (2012) claim that there are two key power dimensions to the devolution of decision making: the degree of autonomy being devolved (what) and the people to whom the decision making is devolved (who).

The first dimension to the devolution of decision-making entails the transition of power over school operations from the central government to principals and SGBs (Barrera-Osorio, Fasih & Patrinos, 2009:16). These transitions include: (1) personnel management; (2) procurement of textbooks and other educational materials; (3) infrastructure improvement; and (4) monitoring and evaluating teacher performance and learning outcomes.

Gertler, Patrinos and Rubio-Codina (2012:68) posit that the second dimension involves the devolution of decision to the people to whom the decision-making power is devolved. Gertler *et al.* (2012:68–79) assert that this dimension includes the following three power transitions:

- "Professional controlled SBM (school-based management)" devolves power to teachers to motivate them to greater efficiency and effectiveness in teaching.
- "Community-controlled SBM" devolves power to parents or the community so that principals and teachers may become more responsive to parents' needs.
- "Balanced controlled SBM" involves the balancing of power between parents and teachers, who are the two main stakeholders in any school, to ensure that schools are held more accountable to parents.

In South Africa, the South African Schools Act (84 of 1996), which became operative at the beginning of 1997 mandated that all public schools in South Africa must have democratically elected school governing bodies (SGBs) comprising of principals, educators, non-teaching staff and parents in primary schools (grades 1 to 7). As a result, the nature and extent of school decision-making have changed. The Department of Education (DoE, 1996:19) has also attempted to give substance to this purpose by providing manuals with guidelines to guide educational managers in the implementation of SBM structures, such as the school management team (SMT), the learners' representative council (LRC), and the SGB. According to Mokoena (2011:122–123), the SGB is the strategic planning and monitoring body who holds considerable responsibility for setting the broad directions in the school, allocating resources to support priorities and monitoring progress. The SMT comprises the principal, deputy principal and Heads of department (HODs) who are responsible for the day-to-day operational matters.

From the above it is clear that shared leadership and collaboration is extended to also make provision for parental involvement as they are key-stakeholders to ensure quality education for their children. It is questionable, however, whether parents can play a role specifically with regard to instructional leadership. Sibanda (2017:567) argues that SGB's should rather be separated from instructional leadership as parents are not the curriculum specialists.

1.2.3 School-based management (SBM)

The findings from a South African study on SBM by Blimpo and Evans (2011)**,** however, reveal that there are two clear schools of thought on the issue of SBM. One school of thought views SBM as a positive and successful vehicle for school improvement, while the other argues that it has been minimally successful in school improvement **(**Bandur, 2012:33). Bandur (2012:34) claims that SBM presents a view of the school as an organisation that is less locked into overhead control and authority, and instead works against hierarchical models for learning organisations. On the other hand, SBM is by no means as unproblematic as it may appear when it comes to accountability. Some researchers argue that there is little evidence to indicate whether SBM has any effect on teaching and learning and the curricular practices that form the core 'business' of schools **(**Mollootimile & Zengele, 2015).

Findings from a South African study on SBM by Mollootimile and Zengele (2015) reveal that SBM demands professionalism from principals because it changes and challenges the traditional concepts of principalship. Van der Voort and Wood (2016:1) add that the tendency to regard school principals as solely responsible for leadership and the management of schools is gradually being replaced by the notion that "leadership and management are the prerogative of many, if not all, stakeholders in education". The concepts of 'management' and 'leadership' are distinguishable but not separate processes and there is a considerable overlap and shared meaning between these two concepts. Bush and Glover (2016:211) claim that the concept of 'management' refers to the structured approach of working within the rules, regulations and boundaries provided in a school situation. The concept of 'leadership', on the other hand, refers to a process of continuously guiding, mentoring and supporting all staff concerned to develop a school's vision and mission (Bush & Glover, 2016:213).

It is within this sphere of shared decision-making that the principal should, despite being in a situation where collaboration with a variety of stakeholders are involved, still needs to act as the primary functionary who is responsible for effective teaching and learning in schools.

1.2.4   Successful leadership for learning

Various reviews of international literature which focus on how successful leadership can enhance learning, confirm that general leadership models, for instance transformational, path-goal and situational theories, do not capture the type of leadership that makes a difference to learners' learning in schools (Robinson, Lloyd & Rowe, 2008; Hallinger, 2009). Instead, Hallinger (2009) suggests that successful leadership must include a core of leadership practices he refers to as 'instructional' or 'learning-centred', which are strongly concerned with teaching and learning, including the professional development of teacher as well as learner improvement. Mafuwane and Pitsoe (2014) argue that, globally, successful instructional leadership is an issue of current debate, and has increasingly been considered as a key factor in an efficient and effective schooling system. Linked to this argument, Mestry (2017:257), state that instructional leadership is the ability of the principal to involve his/her teachers collaboratively in mutual learning and development with the central purpose of improving teaching and learning. Therefore, it stands to reason that principals need the instructional support of school leaders, such as senior management teams, Heads of department and subject heads to improve teaching and learning as it is realistically impossible for principals to do everything.

As instructional leaders, principals are the functionaries who should take the lead in developing school goals, manage the curriculum and supervise effective leadership with regard to all practices related to teaching and learning occurrences in their schools (Mestry, 2013; Bhengu & Mkhize, 2013). In other words, it is a process whereby principals become involved in the actual or related teaching and learning activities of the school in order to ensure quality teaching and learning. Du Plessis (2013:82) avers that a good principal's instructional leadership prevails only when he/she provides direction and instructional support to both teachers and learners with the aim to positively improve curriculum delivery in the classroom.

South African literature on effective management and leadership, however, shows that many serving principals lack the necessary skills to perform their leadership roles (Manaseh, 2016; Mestry, 2017; Linda, Nkadimene, Modiba & Molotja, 2019). Naidoo and Mestry (2019:264) argue that the training of most principals in South Africa has not been adequate to build management and leadership capacity, skills

and competencies to have an effect on the majority of schools. Naidoo and Mestry (2019:265) aver that to secure legitimacy in the eyes of the teachers, principals should have sufficient teaching experience and should understand from first-hand experience the instructional challenges teachers face.

Leadership is thus multifaceted and it is already clear that acting as instructional leaders, is a most challenging function of the principal. Questions which arise might focus on whether principals must now also operate in the classroom itself and should they become involved in the daily teaching and learning activities in one or more school subjects. The important issue arises here is that of direct and indirect instructional leadership which will be discussed in Chapter 2 (see 2.6 to 2.7).

What provision is made to empower and enable South African principals to optimise their roles as leaders in all its manifestations (management, instructional leadership, direct functions, indirect functions, etc.)? In this regard, the Department of Basic Education, implemented certain initiatives to empower principals to enhance the effectiveness of principals' leadership.

1.2.5   The Policy on the South African Standard for Principalship (PSASP)

As part of the background, it is also necessary to describe what has and is being done with regard to the empowerment of school principals' leadership competencies and skills. In South Africa there have been several initiatives which aimed at raising the value and level of school leadership and management as leadership is a critical lever for enhance the quality of learning and to increase levels of accountability within the education system. The Department of Basic Education (DBE) has set in motion a series of actions towards implementing policies in line with the recommendations of the National Development Plan (NDP). With the promulgation of the Education Laws Amendment Act (No. 31 of 2007), more accountability for school performance was placed in the hands of principals as legislation now required them to plan for academic improvements in schools and to report their progress against their school plans (RSA, 2007). One key initiative was the implementation of the "Policy on the South African Standard for Principalship" (PSASP) (DBE, 2015; Republic of South Africa, 2016).

On 18 March 2016, the DBE published the Government Gazette, No. 39827, setting out the core purposes of this policy. This policy outlines the four key elements which need to be considered, namely (1) the core aim and purpose of the policy, (2) the key values and ethics which should underpin all school programmes, (3) the key skills and knowledge which are required to ensure an effective school system and (4), the core personal and professional qualities or characteristics/attributes over which principals should possess to be able to function optimally as school principals (DBE, 2015:9; RSA, 2016:12).

To ensure optimal leadership, the DBE (2015:9 (see also RSA (2016:12) state that the following three questions "… should provide answers to the professional work of any principal, namely (1) Why does a school principal take a particular action? (2) What are the main functions of principalship? and (3), How are the main functions fulfilled effectively"? These questions then inform the so-called eight key areas of principalship which are closely linked and should not be seen in isolation as separate areas (DBE, 2015; RSA, 2016). These areas define the roles of a principal in any school context, focusing on the priorities of the South African schooling system and context. It thus becomes clear that the function of the principal as instructional leader falls within the sphere of these questions and dimensions and that these functions are all closely linked and dependent on each other.

Within each of the eight interdependent areas, typical actions that need to be undertaken are defined, as well as examples of the types of knowledge and skills required which should underpin these actions. The eight key areas of principalship are as follows:

1. Leading the teaching and learning in the school
2. Shaping the direction and development of the school
3. Managing quality of teaching and learning and securing accountability
4. Developing and empowering self, others and wellness of staff
5. Managing the school as an organisation
6. Managing the staff in the school
7. Management and advocacy of extra-mural activities
8. Working with and for the immediate school community, as well as the broader community (DBE, 2015; RSA, 2016).

Next follows a discussion of the aforementioned eight key areas of principalship.

1. *Leading the teaching and learning in the school*

The principal is required to lead and manage the school to enhance and ensure the quality of teaching and learning. They will be accountable to the Head of Education in that province. The Policy describes five types of leadership which principals need to demonstrate to ensure the quality of teaching and learning, namely: (1) strategic leadership; (2) executive leadership; (3) instructional leadership; (4) cultural leadership; and (5) organisational leadership. These leadership styles are closely linked and must not be seen as separate functions (DBE, 2015:10–12; RSA, 2016: 13-15). For the purpose of this study, the style of instructional leadership as described in the policy (DBE; 2015:11; RSA, 2016:14) will be discussed in more detail, not ignoring the close link with the other styles mentioned.

Instructional leadership, as described in the policy, covers a wide range of functions and areas of responsibility. It covers leadership to ensure a sound learning environment, ensuring that continual curriculum renewal and change is paid attention to, ensuring that learners are ready for a changing world by optimising the use of ICT in the school curriculum, making sure that learners are successful, disseminating and communicating the shared vison and mission of the school to ensure that all learners experience achievement and success, ensures functional curriculum structures in the school which is driven by relevant data and aligned with the national framework, enabling or empowering staff as instructional leaders, and lastly, identifying and developing instructional practices to enhance learner success and the involvement of educators in the implementation of these practices (see DBE, 2015:11; RSA, 2016:14 for more detail). Knowledge required to ensure effective teaching and learning, includes knowledge of management, teaching and learning, ICT in learning and how do you support human resources (see DBE, 2015:13–14 and RSA, 2016:16-17 for more detail).

To achieve success, in close conjunction with the requirements of the other leadership styles, the implementation of these wide range of functions, will be a challenge for principals. From the described requirement of instructional leadership, it is clear that these functions cover a wide variety and diverse aspects to ensure

quality and success, ranging from being a visionary leader, having the ability to involve and collaborate closely with staff, creating and sustaining a culture of learning in schools, ensuring that the school curriculum remains relevant with regard to the needs of society through continual curriculum renewal and ensuring learner success. It is already clear at this stage that one person cannot do everything and that collaboration will be required, without delegating his/her responsibility and accountability. The principal should thus, in collaboration with other roleplayers in the school, have a sound understanding of curriculum and what the required curriculum structures are.

In this regard, principals must ensure that they themselves are adequately supported in order to maximise teaching and learning, which are the core business of the school.

2. *Shaping the direction and development of the school*

For the principal to shape and mould the direction and development of the school, he/she should create and implement a shared vision and mission in collaboration with the SGB, the SMT and the parents which include not only the core values of the school and its community, but also the national values. It therefore becomes important for the principal to create and maintain harmonious relations with these stakeholders in order to successfully implement the mission and vision. According to the DBE (2015:18), it is also of critical importance that the principal, in collaboration with all stakeholders, successfully implement the predetermined school goals and vision by means of collaboration, effective planning, coordination and control to ensure quality teaching and learning in that school. Thus, to achieve the latter, the principal should see to it that these predetermined school goals are achieved.

Van Deventer and Kruger (2008:138) assert that the principal has the responsibility to strengthen interpersonal relations in the school to develop a shared vision and mission through mutual respect and trust. The required knowledge and actions (DBE, 2015:16; RSA, 2016:18) to lead the school, is once again of such a nature (knowledge of values, law, relevant legislation, building and developing a shared vision and mission, motivating people, how does one handle conflict) that it poses

challenges to the principal as instructional leader. At this stage the complexity becomes clear.

This key area of principalship practices is one of the most important areas of the principal's responsibility to motivate teachers to establish and sustain a shared purpose in their daily teaching and learning in the classroom. The more specific practices in this area include building a shared vision, fostering the acceptance of group goals and demonstrating high-performance expectations.

3. *Managing quality teaching and learning and securing accountability*

The principal in collaboration with his/her SMT and SGB must develop and sustain quality assurance systems, procedures and assessment practices (DBE, 2015:17; RSA, 2016:20–21). The DBE (2015:17) states that to promote these assessment practices, principals should, among others, adhere to the following aspects: Firstly, they must ensure that the IQMS process is conducted fairly during lesson observations. Secondly, they need to plan post-observation sessions with teachers to discuss the strengths and weaknesses that were identified during the lesson observations. Thirdly, they need to encourage teachers to attend development programmes offered by officials from the district office (e.g. Cape Winelands District Office) to address these strengths and weaknesses, thereby improving the quality of teaching and learning.

From the aforementioned it is clear that principals should be able to apply various strategies to ensure that quality assurance systems and procedures are in place to secure quality management and accountability in schools. Therefore, principals should become instructional leaders to improve teaching and learning, which is the core business of a school.

4. *Developing and empowering self, others and wellness of staff*

A key area of principalship involves the effective development of staff by the principal. According to the DBE (2015:20), it is the responsibility of the principal to arrange or facilitate various professional development, orientation and induction programmes to support and strengthen the instructional capacity of teachers. Besides these professional development programmes, principals need to consider

alternative empowerment strategies to enhance the instructional practices of staff. The principal may utilise empowerment strategies, such as mentoring and peer coaching, or strategies to support newly appointed and/or underperforming teachers to improve their instructional skills and knowledge (RSA, 2016:23). Linked to the aforementioned empowerment strategies, it is advisable that principals make use of knowledgeable and experienced teachers to share their expertise and model constructive remedial practices to improve teaching and learning.

From the aforementioned it is clear that by involving colleagues to support staff through various empowerment strategies, principals can promote leadership development among teachers. The specific practices included in this area of principalship are concerned with establishing work conditions which are conducive to a sound and positive culture of teaching and learning.

5. *Managing the school as an organisation*

It is important that the principal ensure a safe and secure learning environment for learners and teachers which are conducive for quality teaching and learning. Besides this, it is the also responsibility of the principal to manage the school funds and information effectively (RSA, 2016:19). The effective management of school funds by the principal, in collaboration with the SGB, should be guided by a school budget which was accepted by all stakeholders. There are, however, several ways in which the principal can support the SGB in securing and managing finances, for example through school fundraising efforts, by using funds to benefit learners, by annually auditing the school's bank accounts as prescribed by law and by implementing shared decision-making processes to solve problems (RSA, 2016:23).

6. *Managing the staff in the school*

The principal must ensure that the school has a competent and suitably qualified staff to deliver quality teaching and learning. According to the DBE (2015:21), the principal, in collaboration with his/her SGB, should follow the necessary departmental procedures make recommendations to the Department of Education (e.g. the WCED) to fill teaching posts for teachers and support staff on a permanent or temporary basis. It is also the responsibility of the principal to inform the teachers and support staff of the conditions of employment after being appointed successfully.

These employment conditions should be in line with sections 17 and 18 of the Employment of Educators Act (No. 76 of 1998).

The functions in this area of principalship can make a significant contribution to motivation, towards achieving their primary aim to building the knowledge and skills of teachers and other staff needs in order to accomplish organisational goals and ensure encourage positive dispositions (commitment, capacity and resilience) to persist in applying the knowledge and skills.

7. Management and advocacy of extra-mural activities

The principal, in leading and managing the school, should create an environment that nurtures the diversity of the needs and circumstances of its learners by also offering extramural activities (RSA, 2016:22). The principal should ensure that the school offers extramural activities (e.g. sport and cultural activities) to its learners, taking into account the school's context and socio-economic factors. In this instance, the principal, in collaboration with other stakeholders, encourage and support learners and teachers to participate in extramural activities. They also need to supervise the management of extramural activities by involving parents, ex-learners or other community members who may have an interest in the school. It is also advisable that the principal encourage community members to assist and support the school with the coaching of different sport codes and cultural activities.

The practices in this area of principalship may make a significant contribution to the holistic development of learners, i.e. their spiritual, physical, mental and social development.

8. Working with and for the immediate school community, as well as the broader community

It is important that the principal encourage parents to make them available to serve on the SGB. The main purpose of the SGB is to execute the performance of its functions in terms of the South African Schools Act. Concerning these functions, the principal should co-operate with all stakeholders, such as parents, teachers and learners (from grade 8 to 12 in a high school) and the SGB to maintain a smooth-running school (RSA, 2016:22). By involving all stakeholders through networking and partnerships, the principal can become more familiar with the socio-economic issues

the community, support teaching and learning programmes, support fundraising initiatives and liaise with relevant governmental departments (RSA, 2016:22).

It was necessary to discuss this Policy on the South African Standard for Principalship more extensively as it provides a valuable background against which one should understand the challenges principals as instructional leaders face. The complexity of the functions and roles required of principals is quite daunting. It is clear that the principal is expected to, firstly, effectively promote the delivery of quality teaching and learning in order to improve learner performance. Secondly, he/she has to create a safe, cultivating and caring learning environment to enable effective teaching and learning to occur. Thirdly, he/she has a fundamental responsibility to implement school plans and policies that can allow the school to translate its vision and mission into visible actions. Fourthly, it is mandatory for the principal to establish and strengthen communication between his/her staff and the community at large. Lastly, it is expected of the principal to provide purposeful leadership for the school in order to ensure that the school achieves its curriculum aims and objectives.

1.2.6 Supervision of teachers

Literature reports that if principals want to improve learner achievement in their schools, they should focus on the collective analysis of evidence of 'learner learning', rather than on the individual 'inspection of teaching' (DuFour & Mattos, 2013). Furthermore, literature reveals that supervision of teachers' performance is more effective when it is carried out for support purposes rather than for evaluative purposes (Bush, Joubert, Kiggundu & Van Rooyen, 2010). The formal IQMS currently employed in South African schools aims at evaluating teachers' performance and enhancing their development, including WSE (Heystek *et al*., 2008:143). They argue that the IQMS is not working as well in practice as was hoped for and that this can be attributed to: (1) people's natural resistance to change; (2) residual resistance from some labour unions; (3) bias and subjectivity of evaluators; (4) residual mistrust on the part of teachers being evaluated; (5) lack of understanding of the IQMS; (6) conflicting sets of management information related to feedback on teachers' evaluation and whole-school evaluation; and (7) stopping the

IQMS process at evaluation, and not progressing through the developmental phases (Heystek *et al.,* 2008:151).

Formal supervision of teachers' performance causes unnecessary stress, fear and anxiety on the part of the teacher and thereby impedes the development process (Mestry *et al.,* 2013:61). DuFour and Mattos (2013:34–40) argue that classroom observations can be meaningful and beneficial to some extent, but principals should not use them as their key strategy to improve teaching and learning. Literature suggests that there is no such thing as a universally effective teaching strategy; the effectiveness of any given strategy can only be determined by evidence of its effect on learner learning (DuFour & Marzano, 2011). However, DuFour and Mattos (2013:34) are of the opinion that the most powerful strategy for improving both teaching and learning is not by micromanaging instruction, but rather by also creating a culture of teamwork and collaboration, and by taking collective responsibility for professional learning communities (PLCs).

1.2.7 Promoting teachers' instructional capacity

Research has shown that principals who embrace PLCs, are more likely to share teaching practices, make results transparent, engage in critical conversations about improving instruction, take collective responsibility for learner learning and improve learner achievement and their own professional practice while simultaneously promoting shared leadership (Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu & Easton, 2010; Louis, Leithwood, Wahlstrom & Anderson, 2010; Louis & Wahlstrom, 2011).

However, principals' responsibility to promote the instructional capacity of teachers is viewed by many as being simply too complex and overwhelming a job for one leader, given the multiple indirect instructional issues that consume school leadership attention (Copland & Boatright, 2006; Barnett & Aagaard, 2007; Chrispeels, Burke, Johnson & Daly, 2008). According to MacBeath (2005:364) and Gronn (2006:29), these indirect instructional issues may involve shared decision-making activities such as planning, developing and evaluating school policies and taking co-ownership for the creation of school-improvement plans (SIPs), which occur in different departments, committees and teams at school. Given these challenges, McLaughlin and Talbert (2001:1) argue that it would be beneficial for principals to seek the assistance of other leaders to enhance the instructional capacities of the teachers

through distributive leadership. According to Spillane (2006:1), distributed leadership involves principals sharing certain leadership activities with multiple leaders at school level. Research shows that middle-level leaders, for instance HODs and subject heads, are pivotal to influence curriculum and instruction within their own departments as well as to promote ideas for school-wide improvement (Emmerson, Paterson, Southworth & West- Burnham, 2006).

The question is often asked whether one person has the capacity to do all the required instructional leadership tasks of a principal (Van Deventer & Kruger, 2008). As a possible solution these researchers suggest distributed leadership in order to empower other functionaries in the school such as subject heads, HODs and deputy principals to assist the principal with his/her instructional leadership tasks (Van Deventer & Kruger, 2008). By empowering these functionaries through distributed leadership would undoubtedly alleviate the burden of principals and enable them to focus on instructional leadership roles (Van Deventer & Kruger, 2008).

Taking the previous discussions (see 1.2.1 to 1.2.7) into consideration, one is confronted with the complexity of what is required of principals, as instructional leadership is only one of the many challenges they face.

1.2.8 A key concept in the study: The instructional leadership roles of principals

Instructional leadership as phenomenon will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 2, but a short discussion on instructional leadership follows to provide some context.

Literature indicates that many school principals lack the time for and an understanding of their instructional leadership roles (Robinson, 2010; Shelton, 2011). Dobbie and Fryer (2011:28) and Bush (2013:5) argue that principals should create conditions which are conducive to the improvement of teaching and learning. Linked to this argument, some researchers assert that principals should have both confidence and the necessary skills to engage in productive and respectful conversations with teachers about the quality of teaching and learning (Le Fevre & Robinson, 2015; Robinson, 2010). Moreover, Sinnema, Robinson, Le Fevre and Pope (2013:301–336) claim that effective instructional leaders address important concerns related to teacher and learner performances, such as teaching

approaches, learner assessments, and remedial programmes for weak learners and enrichment programmes for gifted learners.

Several studies on instructional leadership emphasise the importance of principals being effective instructional leaders. Van Deventer (2016) maintains that principals cannot become effective instructional leaders without having a clear and deep understanding of teaching, learning and assessment. Kiat, Tan, Heng and Lim-Ratnam (2017) are of the opinion that principals should be made to understand that instructional leadership is one of their pivotal instructional leadership functions and that their managerial tasks are subordinate.

From the reported literature, it is clear that the principal's instructional leadership role in leading the school towards improved teaching and learning is vast and also very challenging. Furthermore, it is also clear that instructional leadership demands high standards of academic excellence from principals by setting high expectations for learner success and having knowledge and experience of effective teaching or instructional strategies. It is also clear that the principal should not only to focus on his/her instructional leadership role, but fulfil this role in conjunction with the other seven competencies required by principals in South African schools (see 1.2.5).

1.2.9 Conclusion

From the reported literature it becomes evident that in most schools in South Africa, particularly in the formerly disadvantaged schools, learner performance is a matter of great concern. The reported literature reveals that the poor academic standards in South African schools could be as a result of a lack of effective leadership and management. To address these challenges, the government initiated the SBM approach in an effort to transfer the government's decision-making authority over school operations to principals, teachers, parents, learners and other community members. In addition, the reported literature suggests that there is limited evidence to show whether SBM has any effect on teaching and learning.

Further, the literature indicates that many South African principals lack the necessary skills to perform their leadership roles. To empower these principals with the required leadership skills, the Department of Education introduced the Advanced Certificate: Education in School Leadership and Management (ACE-SLM) in 2007. With the

introduction of the PSASP (2016), the DBE outlined eight qualities and competencies skills required by principals.

It is also clear that to improve learner performance, principals need to focus not only on their direct leadership functions, but also on their indirect roles such as supervising and promoting the instructional capacity of teachers (see Chapter 2 for detailed discussion). The supervision of teachers in South Africa schools occurs by way of the formal IQMS which aims at enhancing their professional development. The reported literature indicated that to promote the instructional capacity of teachers, principals should engage in productive interactions and collaboration with teachers to advance the quality of teaching and learning. It seems to be impossible for principals to execute all these leadership roles by themselves, and they therefore need the assistance of staff members, such as the SMT, HODs and teachers in this regard.

Finally, the reported literature indicates that instructional leadership is an important issue in education that warrants further investigation. This investigation gave rise to the research problem which will be discussed in the next section, Section 1.3.

1.3 THE RESEARCH PROBLEM

From the extensive background provided to highlight the South African context, South African school principals are continually faced with more demands and additional responsibilities than ever before. As mentioned in 1.2, the policy regarding the standard for principalship (DBE, 2015; RSA, 2016), underpin key areas for effective principalship. Mention was made of the eight different types of leadership of which instructional leadership is one. The challenge for principals is to fulfil the role as instructional leaders, whilst not neglecting the seven other types of leadership.

It is within this complex context, where principals must optimise their function as instructional leaders. If instructional leadership is to be successful in a school, principals must have some degree of competence, knowledge and experience in the implementation of instructional leadership. How do principals experience their roles as instructional leaders? The problem comes to the fore that principals have very

multi-faceted responsibilities within the context of school. What are their actual experiences and views within this complex context?

The problem that was thus investigated was: How do the primary school principals in previously disadvantaged communities in the Western Cape who were selected to participate in the study, experience their roles as instructional leaders and what are their lived experiences?

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTION AND SUB-QUESTIONS

1.4.1 Primary research question and sub-questions

From the problem statement outlined in Section 1.3, the research question which guided this study, was: "What are primary school principals' lived experiences of their roles as instructional leaders?" To answer this primary research question, the following sub-questions acted as guidance:

1. What does the national and international literature report on the instructional leadership roles and functions of school principals?

2. How do the selected principals perceive the nature and essence of instructional leadership in their schools?

3. How do the selected principals experience the different dimensions of instructional leadership in their schools?

4. How do the historical backgrounds and socio-economic conditions of the selected principals' schools impact on instructional leadership?

5. What recommendations can the selected principals make in order to successfully implement instructional leadership in their respective schools?

1.5 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The primary aim of the study was to explore how principals experience their roles as instructional leaders in their professional lives. To achieve the primary aim of the study, the following objectives were set. The researcher wanted to:

1. Do a literature study as a theoretical underpinning for the study on the relevant national and international literature with regard to the South African school system in a pre- and post-1994 era, school-based management, link between leadership and learning, policies guiding the role of principals, leadership and teacher support, as well as instructional leadership.

2. Understand the nature and essence of instructional leadership as perceived by the participating principals.

3. Describe the lived experience of the selected participating principals of instructional leadership.

4. Identify and explain the contextual factors from the literature study and the investigation which impact on the instructional leadership of the selected principals.

5. Make recommendations for the improvement of policy and practice based on the findings from the literature and the empirical study.

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology will be discussed more extensively in Chapter 3, but it is necessary to provide some key information of the research methodology followed in the study.

1.6.1 Research design

Creswell (2013) is in agreement with Denzin and Lincoln (2011) that there is no fixed structure of research design. Furthermore, literature suggests that research designs comprise the following four characteristics: (1) they centre on a specific problem or

set of problems that are regarded as particularly significant in relation to the advancement of knowledge; (2) they are about shared practice appropriate for investigating that issue; (3) they involve a sense of shared identity based to some extent on the specialist area of research; and (4) they operate through groups of practitioners operating in research communities (Denscombe, 2008; Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). In this study, I adopted Grix's (2004) view of a research design. According to this view, research designs are based on ontology, epistemology, methodology and method (Grix, 2004:175). In addition, Grix (2004:176) argues that ontology and epistemology can be considered the foundations upon which research is built, while methodology and methods are closely connected to one's ontological and epistemological assumptions.

Therefore, the reasons why I have chosen Grix's view of a research design were to: (1) understand the interrelatedness between methodology and method; and (2) avoid confusion when discussing theoretical debates and approaches to the instructional leadership role of principals.

1.6.2 Research method

I used a qualitative research method with elements of a phenomenological approach to collect data. A discussion of these research approaches follows.

1.6.2.1 Qualitative research

The qualitative research approach was selected as it is the most applicable approach to employ in collecting relevant data to answer the research question of this study satisfactorily. Literature indicates that qualitative research comprises the following characteristics: (1) its audiences are receptive to qualitative research; (2) it pursues answering the 'what' and 'how' questions to try and get a deeper understanding of an observed phenomenon; and (3) it requires sufficient time and resources to spend on extensive data collection in the field and detailed data analysis (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005; 2011; Creswell, 2009; 2013).

De Vos *et al.* (2011:74) posit that qualitative research elicits accounts of participants' experiences or perceptions through close interviews with a small, purposeful sample, with the researcher trying to uncover their beliefs and values that underlie the phenomenon being studied. In this study I employed phenomenological interviews to

describe the lived experiences of five primary school principals about their roles as instructional leaders. I ensured that voluntary consent forms were signed by the participants immediately before the commencement of the individual interviews and employed semi-structured research questions using an interview schedule during the phenomenological interviews with participants. The duration of the phenomenological interviews with the participants and the data analysis was four weeks.

1.6.2.2 Phenomenological research

There are a number of principles and processes that comprise the characteristics of phenomenological research. Moustakas (1994:46–47) posits that phenomenological research: (1) focuses on a return to things just as they are given and removed from everyday routines and biases; (2) is concerned with examining entities from many sides, angles and perspectives until a unified vision of the essences of a phenomenon or experience is achieved; (3) seeks meanings from appearances and arrives at essences through intuition and reflection on conscious acts of experience, leading to ideas, concepts, judgements and understandings; (4) is committed to descriptions of experiences, not explanations or analyses; (5) is rooted in questions that give account for our passionate involvement with whatever is being experienced; (6) shows that every perception begins with the researcher's own sense of what an issue, object or experience is and means; (7) focuses on how the experience or act interrelates to make the objective subjective and the subjective objective; and (8) comprises the data of experience, the researcher's own thinking, intuiting, reflecting and judging are regarded as the primary evidences of scientific investigation.

1.6.3 Data collection

For the purpose of this study, I mainly employed phenomenological interviews as a data-collection method to describe the lived experiences of primary school principals of their roles as instructional leaders. Researchers who use the phenomenological approach attempt to understand the meaning of events and interactions of ordinary people in particular situations (Bogdan & Biklen, 2003:23). From the phenomenological interviews, I captured personal experiences and drew out rich descriptions and deep meaning from my participants as they described the nature of their roles as instructional leaders. Prior to the commencement of the

phenomenological interviews, I used an interview schedule to confirm the time, date and location of the interviews with the participants (see Appendix C).

Researchers recommend completing an informed consent form immediately after establishing the research procedures, but before data collection begin (Rudestam & Newton, 2001). The elements of the informed consent form were as follows: (1) who is conducting the study; (2) why the participants were chosen; (3) the purpose of the study; (4) time commitment; (5) the benefits to be expected; (6) potential risks and how they will be managed; (7) the voluntary nature of the study; and (8) confidentiality, debriefing, contacts and questions (see Appendix D for a copy of the consent letter).

I met each participant at their school at the agreed-upon time for the initial 45- to 60-minute open-ended interview to explain the purpose, procedures, risks and benefits of the study, and to confirm confidentiality as outlined in the informed consent form. I orally discussed the informed consent form with each participant separately to ensure that they understood the process and what they were agreeing to. Following this explanation, each participant was asked to sign the consent form to demonstrate that they fully understood the process and purpose of the study. A copy of the signed informed consent form was also provided to the participants for their records. All interviews were recorded on a digital recorder in order to capture verbatim language.

To ensure quality and accuracy and that the entire analysis process was transparent, I approached a language practitioner to assist me with transcribing the digital recordings. The participants were provided with a copy of the transcript to verify the accuracy of their responses. A follow-up visit was made to the participants, during which they could raise any concerns they might have, make corrections or ask questions. All collected data were stored and managed in a locked safe in my home office. In addition, audio recordings and their transcripts were saved on a secure password-protected computer and backed up on a secure external hard drive. Only my dissertation supervisors and I had access to the data.

1.6.4   Data analysis

For the purpose of this study, I analysed the transcribed phenomenological interview data according to a set of rigorous steps discussed by Moustakas (1994:120–121)

and suggested by Creswell (2013:193–194), in order to capture the essence of principals' lived experiences of instructional leadership.

Table 1.1 summarises the data analysis and presentation of the phenomenological research method.

Table 1.1: Summary of the data analysis and presentation of the phenomenological research method

Data analysis and presentation	Phenomenological research method
Data organisation	Create and organise files for data
Reading	Read through text, make margin notes and form initial codes.
Transcribing the data into codes and themes	Describe personal experiences through bracketing and the essence of the phenomenon.
Classifying the data into codes and themes	Develop significant statements and group statements in meaning units.
Interpreting the data	Develop a textural description of "what" happened; develop a structural description, "how" the phenomenon was experienced; and develop the "essence".
Representing and visualising the data	Present narration of the "essence" in tables, figures or discussion.

(Adapted from Creswell, 2013:190–191)

In addition, I employed the ATLAS.ti qualitative data analysis (QDA) programme to identify emerging themes (see 3.6.1). The ATLAS.ti QDA programme provides a very useful tool in academic research, particularly for social science disciplines (Flick, 2014; Friese, 2014). Friese (2014:1) argues that the ATLAS.ti QDA programme does not actually automatically analyse data; it is simply a tool for supporting the process of QDA.

As the sole researcher, it is essential to actively include validity strategies, as suggested by Creswell (2013:250). I employed six validity strategies, such as trustworthiness, peer reviewing, member checking, audit trail, triangulation and writing a rich, thick description of the data to convey the findings (see 3.7.1 to 3.7.6 in Chapter 3).

1.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Since the selected schools are registered with the WCED, it was necessary to obtain written consent from the WCED (see Appendix A). It was also necessary to obtain ethical clearance for the study from the Research Ethics Committee (Human Research) of Stellenbosch University before the commencement of the interview process with the selected participants (see clearance certificate with reference number SU-HSD-001910 in Appendix B). Prior to the interviews with the participants, they were verbally informed of the aims and objectives of the study (Flick, 2014:37). Various researchers argue that ethical guidelines emphasise the importance of informed consent from research participants (Creswell, 2009:238; Flick, 2014:37).

In addition, individual confidentiality was upheld by using an interview schedule (see Appendix C) and codes and by using pseudonyms for the schools and participants, not only in this dissertation, but also in any publication which may flow from the study. Furthermore, the informed consent forms were signed voluntary by the participants immediately before the individual interviews (see Appendix D). As participation was voluntary, the participants could withdraw at any stage after the study had commenced.

1.8 STRUCTURE OF THE DISSERTATION

Chapter 1: Orientation to the study

This chapter provided a discussion of the background for the research and a clarification of the research problem, research question, aim, research methodology (design and method), ethical considerations and rationale for and assumptions of the study.

Chapter 2: Literature review of instructional leadership

This chapter provides an exploration of relevant literature. Aspects such as definitions, a conceptual framework, overview of instructional leadership in the pre-1994 era, evolvement of instructional leadership, South African perspectives of instructional leadership in the post-1994 era and the direct and indirect roles of principals are discussed in this chapter.

Chapter 3: Research methodology

In Chapter 3, a discussion is provided of the research design and method that were followed to investigate the research problem.

Chapter 4: Findings and discussions

Chapter 4 comprises a presentation of the findings and discussions based on the data that were generated and analysed in the study.

Chapter 5: Overview, conclusions and recommendations

In Chapter 5, the overview, conclusions and recommendations that the reported findings may have for theory, policy and practice are discussed.

1.9 SUMMARY

Chapter 1 included a discussion of the background to the study, the research problem, the research question, research design and method, ethical considerations, and the structure of the dissertation.

It is clear that the South African government viewed the introduction of the SBM approach as an important initiative to transfer the decision-making autonomy from the SGB to other role players such as principals, HODs, subject heads, SMTs and teachers. The reported literature in Chapter 1 has shown that SBM demands a new professionalism from principals because it challenges their views of the concept 'principalship'.The DBE outlined the qualities and competencies required by principals for the academic improvement of schools in the PSASP (RSA, 2016). This policy focuses strongly on the mentioned eight key areas of principalship (see 1.2).

It is clear that principals are challenged to assume multifaceted roles as leaders in their schools, amongst others as instructional leaders. Principals as instructional leaders play a key role in creating an environment conducive to teaching and learning in order for the learners to achieve and to produce better results.

Chapter 2 provides an exploration and discussion of relevant literature. Aspects such as definitions, international perspectives of the instructional leadership roles of principals, South African perspectives of the instructional leadership of principals in

the pre-1994 and post-1994 eras, the possible direct and indirect instructional leadership roles of principals and a conceptual framework for instructional leadership form part of the whole scope of the study.

CHAPTER 2
LITERATURE REVIEW OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 2 provides a discussion of relevant literature on instructional leadership (see Objective 1 on p. 22). Seven relevant aspects, namely, definitions, international perspectives of the instructional leadership roles of principals, South African perspectives of the instructional leadership roles of principals in the pre-1994 and post-1994 eras, the possible direct and indirect leadership roles of principals and a conceptual framework for this study, will be discussed.

2.2 DEFINING KEY TERMINOLOGY

It is fundamental, at this stage, to define and describe key terms as they are used in this study. These key terms are management, instructional leadership, distributed leadership, curriculum leadership and lastly, what direct and indirect leadership of principals entails.

2.2.1 Management

As early as 1996, the Report of the Task Team on Education Management Development (DoE, 1996:27) stresses that management is important because it provides a supportive framework for teaching and learning:

> Management in education is not an end in itself. Good management is an essential aspect of any education service, but its central goal is the promotion of effective teaching and learning [...] The task of management at all levels in the education service is ultimately the creation and support of conditions under which teachers and their students are able to achieve learning [...] The extent to which effective learning is achieved therefore becomes the criterion against which the quality of management is to be judged.

Leithwood (2011) asserts that most approaches to management assume that the behaviour of organisational members is largely rational and that authority and influence are allocated to formal positions (e.g. principals and deputy principals) in proportion to the status of those positions in the organisational hierarchy. There is ample research in South Africa to suggest that good management is essential for the

functioning of schools (Fleisch & Christie, 2004; Roberts & Roach, 2006; Christie, 2010b). The latter research confirms that if schools are not competently managed, the primary task of the school, which is teaching and learning, is likely to be negatively affected.

Mullins (2010:425) avers that management is a generic term that is open to various interpretations. However, at a basic level, management is an active function that is about "making things happen through working with people and developing them towards objectives and desired results". Smit, Cronje, Brevis and Vrba (2011) define management as the planning, organising, leading and controlling of people and resources towards reaching the mission and objectives of the organisation. Furthermore, Kelley and Dikkers (2016:392–422) assert that instructional leadership and management are not in opposition to each other, but are integrated processes which aim to improve teaching and learning.

For the purpose of this study, it is clear that management cannot be seen as a separate function from instructional leadership, but that there is a very close link between the two because instructional leadership cannot be optimised without sound management.

2.2.2 Instructional leadership

Leithwood (2011) identifies instructional leadership as that process which "assumes that the critical focus for attention by leaders is the behaviour of teachers as they engage in activities directly affecting the growth of students". Leithwood (2011) further classifies the concept on instructional leadership into a narrow and a broad field. He defines the narrow view of instructional leadership as those actions that are directly related to teaching and learning, e.g. defining school mission, managing the instructional programmme and promoting the school climate. Bush *et al.* (2010) assert that the broader view of instructional leadership focuses on all leadership activities that affect teaching and learning. In addition, Bush *et al.* (2010) claim that instructional leadership is the ability of principals to involve their staff collaboratively in learning and development, with the central purpose of improving teaching and learning.

Mestry (2013:120) defines instructional leadership as "those actions that the principal takes, or delegates to others, to promote growth in students' learning". Mestry (2013:120) explains that "in a practical perspective, instructional leadership means that the principal ensures educational achievement by making instructional quality the top priority of the school". This is further supported by Day, Gu and Sammons (2016:251), who conclude that principals' instructional leadership is "necessary for success" and an essential "contributor to improved teaching". Kaparou and Bush (2016:899) further assert that instructional leadership "involves several leadership activities that create an effective principal-teacher interaction with the intention to improve the quality of teaching and learning". Similarly, Onuma (2016) argues that the principal has the primary functions of exhibiting effective instructional leadership practices for the improvement of a diversified curriculum and quality of instructional programmes for the effective attainment of set school goals. Ahmed (2016) adds that instructional leadership practices of principals are directly linked to creating the conditions for optimal teaching and learning.

In this study, instructional leadership thus implies that the focus of the principal is to, in collaboration with other key roleplayers, promote teaching and learning in the execution of their direct and indirect instructional leadership roles. Instructional leadership is not only closely linked to management, but the notion of distributed leadership also comes into play.

2.2.3   Distributed leadership

Middlewood, Parker and Beere (2005:44) argue that it is only through distributed leadership, that schools will be able to create and sustain the capacity to maintain developmental work and achieve and maintain long-term improvement. The central premise of distributed leadership is that all the management activities and processes are spread or distributed throughout the organisation. Distributed leadership is not restricted to only those in top leadership, such as the traditional 'leader-follower' dualism in which leaders lead 'followers' who are somewhat passive and subservient (Bolden, 2011), but it involves the active participation of multiple individuals, i.e. school management teams (SMTs) who are involved in final decisions. These SMTs are thus not just there to provide advice, but they have the right to collaboratively contribute to the making of final decisions (Somech, 2010). What is of particular

importance in the case of schools and the teachers is that a key element of distributed leadership is instructional leadership. Wadesango (2011) explains, in this regard, that SMTs are direct custodians of the curriculum implementation process and that it is therefore the correct place where their expertise must be used.

In larger schools (between 800 and 1000 learners in the South African school context), it is clear that the principal cannot be the only person involved in monitoring and developing the school's instructional programme. Teachers understand instructional-related issues and work processes better than administrators or policy-makers; their participation ensures that better information will be available for making decisions to facilitate improved learner performance (Williams, 2011). In this way, an internal network of teacher-led teams, performing specific tasks but interacting with one another to achieve common goals, can be set up (Marishane & Botha, 2012).

It is clear that sound and effective instructional leadership, requires a fine balance between distributed and instructional leadership responsibilities whilst still maintaining accountability and responsibility.

2.2.4 Curriculum leadership

Very closely linked to instructional leadership, is the notion of curriculum leadership. One will often find that the border between instructional and curriculum leadership, can become blurred because of this close link. Glatthorn and Jailall (2009:36) claim that the term 'curriculum leadership' refers to those functions that enable the schools to achieve their goal of ensuring 'what' learners learn. Linked to this claim, Glatthorn and Jailall (2009:37) argue that curriculum leadership emphasises functions and not roles. These authors argue that whereas the role of the principal has been emphasised as the 'curriculum leader', deputy principals, heads of department, subject heads and teachers all have important roles to play in achieving quality teaching and learning (Glatthorn & Jailall, 2009:37). In addition, Glatthorn and Jailall (2009:37) argue that curriculum leadership emphasises those processes that ensure that individuals achieve their goals by providing quality content during classroom instruction. Thus, from the aforementioned, it is clear that although there seems to be a distinction between 'what is learnt' (curriculum leadership) and 'how content is

taught' (instructional leadership), there is also an overlapping between the latter two concepts.

The findings of a study on curriculum leadership in Nigeria by Olibie and Akudolu (2013:95–102) indicate that principals as curriculum leaders execute five actions, namely: (1) planning with teachers to implement pilot curriculum materials; (2) communicating clear visions and goals for instructional innovations; (3) giving sufficient support to staff initiatives and self-discovery on curriculum changes; (4) implementing strategies for improved learner performance alongside staff; and (5) conducting regular classroom supervision to identify key principles and concepts that teachers need to learn as part of a core curriculum in any subject domain.

It is also clear that some of these functions are more direct in nature, whilst others are more indirect.

In this study, I will use an adaptation of Hallinger's (2008) conceptual framework (see 2.8.1 to 2.8.2 in Chapter 2) to investigate the notion of possible direct and indirect leadership roles of principals. The elements of Hallinger's (2008) conceptual framework are also relevant to the South African context and forms part of a proposed conceptual framework of instructional leadership for the study (see Figure 2.2 on p.75).

2.2.5 Direct and indirect leadership roles of principals

Although the source may seem dated, the contribution by Carl is still relevant as he had described as early as 1986, the possible direct and indirect leadership roles of the principal in educational leadership, a broader concept than instructional leadership (see Carl, 1986:130–184). The distinction he makes between these two types, is still of value today.

To optimise instructional leadership, principals should play a role with regard to not only curriculum change, but also the empowerment other key roleplayers (like subject heads, deputy principals, etc.) to fulfil their potential as instructional leaders. Carl (1986:157–174) describes how principals as instructional leaders can fulfil both direct and indirect functions at various curriculum levels, not only in the classroom,

but also with regard to the general school curriculum, syllabus development and more comprehensive subject curriculum development.

Bendikson, Robinson and Hattie (2012:4) also make a distinction between the possible direct and indirect roles of the principal. They assert that the direct instructional leadership role of the principal focuses on the quality of teacher practice, including the quality of the curriculum, teaching and assessment, and the quality of teacher inquiry and teacher learning. These authors claim that when the principal assumes his/her indirect instructional leadership role, he/she creates the conditions for good teaching and teacher learning by ensuring that school policies, routines, resourcing and other management decisions support high-quality teaching and learning (Bendikson *et al.*, 2012:4).

The aforementioned direct and indirect leadership roles of the principal will be discussed more comprehensively in the Chapter 2 (see 2.6 to 2.7).

From the reported literature, the complexity of leadership and management in schools become clear. One realises how challenging it is to integrate the three key dimensions of instructional leadership, namely: (1) defining the school mission; (2) managing the instructional programme; and (3) promoting the school climate, mentioned in Sections 2.6.1 to 2.7.3 in the practices of running schools and enabling coherence that links substance to process and deeper values to the daily tasks of principals. One constantly has to be reminded that each of the described concepts cannot be separated into boxes, as the border between these functions is often blurred and not always so clearly distinguishable.

As the main focus of this study is on the principal as instructional leader, international perspectives on the principal's instructional leadership roles will be discussed in Section 2.3.

2.3 INTERNATIONAL PERSPECTIVES ON THE INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP ROLES OF PRINCIPALS

Instructional leadership, which is primarily rooted in the USA, has a long history of providing evidence on how to enhance learner achievement. In fact, scholars (Robinson, Lloyd & Rowe, 2008; Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu and Easton,

2010; Hallinger & Murphy, 2013) claim that instructional leadership has been the most enduring leadership approach in the past 30 years. The term 'instructional leadership' originated in North America but in England it is referred to as 'leadership for learning' (Bush, 2013:17). In the USA instructional leadership focuses on classroom teaching and learning, while in the UK leadership for learning focuses on classroom learning (Motilal, 2014:27).

Different scholars and researchers conceptualise instructional leadership differently and some call it 'curriculum leadership'. Once again, the fine line between these two leadership approaches is accentuated. Mullen (2008:137) conceptualises instructional leadership as the "jurisdiction of the principal" and one "who knows curriculum management and the change processes for the whole school" (Mullen, 2008:23). Literature suggests that instructional leadership:

- affects conditions that create positive learning environments for learners (Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Louis *et al.*, 2010; Kajee, 2011);
- employs improvement strategies that are matched to the changing state of the school over time (Swart & Phasha, 2011; Ferrer, 2012); and
- supports ongoing professional learning of staff, which, in turn, facilitates efforts of schools to undertake, implement and sustain change (Bottoms & Schmidt-Davis, 2010; Xiao Jun, 2014).

Some researchers argue that a new interest in instructional leadership has emerged in the past decade, lauding the importance of instructional leadership as a means of fostering sustainable teaching and learning in schools (Biancarosa, Bryk & Dexter, 2010; Calik, Sezgin, Kavgaci & Cagatay Kilinic, 2012; Russell, 2015; Hallinger, Dongyu & Wang, 2016). Hallinger *et al.* (2016) note that traditional instructional leadership fostered teaching and learning aspects of school leadership with an emphasis on a directive where principals mentor teachers and visit classrooms. In addition, literature suggests that increased accountability has done little to change the structure of principals' daily work routines to allow them the time for instruction; demands to manage the school facilities and budgets have continued, despite the increased pressure to add to instructional leadership (Early, 2013; Oumer, 2014; Bottery, 2016).

Jita and Mokhele (2014:123–135) argue that while newly appointed principals may enter the principalship with the ability to lead and may have some knowledge about their instructional role, a question may exist around the issue of their capacity to lead an instructional programme. There are multiple reasons why the ability (or lack thereof) of a principal to lead instruction could be problematic. Regardless of leadership abilities and skill sets, there is some likelihood that a new principal's body of knowledge might be limited to certain subject disciplines, and pedagogical knowledge will therefore not be at a peak level (Mavuso, 2013). Ability and capacity can affect how principals perform and how they approach their instructional leadership functions. Jita and Mokhele (2014:123) speak to the in-depth knowledge principals require to perform effectively as instructional leaders. To strengthen the leadership influence on learning, instructional leadership practices should focus on developing teachers' knowledge of the curriculum, including teaching and learning (Moorosi & Bantwini, 2016).

Shatzer, Caldarella, Hallam and Brown (2013:445–449) advocate four instructional leadership dimensions which impact on learner achievement. These are: monitoring learner progress, protecting instructional time, providing incentives for learning, and lastly, providing incentives for teachers depending on good performance. These four dimensions intend to address the following capabilities or skills of principals: meeting with teachers to discuss learners' needs; discussing performance results with teachers and learners; limiting possible interruptions of classroom instruction; encouraging teachers to use classroom time effectively; recognising learners who exhibit academic excellence; providing clear expectations and appropriate rewards for teachers; and providing recognition at assemblies, office visits, and in communications to parents (Shatzer *et al.*, 2013:450-459). These authors (Shatzer *et al.*, 2013) argue that instructional leaders need to provide structures, a culture, policies and standard operating procedures, both within the school and at system level, that contribute to positive working conditions.

Moreover, Wing (2013:274) avers that the instructional leader should create a shared sense of purpose in the school, nurture continuous improvement through school development planning, develop a school culture aimed at innovation and the improvement of teaching and learning, coordinate the curriculum and monitor

teacher performance. Hallinger and Murphy (2013:7) note that instructional leadership is an influence process through which leaders identify a direction for the school, motivate staff and coordinate school- and classroom-based strategies aimed at improvements in teaching and learning. While the principal is likely to be the core instructional leader within a school, there are obstacles like accountability expectations that make leadership difficult (Neumerski, 2013). Some researchers suggest that with the accountability era came expectations that principals would drive the improvement of teaching and learning in struggling schools. Many principals, however, remained unprepared to meet these demands due to few developmental opportunities to assist them in learning to lead for improvement (Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Murphy, 2013).

Literature indicates that effective principals should be involved in both management and leadership tasks and focus on instruction, because they know that this focus can impact positively on learners the most (Ärlestig & Törnsen, 2014; Murphy & Torre, 2014; Jacobs, Burns & Yendol-Hoppey, 2015; Klar, Huggins & Roessler, 2016; Louis, Murphy & Smylie, 2016). The requirement for principals to assume responsibility for instructional leadership has been spreading across educational systems throughout the world (Kaparou & Bush 2016; Park & Ham, 2016). Linked to this requirement, Ross and Cozzens (2016:162) argue that effective principals are committed to and knowledgeable about effective teaching and learning practices. Day *et al.* (2016:221) add that without effective instructional leadership, increased academic performance cannot be realised. Pietsch and Tulowitzi (2017:629) maintain that improved learner performance and the development of a positive school climate are indicators of effective instructional leadership by principals.

From the abovementioned, it is evident that internationally the role of principals has evolved into one that is multi-dimensional, as there is now a focus on both management and instructional leadership as a more coherent approach to enable them to fulfil their instructional leadership roles in practice. Realistically speaking, principals, as instructional leaders, cannot fulfil all these instructional leadership functions alone, but it should be done collaboratively. They need other roleplayers such as subject heads, HODs and deputy principals to support them in this regard or to take over some of these roles.

In the next section, Section 2.4, follows a description of a South African perspective on possible instructional leadership roles of principals in both the pre-1994 (Section 2.4.1) and the post-1994 eras (Section 2.4.2).

2.4 SOUTH AFRICAN PERSPECTIVES ON THE INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP ROLES OF PRINCIPALS

2.4.1 South African perspectives of the instructional leadership roles of principals in the pre-1994 era

In the light of 2.3 (international perspective), it is also necessary to reflect on how instructional leadership has evolved in South Africa. Before 1994, the South African education system was characterised by hierarchical and authoritarian relations, which were often visible at school level where most of the power was vested in the school principal (Modisaotsile, 2012:5). According to Govender (2013:1), the leadership style of the pre-1994 era was mostly characterised by rigidity and bureaucracy as a means to maintain control over teachers and school activities. This situation often prevented South African teachers from developing their potential as effective school leaders. The situation was worsened by the fact that newly appointed school principals were generally not prepared for the role of instructional leadership. The lack of stringent criteria and the absence of a qualification for the appointment of principals have resulted in many principals under-performing in their leadership and management roles (Govender 2013:1).

The organisational structure in many previously disadvantaged schools in South Africa prior to 1994 remained bureaucratic, with rigid school procedures, policies, processes, regulations and rules. The principals lacked visibility and their criticism was negatively received, thus affecting educators' performance and resulting in a negative impact on the culture of teaching and learning. Furthermore, the Centre for Development and Enterprise (2010:4) claims that due to the legacy of apartheid, many teachers in South Africa had poor content knowledge, which resulted in the country urgently needing more and better teachers to improve teaching and learning. Relationships between principals, teachers, learners and parents were characterised by a lack of respect, mistrust, conflict, dissatisfaction, isolation, poor communication and little or no cooperation and support (Steyn, 2013:277).

Wadesango and Bayaga (2013:209) posit that the struggle that the new democratic South Africa faced after 1994 was to overcome the legacy of the pre-1994 apartheid era, the segregationist social and education policies, which over many decades had manifested themselves in discriminatory laws and practices. In this regard, Wadesango and Bayaga (2013:210) argue:

> In South Africa, history has itself always been a site of political struggle, an effect multiplied by the fact that the country has often seemed like a vast social science experiment, a theatre in which much of the rest of the world finds echoes of its struggles.

Severe underfunding, high pupil-teacher ratios, a lack of basic learning resources, underqualified teachers and inadequate infrastructure epitomised South African black rural and township schools. Fleisch (2014:1) argues that many of these schools were dysfunctional and the principals lacked legitimacy, as well as authority, and were unable to influence the daily operations of the school. They were unable to build a vision to harness the leadership that existed among learners and staff towards the goals of the school, with the effect that learners and staff often worked against principals' authority, leading to the collapse of teaching and learning (Fleish, 2014:2).

The training and development available to principals during the apartheid era was inadequate, and principals were often appointed to the role without any preparation, having to rely on experience, common sense and character (Moloi, van der Walt, Potgieter & Wolhuter, 2015:260). Mestry (2017:1) concur that due to the legacy of apartheid, many principals lacked the relevant knowledge and skills to lead their schools effectively and this shortcoming has had serious implications for learner performance.

The role of principals in South Africa prior to 1994 was that of a manager or administrator. They carried out more managerial and administrative tasks and fewer instructional duties. Principals were implementers of official decisions and policy, rather than roleplayers in teaching and learning, which should be the core business of a school (Moloi *et al.*, 2019).

From the reported literature, it is clear that relating to the context of the development of leadership and management in South African schools in the pre-1994 era, principals faced numerous challenges in transforming education from the segregated and divisive legacy of its apartheid past to an equitable and inclusive education dispensation. These challenges required skilled principals who were expected to lead the transformation without specific and extended training.

From the reported literature, it becomes evident that many principals in South Africa lacked the relevant knowledge and skills in 1994 to lead their schools as instructional leaders for improved learner performance. In addition, the abovementioned indicates that during the pre-1994 era, most South African teachers were effectively prevented from fulfilling meaningful roles as leaders at school level.

Next follows an overview of instructional leadership in South Africa in the post-1994 era.

2.4.2 South African perspectives of the instructional leadership roles of principals in the post-1994 era

The role of the principal, as instructional leader, should be considered with the context of broader educational changes, e.g. the structure of the new education system, the design and implementation of the new national curriculum in the post-1994 era. Ngcobo and Tikly (2010) posit that the post-1994 South African government instigated wide-ranging initiatives to transform education from its apartheid past, including greater access to education for all; efforts to reinstate a culture of teaching and learning in schools; a new, more equitable basis for school finance including an index of need and efforts to rationalise and redeploy staff; and wide-ranging curriculum reform. It is within the post 1994-context that one should also view the leadership functions of principals.

The education management and leadership landscape experienced huge shifts in the post-apartheid period since 1994 (Hoadley, Christie & Ward, 2009). New education policies, changes in curriculum, dismantling of apartheid practices (unequal education for different race groups and the merging of public education systems), acceptance of students from all race groups into public and private schools, use of distorted school funding models and the reclassification of public

schools according to quintiles brought about massive reorganisation within the schooling system. This meant that principals were entrusted with new roles and responsibilities, making them largely accountable for student outcomes and overall school improvement (Christie, 2008; Fleisch & Christie, 2004). Most importantly, the landscape of change necessitated that the National Department of Education be given the responsibility for developing norms and standards, frameworks and national policies for the education system as a whole (Christie, 2008). Educational reform in South Africa (Heystek, 2007; Naicker, 2011) led to wide-scale devolution of power and authority to school principals and school governing bodies. Changes in the new system of governance in schools have, unfortunately, resulted in principals being unprepared for their new role. Perhaps one of the major changes in principalship has been the range of expectations placed on them and these expectations have been moved from the demands for management and control to the demand for an educational leader who can improve the academic performance of students and raise educational standards (Mestry & Singh, 2007).

In this regard the "Policy on the South African Standard for Principalship" (PSASP) (DBE, 2015) should also be mentioned (see 1.2.5 for detailed discussion) as it is within this policy, that the multifaced nature of leadership approaches and challenges are appropriate. This policy has been instrumental in highlighting the leadership functions principals must demonstrate to ensure quality education.

Naidoo and Petersen (2015) argue that school principals influence learning to improve learner results through motivation, commitment and capability and by enhancing teaching and learning activities at schools. They further emphasise that one of the major functions and responsibilities of a school principal is to improve and facilitate efficient and effective curriculum implementation by securing adequate and appropriate financial and material resources for the school to meet learners' needs. Instructional leadership is significant because of increasing recognition that it is one of the most important activities for principals and other school leaders (Bush, 2013). The PSASP (DBE, 2015), for example, sets out the core purpose of principalship and it focusses strongly on the need to manage teaching and learning effectively to ensure the promotion of the highest possible standards of learner achievement.

The key findings from another study on instructional leadership by Mestry *et al.* (2013) show that in order to promote their core responsibility of promoting effective teaching and learning, principals needed to concentrate on being strategic about employing shared instructional leadership in collaboration with SMTs comprising of subject heads, HODs and teacher leaders. Some researchers argue that members of SMTs in primary schools should be trained and oriented on their instructional management functions prior to their appointments (Malatji, Maphosa & Mavuso, 2016). The key findings from a study conducted by Bantwini and Moorosi (2017) on the district support for primary school principals relating to their instructional leadership roles show these principals' dissatisfaction with the low levels of district support on the provision of resources, district officials' lack of consultation in key decisions and responsiveness to change.

Furthermore, the key findings from another more recent study by Naidoo and Mestry (2019) indicate that although apartheid policies and practices have been dismantled and replaced with new legislation, the South African education system has not significantly improved. They argue that some reasons attributed to this are frequent curriculum changes, ineffective leadership of principals, poor teacher training, lack of teacher commitment, inadequate educational resources, poor school infrastructure, insufficient state funding and low levels of parent involvement (Naidoo & Mestry, 2019:237). Initiatives are driven by the national and provincial departments of education to raise the educational standards of the country and to improve learner performance in public education. Naidoo and Mestry (2019:238) assert that previously disadvantaged schools currently receive more departmental funding, and also, school fee exemptions are granted to low-income or unemployed parents who are unable to pay school fees for their children, regardless of race. Despite these investments, there is growing concern that many educational institutions are not functioning at their optimum and that learners' performance is generally of a low standard (Naidoo & Mestry, 2019:238).

From the abovementioned, it becomes evident that since 1994, much emphasis was placed on the multiple leadership functions required by principals. The principal's instructional leadership role is thus viewed as a key element in effective and quality education, but that principals cannot realistically always fulfil these required functions

on their own. The educational challenges too much require an approach where all school leaders have a shared responsibility. Principals need other roleplayers such HODs, deputy principals and subject heads to assist them with their instructional leadership functions. In addition, the reported literature indicates that school district officials should become more involved in supporting primary school teachers due to a myriad of curricular changes in the post-apartheid era. Addressing these challenges thus requires an approach where all school leaders take responsibility for ensuring quality education.

Next follows a discussion of the leadership roles of principals as incorporated in Hallinger's (2008) instructional leadership conceptual framework (see Figure 2.2).

2.5 THE LEADERSHIP ROLES OF PRINCIPALS

2.5.1 Investigating the possible direct and indirect leadership roles of principals

This section of the study explains the application of instructional leadership as a possible approach for improving learner performance. This section also synthesises ideas and models on instructional leadership as developed by scholars in the field, to make sense of how to support principals to implement instructional leadership. Several noteworthy models of instructional leadership have been proposed (Hallinger, 2008; Kombo & Tromp, 2009). Hallinger and Murphy (2013) assert that a conceptual framework (also known as a theoretical framework) is described as a set of broad ideas drawn from relevant studies and used as a map for a study.

A major finding from a study on the instructional leadership roles of principals conducted by Bendikson *et al.* (2012) is that the direct instructional leadership roles of principals include 'developing the school's vision and 'setting goals', followed by 'developing a sense of collective responsibility' and 'ensuring quality teaching'. In addition, these authors assert that the indirect instructional leadership roles of principals are 'ensuring a safe and orderly environment', 'resourcing strategically' and 'solving complex problems' (Bendikson *et al.*, 2012).

To investigate the notion of possible direct and indirect leadership roles of principals, I consulted relevant literature pertinent to instructional leadership. In this study, I will

use an adaptation of Hallinger's (2008) conceptual framework (see Figure 2.2) which comprises of three key elements, namely: (1) developing the school's vision; (2) managing the instructional programme; and (3) promoting a positive school learning climate. The elements he uses are also relevant to the South African context as it supports instructional leadership by principals to improve, enhance and employ practices which focus on teaching and learning, and building capacity among teachers. Bush and Glover (2012:1–19) assert that within a conceptual framework, principals are engaged with all activities designed to influence their thinking and practice in terms of instructional leadership initiatives.

The possible direct leadership role of principals will first be discussed in Section 2.6 and the indirect roles in Section 2.7. It is important to state at this point that it is not always possible to distinguish clearly between the direct and indirect functions and divide them into two clear, separate categories. The distinction between these two types of functions is thus not always so clear and is somewhat blurred, as it can become entwined and even overlap.

2.6 POSSIBLE DIRECT INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP ROLES OF PRINCIPALS

In Section 2.6 and 2.7, this distinction between the possible indirect and direct instructional leadership roles will be discussed. Section 2.6 highlights the possible functions of developing a school vision in collaboration with other key stakeholders and the communication of this vision and goals.

2.6.1 Developing the school's vision

The first dimension of Hallinger's conceptual framework, developing the school's vision, has two sub-categories, namely: (1) drafting the school's vision and mission statement and (2) communicating the school's goals. Leithwood (2011) posits that as an aspect of instructional leadership practice, the direction-setting role involves building a shared vision, fostering the acceptance of group goals, creating high-performance expectations and communicating the overall direction of the school. Within this theoretical framework, goals can be set by the principal in collaboration with staff and incorporated into their daily practice to achieve the vision successfully.

This strategic function of developing a school vision, is also included in the "Policy on the South African Standard for Principalship" (DBE, 2015:11; RSA, 2016:13–16) and is thus of a high priority for principals.

2.6.1.1 Drafting the school's vision and mission statement

The South African School's Act (No. 84 of 1996) stipulates that each SGB should draft a vision and mission statement which includes the values and core beliefs of the school. According to Van Deventer and Kruger (2008:87), the vision refers to a future expectation or idea relating to what the school wants to achieve in the long term (i.e. quality teaching and learning), while the mission relates "how" the vision is going to be realised through the long-term goals. Van Deventer and Kruger (2008:83) argue that although the SGB is responsible for drafting the vision and mission statement, it is the principal's direct responsibility to ensure that these aspects are developed and evaluated on a continuous basis. The principal, however, may approach other school leaders to assist him/her with the development of the school's vision (Van Deventer & Kruger, 2008:83).

Bottoms and Schmidt-Davis (2010) assert that the development of a vision unites the staff around shared assumptions and beliefs, thus strengthening the organisational culture and setting the direction of the school. Xiao Jun (2014:240) posits that leadership related to setting the direction of the school involves developing a vision for improvement, articulating expectations for staff and learners and developing collective goals for the organisation. Research conducted by Hussin and Al Abri (2015) found that principals who facilitated the development of strategies and activities which were aligned with the school's mission and which also maintained the focus on the academic element, were more effective in leading staff and improving learner performance.

Manaseh (2016:36–47) claims that when the principal develops a strong, clear shared vision, and focuses resources and attention on the overall improvement of the organisation, results are positive pertinent to learner achievement. Several researchers suggest that principals who pay attention to building organisational capacity as a whole in ways that are culturally appropriate can positively influence learner achievement (Luo, Albrecht & Neil, 2015; Spillane, 2015).

From the literature and the mentioned policy for principalship, a key function is to collaboratively develop a relevant school vision.

2.6.1.2 Communicating the school's goals

The communication of the developed vision and the school goals is concerned with the principal's function of working collaboratively with teachers to ensure that the school has clear, measurable goals that are focused on the academic progress of its learners. It is the principal's responsibility to ensure that these goals are communicated to all stakeholders and supported throughout the school community. This dimension does not assume that the principal defines the school's mission all by him-/herself, but that it is defined in collaboration with all staff and other stakeholders. It does, however, assume that the principal's responsibility is to ensure that the school has an academic vision and to communicate it to staff (Hallinger, 2008).

From the abovementioned, it is clear that one of the major direct responsibilities of the principal as instructional leader is to lead and guide people in developing a shared vision which focuses primarily on learner performance and the overall improvement of the school. To achieve the latter aspects, the principal should ensure that the development of this shared vision should include the shared values, beliefs and goals of all stakeholders to enhance the quality of teaching and learning.

2.6.1.3 Conclusion

As noted, the preponderance or majority of evidence indicates that school principals should contribute to school effectiveness and learner achievement directly through actions they take to influence school and classroom conditions. It is also evident that although it is the SGB's responsibility, in collaboration with the principal, for drafting the school's vision and mission statement, the principal's leadership role is crucial in the successful implementation thereof. In developing the school vision, the principal must also take into consideration the possible contribution of other school leaders, such as the SMT and the SGB. Thus, the principal's direct leadership role in developing a school's vision must be characterised by distributed leadership in that it is shared with other stakeholders, since he/she cannot do it alone. This collaborative or shared leadership exercised by the principal is called distributed leadership. It is

also clear that it is the principal's responsibility to communicate clear, measurable and time-based goals, as set out in the mission statement, to all staff and the broader school community (i.e. parents) to ensure that these roleplayers take ownership thereof. It is also important that principals ensure that these strategic goals focus on the academic performance of learners.

Next, follows a discussion in section 2.7 of the possible indirect leadership roles of principals.

Each of these dimensions will now be discussed, bearing in mind that the distinction between direct and indirect roles are sometimes blurred.

2.7 POSSIBLE INDIRECT INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP ROLES OF PRINCIPALS

In this section possible indirect leadership functions of principals will be discussed, namely managing instructional programmes and creating and nurturing a positive school climate.

2.7.1 Managing the instructional programme

The second dimension of Hallinger's conceptual framework, managing the instructional programme, focuses on three leadership functions or sub-categories, namely: (1) assessing staff performance (see 2.7.1.1); (2) managing the curriculum and instruction (see 2.7.1.2); and (3) managing the academic performance of learners (see 2.7.1.3). These functions require that the principal be engaged in the development of the school's instructional programme. The principal does not have to be the only person involved in leading the school's instructional programme, but may delegate this role to SMTs (Hallinger, 2008).

The principal's instructional leadership role is directly linked to managing the instructional programme or curriculum of the school. Normally this will be done collaboratively with senior staff in the school as effective curriculum development should be a joint responsibility. Despite the complexity and volume of a principal's task, his/her main responsibility remains that of ensuring that effective teaching and learning take place in order to enhance learner performance.

The urge by Ngidi and Qwabe (2006:530) to ensure a productive integration of educators, learners, and parents in curriculum design and implementation, aimed at developing a culture of teaching and learning, clearly has management implications. Hoadley *et al.* (2009:383) assert that curriculum management is affected by the social context of the school and the nature of school culture. According to Hoadley *et al.* (2009:386), the nature of school culture encompasses the relationships between principals, teachers, parents and learners, good use of resources, and the extent of instructional leadership is dispersed within the school. Hoadley *et al.* (2009:386) add that the school curriculum should be fully covered, with a well worked out plan to improve learner results, and making the fullest use of the day for maximum teaching and learning.

From the aforementioned it is clear that in curriculum management, the principal as instructional leader should ensure or facilitate purposeful interaction and joint responsibility for curriculum development. The principal as instructional leader in collaboration with his/her SMT, which include the deputy principal, HODs, and subject heads, should manage the school's curriculum in such a way that quality teaching and learning are ensured. In the context of the SMTs as curriculum managers, curriculum management means the SMTs should be monitoring all the curriculum activities and should see to it that all members of the staff (e.g. teachers) adhere to the curriculum policies.

Although Bush and Glover (2012) argue that many principals have a limited role in managing instruction (also referred to as teaching and learning) in their schools, because this responsibility is delegated to their SMTs, one cannot accept this claim as a generalisation. The claim that principals have a limited role in managing instruction is not necessarily true for all schools. This claim verifies the point made earlier that curriculum management is not the sole responsibility of the principal, but that it requires a joint responsibility. Rhodes and Brundrett (2009:269–287) also stress that subject heads, HODs and deputy principals are important in any strategy to develop learning-centred leadership or instructional leadership in schools.

As it is thus not possible for principals to manage the academic tasks on their own, they need the support of colleagues, such as SMTs, to assist them with it. In this case, the principal uses the shared leadership (also referred to as collaborative

leadership) approach to manage academic tasks; in other words, instructional leadership becomes a team effort. One could also argue that distributed leadership is present here. Shared school leadership has various benefits. Hallinger and Heck (2010:97) claim that shared leadership focuses on strategic school-wide actions that are directed towards school improvement and are shared between the principal and SMTs. Shared school leadership, however, also has its disadvantages. Because of the dual location of the principal as both leader and team member, teamwork can be perceived as a risky activity. Cranston (2013:129) asserts that principals may be reluctant to share their decision-making with other team members for fear of making costly mistakes; mistakes for which they must bear the consequences. Teamwork does not happen automatically or by chance, but requires sensitive and pro-active instructional leadership by principals to facilitate it (Nappi, 2014:29).

From the aforementioned it becomes evident that it is impossible for principals to execute all the instructional leadership roles themselves, and that they need the assistance and support of colleagues to whom principals may delegate certain management tasks and instructional leadership duties to strengthen quality teaching and learning in the school context. Management of the curriculum is thus a shared responsibility and as such becomes one of the indirect functions of the principal.

2.7.1.1 Assessing staff performance

From the consulted relevant literature, it is clear that staff assessment in the school context, which focuses on estimating teachers' contribution towards learner achievement after direct classroom observations, has become the primary means of evaluating teachers' instructional effectiveness (Milanowski, 2004; Rivkin, Hanushek & Kain, 2005; McCaffrey, Sass, Lockwood & Mihaly, 2009; Rockoff & Speroni, 2010). Performance appraisal is a key function of the principal as leader as staff appraisal should be utilised as a developmental instrument and not to measure staff with punitive intent. Through effective leadership, principals could enhance the development of teachers. Although staff appraisal is often viewed as an administrative function, the effective principal could optimise the skills and knowledge of teachers. Assessing staff performance is thus a demanding, time-consuming and essential responsibility and can have multiple, professional and personal consequences (Kowalski, 2010:121). Literature indicates that teachers are

normally assessed in schools for a number of reasons: to document the overall performance of professional staff (both in and out of the classroom) and to obtain the necessary data to make informed decisions concerning recommendations for contract renewal or termination of employment (Kowalski, 2010; DiPaola & Hoy, 2014).

The assessment of staff performance in schools is a worldwide phenomenon. Furthermore, literature indicates that in the USA, teacher assessment systems are aligned to the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) which support teachers and inform large-scale teacher professional development (Peltzman, Porter, Towne & Vranek, 2012; DiPaola & Hoy, 2014). In the UK, outcome-oriented accountability measures are executed by the Office for Standards in Education, where schools are inspected regularly. In a bid to raise the educational standards in the UK, these inspections concentrate on teachers and principals (Goldring, Porter, Murphy, Elliot & Cravens, 2009). Schools in Scotland and New Zealand developed their own internal systems of teacher appraisal, which encouraged a self-critical and a self-development approach to teaching and learning (De Clercq, 2013:11). One should also always take into account that any instrument utilised to assess teacher effectiveness, should not be a tool to measure their quality, but should in essence be a developmental instrument.

It is important to shed some light on the Integrated Quality Management System, as it is closely linked to the instructional leadership functions of the principal.

2.7.1.1.1 Managing the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS)

In South Africa the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) was implemented in South African schools in 2005 as an instrument to assess the performance of teachers (Heystek *et al.*, 2008). This IQMS was informed by Schedule 1 of the Employment of Educators Act (No. 76 of 1998), in terms of which the then Minister of Education, Dr. Naledi Pandor, was required to determine standards for teachers according to which their performance is to be assessed (DoE, 1998). Van Deventer and Kruger (2008:250) assert that the main aim of assessment should be the improvement of the teacher's teaching abilities with a view to professional development. The IQMS was introduced in South African public schools in January 2005 with the aim of enhancing and monitoring the performance of

teachers. This evaluation instrument combines teacher monitoring and assessment for development and is based on standardised performance areas (De Clercq, 2013:13).

Mestry *et al.* (2013:49–64) propose that to improve the IQMS, the IQMS policy should be well-communicated and made understandable to teachers, be flexible enough to take into account the different circumstances or contexts of South African schools and offer constructive support to help schools improve the quality of education. Despite all the measures put in place to strengthen its implementation, schools continue to experience challenges in addressing factors responsible for the poor implementation of the IQMS (DBE, 2013). To address the latter concern, the DBE (2013:4) agreed that a clear, coherent policy and regulatory environment should be designed for both teacher assessment and teacher development. Furthermore, it was suggested that teacher assessment for the purpose of development be de-linked from assessment for purposes of remuneration and salary progression. Finally, the IQMS had to be streamlined and revised, which happened in 2013 (DBE, 2013).

From the aforementioned, it becomes evident that the IQMS is a necessary instrument to enhance or facilitate staff development and that IQMS should be viewed as a developmental instrument and not a judgemental instrument to punish teachers. The aim of the IQMS should be to develop the potential of teachers. It seems, however, that the implementation of the IQMS was hampered by insurmountable challenges during its implementation (DBE, 2013). It is therefore crucial that principals work collaboratively with SMTs and officials from the local school district offices to develop a common vision that enables all learners to improve their academic performance and achieve success by developing a quality staff assessment system. In addition, the reported literature suggests that the IQMS for teachers should be guided by principles such as fairness, objectivity, transparency, openness, reliability, relevance, participation, empowerment, ownership, learning, adaptability and simplicity (Mestry *et al.*, 2009; DBE, 2013). The implementation of these principles will ensure that the IQMS serves as an effective assessment tool to monitor and enhance staff performance in the South African school context (DBE, 2013:5). According to the Personnel Administrative Measures

(PAM) (DoE, 1998), it is the responsibility the development support group (DSG) within the school, consisting of the principal and his/her SMT, to manage the IQMS process which is divided into three phases, namely the pre-observation phase, the observation phase and the post-observation phase.

2.7.1.1.2 Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) phases

The pre-observation phase consists of setting up the DSG and clarifying the roles of its members. Van Deventer and Kruger (2008:214) propose that before embarking on the observation phase, the following must be done by the DSG: Firstly, a date and time which suit both the DSG and the teacher must be agreed upon. Secondly, teachers need to be notified and consulted about intended observation visits in advance. Thirdly, the aim and criteria of the observation need to be discussed with the teacher. Fourthly, an exposition of the procedures and finer details, e.g. doing lesson preparation should be made in advance and in collaboration with the teacher. Fifthly, information regarding the post-observation discussions should be discussed and arranged with the teacher to ensure that teachers are managed professionally.

The observation phase refers to the activity of the selected DSG members visiting the classrooms as arranged in collaboration with teachers. This phase seeks to lead to constructive suggestions that may lead to an improvement in both the classroom practice and the personal, as well as the professional, development of teachers themselves. During this phase, the DSG should gather information about various performance standards like the creation of a positive learning environment, knowledge of the curriculum, lesson planning, preparation and presentation, learner assessment, professional development of staff, human relations and extra-curricular and co-curricular participation (Education Labour Relations Council [ELRC] Collective Agreement B52 of 2003). De Clercq (2013:13) posits that the first part of the IQMS instrument (performance standards 1–4) is used for observation, while the second part is used to assess professional issues outside the classroom (performance standards 5–7).

During the post-observation phase, the DSG provides verbal or written performance feedback to teachers relating to their instructional strengths and weaknesses, including areas in need of development. Several researchers assert that principals need to use the areas of strengths and weaknesses, identified during the lesson

presentation, as a basis for the professional development of teachers (Portin, Knapp, Dareff, Feldman, Russell, Samuelson & Yeh, 2009).

From the reported literature, it is clear that successful performance feedback interventions by principals with teachers should incorporate critical components like a review of data regarding teacher performance during the lesson, performance feedback in the form of praise for correct implementation, and remedial feedback on aspects which were not successful. In addition, principals as instructional leaders must understand the process of evaluation and be able to convey their expectations of how teaching and learning can be enhanced following feedback sessions with teachers.

Next follows a discussion of the principal's instructional role of using the nine focus areas of whole-school evaluation (WSE) as a basis for reflective review of teachers' practice in schools to improve teaching and learning.

2.7.1.1.3 Whole-school evaluation (WSE) focus areas

South African governmental policy prescribe how principals can use the nine focus areas of WSE as a basis for reflective review of teachers' practice in schools to improve the quality of teaching and learning. The main purpose of the National Policy on Whole-school evaluation is, firstly, to identify areas of strength as well as areas requiring development in schools nationally. Secondly, it wants to enable schools to improve the overall quality of education they provide as well as to affect improved learner performance. Thirdly, it aims to diagnose areas needing urgent support in order to enable districts to provide informed services to schools (DoE, 2001:8). In accordance with the National Policy on WSE, as published in the Government Gazette, in July 2001 (DoE, 2001), the nine key areas of WSE are as follows: (1) quality of teaching and learning, and educator development; (2) curriculum provision and resources; (3) learner achievement; (4) basic functionality of the school; (5) leadership, management and communication; (6) governance and relationships; (7) school safety, security and discipline; (8) school infrastructure; and (9) parents and community.

From the reported literature it becomes evident that for successful performance feedback to occur, principals, in collaboration with the DSG, should tend to aspects

such as praising teachers for excellent presentation of lessons, discussing with teachers how teaching and learning can be enhanced and sharing their experiences with teachers to build confidence to improve teaching and learning. Ultimately, principals, as instructional leaders, need to develop leadership skills that help them to build the intellectual capital that is necessary to make good curriculum choices and provide teachers with opportunities to apply different teaching strategies within their subjects.

Not only do principals need adequate knowledge and skills to assess teacher performance, they also need a sense of self-efficacy that they can do so successfully. To do so successfully requires that principals have confidence in their ability, not only to assess the quality and effectiveness of teachers, but also to take the necessary actions when instruction is weak to improve learner performance. This can be done if the DSG takes responsibility for teacher development.

Next follows a discussion of the instructional role of the principal of managing the curriculum and instruction effectively.

2.7.1.2 Managing the curriculum and instruction

Oliveira (2012:569) asserts that 'curriculum' refers to the subject matter comprising of planned activities. Managing and coordinating curriculum and instruction is one of the fundamental roles of a principal who is an instructional leader (Hallinger & Murphy, 2013). According to the DBE (2012), it is the instructional leaders' responsibility to be familiarised with and take the lead in matters of school curriculum practice and development. The role of the instructional leaders is to see that curriculum is implemented according to the national policy framework. Linked to the latter statement, one of the key issues in the current CAPS (DBE, 2012), is its emphasis on continuous assessment. This means principals have to check and assist teachers wherever possible to ensure that all aspects like setting and controlling both informal and formal assessments are given their due academic attention. Furthermore, according to Van Deventer and Kruger (2008), the principal as an instructional leader has to take cognisance of the following aspects in managing curriculum and instruction:

2.7.1.2.1 School timetables

The school's timetable as a structure, is the fundamental key for ensuring smooth flow of teaching and learning, and should cater for both curricular and extra-curricular activities (Van Deventer & Kruger, 2008). A timetable is often viewed only as a logistical necessity to organise a school day. In essence, it is much more than just that. It is the timetable that structures all learning processes in terms of teacher-subject allocations and the total number of hours allocated to the teaching of each subject. Principals as instructional leaders have to ensure that the timetable is drawn up in accordance with timetable policy to ensure effective teaching and learning (Van Deventer & Kruger, 2008). While doing that, principals should also ensure that a working timetable that caters effectively for all classes is ready before school opens, particularly at the beginning of the year.

2.7.1.2.2 Administrative considerations

Another area of concern is the principal's input and support regarding certain administrative issues that are directly linked to teaching and learning. Among them, principals should ensure the availability of instructional resources and the protection and efficient use of contact time (Naicker, Chikoko & Mathiyane, 2013; Bhengu & Mkhize, 2013). The findings from a study by Bhengu and Mkhize (2013) found that principals seem to concentrate on and put more effort into general administrative issues. However, the procurement of teaching and learning resources still remain the principal's main management duty, probably because Learning and Teaching Support Material (LTSM) earns the highest percentage of the school monetary budget (Naiker *et al.*, 2013).

Next follows a discussion of the instructional role of the principal of managing the academic performance of learners effectively.

2.7.1.3 Managing the academic performance of learners

Although classroom instruction has the greatest impact on learner performance at school level**,** Li, Marsh and Rienties (2016:216) claim that leadership has the second greatest effect. Waseka and Simatwa (2016:72) in their case study on the management of learner performance found that the principal, as instructional leader, remains an important and significant roleplayer in determining the success of a

school. In the South African context, a key performance area of principalship (see 1.2.5 in Chapter 1) requires of the principal to lead and manage the school to enhance teaching and learning. Thus, it can be deduced that principals should become involved in the management and monitoring of learners' tests results.

In South Africa the ANA tests are administered to learners in public schools, including special schools and state-funded independent primary schools (DBE, 2012:1). The immediate goal of the ANA tests is to supply useful information to teachers, principals and department officials to strengthen their existing and planned efforts of improving the quality of teaching and learning (DBE, 2012:3). The ANA tests focus on learner performance in both Mathematics and Languages in grades 1 to 6 (DBE, 2012). In primary schools, underperformance is defined as learners achieving less than 50% for Mathematics and Languages.

What follows next is a presentation of the average ANA percentage mark of learners in the participating schools in Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics from 2013 to 2015 for grades 1 to 6. The instructional programme of School 1 (principal Peter) includes the Foundation Phase (grades 1 to 3), while that of the other four schools (principals Paul, Harry, John and Mary) includes grades 1 to 6.

2.7.1.3.1 Average ANA percentage mark in Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics of participating schools for grade 1

Table 2.1: Summary of the average ANA percentage mark of participating schools in Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics for grade 1
(adapted from WCED, 2013; 2014; 2015)

	GRADE 1			GRADE 1		
	AFR HL	AFR HL	AFR HL	MATHS	MATHS	MATHS
	2013	2014	2015	2013	2014	2015
SCHOOL 1	71	80	79	56	80	80
SCHOOL 2	44	46	47	64	82	84
SCHOOL 3	80	81	82	68	67	69
SCHOOL 4	80	77	79	69	76	75
SCHOOL 5	43	45	46	62	65	66

Table 2.1 above indicates a noticeable increase in the performance of the learners in grade 1 in both Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics from 2013 to 2015. The learners of School 2 and 5 underperformed in Afrikaans Home Language for the

period 2013 to 2015 with an average ANA test mark of 46% and 45% respectively. The learners of School 3 performed the best in Afrikaans Home Language with an average ANA test mark of 81% for the period 2013 to 2015. The learners of School 2 performed the best in Mathematics with an average ANA test mark of 77% for the period 2013 to 2015.

2.7.1.3.2 Average ANA percentage mark in Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics of participating schools for grade 2

Table 2.2: Summary of the average ANA percentage mark of participating schools in Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics for grade 2 (adapted from WCED, 2013; 2014; 2015)

	GRADE 2			GRADE 2		
	AFR HL	AFR HL	AFR HL	MATHS	MATHS	MATHS
	2013	2014	2015	2013	2014	2015
SCHOOL 1	77	77	78	58	55	56
SCHOOL 2	55	45	47	56	62	65
SCHOOL 3	55	55	56	65	66	66
SCHOOL 4	72	74	76	68	70	71
SCHOOL 5	53	43	45	56	60	64

Table 2.2 indicates a slight increase in the performance of the learners in grade 2 in both Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics in Schools 1, 3 and 4 for the period 2013 to 2015. The learners of Schools 2 and 5 underperformed in Afrikaans Home Language in 2014 and 2015 with an average ANA test mark of 46% and 44% respectively. The learners of School 1 performed the best in Afrikaans Home Language with an average ANA test mark of 77% for the period 2013 to 2015. The learners of School 4 performed the best in Mathematics with an average ANA test mark of 70% for the period 2013 to 2015.

2.7.1.3.3 Average ANA percentage mark in Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics of participating schools for grade 3

Table 2.3: Summary of the average ANA percentage mark of participating schools in Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics for grade 3 (adapted from WCED, 2013; 2014; 2015).

	GRADE 3			GRADE 3		
	AFR HL	AFR HL	AFR HL	MATHS	MATHS	MATHS
	2013	2014	2015	2013	2014	2015
SCHOOL 1	49	55	55	58	55	56
SCHOOL 2	55	45	48	60	57	59
SCHOOL 3	68	69	70	56	57	56
SCHOOL 4	50	60	63	57	58	59
SCHOOL 5	51	46	47	60	57	58

Table 2.3 indicates a slight increase in the performance of the learners in grade 3 for Schools 1, 3 and 4 in both Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics for the period 2013 to 2015. The learners of Schools 2 and 5, however, underperformed in Afrikaans Home Language in 2014 and 2015 with both schools achieving an average ANA test mark of 47%. The learners of School 3 performed the best in Afrikaans Home Language with an average ANA test mark of 69% for the period 2013 to 2015. The learners of School 2 performed the best in Mathematics with an average ANA test mark of 59% for the period 2013 to 2015.

2.7.1.3.4 Average ANA percentage mark in Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics of participating schools for grade 4

Table 2.4: Summary of the average ANA percentage mark of participating schools in Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics for grade 4 (adapted from WCED, 2013; 2014; 2015).

	GRADE 4			GRADE 4		
	AFR HL	AFR HL	AFR HL	MATHS	MATHS	MATHS
	2013	2014	2015	2013	2014	2015
SCHOOL 2	45	50	52	37	32	34
SCHOOL 3	48	48	49	53	54	53
SCHOOL 4	57	63	64	45	47	48
SCHOOL 5	45	49	52	37	32	34

Table 2.4 indicates a slight increase in the performance of the learners in grade 4 in both Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics for the period 2013 to 2015. The learners of School 3 underperformed in Afrikaans Home Language for the period 2013 to 2015 with an average ANA test mark of 48%. The learners of School 2, 4 and 5 underperformed in Mathematics for the period 2013 to 2015. The learners of School 4 performed the best in Afrikaans Home Language with an average ANA test mark of 61% for the period 2013 to 2015. The learners of School 3 performed the best in Mathematics with an average ANA test mark of 53% for the period 2013 to 2015.

2.7.1.3.5 Average ANA percentage mark in Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics of participating schools for grade 5

Table 2.5: Summary of the average ANA percentage mark of participating schools in Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics for grade 5 (adapted from WCED, 2013; 2014; 2015).

	GRADE 5			GRADE 5		
	AFR HL	AFR HL	AFR HL	MATHS	MATHS	MATHS
	2013	2014	2015	2013	2014	2015
SCHOOL 2	58	56	57	59	47	48
SCHOOL 3	55	55	56	34	35	34
SCHOOL 4	55	65	66	38	56	57
SCHOOL 5	54	55	57	59	47	48

Table 2.5 above indicates a slight increase in the performance of the learners in grade 5 in both Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics from 2013 to 2015. The learners of School 4 performed the best in Afrikaans Home Language with an average ANA test mark of 62% from 2013 to 2015. The same school achieved the best performance in Mathematics from 2014 to 2015 with an average ANA test mark of 57%. The learners of Schools 2, 3 and 5 underperformed in Mathematics with an average ANA test mark of 48%, 34% and 48% from 2013 to 2015 respectively.

2.7.1.3.6 Average ANA percentage mark in Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics of participating schools for grade 6

Table 2.6: Summary of the average ANA percentage mark of participating schools in Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics for grade 6 (adapted from WCED, 2013; 2014; 2015).

	GRADE 6			GRADE 6		
	AFR HL	AFR HL	AFR HL	MATHS	MATHS	MATHS
	2013	2014	2015	2013	2014	2015
SCHOOL 2	58	56	57	43	48	49
SCHOOL 3	45	46	47	47	48	49
SCHOOL 4	61	71	71	36	48	49
SCHOOL 5	55	56	56	43	48	49

Table 2.6 indicates a slight increase in the performance of the learners in grade 6 in both Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics for the period 2013 to 2015. The learners of School 3 underperformed in Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics for the period 2013 to 2015 with an average ANA test mark of 46% and 48% respectively. The learners of School 4 performed the best in Afrikaans Home Language with an average ANA test mark of 68% for the period 2013 to 2015. The learners of Schools 2, 3, 4 and 5 all underperformed in Mathematics for the period

2013 to 2015, achieving average ANA test marks of 47%, 48%, 44% and 47% respectively.

2.7.2 Summary of the academic performance of participating schools

From the aforementioned, it is clear that the learners from impoverished communities in the Western Cape generally underperformed in the ANA assessments for the period 2013 to 2015. A more extensive summary of the academic performance of participating schools appears in Chapter 5 (see 5.3.1.3).

Next follows a discussion of the instructional roles of the principal which may play a role in promoting a positive school learning climate.

2.7.3 Promoting a positive school learning climate

The third dimension of Hallinger's conceptual framework, namely, promoting a positive school learning climate, includes five sub-categories, namely: (1) managing of instructional time (see 2.7.3.1); (2) promoting and ensuring the professional development of teachers (see 2.7.3.2); (3) providing incentives for teachers (see 2.7.3.3); (4) developing positive relationships with all stakeholders (see 2.7.3.4); and (5) maintain high visibility (see 2.7.3.5) (Hallinger, 2008).

As an instructional leader, the principal has the responsibility to ensure the most conducive physical learning environment; establish clearly what is expected of the learners in terms of academic success; organise their instructional time; ensure that teaching and learning materials are available; actively involve them in the relevant instructional activities; provide them with professional performance feedback after classroom observations; reinforce appropriate instructional skills; use sanctions as an opportunity for them to learn to improve their content knowledge and presentation skills; and closely monitor the work of learners (Olley, Cohn & Cowan, 2010).

Next follows a discussion of the instructional role of the principal of managing instructional time effectively.

2.7.3.1 Managing instructional time

A critical factor regarding the principal's role as instructional leader is how he/she manages the instructional time within the school environment. Cunningham and

Cordeiro (2006:239) argue that the efficient allocation of time spent on a task can increase learner performance. This includes the allocated time, the amount of time that is actually assigned for a class, engaged time, the amount of time allocated where the learner is actively engaged in the learning activity, and academic learning time, a refinement of engaged time which reflects the quality of the learning.

Louis *et al.* (2010:679) claim that there are four distinct ways in which instructional time can be conceptualised and measured: (1) The total amount of time potentially available for instruction, typically measured by learner attendance rates, has reported effects on learning varying from weakly significant to quite strong; (2) The total amount of time actually devoted to instruction has moderate effects on learning; (3) The content of the curriculum that the learners spend time studying, and the opportunity to learn, has quite strong effects on learning; and (4) The learners' total amount of academically engaged time is strongly associated with learning.

Literature suggests that late-coming and absenteeism on the part of teachers and the learners result in reduced time for teaching and learning (Ngcobo & Tikly, 2010; Lam, Ardington & Leibbrandt, 2011; Mbali & Douglas, 2012). Mbali and Douglas (2012:525) assert that in township and rural schools in South Africa, the rate of absenteeism and non-involvement by the teachers in the affairs of the school is high. In addition, Spaull (2012:80) further elaborates that the high rates of teacher absenteeism are associated with lower learner performance, inadequate coverage of the curriculum and shorter time on task.

According to Maponya (2015:40), principals, as instructional leaders, can implement the following practices to model the management of instructional time effectively to his/her staff: (1) Be at school an hour before the school day commences to allow you sufficient time to prepare yourself for the day ahead and to set a good example to the staff members; (2) Make use of a diary which allows a check on what lies ahead for the day and the rest of the week; (3) Follow an annual objectives plan that will assist you as instructional leader in achieving your objectives; (4) Take time to prepare for meetings with staff members, appointments with parents and other stakeholders, and for school assemblies and other events; (5) Keep to time allocation; (6) Be punctual; and (7) Do not leave things unfinished. If you have not finished all planned activities the end of the school day, finish them at home.

From the reported literature it is evident that the principal's role of managing instructional time is important for the delivery of quality teaching and learning. To optimise teachers' instructional time, principals must, in close collaboration with the SMT, ensure that instructional time is optimally implemented. In this regard, it is also important that the principal, as instructional leader, models acceptable behaviour to his staff and thereby setts an example for them to follow.

The following section comprises the principal's role of providing support for the professional development of teachers.

2.7.3.2 Facilitating and ensuring the professional development of teachers

Professional development, in a broad sense, refers to the development of a person in his/her professional role and includes formal experiences (such as workshops, professional meetings, mentoring and further studies) and informal experiences (such as reading professional publications and watching television documentaries related to an academic discipline) (Villegas-Reimers, 2003:11). According to Richards and Farrel (2005:4), teacher development seeks to facilitate growth of teachers' understanding of teaching and of themselves as teachers. It often involves examining different dimensions of a teacher's practice as a basis for reflective review.

The continuous development of professionals' skills and knowledge is a crucial element of improvement in all professions (Boyle, Lamprianou & Boyle, 2005). In terms of education, the focus is on teachers in particular as the key to learner performance improvement (Desimone, Smith & Ueno, 2006; Murtaza, 2010). Effective professional development of teachers is embedded in daily school activities, adapted to meet the particular school's context and continued over time (Moswela, 2006). Moswela's (2006:631) study indicates that school effectiveness and professional development are inextricably linked. It is within this context that the role of leadership in improving the quality of schools is identified as a crucial element (Chappuis, Chappuis & Stiggens, 2009; Hallinger, 2008).

The role of the principal has changed over time – from a hierarchical, bureaucratic image to one based on devolved decision-making and school self-determination (Bass & Avolio, 2006). Central to this emerging view of school leadership is a move

from a 'power over' approach to a 'power to' approach (English, 2008). The principal should not be one who acts on his/her own in order to ensure quality teaching and learning occur in the classroom, but one who seeks the support of and collaboration with teachers, as they are the implementers of the curriculum in the classrooms (Gumus & Akcaoglu, 2013:291).

Furthermore, Ozer (2014:382) asserts that the principal as instructional leader should act collegially instead of judgementally when providing instructional support to teachers. Through the application of this collegial approach, principals will ensure sustained curriculum support and development of all staff members. As instructional leader, the principal is also responsible for teachers' professional growth. Some researchers assert that principals have four essential instructional tasks, which include directing assistance, grouping development, developing professionally and developing the curriculum (Gumus & Akcaoglu, 2013:291). All of these tasks, directly or indirectly, point to the principal's role in supporting educators' growth. In addition, Ozer (2014:384) posits that principals must create conditions for teachers to refine, apply, reflect on and improve their instructional practice over time. In this sense, the principal then becomes a facilitator of a purposeful professional learning community.

Lunenburg (2010:1) posits that principals are expected to be change agents and facilitators who improve conditions for learning through the creation of cultures that allow schools to operate as professional learning communities (PLCs). Literature suggests that principals of PLCs are considered leaders of leaders who create an environment where teachers can continually grow and learn skills, are vigorous promoters of professional development, and assume an active role in planning and evaluating the overall professional development system of the school (Kruse & Louis, 2009; Wilcox & Angelis, 2012).

Hirsh (2005:38) claims that successful PLCs enhance the sharing of effective practices between teachers and are more likely to lead to improved learner performance. Nelson, Deuel, Slavit and Kennedy (2010:175) assert that teachers' willingness to actively participate in conversations about issues regarding learners' learning goals and teaching practices is critical to impact PLCs. Chapman, Lindsay, Muijs, Harris, Arweck and Goodall (2010:54) argue that PLCs among teachers may not only be the outcome of continuing professional development and collaboration,

but may also enable professional learning, stimulate, support and sustain changes in practice and ultimately improve learners' performance.

Schools are facing their greatest challenge: to provide quality education (Fennell, 2005; Darling-Hammond & Richardson, 2009). Studies by some researchers confirm that teachers can play a key role in making a difference in the quality of education, as investing in teachers' development may have more positive effects than investing in other physical resources (Rodrigues-Campos, Rincones-Gomez & Shen, 2005). In addition, Oandasan and Reeves (2005:21–38) believe that complicated dynamics exist and that individuals cannot change without the compliance and participation of others in a particular system. As such, it is necessary to understand the processes involved in changing practice among all role players in order to create effective learning conditions, as these conditions will depend on cooperative and collective efforts.

Various researchers suggest that a collegial culture creates an ownership of teachers' own professional learning and involves more effective teaching (Boyle *et al.*, 2005; Dymoke & Harrison, 2006). Frost (2008:345) indicates that teachers can play a meaningful role in creating and sharing professional knowledge. To create a conducive environment for professional development, such professional knowledge needs to be generated and accumulated through collaboration between teachers and principals (Day, 2009; Frost, 2008; Printy, 2010). Eilers and D'Amico (2012:48) assert that the principal's building of trust relationships with all stakeholders allows for improved teacher practices, learner achievement and parental support.

Literature suggests that to ensure that teachers' learning is focused and ongoing, principals need to demonstrate three leadership roles: (1) developing a vision for teachers' professional development for the sake of teachers' learning, improved learner performance and school improvement (Masitsa, 2005:212); (2) providing and organising well-managed, productive learning opportunities for the sake of prolonged and in-depth professional learning (Moswela, 2006:630); and (3) changing the classroom practice, acting on feedback from colleagues and learners, mentoring, and employing in-school workshops based on research findings, self-evaluation, collaborative research and participation in teacher networks (Pedder & Opfer, 2011:746). Further, Louis *et al.* (2010:332) argue that it is unlikely that principal–

teacher collaboration will occur within complex school settings without the appropriate and practical support of PLCs. Steyn (2011:43) is of the opinion that although professional learning has its challenges, learning opportunities with colleagues is an indispensable requirement to improve the quality of education in South Africa.

To support principals and aspiring school managers in South Africa, the DoE piloted the Advanced Certificate: Education in School Leadership and Management (ACE-SLM) course aimed at developing leadership and management competence for those in school leadership positions or those aspiring to such leadership positions (RSA, 2007:91). The desired outcome of the ACE-SLM course is: (1) to provide participants with relevant knowledge and skills; (2) to develop and implement school development plans; (3) to draw up appropriate policies in line with national legislation and regulations; (4) to guide their practices, as well as set up mechanisms; and (5) to deal with issues across all aspects of school management and leadership (Mestry, 2017). In addition, Mestry (2017:11) posits that this ACE-SLM qualification is practice-based, and is aimed at providing management and leadership support through a variety of interactive programmes that improve the learners' practice, professional growth and ethos of leadership. From a South African perspective, Bush *et al.* (2011:38) assert that significant and sustained school improvement is likely to require principals to redefine their role as professional leaders, with a central focus on leadership for learning. This approach comprises the following dimensions: modelling good practice in classrooms, observing teachers' practice and providing constructive feedback, and monitoring and evaluating learner outcomes and putting in place strategies to address weaknesses.

Metcalfe (2011) asserts that the education outcomes of South African schools are poor and disappointing. She is of the opinion that the South African education system has failed to transform teaching and that it has not paid enough attention to the professional development of teachers. Her solution lies in developing teachers professionally, because she believes that "better teachers will make better education" (Metcalfe, 2011:3–21).

From the abovementioned, it is clear that effective principals, in collaboration with teachers, should focus on enhancing the quality of learning to support, encourage

and build confidence and trust for the implementation of continuous professional development through PLCs. The development of PLCs by the principal is a critical factor in promoting the learning and success of learners by focusing on learning, providing continuous support for teachers, eliminating teacher isolation and encouraging a collective mission for school improvement. To develop teachers professionally, principals need to encourage teachers to improve their own learning through further studies and through teachers' participation in professional development programmes offered by the WCED and tertiary institutions, such as the ACE-SLM. Teachers' attendance of these professional development programmes may not only result in an improvement of teachers' learning, but may also result in improved learner performance and school improvement.

The following section comprises the principal's role of providing incentives for teachers to improve learner performance and school improvement.

2.7.3.3 Providing incentives for teachers

Van Deventer and Kruger (2008:148) define teacher motivation as the ability of a principal to influence teachers to work positively towards achieving the school's main aim, which is to achieve effective teaching and learning. Researcher is of the view that teachers have certain needs which motivate them to excel in their daily teaching and learning responsibilities. Therefore, it stands to reason that principals need to give more attention to motivating teachers, thereby improving their instructional performance. Hoy (2008:492) emphasises that motivated teachers are more likely to instil confidence in learners, guarantee the implementation of schools' instructional programmes and have feelings of satisfaction and fulfilment when involving themselves in their work. Swanepoel (2008:42) concurs that in effective and successful schools, motivated teachers tend to be more committed, hard-working and loyal to their school activities and experience greater job satisfaction.

Botha (2010:106) asserts that there are two types of motivation, namely intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and that both can lead teachers to greater self-management in improving teaching and learning. According to Botha (2010:106), the former type of motivation comes from within, meaning teachers do their work because they value their work and are driven from the inside to achieve their goals. Contrary to the former, extrinsic motivation is characterised by the willingness to work hard because

of a promised reward, like a certificate or money (Botha, 2010). Blase and Blase (2010:12) claim that effective instructional principals work on the philosophy that "a happy teacher is a better teacher", which means that principals must strive to their best to boost the morale of their teachers.

The use of incentives (motivation) for teachers is a rewarding and acceptable principle, but the practicality and implementation in South African schools remain a challenge. The problem for the practicality and implementation of providing incentives for teachers by principals may be ascribed to the various daily management and administrative functions principals need to execute. Various researchers argue that the problem with the provisioning of incentives for teachers may be because principals are too busy with different management activities such as scheduling, reporting, handling relations with parents and dealing with unexpected multiple learner and teacher crises on a daily basis (Early, 2013; Oumer, 2014; Bottery, 2016). This leaves very little time for principals to provide incentives for teachers.

The following section 2.7.3.4 comprises the principal's role of providing support for the development of positive relationships with all stakeholders (see Hallinger, 2008).

2.7.3.4 Developing positive relationships with all stakeholders

The development of positive relationships with all stakeholders (e.g. parents, teachers and learners) can influence school climate significantly. Barth (2002) has found that the development of sound relationships with all relevant stakeholders in the school community by means of a positive learning environment can be linked to the advancement of teaching and learning. According to Saufler (2005), a learning climate encompasses the school culture and school climate, which are not two separate constructs, but closely related and interactive dimensions in the functioning of a school. Depending on the nature of the study, school climate can be regarded as the school environment or the school learning environment (Johnson & Stevens, 2006). Hinde (2004:1) views school culture as the norms, beliefs, traditions and customs that develop in a school over time. According to him, school culture is a set of obvious expectations and assumptions that influences the activities of teachers and learners (Hinde, 2004:2).

Loukas (2007:1–3) identified the following three important dimensions of the school that affect the school climate:

1. The *physical environment* of the school, which refers to the attractiveness of the infrastructure (e.g. school buildings, sports facilities, etc.).
2. The *social environment*, which refers to the quality of the relationships between parents, learners, teachers and other community members who have an invested interest in the school.
3. The *academic environment*, which refers to the quality of teaching and learning in the school.

Figure 2.1 shows the different school behaviour profiles.
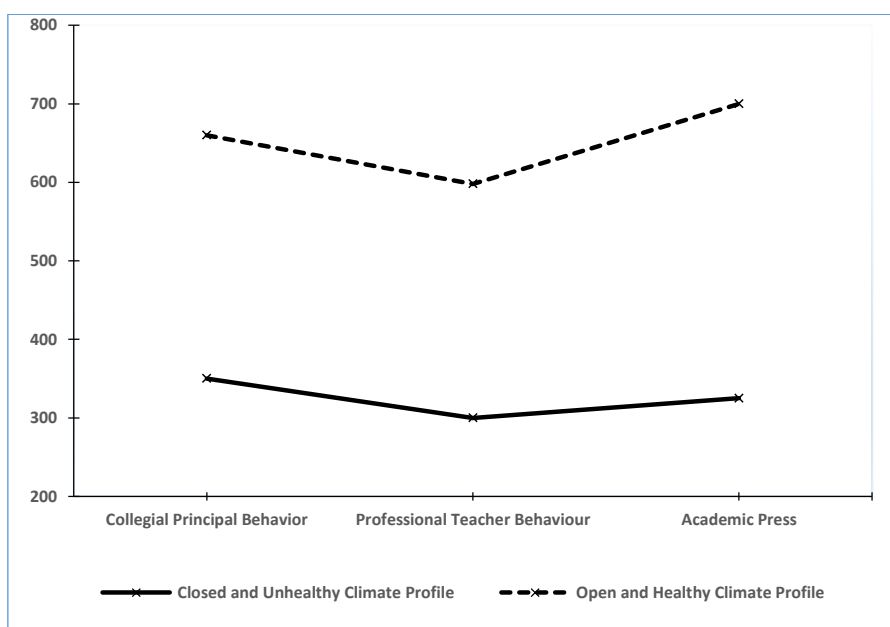
Figure 2.1: Different school behaviour profiles (adapted from DiPaola & Hoy, 2014:61)

Figure 2.1 shows the three dimensions of different school behaviour profiles according to DiPaola and Hoy (2014:61):

1. *Collegial principal behaviour* is the principal's behaviour that is open and supportive, but also sets clear expectations and standards for performance.
2. *Professional teacher behaviour* is the teacher's behaviour that is characterised by respect for colleagues, commitment to learners, autonomy and mutual cooperation and support.

3. *Academic press* describes schools that set high and achievable goals, learners who persevere and strive to achieve and are respected for their academic success, and parents and principals who press for high performance and school improvement.

In addition, a number of aspects that influence the organisational climate of a school may also influence the quality of work life in a school and can be divided into two main categories, namely systemic and individual factors (Van der Westhuizen & Mentz, 2007:66–80). Systemic factors encompass, among others, organisational culture and organisational health, while individual factors include, among others, job motivation, job satisfaction, work stress and work performance (Colangelo, 2004:1–5; Kieft, 2005:12–33; Van der Westhuizen & Mentz, 2007:66–80).

The quality of work life of teachers is influenced by, among other things, their physical, psychological and social well-being in the school as organisation. Quality of work life therefore has an influence on the organisational climate of the school (Cilliers & Kossuth, 2002:8–11; Patterson, West, Dawson, Lawthom, Maitlis, Robinson & Wallace, 2004:3–10). Organisational health similarly has an influence on the organisational climate of a school. In addition, literature suggests that school climate powerfully motivates learners to learn. For example, activities such as community service and debates enhance the learning environment by providing learners with opportunities to actively participate in the learning process and construct their own knowledge (Youniss, Bales, Christmas-Best, Diversi, McLaughlin & Silbereisen, 2002; Homana, Barber & Torney-Purta, 2006).

Literature suggests that there is concern in educational ranks pertaining to the organisational climate in schools in the North West of South Africa, where the morale of teachers in schools is low (Jackson & Rothmann, 2006:1–5; North West Department of Education, 2006:89; Van der Westhuizen, 2006:1–3; Mentz, 2007:146–153; Vos, Van der Westhuizen, Mentz & Ellis, 2012:56–68). Linked to this suggestion, Zigarmi and Sinclair (2001:270–278) posit that regular strikes by teachers could possibly also be proof of the negative experience of a school's organisational climate. In addition, a key finding of a study on the well-being of South African teachers by Jackson and Rothmann (2006:75–95) indicates that they did not experience their workplaces as positive, and therefore experienced a

negative organisational climate. Jackson and Rothmann (2006) recommend that principals should, among their other concerns, pay more attention to the psychological well-being of teachers, as well as to reducing their workload.

Furthermore, De Bruyn and Van der Westhuizen (2007:289) posit that pertaining to total quality management, emphasis is placed on the principal's task with regard to aspects such as developing a supportive, caring and empowering environment. De Bruyn and Van der Westhuizen (2007:290) argue that an ineffective or 'unhealthy' organisational climate in a school can lead to a collapse in school activities and could in the end cause a school to become dysfunctional. Therefore, this implies that in the determination of a school's organisational climate and formulation of management strategies, the principal, in collaboration with his/her SMT should establish a more effective organisational climate.

There are other aspects within the school climate that are also closely linked to enhancing positive relationships. School climate is the experience by teachers of their work environment and by learners of their learning environment, both inside and outside the classroom (Mentz, 2007:147–148; Hoy & Miskel, 2008:185). Organisational climate, on the other hand, more specifically has to do with the common experience by teachers of the quality of their work environment in the school where they work (Mentz, 2007:157–160). Educational climate, in turn, has to do with the experience of learners of their total educational milieu in the school, as well as outside the classroom (Kieft, 2005:49–83; Moller, Eggen, Fuglestad, Langfeldt, Presthus, Skrovset, Stjernstrom & Vedoy, 2005:585–592).

Classroom climate also relates to the realisation of learners, but describes more specifically the atmosphere in which interaction between themselves and the educator takes place. This realisation or experience is influenced by factors that are controlled by the teacher, and this consequently differs from classroom to classroom (Brucato, 2005; Van der Westhuizen, Mosoge, Swanepoel & Coetzee, 2005:89–105). Several researchers are of the opinion that the following four core dimensions of school life can influence the school climate: safety, teaching and learning, relationships and environment (Johnson & Stevens, 2006; Cohen *et al.*, 2008). School climate can therefore be viewed as a combination of various aspects that are closely linked, as one type of climate impacts on the others.

From the abovementioned descriptions it is clear that school climate and organisational climate are not isolated concepts, but are closely linked and entwined to several other influences in the schools that may have an influence on the principal's effective instructional leadership role. It also becomes evident that open and healthy school climates influence learning positively, while unhealthy school climates influence learning adversely. It becomes evident that teachers should be working collaboratively in teams and not in isolation to be effective in their schools. It is also clear that when good instructional practices and positive learning relationships are distributed among teachers, schools will be able to improve teaching and learning. Therefore, encouraging an environment of collaboration is essential to building trust and respect among teachers and principals and creating opportunities for support and professional development. Through continuous individualised support and the facilitation of suitable INSET programmes, principals can meet teachers' needs and thereby develop them professionally. In addition, principals need to empower teachers to adopt instructional leadership responsibilities based on their knowledge and expertise for effective teaching and learning to occur.

2.7.3.5 Maintain high visibility

The findings of a study conducted by Louis *et al.* (2010) indicate that the principal's involvement of maintaining high visibility during classroom observations (his/her indirect instructional leadership role) had a significant impact on learner performance. Louis *et al.* (2010) aver that the principal in collaboration with his/her SMT creates a supportive environment for learning during the assessment of staff performance. According to the Wallace Foundation (2012), by maintaining high visibility in their schools' instructional programme, principals do not only focus on teaching and learning practices, but also on building positive relationships with teachers. Linked to the latter statement, Grissom, Loeb and Master (2013:433) posit that the principal's maintaining high visibility during time spent on teacher evaluation leads to instructional and learner improvement.

The key findings of a study conducted by Harrison and Allen (2015), however, reveal that school leaders who maintain high visibility in the school tend to focus more on mission and vision and less on how they support the academic performance of learners or teacher professional development. These scholars propose that further

studies pertinent to the principal's maintaining high visibility in the school's instructional activities are needed, i.e. regarding shared decision-making and professional development for teachers (Harrison & Allen, 2015).

2.8 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP FOR THE STUDY

In the light of the importance of a conceptual framework, to guide the study, I have adapted Hallinger's model (2008) to serve as a conceptual framework. Camp (2001, in Adom, Hussein & Agyem, 2018:439) claims that researchers use a conceptual framework as the structure which could best guide and explain the progress of their studies. There are links between the concepts and empirical research to organise and promote the knowledge the researcher is looking for. It is through this conceptual framework that the researcher tries to investigate the problem to find answers to the research question. The conceptual framework "presents an integrated way of looking at the problem under study" (Liehr & Smith, 1999 in Adom *et.al.*, 2018:439). The framework is normally organised in a systematic and logical manner in a visualised way to indicate how concepts are linked and how systematically a study is undertaken. Börner, Bueckle and Ginda (2019:1857) is of the view that a conceptual framework is "… system of concepts, assumptions, expectations and beliefs … to guide a research study … and generate a systematic order to the flow or logic of the study". The framework can either be narrative or graphic in nature.

2.8.1 The importance of a conceptual framework

Why is a conceptual framework important? Adom *et.al.* (2018:438) state that a conceptual framework can provide structure and also contributes towards creating and sustaining a focus for the study. It therefore also acts as a guide for the study so that it does not lose direction and purpose. It also assists the researcher to consult the appropriate literature and contribute to the cohesion of the study. In the light of the above, it was decided to use Hallinger's model as a conceptual framework for the investigation.

Despite the abundance on studies linked to principalship in the African context, few have attempted to explore the principal's role pertinent to school development and

support using a conceptual framework as a lens of instructional leadership. According to Naidoo, Naidoo and Muthukrishna (2016:7134), these conceptual frameworks were generally linked to the notion of leadership and management. The proposed conceptual framework of instructional leadership in Figure 2.2 (see p. 75) postulates that instructional leadership is an interactive activity that promotes effective teaching and learning, and builds capacity among principals. In addition, this conceptual framework portrays a reality that the principal alone cannot ensure that instructional leadership is practised in schools, but that he/she needs the support of all staff for its successful implementation. This theory foresees that support for instructional leadership by principals will enhance effective teaching and learning.

2.8.2 The main categories and sub-categories of the conceptual framework

As mentioned in Section 2.5.1–2.6.2, Hallinger's conceptual framework consists of three main categories or dimensions, each consisting of sub-categories. The first main category is 'developing the school's vision' with two sub-categories, namely: (1) drafting the school's vision and mission statement and (2) communicating the school's goals. The second main category or dimension is 'managing the instructional programme' and focuses on three sub-categories, namely: (1) assessing staff performance; (2) managing the curriculum and instruction; and (3) managing the academic performance of learners. The third main category or dimension is 'promoting a positive school learning climate' and focuses on four sub-categories, namely: (1) managing of instructional time; (2) facilitating and ensuring the professional development of teachers; (3) providing incentives for teachers; and (4) developing positive relationships with all stakeholders.

Using the aforementioned categories as guidelines, researcher adapted Hallinger's framework to develop a conceptual framework of instructional leadership for the study (see Figure 2.2). The main categories and sub-categories from Hallinger's framework have been renamed in the proposed conceptual framework to facilitate the discussions pertinent to the literature review of the study.
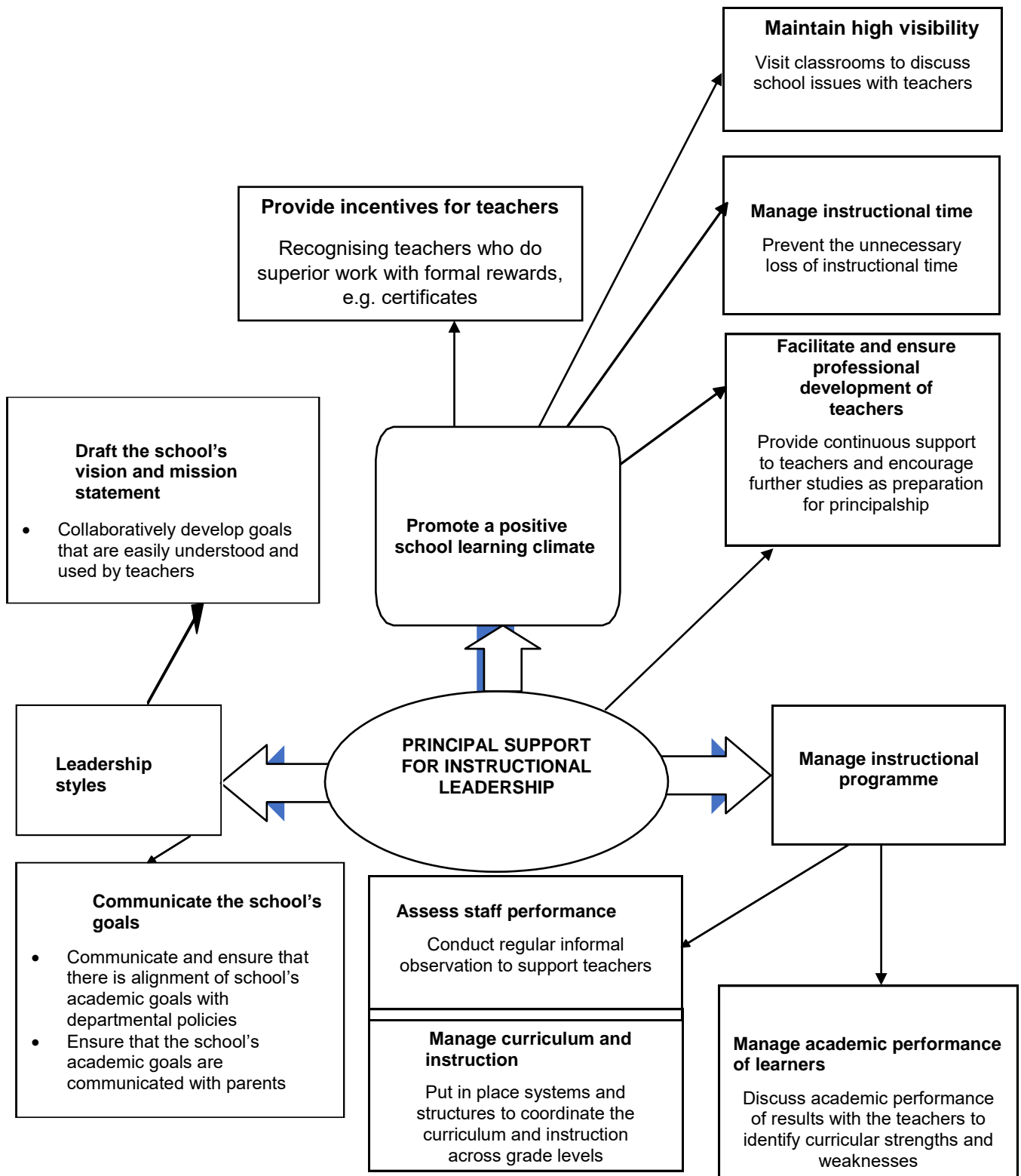
Figure 2.2: A conceptual framework of instructional leadership (adapted from Hallinger, 2008)

2.9 SUMMARY

This chapter provided a description of relevant literature. Aspects such as international perspectives of instructional leadership roles of principals, South African perspectives of instructional leadership roles of principals in the pre-1994 and post-1994 eras, and the possible direct and indirect instructional leadership roles of principals guided by Hallinger's (2008) conceptual framework for instructional leadership were discussed. This conceptual framework provides guidelines for the study and the investigation into the way principals can provide support for instructional leadership in schools to improve learner performance. It furthermore promotes the notion that purposeful and coordinated support by principals promotes effective teaching and learning for improved learner performance, through developing the school's vision (see 2.6.1), managing the instructional programme (see 2.7.1), and promoting a positive school learning climate (see 2.7.3).

From the aforementioned, it is clear that principals today face more demands, more complex decisions, and more responsibilities than principals had encountered in the past. The principal's daily functions are characterised by managerial activities such as implementing departmental and school policies, providing resources, and managing teaching and learning by focusing on curriculum, instruction and assessment to meet learners' learning needs and improve performance. Although principals are still accountable for these managerial tasks, they should instead become responsible for providing quality instructional leadership (their indirect instructional leadership role) (see 2.7) that is aimed at motivating staff to promote best practices in teaching and related instructional areas for enhancing the quality of teaching and learning. Balancing managerial duties with their role as instructional leaders is undoubtedly a necessity for high learner performance.

Newly appointed principals also experience numerous problems, such as developing the required knowledge, attributes and skills to lead their school effectively. In addition, the reported literature suggests that sustained and continuous school improvement requires principals whose focus is primarily on leadership for learning.

In Chapter 3, the research methodology that was followed to investigate the research problem will be discussed.

CHAPTER 3
RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, the research methodology (design and method) that was followed to investigate the research problem is discussed. Topics discussed include the sampling of participants, the concept and components of research design and the research method used in the study. The data-collection methods, data analysis, data validation procedures and ethical considerations are also discussed.

3.2 SAMPLING OF PARTICIPANTS

The sample of the selection of participants for the study was done in a purposive manner. Groenewald (2004:45) posits that purposive sampling is based on the researcher's judgement, the purpose of the research and involving those who "have had experiences relating to the phenomenon to be researched". Creswell (2013:155) concurs with Groenewald's (2004) view that purposive sampling involves identifying and selecting individuals or groups of individuals that are especially knowledgeable about or experienced with a phenomenon of interest.

According to Merriam (2009:6), purposive sampling is based on the assumption that the researcher wishes to discover, understand, and gain insight, and therefore must select a sample from which the most can be learnt. In addition to knowledge and experience, Bernard (2012:189) notes the importance of availability and willingness to participate, and the ability to communicate experiences and opinions in an articulate, expressive, and reflective manner. Patton (2015:264) adds that the logic and power of purposive sampling lie in selecting information-rich cases from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the research question of the study. The primary research question that was investigated in this study was: "What are primary school principals' lived experiences of their roles as instructional leaders?"

De Vos *et al.* (2011:194) argue that purposive sampling comprises elements from a population in which researchers are interested. The researcher should first think critically about the parameters of the population and then choose the sample case

accordingly, because a clear identification of the criteria for the selection of participants is of utmost importance (Creswell, 2013:154).

The participants selected needed to have the following characteristics:

- They had to be the principal of his/her school for a minimum of two years since the commencement of the study in 2016.
- They had to have experience of the phenomenon being studied.
- They had to be located in a previously disadvantaged rural or urban setting.

As the researcher, I chose primary school principals from previously disadvantaged communities because of my experience and understanding of their context.

Creswell (2013:155) asserts that an important consideration for the employment of purposive sampling in qualitative research is the size of the sample to be studied. Bernard (2012:3) stated that the number of participants needed for a phenomenological study to reach data saturation was a number he could not quantify, but that "the researcher takes what he can get". In addition, Creswell (2013:157) claims that in a phenomenological study, a sample size of 3 to 10 individuals is sufficient to reach data saturation. Creswell (2013) and Groenewald (2004) are some of the leading internationally recognised researchers in the field of phenomenological research.

Taking into account the aforementioned the criteria for the selection of participants, I initially selected 15 potential principals from large and small schools, consisting of males and females, located in previously disadvantaged communities and who were all from a homogenous group, namely coloureds, to serve as participants in the study. During the pre-1994 apartheid era in South Africa, the government used different terms to describe the four main racial groups. Individuals were classified as white (formally classified as "European"), black South Africans (formally classified as "native", "Bantu", or simply "African", and comprising the majority of the population), coloured (mixed-race), and "Indian" (formally classified as "Asian") (Thobejane, 2013:2).

However, only five participants signed the informed consent letters (see 3.5.2). Five principals were selected from primary schools in the Paarl, Wellington and Klapmuts

areas in the Western Cape. These five selected principals "represent people who have experienced the phenomenon under study" (Creswell, 2013:155). Therefore, the unit of analysis of this study was the five selected primary school principals in the Paarl, Wellington and Klapmuts areas in the Western Cape. The data was collected over a period of four weeks by way of interviews.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Once the research question and the aim of the study have been formulated, the next step is to select an appropriate research design (Creswell, 2013). Literature, however, reflects differing views of what a research design is. Depending on the research questions informing a study, qualitative empirical materials may be obtained through the utilisation of qualitative designs or approaches, such as the case study (situated knowledge), historical research (knowledge of history), grounded theory (knowledge of process and outcome), ethnography (knowledge of culture), content analysis (knowledge of content), phenomenology (knowledge of lived experience), action research (knowledge of process, outcome and change), hermeneutics (knowledge and interpretation of scriptures or text) and discourse analysis (knowledge of discourse) (Creswell, 2013; Mills & Birks, 2014).

Many research method texts confuse research designs with methods. According to De Vaus (2001:9), "[i]t is not uncommon to see research design treated as a mode of data collection rather than as a logical structure of the inquiry". For instance, Payne and Payne (2004:175) refer to research designs as research methods. This resonates with Mills and Birks's (2014:36) conceptualisation of research methods as including data generation and collection, analysis of data, quality and rigour, and the interpretation of findings. However, Creswell (2013:5) uses the term 'research methods' to refer to techniques such as questionnaires, interviews, observation, document analysis and artefact analysis. With reference to Rule and John (2011) and Creswell (2013), I used the term 'research methods' to refer to techniques for gathering data, while research designs or research approaches are considered as ways of designing and conducting the research. Flick (2014:128) claims that a research design is a plan to collect and analyse evidence that will make it possible for the researcher to answer the research question.

However, in this study I used Grix's (2004) view of a research design, which is based on ontology, epistemology, methodology and method. Furthermore, Grix (2004:66) posits that by setting out clearly the interrelationship between what researchers think can be researched (their ontological positions) and linking it to what they can know about it (their epistemological positions) and how to go about acquiring it (their methodological approaches), they can begin to comprehend the influence their ontological positions can have on what and how they decide to study.

The reasons why I chose Grix's (2004) view of a research design were to understand the interconnectedness between the key components of the research, to prevent confusion when discussing theoretical approaches to the social phenomenon investigated, and to be able to defend my own position and the positions of others (see Figure 3.1).

3.3.1 Components of a research design

Figure 3.1 below depicts the interrelatedness between the key components of a research design.
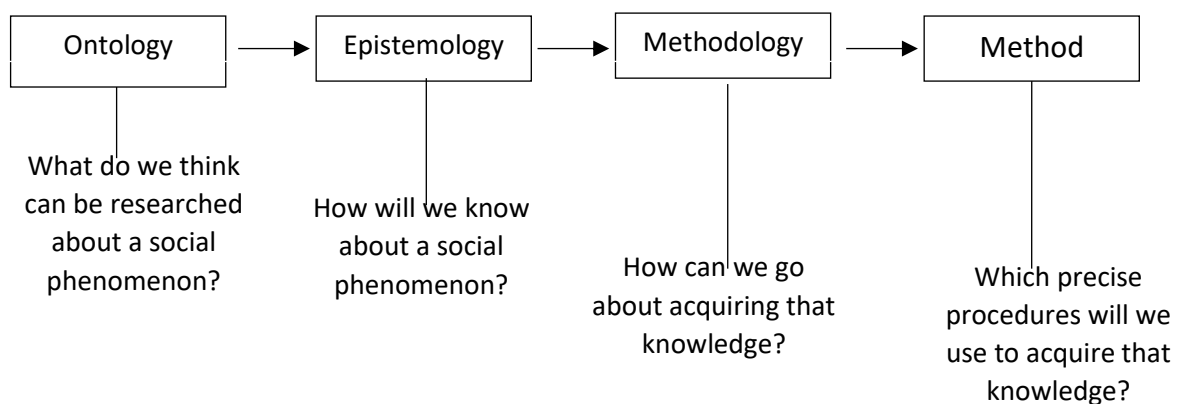
Figure 3.1: The interrelatedness between the key components of a research design (adapted from Grix, 2004:66)

The components of a research design are discussed in sections 3.3.1.1 to 3.3.1.4.

3.3.1.1 Ontology

Ontology is the starting point of all research, after which one's epistemological and methodological positions follow (Grix, 2004:59). The researcher's ontological position is his/her answer to the question of the nature of the reality (to be investigated) (Grix,

2004). Neuman (2007) posits that the most popular example of ontological positions is objectivism vs. constructivism. According to Neuman (2007), objectivism is an ontological position that asserts that phenomena and their meanings have an existence that is independent from the 'actors' (the participants in a study). Constructivism, on the hand, is an alternative ontological position that asserts that phenomena and their meanings are continually being accomplished by the participants in a study (not only produced through interaction, but in a constant state of revision) (Sutrisna, 2009). Thus, an objectivist believes that there is one objective reality experienced the same way by each and every one of us while a constructivist believes that reality is 'constructed' differently by everyone.

In defending my ontological position, I used the constructivist stance to describe the lived experiences of five principals in order to acquire knowledge of their roles as instructional leaders. In describing these principals' lived experiences, I included their actual words obtained through phenomenological interviews to seek as complete a description as possible of the experiences that they have lived through.

3.3.1.2 Epistemology

According to Grix (2004:63), epistemology is one of the core branches of philosophy concerned with the theory of knowledge, especially in regard to its methods, validation and the possible ways of gaining knowledge of social reality, whatever it is understood to be. Given (2008) avers that the most commonly used example of epistemological positions is positivism vs. interpretivism. Given (2008:672) adds that positivism is an epistemological position that advocates the application of methods of natural science to the study of reality and beyond, the "truth" is out there to be discovered (by the researcher). Luo (2011:1–16) asserts that interpretivism is an epistemological position that separates the objects of natural science from the 'actors' (the participants); the researchers somehow construct their own "truth" in viewing the world. Thus, a positivist believes that the reality can be observed, studied and even modelled, while an interpretivist believes that the reality can only be interpreted.

In this study, I employed the interpretivist stance to describe the lived experiences of five principals related to their roles as instructional leaders obtained from the transcribed data through the phenomenological interviews. In describing these

principals' experiences, I emphasise their main roles, which are to ensure that teachers attend and teach classes and that curriculum delivery is implemented successfully.

From the aforementioned, it is clear how a researcher's ontological and epistemological positions can lead to different views of the same social phenomena.

3.3.1.3 Methodology

Methodology is concerned with the discussion of how a particular piece of research should be undertaken and can best be understood as the critical study of research and its use (Grix, 2004:32). Grix (2004:32) claims that the concept of methodology refers to the choice of research strategy taken by a particular scholar, which can be either quantitative research (which is concerned with quantity and quantifying) or qualitative research (which is concerned with interpreting subjective experiences).

In this study, I used the qualitative research strategy to describe how primary school principals experience their roles as instructional leaders. As the current study strove to explore the lived experiences of primary school principals of their roles as instructional leaders, the study falls into the interpretivist research paradigm. The ontological position of interpretivism is relativism (Scotland, 2012:11). De Vos *et al.* (2011:363) note that relativism is the view that reality is subjective and differs from person to person. In line with this notion, De Vos *et al.* (2011:363) claim that relativism refers to the ability to view the world from more than one frame of reference. In addition, Blaikie (2000:113) posits that interpretivists:

> …are concerned with understanding the social world people have produced and which they produce through their continuing activities. This reality consists of the meanings and interpretations given by the social actors to their actions, other peoples' actions, social situations, and natural and humanity created objects. In short, in order to negotiate their way around the world and make sense of it, social actors have to interpret their activities together, and make sense of these meanings, embedded in language, that constitute their social reality.

Therefore, reality is constructed through the interaction between language and aspects of an independent world. Meaning is not discovered; it is constructed

through the interaction between consciousness and the world. Consciousness is always consciousness of something (Scotland, 2012:11).

In this study I employed the interpretivist research paradigm to seek an understanding of how five primary school principals experienced their roles as instructional leaders on a daily basis. To achieve this aim, I relied on these principals' responses to the research questions, as mentioned in a latter section (see 3.5.5), to enable me to interpret the meanings relating to their lived experiences as instructional leaders.

3.3.1.4 Method

Research methods can be seen as the techniques or procedures used to collect and analyse data and are inextricably linked to the research questions posed and to the sources of collected data (Grix, 2004:30). Grix (2004:31) adds that methods themselves should be viewed as "free from epistemological and methodological assumptions", and the choice of which to use should be guided by the researcher's research questions. In this study, I used phenomenological interviews as a data collection method. In addition, I focused on the primary research question in order to describe the lived experiences of five primary school principals of their roles as instructional leaders. In order for me to achieve rigorous quality through these phenomenological interviews, it was important that I ensured that the research process was methodologically articulated in such a manner that data collection and analysis are both seen as part of a single, unified process, and not in isolation. Hence, I ascribed to Englander's (2012) view that if one is following a descriptive phenomenological philosophy as a basis for a phenomenological theory of science, both the data collection and the data analysis need to follow descriptive phenomenology in order to achieve rigour.

3.4 RESEARCH METHOD

I used a qualitative research method with elements of a phenomenological approach to collect the data for the study.

A discussion of key characteristics of qualitative research follows in sections 3.4.1 to 3.4.2.

3.4.1   Characteristics of qualitative research

A number of key characteristics cut across the various interpretivist and qualitative research topics. Qualitative research usually involves fieldwork, meaning the researcher must physically go to the participants or site to interview the samples (Merriam, 2009). The core features of qualitative research are as follows (Krathwohl, 1993:29):

1. It is conducted through intense and/or prolonged contact with a field or life situation.
2. The researcher's role is to gain a holistic overview of the context under study.
3. A main task is to explicate the ways people in particular settings come to understand, account for action and otherwise manage their day-to-day situations.
4. Most of the analysis is done with words. These words can be organised to enable the researcher to contrast, compare, analyse and bestow patterns upon them.
5. In qualitative research, there is an open agenda. The researcher interprets and contextualises the situation in an open manner.

Moreover, Creswell (2009:175) posits that qualitative researchers collect data themselves by studying documents, observing behaviour or interviewing participants. In this regard the qualitative data are mediated by a human instrument and the researcher does not have to use questionnaires or other instruments that were constructed by other researchers (Creswell, 2009:175). Creswell (2013:49) adds that qualitative inquiry is advisable for the researcher who is willing to: (1) commit to extensive time in the field to collect extensive data and to gain access, rapport and an "insider" perspective; (2) engage in the complex and time-consuming process of data analysis and reducing them to a few themes; and (3) write long passages to substantiate claims.

In this study, the interviews with the participants were held over a period of four weeks to collect data that would enable me to describe their lived experiences of their roles as instructional leaders.

3.4.2 Empirical phenomenological research

I drew on the empirical approach to phenomenological research to guide the current study, because in empirical research the researcher seeks descriptions of experience (Moustakas, 1994:15). The empirical phenomenological approach involves a return to experience in order to obtain comprehensive descriptions that provide the basis for a reflective structural analysis that portrays the essence of the experience (Moustakas, 1994:10). Therefore, the researcher in a phenomenological study determines the underlying structures of an experience by interpreting the originally given descriptions of the situation in which the experience occurs. Moustakas (1994:12) further states:

> By adopting a strictly descriptive approach, we can let the phenomena speak for themselves, and when we do we discover that whatever appears suggests in its very appearance something more which does not appear, which is concealed […] the given that is in the appearance of phenomena is 'directionality', a direction is offered or a significance is held out which we pick up and follow, or turn away from.

Moustakas (1994:13) posits that empirical phenomenological studies are outlined by the following steps:

- Step 1: *The problem and question formulation* – the phenomenon. The researcher delineates a focus of investigation and formulates a question in such a way that it is understandable to others.
- Step 2: *The data-generating situation* – the protocol. Life text entails that researchers start with descriptive narratives provided by subjects who are viewed as co-researchers.
- Step 3: *The data analysis* – explication and interpretation. Once collected, the data are read and scrutinised so as to reveal their structure, meaning configuration, coherence and the circumstances of their occurrence.

In this study, I described what the instructional leadership experience means to five primary school principals who provided rich, thick descriptions, from which general or universal meanings were derived, in other words the essences of the experience.

3.5 DATA COLLECTION

3.5.1 Statement on researcher as instrument

In this study, as the interviewer, I had an influence on the data and conducted the data analysis alone. Therefore, it was crucial that I employed objective methods of data collection, analysis and interpretation. Before the commencement of each interview, I adopted the phenomenological attitude known as the "epoché" or "bracketing" to limit bias and to lessen my influence on the data. The challenge of the epoché, according to Moustakas (1994:67), is to be transparent to ourselves, to allow whatever is before us in consciousness to disclose itself so that we may see with new eyes in a naive and completely open manner.

By undertaking the phenomenological attitude, I attempted to remain faithful to the descriptions of the participants' lived experiences of their role as instructional leaders to ensure the maintenance of a fundamental level of validity. Therefore, the epoché is an attitudinal shift that is directed at me to move out of my personal attitude and adopt a critical stance towards participants. This critical stance required me to question my position regarding the lived experiences of participants of their role as instructional leaders. Literature suggests that critical self-questioning is a reflective process that requires the researcher to abstain from the use of personal knowledge, beliefs and attitudes that are already known about a given phenomenon under investigation, and is maintained throughout the interview (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009; Bevan, 2014).

My role as deputy principal and subsequently as principal has influenced and inspired the direction of this study. I observed many teachers while being either a deputy principal or a principal at a primary school located in a rural and previously disadvantaged community. Part of my work as a deputy principal and principal required working directly with teachers to enhance and support their teaching and learning, encourage reflection on the use of teaching strategies, develop effective methods to address struggling learners, and align curriculum and assessments to the CAPS. The CAPS is the most recent version of the national curriculum for South African schools and was introduced in 2010. My experiences in both roles directed my study to include principals, since their perceptions and experiences are not often given a voice.

Therefore, through the current study, I seek to understand how principals experience instructional leadership. The primary aim of the study is to explore how principals experience their roles as instructional leaders and how instructional leadership can lead to effective teaching and learning.

Furthermore, I believe principals are key stakeholders in school development initiatives. Finally, I expect that the principals involved in the current study will share an honest, accurate and detailed account of the nature of instructional leadership in their schools. My hope is to hear what these principals have to say about their experiences with effective instructional leadership to better understand how they make sense of the phenomenon.

3.5.2 Data collection calendar

During the last school term of 2015, I applied for approval from the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) to conduct the study among primary school principals in the Cape Winelands Educational District in the Western Cape. On 9 March 2016, I received written approval from the WCED to collect data among these principals from 1 April 2016 until 31 September 2016 (see Appendix A). I applied for approval for ethical clearance for the study from the Research Ethics Committee (Human Research) of Stellenbosch University during January 2016. On 29 March 2016, I received written approval from this committee to collect data among the aforementioned principals involved in this study (see Appendix B). An interview schedule, comprising the qualitative research questions to potential participants, is attached to this study (see Appendix C). In January 2016, I contacted 15 potential participants (principals) in connection with individual interviews to obtain biographical information. During these interviews I also discussed times and dates to meet for the actual phenomenological interviews and answered any questions relating to their participation. I also assured them that confidentiality of their identity and participation will be ensured. In addition, I described and discussed the informed consent form (see Appendix D), which the participants needed to sign prior to the interviews conducted at their schools after normal school hours during the second school term of 2016. The time and date of these interviews were included in an interviewing calendar (see Appendix E).

3.5.3   Data collection method

For the purpose of the current study, I employed phenomenological interviews using semi-structured interview questions from an interview schedule as a data-collection method to gain insights into the experiences of the participants. Phenomenological interviewing is one of the major data-collection techniques in phenomenological research and its general characteristic is to allow participants to express their personal perspectives (Punch, 2005:168). According to Marshall and Rossman (2011:104), the aim of phenomenological interviewing is to describe the meaning of a concept or phenomenon that a number of individuals share. In addition, Ajjawi and Higgs (2007:619) posit that phenomenological interviewing serves specific purposes. Firstly, it is used as a method of exploring and collecting descriptions (stories) of lived experience; and secondly, it serves as a vehicle to develop conversations with a participant about the meaning of a phenomenon.

3.5.4   Distinction between phenomenological interviewing and in-depth interviewing

According to Moustakas (1994:86), phenomenological interviewing:

> … involves an informal, interactive process and utilizes open-ended comments and questions. Although the primary researcher may in advance develop a series of questions aimed at evoking a comprehensive account of the person's experience of the phenomenon, these are varied, altered, or not used at all when the co-researcher shares the full story of his or her experience of the bracketed question.

Moustakas (1994:86) posits that the phenomenological interview often begins with a social conversation or a brief meditative activity aimed at creating a relaxed and trusting atmosphere. Following this opening, the investigator suggests that the co-researcher take a few moments to focus on the experience, moments of particular awareness and impact, and then to describe the experience fully (Moustakas (1994:87). Phenomenological researchers are inclined to select interviews because of their interest in the meaning of a phenomenon as experienced by another subject (Englander, 2012:14). Burgess (1982), on the other hand, points out that those researchers who employ in-depth interviewing to collect data stress the importance of talking to people to grasp their point of view. In addition, Hammersley and

Atkinson (1995:126) argue that personal accounts are seen as having central importance in social research because of the power of language to illuminate meaning:

> The expressive power of language provides the most important resource for accounts. A crucial feature of language is its capacity to present descriptions, explanations, and evaluations of almost infinite variety about any aspect of the world, including itself.

Two alternative positions on in-depth interviewing are put forward by Kvale (1996). The first, which he summarises as the 'miner metaphor', falls broadly within a modern social science research model which sees knowledge as 'given':

> Knowledge is understood as buried metal and the interviewer is a miner who unearths the valuable metal [...] [T]he knowledge is waiting in the subject's interior to be uncovered, uncontaminated by the miner. The interviewer digs nuggets of data or meanings out of a subject's pure experiences, unpolluted by any leading questions (Kvale, 1996:275).

The second, which Kvale calls the 'traveller metaphor', falls within the constructivist research model in which knowledge is not given but is created and negotiated. The interviewer is seen as a traveller who journeys with the interviewee. The meanings of the interviewee's 'stories' are developed as the traveller interprets them. Through conversations, the interviewer leads the subject to new insights: there is a transformative element to the journey where the "the traveller asks questions that lead the interviewees to tell their own stories of their lived world, and converses with them in the original Latin meaning of conversation as 'wandering together with'" (Kvale, 1996:276). In this sense, the researcher is therefore an active player in the development of data and of meaning. Holstein and Gubrium (2006) argue that the researcher is not simply a 'pipeline' through which knowledge is transmitted, but that he/she views knowledge as constructed in the interview, through collaboration between the interviewee and interviewer.

Therefore, in this study, I chose to employ phenomenological interviewing instead of in-depth interviewing to collect data. Phenomenological interviewing allowed me to describe how five primary school principals from previously disadvantaged

communities shared their lived experiences of their instructional leadership roles in an atmosphere in which they felt comfortable to respond honestly and comprehensively to the interviewing questions.

3.5.5 Process of actual interviews held

Although all interviews were conducted in Afrikaans, all transcriptions of the interviews with the participants were translated into English to facilitate the data analysis, which is reported in English. I employed a qualified professional language practitioner to assess the accuracy of theses translations to ensure that the translations were truthful to the original collected data. The interviews were semi-structured in nature. Henning, Van Rensburg and Smit (2004:53) claim that the benefit of semi-structured qualitative interviews is that the interview is conducted without interference from the interviewer. This should enable the interviewee to give a "true" or "real" subjective version of the facts, opinions and feelings as he or she experiences them. In such interviews the context is believed to be the real thing as presented by the subjective participant (Henning *et al.*, 2004).

The interviews focused on the primary research question which was articulated as: "What are primary school principals' lived experiences of their roles as instructional leaders?" The following ten questions formed part of the semi-structured interviews (see 1.4.1 in Chapter 1):

1. How do you perceive the nature and essence of instructional leadership in your school?
2. How do you experience the different dimensions of instructional leadership in your school?
3. What is your experience of the establishment of sound relationships with teachers, learners and parents?
4. How will you describe your experience of developing cooperation with teachers through effective leadership to improve learner performance?
5. What is your experience of instructional support to teachers?
6. How will you describe your experience of ensuring continuous professional development of teachers?

7. What is your experience of the evaluation system, the integrated quality management system (IQMS)?

8. What is your experience of performance feedback to teachers?

9. How do the historical backgrounds and socio-economic conditions of your school impact on instructional leadership?

10. What recommendations can you make in order to successfully implement instructional leadership in your school?

Furthermore, the rationale for the selection of semi-structured interviews enabled the researcher to focus on specific areas while allowing the opportunity to probe and prompt in instances where researcher felt that the responses were inadequate (Khumalo, 2009:135). Prompting questions such as "Can you give an example of that?" and "Can you tell me more about that?" were used in order to elicit rich descriptions of the participants' experiences.

During the interviews I considered the participants as co-researchers, as they allowed me to share in their lived experience (Heron & Reason, 2006; King, Hicks, Krull & Del Gaiso, 2006).

3.5.6 Data-capturing

Each interview with the participants was recorded digitally using a Philips digital recorder and were transcribed verbatim by the researcher after the interviews were conducted. Prior to the commencement of the actual interviews, the recorder was tested to ensure high quality and volume control of background noises. The participants were aware that the interviews would be recorded, and permission to record was sought before the interviews. All the participants gave their consent that the interviews may be recorded.

In order to have the interview data captured more effectively, recording the interviews is considered to be an appropriate choice (Rubin & Rubin, 2012; Denscombe, 2014). The recording of the interview makes it easier for the researcher to focus on the interview content and the verbal prompts and thereby enables the researcher to generate a verbatim transcript of the interview (Hagens, Dobrow & Chafe, 2009; Jamshed, 2014:88). However, De Vos *et al.* (2011:298) argue that recording does have its disadvantages, as participants may feel unhappy about

being recorded, and may even withdraw after the commencement of interviews. I ensured that the tape recorder was placed inconspicuously so as not to unnerve the participants during the interviews. After receiving the transcripts, I read the text while listening to the recorded interviews several times to ensure accuracy. The data were stored on a secure, password-protected computer. After all the interviews were transcribed and summarised, the data on the recorder were erased permanently. The interviews of the participants comprised the data for the current study.

Now that the components in the aforementioned interview protocol have been explained, a discussion of the data analysis follows.

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis in qualitative research is an ongoing, emerging and iterative or non-linear process. Smit (2002:66) argues that before the commencement of data analysis, data are transcribed, which simply means that texts from interviews or observational notes are typed into word-processing documents, also referred to as transcripts. Linked to this argument, several authors posit that these transcriptions are then analysed either manually or with computer programmes, such as the ATLAS.ti qualitative data analysis (QDA) programme, to make sense of the transcribed data (Silverman, 2000; Smit, 2002; Scales, 2013; Friese, 2014).

Various researchers agree that the aim of data analysis is to identify the meaning of data by means of arranging information systematically and presenting it (De Vos *et al.*, 2011; Marshall & Rossman, 2011; Patton, 2015). In addition, De Vos *et al.* (2011:333) claim that data analysis involves reducing the volume of raw information, sifting significance from trivia, identifying significant patterns and constructing a framework for communicating the essence of what the data reveal. Some researchers, however, argue that data analysis is a messy, ambiguous, time-consuming yet creative and fascinating process (De Vos *et al.*, 2011; Marshall & Rossman, 2011). In this study, I employed the ATLAS.ti QDA programme, which performs text analysis and interpretation, particularly selecting, coding and comparing noteworthy segments (Friese, 2014:40–55). The six essential steps proposed by Scales (2013:134–147) to identify emerging themes by using the ATLAS.ti QDA computer programme, is now described.

3.6.1   ATLAS.ti QDA coding steps

Figure 3.2 below provides a list of coding steps, according to Scales (2013:134–147), which I used to analyse the collected data from the phenomenological interviews.

```
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│   Prepare the collected data from the    │
│      phenomenological interviews         │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│  Read through the interview transcripts  │
│         to explore keywords              │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│  Generate interview categories to aid in │
│        the interpretation of data        │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Review codes for possibility of coding   │
│            differently                   │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│  Use the memos function for retrieval of │
│           related ideas                  │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
┌─────────────────────────────────────────┐
│ Visualise the collected data to construct│
│          emerging themes                 │
└─────────────────────────────────────────┘
```
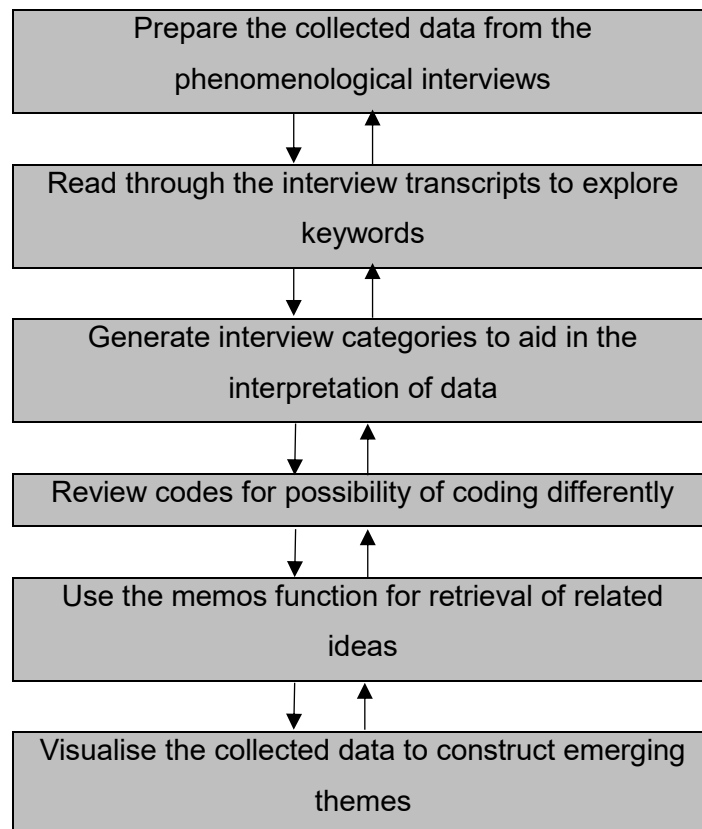
Figure 3.2: Coding steps to analyse collected data (adapted from Scales, 2013:134–147)

The arrows in Figure 3.2 above face in both directions, highlighting the fact that the process of coding is recursive or iterative. Each of these steps will be briefly discussed according to Scales (2013:134–147).

Step 1: Prepare the collected data from the phenomenological interviews

This step involves the collection of data from the phenomenological interviews for the purpose of review and capturing in ATLAS.ti 8, which is supported by multiple formats. In this study, I obtained the collected data from the transcribed interviews in textual format (e.g. .doc, .docx, .rtf and .txt). The file containing the collected data from the interviews were all imported into ATLAS.ti 8.

Step 2: Read through the interview transcripts to explore keywords

Importing the documents into ATLAS.ti 8 allowed me to maximise the use of the features of the software and enabled me to explore the words used in all the phenomenological interviews. I then used the ATLAS.ti programme to run a word frequency check in the data from the phenomenological interviews, primarily so that it would be able to get a general view of the main words used in my analysis. In addition, I chose to view the word frequency results in a Word list format.

Step 3: Generate interview categories to aid the interpretation of data

After the primary words used in the collected data from the interviews were identified, I moved on to the next step, which was to examine the context in which a string of words is used. This function is called auto-coding, which allowed me to search for a specific keyword in the collected data to create a quote out of the segment in which the word was used (such as word, sentence or paragraph) and to code it with a specific code name. Auto-coding also assisted me by automatically coding the segment with the chosen keyword. I then used open coding to assist me with the identification of concepts and ideas in the collected data that could be generalised to the context of my data analysis. Open coding includes labelling concepts and defining and developing themes based on their properties and dimensions.

Step 4: Review codes for possibility of coding differently

Although there are a number of ways of doing open coding, in this study I used line-by-line coding, whereby I analysed the data line by line and sentence by sentence. Moreover, the process of doing open coding assisted me in building a descriptive, multi-dimensional preliminary framework for later analysis. As it is built directly from the raw data, it processes itself to ensure the validity of the study.

Step 5: Use the memos function for retrieval of related ideas

This step involved the use of ATLAS.ti 8 to create memos from the collected data. Memos enabled me to keep all the notes and ideas relating to this study in one central location, called Memo Manager, for easy retrieval upon demand. In addition,

memos assisted me in reflecting on, interpreting and commenting on anything relating to the collected data from the interviews in this study.

Step 6: Visualise the collected data to construct emerging themes

Using the networks function in ATLAS.ti 8 assisted me in visualising the collected data from the phenomenological interviews. The advanced and improved networks capability of the ATLAS.ti 8 software allowed for more space and features to visualise my work and come up with additional thoughts and ideas. Because the display of networks is highly customisable, it enabled me to edit the appearance of the networks according to my needs to construct emerging themes. I also employed the phenomenological analysis approaches to analyse the collected data.

Figure 3.3 below illustrates a focused network constructed through the networks function in ATLAS.ti 8 to depict the participants' responses to sub-questions 1 and 2, which were articulated as follows:

(1) How do you experience the different dimensions of instructional leadership in your school?

(2) What recommendations can you make to apply instructional leadership successfully in your school?
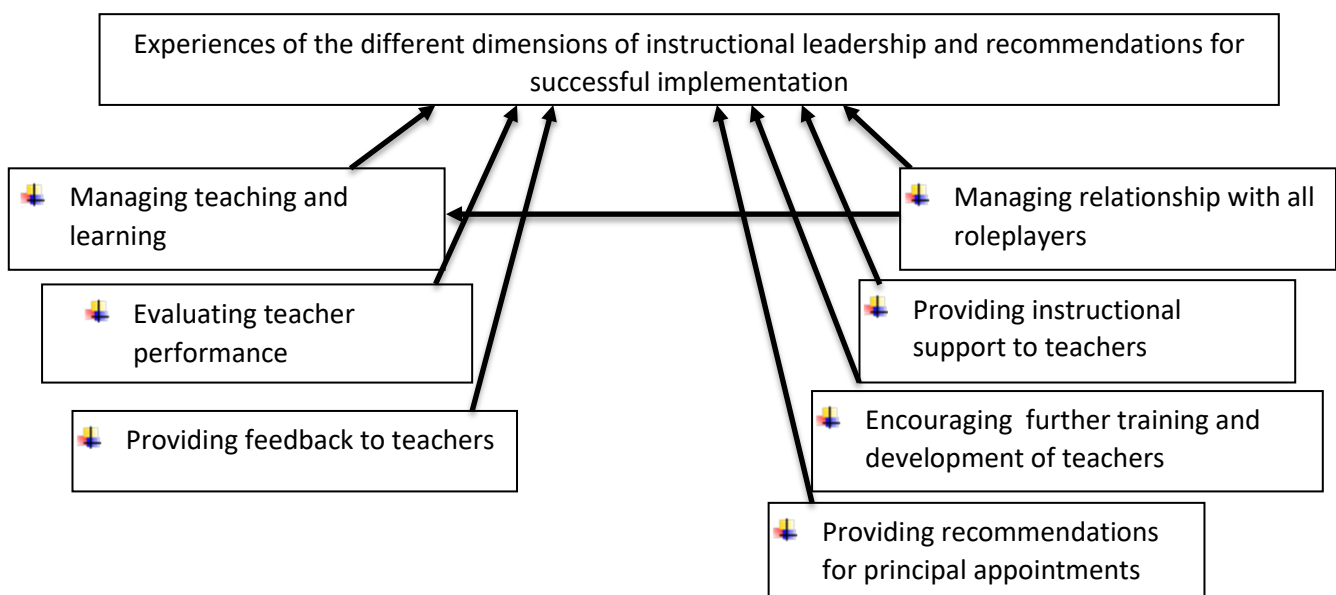
Figure 3.3: A view of a focused network depicting the participants' responses to sub-questions 1 and 2

In Box 1, the presentation of the coded data through the application of the ATLAS.ti programme, quotations and extracts of line-by-line coding (see 4.4.1), part 1, interv, line 5, for example, refers to the responses of participant 1, interview transcription, line 5.

Box 1: Example of coded data from participants' responses to sub-questions 1 and 2

"as being involved in the management of all teaching and learning activities at my school" (Part 1, Interv, line 1); "evaluation of teachers take place" (Part 2, Interv, line 43); "the focus of the feedback sessions at his school is on the areas for development" (Part 3, Interv, lines 70-71) "although I have a good relationship with learners' and parents, I recently experienced a case of parental unhappiness" (Part 1, Interv, line 103); "every role player's input should be considered to achieve the school's vision". (Part 4, Interv, lines 99-100); "I selected the best teacher with the appropriate skills and knowledge to support the other teachers to improve their instructional practice"(Part 1, Interv, lines 176-177); "two Foundation Phase teachers decided to enroll for a short course offered by a local university to improve their content knowledge of the CAPS-curriculum" (Part 2, Interv, lines 197-198); "experience gained over time and hard work would ensure that an ordinary post-level 1 teacher could become a successful school principal" ((Part 4, Interv, lines 168-169); "to become a principal, a person should not necessarily have to be a HOD or a deputy principal before becoming a principal" (Part 5, Interv, line 172)

3.6.2 Conclusion

From the reported literature, it becomes evident that qualitative data analysis can be done either manually or through the assistance of computer programmes, such as the ATLAS.ti QDA programme. It came to the fore that the ATLAS.ti QDA programme has five advantages pertinent to qualitative data analysis (Scales, 2013:134–147). Firstly, it offers support to the researcher during the data analysis process, where texts are analysed and interpreted using various coding activities. Secondly, it provides a comprehensive overview of a research project. Thirdly, it facilitates immediate search and retrieval functions. Fourthly, it has a network-building feature, which allows one to visually connect selected texts and codes by means of diagrams. Fifthly, it enables researchers to construct emerging themes. I found that I had benefited from all five advantages and that the programme did indeed assist me in analysing the data, provided a holistic view of the research

project and facilitated immediate research and retrieval functions. I was able to visually connect texts and codes, as well as identify emerging themes.

The themes identified manually though phenomenological data analysis and the ATLAS.ti programme are discussed in Chapter 4 (see 4.4).

Next follows a description of the phenomenological data analysis approach.

3.6.3 Phenomenological data analysis

Literature suggests differing views of phenomenological data analysis. Phenomenological data analysis focuses on the phenomenon itself, accessed through analysis of the descriptions provided by participants of their re-lived experiences of a phenomenon (Hein & Austin, 2001). Other researchers suggest that a phenomenological data analysis approach involves the use of thick descriptions and close analysis of lived experience to understand how meaning is created through embodied perception (Groenewald, 2004; Starks & Trinidad, 2007).

Moustakas (1994) describes empirical phenomenological data analysis as having two distinct analytical phases. In the first phase, participants' pre-reflective descriptions of 'what' happened are reported in the verbatim textural language of the participants from interview transcripts, in which each statement provided by a participant is equally valued and queried for relevance to other participant statements. The second phase of analysis has a more interpretive feel, focusing on the structural; the how structures speak "to the conditions that illuminate the 'what' of the experience" (Moustakas, 1994:98). The researcher transforms each unit of analysis into discourse appropriate to the researcher's human science discipline and extends the researcher's understanding of the phenomenon. In this study, the unit of analysis comprised the five participants.

The researcher often integrates analysis into a synthesis of the 'essence' of the phenomena (Moustakas, 1994). Interpreted structural meanings are made explicit and are made available so that other researchers can see the interpretation process for themselves, providing the ability for critical others to question the interpretation constructed by the researcher. This characteristic of empirical phenomenology (Moustakas, 1994; Hein & Austin, 2001) reveals interpretations to readers.

In order to capture the essence of principals' experiences with effective instructional leadership, I analysed the transcribed interview data according to a set of rigorous steps proposed by Moustakas (1994). During this process, the researcher: (1) reflects on the setting and context in which the phenomenon was experienced; and (2) writes a description of "how" the experience happened (structural description). The contexts of participants, data analysis and a synthesis of data are discussed in Chapter 4. Once the data analysis was completed, I compared the data from each of the five principals with each another and to the core instructional leadership practices (themes) to write a rich, thick description of the phenomenon by focusing on the primary research question through phenomenological data analysis, the ATLAS.ti QDA programme.

This analysis is linked to the reported data pertinent to the lived experiences of the participating principals of their instructional leadership roles (see Sections 4.4.1 to 4.4.3 in Chapter 4) and supported by the conceptual framework (see Figure 2.2 in Chapter 2 on p.75)

3.7 DATA-VALIDATION STRATEGIES

To evaluate the quality of the current study, I employed data-validation strategies as proposed by Creswell (2013:244–255), such as applying trustworthiness; peer reviewing; member checking; a thick, rich description of data; an audit trail; and triangulation. An explanation of these strategies follows.

3.7.1 Trustworthiness

The quality of qualitative research depends on how much trust can be attached to the research process and the findings. Trustworthiness in qualitative research is challenging in respect of the fact that both the interviewer and the interviewees operate within a framework of subjectivity. The most significant threat is bias on the part of the interviewer and the interviewee, and also the content of the questions. These biases relate to the personal attitudes, opinions and expectations of the interviewer and interviewee; the interviewer seeking answers to support his/her preconceived ideas; the misinterpretation and misconceptions about what the interview participant is saying; and the misunderstanding of the questions.

Bless, Higson-Smith and Sithole (2013) propose four criteria that are considered appropriate in qualitative studies that should establish the trustworthiness of the research. These criteria to ensure the trustworthiness of the qualitative data are as follows:

1. *Credibility* refers to the study being conducted in such a manner as to ensure that the phenomenon is accurately identified and described, and that the findings depict the truth of the reality under study or, in other words, that they make sense. This study was located within the management and leadership framework of the primary school environment and aimed to identify the challenges and to make recommendations in relation to the role of the principal as instructional leader, particularly in previously disadvantaged schools, in relation to learner achievement. In establishing credibility, the parameters were defined in the research questions of this study and in the purposeful selection of the participants from primary schools in the Paarl, Wellington and Klapmuts areas in the Western Cape.

2. *Dependability* refers to the researcher thoroughly describing and precisely following a clear and thoughtful research strategy. In this study, I described each step of the qualitative component thoroughly and carefully, namely sampling (see 3.2), how the data were collected (see 3.5), coded and analysed (see 3.6.1 to 3.6.3).

3. *Transferability* refers to the extent to which the results may apply to other similar situations. No claims are made regarding the generalisability of the results of this study. In this case, the aim of the interviews with the purposefully selected participants was to obtain in-depth information about the phenomenon under study, and not generalisability. However, the findings of the interviews could be useful in similar school contexts in the Western Cape.

4. *Confirmability* requires that other researchers may be able to obtain similar findings by following a similar research process in the same context. In this case, my detailed description of the research design (see 3.3) supplies other researchers with a clear audit trail (see 3.7.5), should they wish to conduct a similar study in a different context (Bless *et al.*, 2013:236–238).

In this study, I ensured that the interviews were properly structured by preparing interview guides for the interviews (see 1.4.1 in Chapter 1); asking questions to confirm that I understood the meaning of a response (see 3.5.5 in Chapter 3); repeating questions to ensure that every facet had been answered; and by asking probing questions to gain additional insight. My experience as school principal in similar contexts to those of the participants enhanced my empathy and rapport with participants during the interviews.

3.7.2 Peer reviewing

The process of peer reviewing or peer debriefing, according to Creswell (2009:267), entails the localisation of an individual outside the research project, also known as a peer reviewer, to act on the different aspects of research by conducting an external audit. This audit may occur throughout or at the end of the study. The auditor, who may be a colleague, is requested to conduct a comprehensive revision of the study to determine whether he or she agrees or not whether the researcher made valid interpretations and findings from the data (Marshall & Rossman, 2011:222). Shelton and Stern (2004:67) assert that the fresh perspective that such individuals may be able to bring may allow them to challenge assumptions made by the investigator, whose closeness to the project frequently inhibits his/her ability to view it with real detachment.

Creswell (2013:259–260) argues that auditors who judge the quality of a phenomenological study might ask the following five questions:

1. Did the researcher influence the contents of the participants' descriptions in such a way that the descriptions do not truly reflect the participants' actual experience?
2. Are the transcriptions accurate, and do they convey the meaning of the oral presentation in the interview?
3. Were there, in the analysis of the transcriptions, conclusions other than those offered by the researcher that could have been derived?
4. Is it possible to go from the general structural description to the transcriptions and account for the specific contents and connections in the original examples of the experiences?

5. Is the structural description situation specific, or does it hold in general for experiences in other situations?

3.7.3 Member checking

According to Thomas (2006:244), member checking enhances the credibility of findings by allowing participants and other people who may have specific interests in the evaluation to comment on or assess the research findings, interpretations and conclusions. Such checks may be important in establishing the credibility of the findings. For example, participants in the settings studied are given a chance to comment on whether the categories described in the findings relate to their personal experiences (Creswell, 2013; Saldaña, 2013). Member checking may be carried out on the initial documents, interview transcriptions and summaries and on the data interpretations and findings (Miles, Huberman & Saldaña, 2013; Saldaña, 2013).

To enhance the credibility of the findings in this study, I revisited the participants to ask them to verify their interpretations and data gathered during the earlier interviews. I provided copies of the preliminary version of the evaluation report to the participants for review before the final submission. I also ensured that the anonymity of each participant was preserved during the interviews. All the participants were satisfied with their contributions as presented in the preliminary version and that they were satisfied that the interpretations are true and a trustworthy reflection of their inputs.

3.7.4 A rich, thick description of data

Van Manen (1990:63) claims that the "data of human science is the human experience". In an effort to create an explanation to describe a lived experience, Denscombe (2008:76) posits that to conduct a personal description of a lived experience, the researcher in the study (1) tries to describe his/her experience as much as possible in experiential terms, focusing on a particular situation or event; and (2) tries to give a direct description of his/her experience as it is, without offering casual explanations or interpretive generalisations of his/her experience. To produce descriptions of lived experience, Finlay (2012:8) proposes the following:

- Describe the experience as you live(d) through it, avoiding as much as possible casual explanations, generalisations or abstract interpretations.

- Describe the experience from the inside, as it were; almost like a state of mind: the feeling, mood, emotions, etc.
- Focus on a particular example or incident of the object of experience.
- Describe specific events, an adventure, a happening or a particular experience.

Various researchers claim that one of the strengths of qualitative research is the construction of rich, thick descriptions of a phenomenon under study (Denscombe, 2008:300; Creswell, 2009:192). Denscombe (2008:192) asserts that these descriptions are thick in the sense that they are more superficial or produce numerous perspectives of a phenomenon under study. De Vos *et al.* (2011:5) posit that with qualitative research words instead of numeric symbols are used to transfer what the researcher has learnt. De Vos *et al.* (2011:352) emphasise the integration of people's voices into written reports.

Creswell (2013:220) claims that rich detailed reports are essential requirements for qualitative researchers. In line with this claim, Creswell (2013:221) posits that a detailed description in this area can be an important provision for promoting credibility, as it helps to convey the actual situations that have been investigated and, to an extent, the contexts that surround them. Further, without this insight, it is difficult for the reader of the final account to determine the extent to which the overall findings ring true. Linked to this position, Creswell (2013:252) maintains that these descriptions enable readers to transfer information to other settings because of interconnecting details, for example using strong action verbs and quotes from qualitative reports.

Therefore, in the current study, I provided a thick, detailed description of the lived experiences of the various participants involved in the study.

3.7.5 Audit trail

Some scholars posit that the researcher needs to construct an audit trail (Denscombe, 2008:298; Marshall & Rossman, 2011:221). This audit trail provides a transparent way through which the researcher can show how the data have been collected and managed. The aim is to provide a report for all data and decisions that have been made in the field so that anyone can track the logic of the research

(Marshall & Rossman, 2011:221). However, Denscombe (2008:298) stresses that "[a]n inquiry audit cannot be constructed without a residue of records stemming from the inquiry, just as a fiscal audit cannot be constructed without a residue of records from business transactions involved". Creswell (2013:253) asserts that the original interview transcriptions contribute to the audit trail.

In this study, detailed records of information related to the participants' biographic details have been kept, as well as a list of interviewing dates with the participants (see Appendix E).

3.7.6 Triangulation

Erzberger and Kelle (2003) posit that triangulation is defined as the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon. Denzin (2009) adds that triangulation involves the employment of multiple external methods to not only collect data, but also to analyse the data. In ensuring the reliability and validity of the data and results, the importance of triangulation cannot be underestimated. This occurs when the data is accurate and truthful (Roe & Just, 2009), when the inferences have a reasonable probability for actually occurring and can be traced back to the conceptual framework (Roe & Just, 2009), and when a study's conclusions can be transferred to other studies regardless of populations, settings or times (Aastrup & Halldorsson, 2013).

To enhance objectivity, truth and validity, Denzin (2009) categorised four types of triangulation for social research: (1) researcher triangulation for correlating the findings from multiple researchers in a study; (2) theory triangulation for using and correlating multiple theoretical strategies; (3) methodological triangulation for correlating data from multiple data collection methods; and (4) data triangulation for correlating people, time and space.

3.7.6.1 Researcher triangulation

According to Denzin (2009), with the application of the researcher triangulation there is more than one researcher involved in the exploration of the phenomenon. Denzin (2009), stresses that this type of triangulation does not include coders, graduate assistants or data analysts, but rather, the persons with the best skills closest to the data. Further, Denzin (2009) argues that by considering the latter action, bias is

mitigated by different researchers who may not agree on its interpretation observing the same data. I employed this type of triangulation during this research.

3.7.6.2 Theory triangulation

Denzin (2009) argues that one views the collected data through a theoretical lens and through contradictory theories. Linked to this argument, Denzin (2009) asserts that another view to a strategic approach is to let the raw data speak to the researcher in order for him/her to: (1) ascertain a new theory; (2) widen a theoretical lens; and (3) obtain an enhanced knowledge regarding the phenomenon under study. I used this type of triangulation in this study.

3.7.6.3 Methodological triangulation

Denzin (2009) claims that methodological triangulation can be 'within method' or 'between methods'. Linked to this claim, Denzin (2009) posits that methodological triangulation is generally understood to be within method using multiple sources of data, such as interviews, focus groups or observations found within one design. On the other hand, Denzin (2009) argues that in a qualitative case or ethnography study, within-method triangulation would be used, whereas in a combination of quantitative and qualitative techniques, between method (or across method) is applicable. Denzin (2009) asserts that the ideal type of triangulation is between-method triangulation because it has two benefits. Firstly, it accounts for deficiencies. Secondly, it takes the best of both types of triangulation to overcome the weakness of each. Denzin (2009), however, argues that although the between method provides an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon under study, the validity of the study is not always enhanced. I used this type of triangulation in this study.

3.7.6.4 Data triangulation

According to Denzin (2009), data triangulation is often confused for methodological triangulation and is most likely a mistake that students make when discussing triangulation. To avoid this confusion, researchers should consider what Denzin (2009) refers to as people, time and space. In this regard, Denzin (2009) claims that data triangulation includes four qualities. Firstly, the data points, namely people, time and space (not methods to generate data) are interrelated. Secondly, each data point represents different data of the same event. Thirdly, the data points are used to

discover commonalities within dissimilar settings. Fourthly, the data points take place over a certain period of time (i.e. days, weeks, months or years). I employed this type of triangulation in this study.

I used data sources such as narrative reports regarding the biographical information (researcher triangulation) (see 4.2.1), working environments (researcher triangulation) (see 4.2.2), academic performance (data triangulation) (see 2.7.1.3) and the interviews with participants (methodological triangulation) (see 4.4.1 to 4.4.3) to collect and analyse data. I employed a conceptual framework (theory triangulation) (see Figure 2.2) to ensure that data inferences have occurred during the data analysis (data triangulation) (see 4.4.3.4 and 4.5) and provided recommendations for future research (data triangulation) (see 5.4 in Chapter 5).

3.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

In this section, various ethical issues that are relevant to qualitative research are briefly discussed. Punch (2005:55–56) asserts that all research has ethical dimensions. Therefore, researchers must be watchful in maintaining high ethical standards (Creswell, 2009:240). In addition, Creswell (2009:56) notes that a researcher's ethical responsibility includes principles of academic integrity and honesty, and respect for other people. Mack, Woodsong, MacQueen, Guest and Namey (2005:8) argue that while doing research with people, their welfare should be a top priority.

Flick (2014:36) believes that ethical codes are formulated to regulate relationships between researchers and the people involved in the study. The fostering of a trust relationship between these parties is important to develop support. According to Gray and Thorpe (2015:68), all researchers need to consider ethical principles when they are conducting their research.

3.8.1   The fundamental principles of research ethics

In this study, I considered various fundamental ethical challenges, which are related to the principles of informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity. These ethical issues were constantly adhered to in the current study.

3.8.1.1 Informed consent

Ethical guidelines emphasise the importance of informed consent from participants in the research (Silverman, 2000:201; Leedy & Omrod, 2001:107; Mason, 2002:80; Creswell, 2009:238; Flick, 2014:37). As already mentioned previously (see Section 1.7), it was necessary to obtain ethical clearance for the study from the Research Ethics Committee (Human Research) of Stellenbosch University before the commencement of the data-analysis process with selected participants. The clearance certificate with reference number SU-HSD-001910 is attached in Appendix B. Prior to the study, the participants were informed verbally of the aims and objectives of the study. Voluntary informed consent forms needed to be signed by the participants immediately before the individual interviews and observations (see Appendix D). As participation was voluntary, participants could decline from participation and withdraw from the study without penalty after it had commenced.

3.8.1.2 Confidentiality

Confidentiality of participants is of utmost importance (Creswell, 2009:240). Researchers must guarantee the confidentiality of participants (Mason, 2002:80), which means that the information related to participants will only be used in such a way that makes it impossible for other people to identify them (Flick, 2014:40).

The participants in my study were assured that any data that they have provided would be handled confidentially and would only be used for academic purposes in the current study and for future publications that may flow from this study. Individual confidentiality was upheld by using an unmarked interview schedule and codes and pseudonyms in the reported data.

3.8.1.3 Anonymity

The researcher must take precautions to ensure the anonymity of participants. This means that their identities will be protected (Marshall & Rossman, 2011:40). In the current study, I obtained personal (biographic) details from the participants, which were used during the research process and handled with strong confidentiality by storing it on a password-protected computer locked in my study in my home. The anonymity of the participants in the current study will be upheld by referring to them in published reports by way of pseudonyms.

3.9 SUMMARY

In this chapter, a discussion was provided of the research methodology that was followed to investigate the research problem. The research design is situated in the interpretivist research paradigm. I employed a qualitative research method with elements of a phenomenological approach to collect data. The sampling of participants was also discussed.

Semi-structured phenomenological interviews were employed as a data collection method. Furthermore, I employed a phenomenological data analysis approach, proposed by Moustakas (1994), to analyse the data.

To ensure the quality of the research report, I considered various data validation strategies such as trustworthiness, peer reviewing, member checking, a rich, thick description of data, an audit trail and triangulation. These strategies were also discussed in this chapter.

The next chapter, Chapter 4, comprises the findings obtained from the lived experiences of the participants and the transcribed qualitative interviews. Topics include the biographical information of participants and a discussion of the themes in the school context.

CHAPTER 4
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 3, a discussion was provided of the research methodology that was followed to investigate the research problem. Chapter 4 (see Objectives 2, 3 and 4 on p. 22) presents and discusses the findings of the investigation of participants' lived experiences derived from the transcribed qualitative interviews. Topics include the biographical information of participants, and the identification and discussion of the themes that emerged.

4.2 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION OF PARTICIPANTS

4.2.1 Description of participants' biographical information

This section provides a description of the participants' biographical information, which includes aspects such as their gender, marital status race, home language age, qualifications, position held before becoming principal and their current experience as principal.

All participants and their schools were given pseudonyms. Tolich (2014:86) claims that researchers give participants in a study pseudonyms so that they are not identifiable in research reports. The participating schools were numbered 1 to 5 and the participants (principals) were respectively referred to as Peter, Paul, Harry, John and Mary, who were all from previously disadvantaged communities.

In addition, the range of participants' qualifications comprises the following:

- Advanced Certificate: Education (ACE)
- Primary Teachers Diploma (PTD)
- Higher Diploma in Education (HDE)
- Bachelor of Education Honours (BEd Hons)
- Bachelor of Technology Honours (BTech Hons)
- Bachelor of Arts (BA)

Table 4.1 below provides a summary of the biographical information of participants.

Table 4.1: Summary of the biographical information of participants

Participants' coded pseudonyms and ages	Gender, marital status, race and home language	Position held before becoming principal	Qualification and experience as principal
Peter (School 1) 47 years	Male, married, coloured and Afrikaans	Deputy principal	BEd (Hons); ACE 7 years
Paul (School 2) 56 years	Male, married, coloured and Afrikaans	Deputy principal	BTech (Hons); ACE 6 years
Harry (School 3) 58 years	Male, married, coloured and Afrikaans	Deputy principal	BA; HDE 2 years
John (School 4) 55 years	Male, married, coloured and Afrikaans	Deputy principal	PTD III 2 years
Mary (School 5) 56 years	Female, married, coloured and Afrikaans	Teacher (Post-level 1)	BEd (Hons) 20 years

In accordance with the research focus, primary school principals were included in this study. The biographical information indicates that four out of the five participants were male and all participants were coloured, married and Afrikaans speaking. The term 'coloured' refers to a heterogeneous South African ethnic group, with diverse ancestral links with European colonisers, indigenous Khoisan and Xhosa people, and slaves imported from the Dutch East Indies (or a combination of all)) (South African Institute for Race Relations [SAIRR], 1967:27).

The analysis shows that the participants' ages ranged from 47 to 58 years. The participants' experience in the position as principal ranged from 2 to 20 years. Three of the participants held a BEd (Hons) degree, one a BA degree, one a PTD III diploma and two an ACE certificate. Before becoming principals, four participants held the position of deputy principal, while one was a post-level 1 teacher. The term 'post-level 1 teacher' refers to a teacher in a public primary school in South Africa who earns an average salary of R196 310 per year (DBE, 2017). In general, the principals are experienced leaders, with two participants having two years' experience as principals. These two principals, as the oldest members in the group,

are both experienced educators and leaders and can make a valuable contribution to the study.

Brown, Castle, Rogers, Feuerhelm and Chimblo (2007:4) argue that to help us to describe the "lifeworld" of participants involved in a phenomenological study, it is important to focus on their "living spaces". Heidegger (1971) already argued as early as 1971 that our experiences within the "lifeworld" are always experiences "*in* and *of* spaces". Heidegger's notion of being in the world refers to the notion that "we are always already in and of the world in which we find ourselves; we are indivisibly intertwined with it and all meaning and knowledge is therefore inescapably embedded or emplaced within it, and the structure through which this lived reciprocity unfolds is called the lifeworld" (Heidegger, 1971; Moran, 2000; Svenaeus, 2000; Seamon & Sowers, 2009).

Therefore, a description of the participants' work environments or "living spaces" which comprise aspects such as historical backgrounds and socio-economic conditions will now be discussed. The analysis of their environment sheds light on the specific context of their respective school and can provide valuable insights to instructional leaders of factors which may possibly impact on the success of them leading the schools as instructional leaders. A certain context, e.g. poor socio-economic conditions, may require so much attention from the principal that it might become difficult to focus on the key aspects of ensuring quality education.

4.2.2 Work environments of participants

4.2.2.1 School 1 (principal Peter)

(i) Historical background

The historical background of School 1 was conveyed to the researcher during an interview with the principal Peter that took place on 28 July 2017. The school started operating in 1879 and is one of the oldest educational institutions in Wellington. Peter said that: "This year the school celebrates its 137th birthday". However, the current school building was erected in 1926 and inaugurated on 17 April in the same year. The school building was also declared a historic site by the Wellington Ethics Committee in 2013. The school has served as an important centre in the local

community for many years and is a stimulating environment, conducive to a culture of quality teaching and learning.

Over the years the school has produced generations of influential people for the community. The school has, among others, produced competent community members such as teachers, religious leaders, academics, legal experts, and sports and cultural legends. These people have, to a large extent, contributed to the existence of a community that includes people with deep-seated values and norms which serve as a basis on which the school's values are modelled. Peter declared*:* "It's for this reason why we today look back with compassion to those teachers who helped to build the school's character, but whom have since passed away."

Since 1926, the school is still a leading educational institution that seeks to satisfy the learning needs of learners mainly derived from a disadvantaged and diverse multicultural society. In addition, the school has a very strong religious foundation on which its daily existence is founded. Today, the school's curriculum is mainly focused on the Foundation Phase, which includes grade R to 3. Peter claims: "The school still aims to provide quality and effective education to a rapidly changing and post-modern society."

Peter commented that the school buildings are generally in a very poor condition and was constructed with bricks. He also stressed that the whole school was painted during 2012 with funds provided by the Western Cape Education Department (WCED). He further stated that the school has 21 classrooms, including six toilets for girls and six for boys. In addition, he reported that provision was made for two separate toilets – one for the male and one for female teaching staff. The school's enrolment for 2017 is 580 learners, offering instruction only for grade R to 3. The total teaching staff comprises 12 teachers, which means that the teacher to learner ratio is 48:1.

(ii) Socio-economic conditions

The school is situated in the Drakenstein Municipality in the Western Cape, which is primarily an agricultural and agri-processing economy. Agriculture is the main employer and this is not likely to change in the immediate future. An annual

performance report (2015/2016) of Drakenstein Municipality shows that 28,7% of the people are unemployed and have no income (Drakenstein Municipality, 2016).

The aforementioned data indicates why the school is classified as a 'no-fee' (quintile 1) school as promulgated in terms of the provisioning under the national norms and standards for school funding ([ELRC] Education Labour Relations Council, 2003:B52). Ahmed and Sayed (2009:206) assert that in 'no fee' schools learners are exempted from paying school fees. In addition, Ahmed and Sayed (2009:206) posit that poor schools are ranked quintile 1 or quintile 2, while the more affluent and rich schools are ranked as quintile 4 or quintile 5.

(iii)   Conclusion

Peter reported that over the years the school has been catering for the learning needs of learners, mainly derived from a poor and diverse multicultural society located in an urban setting in the Drakenstein Municipality in the Western Cape. He stated that the school buildings were constructed with bricks and is generally in a very poor condition. Additionally, he commented that the school's enrolment for 2017 was 580 learners offering instruction only for grade R to 3 with a learner ratio of 48:1. This implies that the employer, namely, the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) is responsible for paying the salaries of 12 full time teachers.

Peter explained that the school is a no-fee' (quintile 1) school, which places it in the poorest of poor group of schools; which means that learners are exempted from paying school fees. He commented that many parents were unemployed, but those who were employed, work primarily in the agricultural sector. According to Peter, these factors had a negative influence on the provisioning of teacher posts. Thus, due to the latter, it was not possible for the school governing body (SGB) to appoint additional teachers to lessen the instructional responsibilities and teaching burden of the current teaching staff that has to deal with overcrowded classes. Peter sometimes assists with teaching classes when teachers are absent from school. Peter's willingness to assist with instructional support to teachers may have a positive impact on his instructional leadership role of ensuring quality teaching and learning to his learners from an impoverished community.

4.2.2.2 School 2 (principal Paul)

(i)   Historical background

According to Paul, this school in Paarl was established though the support of the Bethel Congregational Church in 1918. The rapid growth in learner numbers soon forced the church to look for alternative accommodation. A source of friction between the school and the community was the fact that the school had to share facilities with other community organisations, which became inconvenient for teachers as well as learners. Under the guidance of the church the reverend of the Bethel Congregational Church, the community requested the former Department of Education in the former House of Representatives (responsible for managing coloured schools), which existed prior to formation of the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) in 1994, to register the school as a public school. Before the first democratic elections in South Africa in 1994, the different population groups were presented by three distinctive 'Houses' in Parliament. The House of Assembly represented the Whites, the House of Representatives the Coloureds, and the House of Delegates the Indians, forming a Tricameral Parliament. Blacks, however, were excluded from this tricameral legislature.

Paul declared that when a school in the Franschhoek area in the Western Cape burnt down on 20 October 1985, the DoE in the former House of Representatives decided not to rebuild it and its learners had to be transported to this school by bus. The teachers and 180 pupils of the school that was burnt down were incorporated with Paul's school on 1 January 1989. After a historical journey which covers a period of 85 years, a colourful history and many milestones along the way, the school developed its own culture and character. The school is currently serving the educational needs of learners from the Paarl, Wellington and Wemmershoek areas in the Drakenstein Municipality.

Paul reported that the school buildings are generally in a good condition. He stated that the school has 40 classrooms, which comprise brick and mobile prefabricated classrooms. He commented that there are 12 toilets available for boys and 19 toilets for girls. In addition, he reported there are also separate toilet facilities for the female and male teaching staff.

Currently, the school offers tuition both in Afrikaans and English to 1 059 learners from grade R to grade 7. The total teaching staff comprises 30 teachers, which means that the teacher to learner ratio is 35:1.

(ii) Socio-economic conditions

Similar to School 1, School 2 is also situated in the Drakenstein Municipality in the Western Cape, which is primarily an agricultural and agri-processing economy. Although agriculture is the main employer, some of the learners' parents are also employed in the services (tertiary) sector, mainly as shop assistants, hair salon assistants and assistants in the taxi business. An independent social survey done by the school in 2017 has shown that 94,1 % of the parents earn between R10 000 and R30 000 per year and 5,9 % of the parents earn between R40 000 and R70 000 per year. In terms of the provisioning under the national norms and standards for school funding (ELRC, 2003:B52), the school is classified as a 'no-fee' (quintile 2) school, which places it in the second-poorest group of schools.

(iii) Conclusion

Paul commented that for many years the school has been serving the learning needs of learners who come mainly from a poor community in an urban location in the Drakenstein Municipality in the Western Cape. He stated that the school buildings are generally in a good condition comprising brick and mobile prefabricated classrooms. According to Paul, the school offers instruction both in Afrikaans and English to 1 059 learners from grade R to grade 7 with a learner ratio of 35:1. This implies that the employer, namely, the WCED is responsible for the monthly payment of 30 full time teachers.

Paul explained that the school is a no-fee' (quintile 2) school which places it in the second-poorest group of schools. This means that learners at Paul's school are exempted from having to pay school fees. Unlike Peter's school, the majority of parents were employed and earned an income mainly in the agricultural sector. The researcher contends that the exemption of learners from paying school fees together with the low-income levels of parents may have a negative impact on Paul's instructional leadership role of ensuring quality teaching and learning to his learners

from a poor community. The latter situation may lead to the SGB not be able to appoint additional teacher posts to improve the instructional capacity of the school.

4.2.2.3 School 3 (principal Harry)

(i)   Historical background

Harry reported that the founding of the school in 1972 was necessitated by the construction and development of sub-economic housing in Paarl East. With the onset of 1972, only the principal's post was advertised by the Department of Coloured Affairs. The teachers were transferred to the school from other schools and elsewhere in the Paarl area. In addition, new entrants to the teaching profession were recruited from the local teachers' training college to supplement the staff.

Harry commented that when the 1972 academic school year started, there were no desks, chairs, tables, books or stationery for the learners. The principal mentioned that all that the school had received from the DoE in the former Department of Coloured Affairs was empty classrooms. The school had to borrow unprinted newsprint from other schools in the area to produce books for the learners to write in. A tremendous growth in learner enrolment necessitated the school to introduce a platoon system in the junior primary phases (previously known as grade 1 and grade 2) in 1974. In September 1972, the school held its first school bazaar (also known as a school carnival) to raise funds. Teachers had to make a financial contribution to assist with covering the expenses for the school bazaar. The school participated in different sport codes, such as rugby and athletics. From its inception in 1972, the school still does not have a rugby field and had to use Die Kraal Sports Grounds to play its rugby matches.

The school was also used for extramural practical projects after normal school hours. A German lady offered woodwork classes to learners to keep them busy after school in the afternoons. Some teachers also decided to attend these classes voluntarily to learn more of the teaching techniques concerning activities such as needlework and sewing. Since the school did not have sports grounds, the principal approached farmers in the area to help with the excavation of an allocated area on the school grounds for this purpose. After that, the teachers and some senior learners (in grade 7) helped to enhance the school premises by planting trees, flowers and shrubs. The

school is still known for its excellent maintenance of learner discipline and hard-working teachers. Harry concluded that it is therefore no surprise that the school has produced medical doctors, lawyers and magistrates over the years.

According to Harry, the school buildings are generally in a good condition and consist of 40 mobile prefabricated classrooms. He commented that there are eight toilets available for use by the girls and eight toilets for boys. Further, he reported that the male and female teaching staff each has separate toilet facilities. Currently, the school offers tuition in Afrikaans to 1 176 learners from grade R to grade 7. The total teaching staff comprises 35 teachers, which means that the teacher to learner ratio is 33:1.

(ii) Socio-economic conditions

Similarly to Schools 1 and 2, School 3 is also situated in the Drakenstein Municipality in the Western Cape, which is primarily an agricultural and agri-processing economy. Harry stated that agriculture is the main employer and this is not likely to change in the near future. In addition, Harry reported that according to an independent survey undertaken by the school in 2016, 38,0% of people are unemployed, while 34,7% earn between R0 and R87 000 per year.

In terms of the provisioning under the national norms and standards for school funding (ELRC, 2003:B52), the school is classified as a 'no-fee' (quintile 2) school, which places it in the second-poorest group of schools.

(iii) Conclusion

Similar to Peter's and Paul's schools Harry's school is also serving the learning needs of learners who mainly come from an impoverished community in an urban setting in the Drakenstein Municipality in the Western Cape. Harry reported that the school buildings are generally in a good condition consisting of prefabricated classrooms. He reported that the school's enrolment for 2017 was 1 176 learners offering instruction only for grade R to 7 with a learner ratio of 33:1, which is less than 40 learners which is the acceptable norm. This implies that the school qualifies for 35 WCED full time teachers.

Similar to Peter's and Paul's schools, Harry's school is also a no-fee paying school (quintile 2), which places it in the second-poorest group of schools. According to Harry, many parents did not have an income, but those who are fortunate to have an income secured employment primarily in the agricultural sector. The exemption of learners from not paying school fees and the fact that many parents do not receive an income, may impact negatively on the provisioning of additional SGB teaching posts to assist with instructional responsibilities. This situation may have a negative impact on Harry's instructional leadership role of ensuring quality teaching and learning to his learners from an impoverished community.

4.2.2.4 School 4 (principal John)

(i) Historical background

John commented that the school was founded on 22 January 1964 with a learner enrolment of 591 and 20 teachers. Already by the end of the first quarter of 1964 the enrolment increased to 706. Five years later, in 1969, the learner enrolment increased to 1010, which compelled the school to introduce mobile classrooms. In 1973, an additional 12 mobile classrooms were built. The result was that teachers had to teach overcrowded classes, but they did it with compassion and for the benefit of the learners.

In 1974, the school building was also made available for evening classes for adults in the community (Night School). The teaching programmes for this evening school included, inter alia, practical piano lessons, HIV projects and tourism. This Night School was the first school of its kind in Paarl East and was supported by the former Department of Coloured Affairs. The principal, John, reported that these development projects led to the school becoming "a beacon of hope for the community". The school also served as an election centre during the first democratic elections in South Africa in 1994.

John reported that the school has produced learners with outstanding achievements in sports and the academic field since its inception in 1964. John asserted that these achievements by ex-learners can be ascribed to talented sport coaches and skilled teachers. Three ex-learners became Springbok rugby players. One of them was part of the team that won the Rugby World Cup in 1995. The school produced the first

non-white Springbok rugby coach in South Africa. Academically, the school also produced two medical doctors. The school annually invites all retired teachers to school functions to show them that they have not been forgotten. This helps to develop the school's culture.

John claimed that his school consists of 25 classrooms, which are generally in a good condition. He added that the school buildings comprise brick-constructed as well as mobile prefabricated classrooms. John reported that there are five toilets available for the girls and three for the boys. He stated that the male and female teaching staff each has separate toilet facilities that they can use. Currently, the school offers tuition mainly in Afrikaans to 810 learners from grade R to grade 7. The total teaching staff comprises 25 teachers, which means that the teacher to learner ratio is 32:1.

(ii) Socio-economic conditions

Similar to Schools 1, 2 and 3, School 4 is also situated in the Drakenstein Municipality in the Western Cape. John claimed that the school's context can best be described as an agricultural and agri-processing economy and that this is not likely to change in the immediate future. An annual performance report (2015/2016) of the Drakenstein Municipality shows that 38,0% of people are unemployed, while 34,7% earn between R0 and R87 000 per year.

In terms of the provisioning under the national norms and standards for school funding (ELRC, 2003: B52), the school is classified as a 'no-fee' (quintile 2) school, which places it in the second-poorest group of schools.

(iii)   Conclusion

Similar to Peter's, Paul's and Harry's schools, John's school is also serving the learning needs of learners who come mainly from a poor community in an urban location in the Drakenstein Municipality in the Western Cape. John reported that the school buildings are generally in a good condition comprising brick-constructed as well as mobile prefabricated classrooms. He stated that the school's enrolment for 2017 was 810 learners from grade R to grade 7. Therefore, John's school qualifies

for 25 full time WCED appointed teachers because the learner ratio is 32:1. This ratio is less than 40 learners; the acceptable norm.

John commented that the school is a no-fee paying school (quintile 2), which places it in the second-poorest group of schools. Learners at John's school were not liable to pay school fees. John reported that the majority of parents were unemployed, but those who were employed, secured jobs mainly in the agricultural and agri-processing economy. The latter situation may have a negative influence on the provisioning of additional SGB teacher posts to alleviate the instructional responsibilities of colleagues. In addition, the latter situation may have a negative impact on John's instructional leadership role of delivering quality teaching and learning to his learners from a poor community.

4.2.2.5 School 5 (principal Mary)

(i) Historical background

This historical background relating to the school was reported in an interview with Mary that occurred on 4 August 2017. The school is located in a rural environment in the Western Cape and was opened in 1963. The land on which the school is built was made available by a farmer in the Klapmuts area. From its inception, the school's instructional programme included grades 1 to 6 but was later extended to grade R to 9. The school enrolment has grown over the years and currently stands at 540.

From the year 2000 onwards, many expansions took place to enlarge the school, with the result that the school now has a computer room, a library, a school hall and 10 classrooms. The school provides teaching and learning to a diverse group of learners who come from areas such as Klapmuts, Paarl and Paarl South. The school's buildings are also used by non-governmental organisations (NGOs) after normal school hours to offer literacy classes to adult learners in the community to support their learning needs. There are also psychologists and social workers who provide support to learners as needs arise. In addition, learner support is also provided by social workers from the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) to improve their learning performance. The learners also participate in various sport

codes such as basketball, netball, rugby and athletics. Some of the learners have excelled in these sport codes over the years.

Initially, there was no transport for learners and some had to walk several kilometres to school. The WCED introduced a bus transport scheme to transport these learners to school in the morning and to their homes in the afternoon. The main road to the school was originally a gravel road, but was later tarred by the local municipality. This road now has tarred sidewalks on which learners can walk to school. A pedestrian bridge was also built by the municipality to ensure that learners can cross the road safely. As a result of these new improvements to roads, accidents in which learners were involved have become much less.

Mary claimed that the school buildings are generally in a satisfactory condition and comprise eight classrooms constructed from bricks and four mobile prefabricated classrooms. Mary reported that the school hall can be divided into separate sections to provide two additional classrooms for learners to be taught in. She stated that four toilets are set aside to be used by girls and three toilets for the boys. She added that the male and female teaching staff each has separate toilet facilities that they can use. She, however, reported that these toilets are not in a satisfactory condition, because the farmer who owns the property, on which the school buildings are situated, neglects his responsibility with respect to the maintenance thereof. Mary is of the view that this farmer's negligence to improve the unsatisfactory condition of these toilets is not fair, because he is compensated by the WCED for the rental of the school buildings. Currently, the school enrolment comprises 452 learners from grade R to grade 7. The total teaching staff comprises 15 teachers, which means that the teacher to learner ratio is 30:1.

(ii) Socio-economic conditions

The school is located in the Stellenbosch Municipality in the Western Cape. One of the major findings from a study on disaster risk in the Klapmuts area in the Western Cape in 2016 shows that the annual income in the area where the study was done, is between R0 and R950 (Ackermann, Dippenaar, Duckitt, Engelbrecht, Erasmus, Kolisi, Lendrum, MacDonald, Miller, Mistry, Mugamu, Nel, Steenkamp, Straw & Vlok, 2016). Over 63% of the population is employed in an agricultural and agri-processing

economy, while 30% are not economically active. The study reveals that a possible reason for this unemployment rate (30%) is that people in Klapmuts are more active in agricultural activities because it does not require specialist's skills, just secondary school education or a matric pass. The aforementioned data indicates that in terms of the provisioning under the national norms and standards for school funding (ELRC, 2003:B52), the school is classified as a 'no-fee' (quintile 1) school, which places it in poorest group of schools.

(iii)   Conclusion

Other than the schools of Peter, Paul, Harry and John, which are all located in urban settings, Mary's school is located in a rural impoverished environment in the Stellenbosch Municipality in the Western Cape. Mary stated that over the years her school provided teaching and learning to a diverse group of learners who come from areas such as Klapmuts, Paarl and Paarl South. Mary commented that the school buildings are generally in a satisfactory condition and comprise classrooms constructed from bricks and prefabricated classrooms. Additionally, Mary reported that the school's enrolment for 2017 was 452 learners from grade R to grade 7 with a learner ratio of 30:1. This implies that the employer, namely, the WCED is responsible for the remuneration of 12 full time teachers.

Mary commented that her school is a no-fee paying school (quintile 1), which places it in the poorest of the poor group of schools. This means that learners are exempted to pay school fees. Mary claimed that many parents were unemployed, but those who were fortunate secured employment in the agricultural and agri-processing economy. The aforementioned factors may have a negative influence on the provisioning of teacher posts. Thus, it is not possible for the SGB to appoint additional teachers to lessen the instructional responsibilities of colleagues. The latter situation has resulted in Mary needing to teach classes the whole day. The upshot of this was that Mary did not have sufficient time to attend to her other instructional leadership functions. This situation may have a negative impact on Mary's instructional leadership role of providing quality teaching and learning to her learners coming from poor communities.

4.2.3   Summary of the work environments of participants

From the aforementioned it is clear that over the years the majority of schools are serving the learning needs of learners who come mainly from a poor community in an urban location in the Drakenstein Municipality in the Western Cape. Only Mary's school is serving the learning needs of learners who come mainly from an impoverished community in a rural setting in the Drakenstein Municipality in the Western Cape. The schools were identified as no-fee paying (quintile 1 and 2), which means that learners are exempted to pay school fees. This situation in conjunction with the unemployment levels of the majority of parents, has led to schools unable to appoint additional SGB teaching posts. The parents who were actually employed secured jobs mainly in the agricultural sector and it seem as if this is not likely to change in the immediate future. The teachers at all the participating schools are remunerated by the WCED according to a learner ratio model, which also determines the actual number of teachers appointed on a full-time basis.

It is clear that all participating principals experienced numerous challenges on a daily basis which may have a negative influence on their instructional leadership role of ensuring quality teaching and learning which is the main focus of a school. However, it seems that notwithstanding these challenges, only Peter had positive experiences as instructional leader, because he was actually involved in all teaching and learning activities in the school. Researcher is of the view that Peter's involvement in his school's curricular and instructional activities may have a positive influence on his instructional leadership role of ensuring quality teaching and learning.

4.3 IDENTIFICATION OF EMERGING THEMES

As mentioned in Section 3.6.3, a phenomenological analysis approach was employed to make the transcribed data 'naturally come alive' and reflect the participants' responses using their words and ideas rather than predetermined codes (Creswell, 2013:193–194). Ryan and Bernard (2003:85) argue that in the process of analysing text involves the following tasks: (1) Discovering themes and sub-themes (e.g. through QDA); (2) Winnowing themes to a manageable few (i.e. deciding which themes are important in any project); (3) Building hierarchies of themes; and (4) Linking themes into theoretical models (e.g. through the literature review).

The themes identified in this study were not only influenced by the literature review in Chapter 2 or my experience related to instructional leadership as described in Chapter 3 (see 3.5.1), but also flowed from the data analysed through the employment of the ATLAS.ti QDA programme (see 3.6.1) and the phenomenological analysis approach (see 3.6.3). I employed the latter as separate qualitative data analysis instruments. Firstly, I transcribed the collected data from the phenomenological interviews manually using line-by-line coding. Secondly, I used the ATLAS.ti QDA programme to identify emerging themes in this study using the transcribed data from the phenomenological interviews.

Next follows a discussion of the emerging themes.

4.4 DISCUSSION OF THEMES

Themes 1 to 3 emerged from applying the aforementioned ATLAS.ti. QDA programme (see 3.6.1). These themes also served as theoretical lenses through which the transcribed data was viewed and analysed. All themes, including the sub-themes, were generated from the data that emerged from the interviews with the five participants in this study.

Table 4.2 below provides a summary of themes and the sub-themes which emerged from the rich data.

Table 4.2: Summary of themes and sub-themes

Themes	Sub-themes
Theme 1: Managing people	• Managing teaching and learning • Managing teacher performance • Providing performance feedback to teachers
Theme 2: Leading people	• Leadership styles • Teacher-learner relationships • Collegial relationships • Parent-teacher relationships
Theme 3: Developing people	• Providing continuous support for teachers • Encouraging continuing teacher education • Preparation for principalship

When one compares these themes to the elements comprising the conceptual framework (see Figure 2.2), the value of the conceptual framework for this study,

comes to the fore. The different elements strongly encapsulate or capture the three identified themes which emerged from the research. One should, however, be aware that some of the themes links to more than one element, but this phenomenon of integration only stresses how dynamic the chosen conceptual framework is. Table 4.3 provides an overview of the possible link between the different themes and the appropriate element of the conceptual framework (Figure 2.2 in Chapter 2).

Table 4.3: Link between themes and elements of the conceptual framework

Themes	Element of conceptual framework
Theme 1: Managing people	• Maintain high visibility • Manage instructional time • Facilitate professional development of teachers • Manage instructional programme • Manage academic performance of learners • Assess staff performance • Manage curriculum and instruction • Provide incentives for teachers
Theme 2: Leading people	• Develop the school's vision • Communicate the school's goals • Facilitate professional development • Manage instructional programme • Manage academic performance of learners • Assess staff performance • Manage curriculum and instruction • Provide incentives for teachers • Maintain high visibility
Theme 3: Developing people	• Facilitate professional development of teachers • Assess staff performance • Manage curriculum and instruction • Provide incentives for teachers

In the following discussions (see 4.4.1 to 4.4.3), it was decided to include verbatim quotations and excerpts of participants' responses in order to not only enhance the level of authenticity and truthfulness, but also to serve as verification of the findings and claims made. Participants' original wording and meaning was maintained as far as possible so that their voices and opinions were preserved (Bailey & Tilley, 2002:574). In the presentation of these quotations and extracts of line-by-line coding

(see 4.4.1), part 1, interv, line 5, for example, refers to the responses of participant 1, interview transcription, line 5.

In 4.41, the principal's instructional leadership role of managing people (Theme 1) is discussed. The link with the conceptual framework will be drawn on a continuous basis.

4.4.1 Theme 1: Managing people

Under Theme 1, three sub-themes emerged from the data, namely, managing teaching and learning, managing teacher performance and providing performance feedback to teachers. These functions all appear to be indirect instructional leadership functions of the principal.

4.4.1.1 Managing teaching and learning

From the interviews with the participants, it became evident that only one participant, namely Peter, viewed his main responsibility "as being involved in the management of all teaching and learning activities at my school" (part 1, Interv, line 1). He claimed that managing teaching and learning will lead to teachers and learners, "… that my responsibility is to put my knowledge into practice by developing my teachers professionally" (part 1, Interv, lines 2–3). He mentioned that he monitors schedules and delegates the monitoring and evaluation of learner portfolios to the respective HODs in his school.

Paul, John and Mary were clear that as instructional leaders, they required effective strategies for monitoring teaching activities. Paul mentioned "managing detailed discussions of lesson outlines and plans to ensure successful curriculum delivery", while John commented that "the school management team also plans and does lesson plans".

Mary, however, did not see the monitoring of teaching activities as being part of her role as principal. She expressed the following view:

> Teachers are getting paid do a job. They should therefore be well prepared to teach so that learners will also become eager to come to class and learn. I strongly believe that I don't have the time to tell teachers what to do and how to do it.

While not always explicitly mentioning instructional leadership, Peter, Paul and Harry make reference to their leadership and involvement in teaching processes that directly impact learner results. For instance, Peter reported:

> Principals play an important role regarding curriculum implementation and you play an important role to lead as curriculum organiser, with your deputy principals and heads of department.

In addition, Peter acknowledges that his approach of creating ownership and motivating staff to take development opportunities has led to him "having a teaching team that is excellent" (part 1, interv, line 15). Paul also noted that his task was to "lead as a curriculum organiser" (part 2, interv, line 16). One way in which he does so is by "providing extrinsic motivation for his staff … awarding their teaching … efforts by acknowledging them at school functions" (part 2, interv, line 17). This, he believes, encourages his staff to strive for better learner results. John and Mary excluded instructional leadership from the descriptions of their set of responsibilities.

For instance, John said:

> My role as principal is taking care of school governance matters in collaboration with the school governing body, whilst the role of the deputy principal is to deal with instructional issues related to the curriculum and instruction.

Mary, too, viewed her main role as "dealing with school governing bodies" and the deputy principal's role as "dealing with curriculum matters" (part 5, interv, lines 19–20). In addition, Paul, Harry, John and Mary view their main responsibilities as managing administrative and learner discipline matters. These participants claim that they delegate the management of curriculum and teaching tasks either to their deputy principals or HODs. Paul claimed that "it is impossible for one person to do everything" (part 2, interv, line 22). Harry commented that "I trust them completely with these tasks" (part 3, interv, line 23). John stated that "they have the qualities to become very good principals one day" (part 4, interv, line 24). Mary posited that "my head of department is very competent" (part 5, interv, line 25).

All participants interviewed provided varied explanations of their role as manager of teaching and learning. From the aforementioned, it seems that from 2006 until 2016, South African school principals are still mainly concerned with administrative duties

and learner discipline, which corroborate findings reported in the literature review. Peter mentioned that he was involved in managing teaching and learning activities at his school, including monitoring and evaluating learner portfolios. Paul, Harry, John and Mary were of the opinion that their primary task was to manage the work of their HODs and deputy principals, whom were responsible for curricula implementation.

It is a concern that although the majority of the participating principals view the "managing of teaching and learning" as very important, but that, due to other administrative roles, they normally delegate this responsibility to senior staff (see Figure 2.2). The conceptual framework thus assisted in highlighting this key managerial function with regard to their lived experiences of instructional leadership. The management of teaching and learning is linked to elements like "management of instructional programmes", "management of curriculum and instruction" and specifically "assess staff performance". The conceptual framework thus succeeded in highlighting a gap in the participating principals' instructional leadership, namely that the majority do not experience the management of teaching and learning as a main priority with regard to instructional leadership as this responsibility is normally delegated to senior management (e.g. deputy principal) of the school.

The above discussion provides evidence that the element of managing teaching and learning is linked to and supported by the conceptual framework of instructional leadership as portrayed in Figure 2.2 and that the framework thus proved valuable in determining the believes of principals with regard to this element of managing teaching and learning.

4.4.1.2 Managing teacher performance

In the South African education system, there is a performance management system known as the IQMS, which serves as an internal professional tool for the evaluation of the quality in schools through the application of the nine focus areas of WSE. Weber (2005:64) claims that the IQMS is aimed at teachers. This form of internal teacher appraisal assumes that most schools have a professional collaborative climate and culture where the staff work together and reflect on how to improve teaching and learning (De Clercq, 2013:13). All participants indicated that the IQMS process is implemented at their schools. Peter declared:

> I am solely responsible for the management of the IQMS process at my school, because I want to do it myself. I believe that a principal must get involved in the management and leadership activities in school to ensure that all planned instructional goals are achieved.

Paul, Harry, John and Mary, declared that "my deputy principal and heads of department are responsible for managing the Integrated Quality Management System process" (part 2, 3, 4 & 5, interv, line 41). The in IQMS is defined as "a process during which the team leader plans, organises, leads and controls the performance of team members" (Liebenberg & Van der Merwe, 2004:262–263). Performance management within the IQMS is performed by the DSG because their task (see 2.7.1.1.2 in Chapter 2) involves the mentoring and coaching of teachers (Ohemeng, 2009). The DSG is not a hierarchically determined structure and it is not part of the SMT; it only includes the immediate supervisor of the appraisee (in most cases a HOD); otherwise, the principal and other members of the SMT do not serve on this committee (Mosoge & Pilane, 2014:3).

The following comments of Peter, Paul and Harry, demonstrate their lived experiences of how they view the aim of peer assessment:

- "assess what the teacher actually does in the classroom" (part 1, interv, line 42);
- "evaluation takes place" (part 2, interv, line 43); and
- "the integrated management system is introduced to monitor the quality of education" (part 3, interv, line 44).

The responses of all participants indicate that there are existing problems regarding the effectiveness of the IQMS as an assessment tool. In this regard, Paul and Mary, declared that the IQMS is "window dressing" and a "once-off thing" (part 2 & 5, interv, line 45). Peter, Harry and John, reported:

- "the IQMS is a farce and it is not always a true reflection of teachers' competencies" (part 1, interv, line 46);
- "one lesson can't determine how good or bad you are (part 3, interv, line 47); and

- "the IQMS may lead to favouritism by peers when allocating assessment marks" (part 4, interv, line 48).

The responses of the participants indicate that there are existing problems regarding the time factor for the completion of the IQMS process. Peter reported that the duration of class visits is not sufficient to make an informed assessment of the teacher's performance in the classroom. Regarding this issue, Paul explained:

> The IQMS should be a continuous process and not a 'once-off thing'. It should be monitored throughout the whole year to enable the principal and his school management team to identify various problems in the classroom.

Furthermore, Peter proposed that the IQMS teams should identify areas for development of teachers after the completion of the IQMS process. In this regard, Peter explained:

> The IQMS managers should always do a SWOT-analysis of teacher performances the previous year to identify specific areas for improvement the following year. It also important that teachers indicate clearly in their personal development plans how they are going to achieve its objectives.

Biputh and McKenna (2010:285) claim that the IQMS does not work as well in practice as hoped for, because the process stops with the assessment and does not progress through the development phase. It appears that the development agenda of the IQMS is biased towards the accountability of teachers to the education authority (Biputh & McKenna, 2010:285); so, the weaknesses identified by individual teachers are never given the attention that is needed. Paul and Harry made the following judgements.

Paul stated:

> Colleagues are supposed to empower each other by providing various teaching strategies after classroom visits during the Integrated Quality Management System process to improve teaching and learning.

Harry explained:

> Teachers receive no support because the support group lacks the necessary skills and knowledge to give support. I think that it is my responsibility as principal to support these teachers by organising cluster meetings with teachers from other schools so that they can they can learn from each other to improve their instructional practice.

From the aforementioned, it is clear that only Peter is responsible for managing the IQMS process at his school. This principal alluded to the fact that he applied different strategies during the IQMS process such as conducting weekly scheduled meetings with his HODs to discuss teachers' IQMS reports and providing feedback to teachers about problems they encountered. Peter, Harry, John and Mary claimed that they were responsible for the day-to-day operations of the school, and that the management of the IQMS process was the responsibility of their SMTs. All participants indicated that the IQMS's effectiveness can be questioned in the following problem areas: the time factor for the completion of it; and the fact that the process stops after the assessment of staff and does not continue through to the development phase.

From the aforementioned it is clear that the findings of this study indicate that the majority of the participating principals do not view the key function of "managing teacher performance" as important, as they normally delegate this responsibility to senior staff (see Figure 2.2) due to other managerial responsibilities.

The above discussion provides evidence that the element of managing teacher performance is linked to and supported by the conceptual framework of instructional leadership as portrayed in Figure 2.2 and that the framework thus proved valuable in determining the believes of principals with regard to this element of assessment.

4.4.1.3 Providing performance feedback to teachers

After each classroom observation, peer evaluators and school management teams (SMTs) provide written feedback to the teachers, and meet with teachers at least once a week to discuss different teaching strategies to improve teaching and learning (De Clercq, 2013:12). Two participants, namely Peter and Mary, declared that performance feedback to teachers after classroom observations is very

important, since teachers "want to know how good their performance is" (part 4 & 5, interv, lines 60–61). In addition, Peter and Mary made the following judgements.

Peter stated:

> I praise my teachers who performed excellently during the Integrated Quality Management System process, because I feel that by doing so, it will inspire their colleagues to improve their own classroom practice.

Mary commented:

> I praise my teachers at performance feedback sessions because feel that it will encourage them to further improve of their classroom instruction and thereby improve the academic performance of their learners.

Furthermore, Mary claimed that "performance feedback meetings also inform teachers about their strengths and weaknesses related to certain performance areas that need improvement" (part 5, interv, lines 66–67). Stichter, Lewis, Richter, Johnson and Bradley (2006:665) argue that given the need to translate immediate feedback to everyday practice in schools, principals need to have knowledge of the effectiveness of their performance feedback to teachers after classroom observations. Another participant, namely, Harry claimed that, "the focus of the feedback sessions at my school is on the areas for development relating to the teachers' performance at school" (part 3, interv, lines 70–71). He, however, experienced some difficulties to get the support from the area manager to assist the school with the development of a plan regarding feedback to teachers. In this regard, he commented:

> After numerous requests, the area manager from the Western Cape Education Department district office failed to support the school with a developmental plan, which led to mistrust between the school and the Western Cape Education Department. I believe that this mistrust is not beneficial for the improvement of teaching and learning.

From the aforementioned, it seems that immediate performance feedback to teachers is important in the school context to ensure teachers can know their presentation of lessons was, are praised for excellent work and improve their

classroom practice. It also becomes clear that performance feedback to teachers should occur immediately after a class visit to discuss identified strengths and weaknesses pertinent to instructional practices.

It is clear that the findings of this study indicate that the majority of the participating principals view the providing of performance feedback to teachers as their primary role.

The above discussion provides evidence that the element of performance feedback to teachers is linked to and supported by the conceptual framework of instructional leadership as portrayed in Figure 2.2 and that the framework thus proved valuable in determining the believes of principals with regard to this element of performance feedback to teachers.

4.4.1.4 Conclusion

From the aforementioned sections (4.4.1.1 to 4.4.1.3) it came to the fore that the sub-themes, namely managing teaching and learning, managing teacher performance and providing performance feedback to teachers, were all perceived by the participants as indirect leadership roles. This means that in their lived experiences, the participating principals were of the view that they performed these leadership functions in collaboration with other role players such as HODs, subject heads and SMTs as it is impossible for him/her to do everything themselves. In this regard the conceptual model is of value and very relevant as it speaks to the appropriate managerial leadership functions which impact on indirect instructional leadership, namely management of staff, management of instructional programmes, management of curriculum and managing staff performance.

Section 4.4.2 entails a discussion of the principal's instructional leadership role of leading people.

4.4.2 Theme 2: Leading people

Under Theme 2 four sub-themes emerged from the data, namely leadership styles, teacher-learner relationships, collegial relationships and parent-teacher relationships. Each of the four sub-themes is linked to the conceptual framework (see Figure 2.2 and Table 4.3) as the framework includes the elements of

management of instructional programmes, the management of learner performance, management of the curriculum and also facilitating teacher professional development. These sub-themes will now be discussed.

4.4.2.1 Leadership styles

Two participants, namely Peter and Mary, claimed that they are participative leaders who lead by example and that they are involved in all planned activities through participative leadership. Peter reported that he is a participative leader who acts exemplary towards his staff and immediately attends to curriculum matters when they arise. He added that "problems with parents and learners were being solved faster, and difficult situations were being diffused before they developed into larger problems'' (part 1, interv, lines 122–123). As a "leader of leaders" who acts exemplary, he claimed that he bought an electronic device, a mouse scanner, to copy official documents and other written reports, save it on a computer and retrieve it later when necessary. He therefore encouraged his teachers to use computer application technologies daily for instructional purposes in school. He argued that "the school's conduct policy prevents learners from using cell phones at school" (part 1, interv, line 127). He stressed that cell phones can also be used as an effective communication tool to inform parents of certain pressing issues, such as their children's behaviour at school and scheduled parent evenings.

Peter explained:

> When I became school principal, the school did not have a vision that satisfied the needs of the learner. So, I developed a school improvement plan in conjunction with my teachers to achieve the school's vision through shared leadership. I surrounded myself with people who shared my belief that all learners can achieve success.

Furthermore, Peter explained that his SMT has different ways of viewing problems and they continuously challenge each another's ideas. He mentioned that his SMT comprises of a HOD in the Foundation Phase and three grade heads. After the development of the school improvement plan (SIP), he allowed each member of the SMT, whom he trusted, to come up with the best ways to make their ideas work.

Like Peter, Mary claimed that she also ascribes to the participative leadership. She stated that a participative leadership style enables her to make decisions in collaboration with her SMT, because she trusts them. In addition, she claimed that, "I try to consider the ideas of my school management team and other teachers as I value their input regarding all curriculum matters" (part 5, Interv, line 138). She declared that she supports and celebrates all teachers who accept additional leadership roles. Mary stated that she believes that all teachers have the ability to perform some leadership role in their grade.

Other participants declared that they are democratic leaders who work collaboratively with all staff members to achieve school objectives. Paul claimed that he is a democratic leader who delegates various tasks and responsibilities to his senior management team. He believes that it is important that the school's vision should be shared with the teachers to ensure that they take ownership of it. He commented:

> All teachers at my school must realise what their role is in making this vision a reality. I it is also important that they be held accountable for meeting the needs of all learners through the presentation of quality teaching and learning.

In addition, Paul reported that his deputy principal and HODs assist him with the management and assessment of classroom instruction.

Paul explained:

> The reason for seeking the assistance of my deputy principal and heads of department to manage the curriculum and learner problems is because I trust their abilities. I also feel that by delegating these managerial tasks to my deputy principal and heads of department it will assist them to develop the necessary skills to become a principal one day.

Harry also ascribes to the democratic leadership style. He stressed that teachers must live out the school's vision continuously, as it guides their daily actions towards the improvement of teaching and learning. He stated that he would sometimes ask teachers to become involved in shared decision-making processes during staff meetings at school. He added, "If teachers do not participate in shared decision-making processes at school, they will not have a voice in the decisions of the school"

(part 3, Interv, line 152). In addition, he stressed that the main reason for sharing leadership with his SMT was that, "one person could not handle all the responsibilities of a school" (part 3, Interv, line 155). He asserted that the timeous completion and submission of IQMS documents to the WCED makes him act autocratically which sometimes lead to great stress among teachers. In addition, he claimed that:

> To counter this stressful environment, I established a positive climate between myself and the teachers. To ensure that this happens, I make them feel happy to come to school every day to do their best to improve the quality of teaching and learning, which is the main objective of our school.

Like Paul and Harry, John also described his leadership style as a democratic leadership style. During the interview, while describing how the school had improved academically, John came across as being very enthusiastic and positive. He mentioned that "I relied on my SMT for assistance because I trusted in their leadership abilities" (part 4, Interv, line 159). He stated that he met with his SMT regularly and that their feedback helped to shape the decisions that influenced school improvement.

In addition, John explained:

> I feel that the majority of my school management team members have the ability to become very good heads of department and deputy principals in the future.

It became evident that under the discussion of the first sub-theme, namely leadership styles, a sub-dimension of Hallinger (2008) namely, developing a school vision was experienced by all the participating participants. This sub-dimension is a direct leadership role of the principal (see 2.5.1). From the interviews with the five participating principals it is also clear that lived experiences of their leadership in their schools, is characterised by a variety of leadership styles to enable them to work collaboratively with their staff.

This element of leadership styles is thus linked and supported by the conceptual framework of instructional leadership as portrayed in Figure 2.2 and Table 4.3. The above discussion thus provides evidence that the element of leading people,

specifically leadership styles, is linked to and supported by the conceptual framework of instructional leadership as portrayed in Figure 2.2.

The following sub-themes, namely teacher-learner relationships, collegial relationships and parent-teacher relationships, are all indirect leadership roles of principals.

4.4.2.2 Teacher-learner relationships

All the participants were of the view that the development of positive relationships between teachers and learners is conducive to the advancement of teaching and learning. John, said that he continuously emphasises in staff meetings the importance of the development of "sound relationships between the teachers and learners, because it is important for the success of the school" (part 4, interv, lines 77–78). Another participant, namely Peter, declared that "because of the positive attitude of the teachers towards me, it in turn assists them to build positive relationships with their learners" (part 1, interv, lines 79–80). Harry and Mary, concur with Peter's view that a positive school environment is the reason that the majority of learners at his school feel happy.

Harry commented:

> I do everything in my power to ensure that teachers develop the learners holistically so that they can focus not only on the cognitive, but also on physical, spiritual and social development of learners.

Mary explained:

> I ensure that learners are well-disciplined and give their teachers the needed assistance to enhance the establishment of positive classroom climate through short informal class visits.

Furthermore, Paul commented that he encouraged teachers to respect the rights of learners by "acting according to the school conduct policy which guides their actions when dealing with learner discipline" (part 2, interv, lines 85–86). John became very serious when he explained that he regularly instructs teachers that they "should not do anything negative, for example using corporal punishment, as it could jeopardise their teaching careers" (part 4, interv, lines 87–88). Instead, he informs his teachers

to always refer seriously ill-disciplined learners to senior staff, among others the deputy principal or HODs. In this regard John stated:

> By accepting and implementing the aforementioned instructions, it led to these teachers developing positive relationships with their learners, which in turn resulted in the development of a positive classroom atmosphere.

It is well established that the quality of children's relationships with their teachers in the early grades has important implications for children's concurrent and future academic and behavioural adjustment (Meehan, Hughes & Cavell, 2003). When learners experience a sense of belonging at school and supportive relationships with teachers and classmates, they are motivated to participate actively and appropriately in the life of the classroom (Stipek, 2002).

From the interviews with the five participating principals it became evident that they support the development of positive relationships between teachers and learners which are conducive to a sound and healthy culture of teaching and learning. It is clear that the participating principals perceive their role of developing positive relationships with learners, as important. This element of teacher-learner relationships is linked and supported by the conceptual framework of instructional leadership as portrayed in Figure 2.2.

The above discussion thus provides evidence that the element of leading people, specifically with regard to enhancing and developing positive teacher-learner relationships is linked to and supported by the conceptual framework of instructional leadership as portrayed in Figure 2.2 and that the framework thus proved valuable in determining the beliefs of principals with regard to this element.

4.4.2.3 Collegial relationships

Peter and Paul claimed that they initially had trouble developing a relationship with teachers, but that it improved over time.

Peter commented:

> I worked harder to gain the respect of my colleagues, which in turn led to improvement in the quality of teaching and learning.

Paul explained:

> Treating teachers' problems confidentially in the office led to the establishment
> of trust and confidence in my leadership.

Competition among teachers for vacant promotion posts is also prevalent, which makes schools vulnerable. Harry mentioned that a stressful situation occurred at his school, as highlighted by the following statement: "Currently, competition for vacant promotion posts at our school makes the school vulnerable, but I feel that this situation is temporary" (part 3, interv, lines 97–98). DiPaola and Hoy (2014:61) argue that if this institutional vulnerability is not addressed by the principal immediately, it may, in the long run, make the school susceptible to vocal parents and community groups who may cause problems and disruption in the internal dynamics and operations. The upshot of this would be poor learner performance.

John strongly believes that to achieve success at school, a principal needs the support of all role-players, which is highlighted by the following statement:

> Every person in the school must work collaboratively to achieve school success
> and every roleplayer's input should be considered to achieve the school's
> vision.

The crucial values that support collaboration are trust, openness, willingness for cooperation and participation in teamwork in schools (Joseph & Winston, 2005). It should be emphasised that values differ from vision. The accepted vision is realised by teachers individually and within groups, and values are manifested as shared similar behaviours and symbols in a group system, and not as a group of individuals (Van der Mescht & Tyala, 2008).

Harry commented:

> By having an open-door policy and ensuring that everyone is clear about their
> roles at the school help to create a positive school culture.

The above discussion thus provides evidence that the element of leading people, specifically with regard to enhancing positive relationships with teachers, is linked to and supported by the conceptual framework of instructional leadership as portrayed

in Figure 2.2 and that the framework thus proved valuable in determining the beliefs of principals with regard to this element.

After considering the abovementioned, it is clear that the principal's role of developing positive relationships with teachers is important.

4.4.2.4 Parent-teacher relationships

An important part of a principal's leadership is also his/her relationship with parents, as well as the parent-teacher relationship. Generally, when parents are involved in their children's education, both at home and at school, and have positive relationships with teachers, characterised by mutuality, warmth and respect, learners tend to perform better, demonstrate increased achievement motivation, and exhibit higher levels of emotional, social and behavioural adjustment (Henderson & Mapp, 2002). From the interviews with participants it came to the fore that most of the time they have to address issues relating to parental problems. Paul and Harry were of the view that they generally experienced good relationships with parents which helped to solve most parental problems. However, Peter and Mary experienced problems with parental interaction or relations.

Peter said:

> I generally have good relationships with learners and parents, but recently I experienced a case of parental unhappiness about a learner's mother who was unhappy about her child's test results and she directly approached the Western Cape Education Department about this matter.

He claimed that the outcome of this case, "led to great unhappiness among the teachers towards the Western Cape Education Department" (Part 1, Interv, line 106). According to Peter the reason for this unhappiness was that the teachers felt that although the child concerned did not meet the minimum requirements, the WCED still recommended that he progresses to the following grade. The following statements highlight Peter's view regarding this situation:

> I think that a situation like this can lead to the development of negative relationships and mistrust between the Western Cape Education Department, the employer, and the teachers, the employees. Teachers felt incompetent and

believed that the Western Cape Education Department with this outcome to progress the learner was not in the interest of education, but a political one to satisfy the needs of a difficult parent.

Another issue that caused conflict between parents and teachers was the use of corporal punishment in schools. Mary explained that the parents of the learners, who were allegedly punished by a teacher, came to school to talk to her about the matter. After she informed the aggrieved parents that the teacher involved admitted to the use of corporal punishment against their children in his class, they decided to forgive him, but stressed that it should never happen again. Mary explained to the parents that "I regularly inform teachers not to use corporal punishment against learners, because it is against departmental policy" (part 5, interv, line 116–117). Besides addressing these parental problems, Van Deventer and Kruger (2008:257) argue that principals should encourage parents' participation in the social, cultural and academic life of the school.

It is clear that the findings of this study indicate that the majority of the participating principals view the building of positive relationships between the principal and stakeholders such as parents, learners and teachers as their primary role.

The above discussion thus provides evidence that the element of leading people, specifically with regard to enhancing and building positive relationships between teachers and parents, is linked to and supported by the conceptual framework of instructional leadership as portrayed in Figure 2.2 and that the framework thus proved valuable in determining the beliefs of principals with regard to this element.

4.4.2.5 Conclusion

From the interviews with the five participating principals it came to the fore that they support the development of positive relationships between teachers, learners and parents which are crucial for the development of a healthy culture of teaching and learning. It was also clear that some participants initially had trouble developing collegial relationship with teachers, but that it improved as time passed. It was clear that the effectiveness of schools in educating learners to improve academic performance relies heavily upon a principal's leadership style within a particular school context.

It is also clear that the chosen conceptual framework (Figure 2.2) provided valuable guidance to determine and identify the beliefs of principals of their lived experiences with regard to leading people.

Section 4.4.3 entails a discussion of the principal's instructional leadership role of developing people.

4.4.3 Theme 3: Developing people

Under Theme 3, namely developing people, three sub-themes which emerged from the data are discussed, namely providing continuous support to teachers, encouraging continuing teacher education and preparation for principalship. Each of the three sub-themes is linked to elements in the conceptual framework portrayed in Figure 2.2, namely the elements of facilitating professional development of teachers and making provision for incentives for teachers. The link of this theme with the elements in the conceptual framework portrayed in Figure 2.2, is also provided in Table 4.3.

Keiser and Shen (2000:115) assert that the advantages of teacher development include "increased teacher job performance and productivity, improved teacher morale, increased teacher knowledge of subject matter and pedagogy and eventually also higher learner motivation and achievement."

From the discussions which follow in the next section, the lived experiences of these functions with regard to the indirect leadership roles of principals become clear.

4.4.3.1 Providing continuous support to teachers

The interviews with the five participants revealed that they apply different strategies to support their teachers professionally. Peter claimed:

> I selected the best teacher with the appropriate skills and knowledge to support the other teachers to improve their instructional practice.

All participants declared they also encourage their teachers to attend the WCED workshops offered by curriculum advisers (subject advisers) to support their instructional practices. In this regard John commented that, "teachers accumulate professional development points by attending these Western Cape Education

Department workshops" (part 4, Interv, line 180). In addition, Peter, Harry and Mary declared that these WCED workshops are not effective. In this regard, Peter explained:

> Teachers at my school feel that the workshops offered by the curriculum advisers are a waste of time because it lacks new content information related to the CAPS-curriculum.

Harry and Mary questioned the advisory capacity of area managers during the presentation of workshops with principals. Harry commented that "you seldom learn something new" (part 3, Interv, line 185).

Mary claimed:

> The minority of the area managers facilitate these workshops successfully, while the majority does not appear to be competent.

The majority of participants encourage teachers to attend WCED workshops as they score assessment points for professional development. Peter believes that the workshops offered to teachers by curriculum advisers are not effective due to the lack of updated content information related to the CAPS-curriculum. Harry and Mary commented that the workshops offered by area managers are not effective due to a lack of advisory capacity to support their instructional leadership practices.

From the abovementioned, it is clear that the principal's role of providing continuous support for teachers through professional development programmes is important. The provisioning of support to teachers by principals may lead to the improvement of knowledge of subject matter and also higher learner motivation and learner achievement.

It is also clear that the chosen conceptual framework (Figure 2.2) provided valuable guidance to determine and identify the beliefs of principals of their lived experiences with regard to the development of people.

4.4.3.2 Encouraging participation in continuing teacher education

All participants encouraged their teachers to study further to improve their qualifications. Paul, Harry and Mary, encouraged their Foundation Phase and

Intermediate Phase teachers to enrol for short courses at a local university with a campus located in Wellington during the June and September school holidays. The aim of these courses is to strengthen the teachers' content knowledge, which they obtained at the in-service training workshops offered by the WCED. In this regard, Paul, Harry and Mary made the following judgements.

Paul explained that two Foundation Phase teachers decided to enroll for a short course offered by a local university to improve their content knowledge of the CAPS-curriculum.

Harry stated:

> Three teachers in the Intermediate Phase decided to attend the short courses offered by a local university to improve their content knowledge of the new CAPS-curriculum.

Mary commented:

> Only one Foundation Phase teacher decided to register for the short courses offered at a local university to strengthen their content knowledge relating to the CAPS-curriculum.

Peter and John reported that they encouraged some of their teachers to enrol for the Advanced Certificate: Education in School Leadership and Management (ACE-SLM) at a local university with a campus in Wellington.

Peter explained:

> I encouraged one teacher to register for the ACE at a local university as it will improve her chances to be appointed in promotion posts.

John stated that:

> Two of my teachers are studying further at a local university towards the ACE as it is viewed as a requirement for promotion posts.

Horng and Loeb (2010:66–69) and Grobler, Bisschoff and Beeka (2012:40) claim that effective instructional leaders coordinate curriculum implementation, monitor and

evaluate learners' progress and ensure that teacher mentoring and development programmes are in place to improve teaching and learning.

From the aforementioned, it is clear that participants applied different strategies to support their teachers' professional development and growth. It is also evident that all the participating principals encouraged their teachers to attend the informal WCED training workshops after normal working hours and during school holidays to improve their instructional skills and enhance their knowledge of the CAPS-curriculum. Peter and John reported that they encouraged their teachers to enrol for the ACE-SLM at a local university to improve her chances to be appointed in promotion posts.

It is evident that that the principal's role of providing continuous support for teachers through the facilitation of professional development programmes is important. Through the facilitation of these professional development programmes, principals ensure that teachers improve their instructional skills and their knowledge of the CAPS-curriculum.

It is thus clear that the chosen conceptual framework (Figure 2.2) once again provided valuable guidance to determine and identify the beliefs of principals of their lived experiences with regard to the encouragement of teachers to participate in continuing education as part of their professional development.

4.4.3.3 Preparation for principalship

One aspect which came to the fore, but which was not covered by the conceptual model, is the notion of how to prepare principals. Participants' responses varied in terms of their opinions about preparation for principalship. Peter felt strongly that the minimum qualification for appointment as a principal should be a four–year teacher diploma or the ACE-SLM. Paul argued that a teacher should only have the needed managerial and leadership skills to become a successful principal and not qualifications per se. In this regard, he mentioned that "qualifications are not the only guarantee that people will succeed as principals" (part 2, interv, line 166). Another participant, namely Harry, is in agreement with Paul that teacher qualifications are not the only prerequisite for appointment of principals, "but that teachers should set

an example and be able to share their values with all staff members" (part 3, interv, line 167).

Mary and John stated that some teachers at their school obtained the ACE-SLM at a local university to empower themselves with the required curriculum knowledge and skills to improve their instructional skills and knowledge. These principals felt that hard work and experience gained over time would ensure that an ordinary post-level 1 teacher could become a successful school principal.

Mary explained:

> To become a principal, a person should not necessarily have to be a head of department or a deputy principal before becoming a principal.

John, on the other hand, disagrees with Mary's view and mentioned:

> I believe that to become an effective principal, one has to climb the promotion ladder, for example, first head of department, deputy principal and then principal […] You gain experience which is crucial to make informed decisions when needed […] A person without it will possibly struggle as a principal.

Although not explicitly mentioned in the conceptual framework (instead part of professional development) as portrayed in Figure 2.2, the framework can be extended to also include the notion of preparing principals for their role as instructional leaders. The participating principals had specific beliefs of their experiences in this regard, as discussed above.

4.4.3.4 Conclusion

From the interviews with the five participating principals it came to the fore that the majority of elements were present in the conceptual framework (see Figure 2.2 in Chapter 2) and supported by Table 4.3 in Chapter 4.The following elements were present in the conceptual framework and correlated with the findings in Chapter 4 (see 4.4.1 to 4.4.3): (1) Managing teaching and learning; (2) Managing teacher performance; (3) Providing performance feedback to teachers; (4) Leadership styles; (5) Developing the school's vision; (6) Developing positive relationships with teachers, parents and learners; (7) Providing continuous support to teachers; (8) Encouraging continuing teacher education; and (9) Preparation for principalship. It

was found that besides the element of developing the school's vision (the principal's direct instructional leadership role) (see 2.6 in Chapter 2), the rest of the aforementioned elements speak to the indirect instructional leadership roles of principals (see 2.7 in Chapter 2).

The findings reveal that the participating principals had limited experiences of the following elements of instructional leadership: (1) Maintain high visibility; (2) Manage instructional time; (3) Provide incentives for teachers; (4) Manage academic performance of learners; and (5) Drafting and communicating the school's mission statement.

Although principals may seek the support of colleagues and SGBs in the execution of the aforementioned direct and indirect instructional leadership functions, they are still held accountable for its successful implementation. These instructional leadership functions should be undertaken in conjunction with the PSASP mandated by relevant educational legislation (DBE, 2015; RSA, 2016). Unless principals pay attention to the aforementioned instructional dimensions, as identified in the current study, their instructional leadership support to teachers will forever be compromised.

4.5 SUMMARY

From the findings it came to the fore that various themes that were based on the lived experiences of the participating principals impacted on how they perceive their instructional leadership roles. These themes formed the basis of the conceptual framework of instructional leadership (see Figure 2.2 on p.75) and included: (1) developing a school vision; (2) managing the instructional programme; and (3) promoting a positive school learning climate. The findings indicate that the aforementioned themes are also linked to and supported by the elements of the conceptual framework of instructional leadership (see Table 4.3 on p.124). This framework thus proved valuable in determining the lived experiences of the participating principals with regard to their instructional leadership roles.

The findings indicate that the majority of participating principals moved away from working alone as individuals to become collaborative professionals who work with school management teams (SMTs) to achieve a shared purpose. This shared

purpose included ensuring the delivery of quality teaching and learning through distributed leadership with teachers who worked collaboratively in impoverished environments characterised by previously historically disadvantaged backgrounds and low socio-economic conditions.

From the findings it came to the fore that the participating principals played a pivotal role in managing teaching and learning, how they provided performance feedback to teachers and how they co-ordinated and reported on learners' academic performance in collaboration with SMTs and teachers. The findings indicate that a supportive teaching and learning environment was essential to facilitate teaching and learning, and hence to overcome the underperformance of learners in Afrikaans Home Language and Mathematics in Grades 1 to 6 in selected primary schools in poor communities in the South African context.

From the findings one can deduce that primary schools located in impoverished areas require effective principals who possess new and improved skills, knowledge and attitudes to cope with the wide range of challenges pertinent to their instructional leadership roles which they should perform on a daily basis.

In Chapter 5, an overview and the conclusions of the study are summarised, recommendations for the improvement of policy and practice and areas for future research are proposed, and the limitations of the study are discussed.

CHAPTER 5
OVERVIEW, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter 4, the findings, based on the rich data collected and analysed in study were described. In this final chapter, an overview of the study will be given, and the conclusions, contribution of the study and certain recommendations will also be described (see Objectives 4 and 5 on p. 22).

5.2 OVERVIEW OF THE STUDY

Chapter 1 comprised the background to the study on instructional leadership. It also included the envisaged theory and policy aspects insofar as these aspects help us understand the ways in which principals support teachers in implementing instructional leadership in their quest to improve school performance. The research problem that was investigated in this study was how principals experience their role as instructional leaders in their professional lives. From the problem statement the primary research question and sub-questions related to instructional leadership was clearly stated as well as its context within the field of education. The research methodology and ethical considerations for this qualitative study were outlined, followed by the structure of the dissertation.

Chapter 2 provided an exploration of relevant literature with regard to international and South African perspectives of instructional leadership in the pre-1994 and post-1994 eras, the academic performance of participating schools, and of the possible direct and indirect instructional leadership roles of principals. The theoretical framework that underpins this study was also highlighted. Various leadership traits were explored, with a particular focus on instructional leadership. This chapter also provided an extensive reflection on the type and nature of policies and practices available to support instructional leadership. The following appropriate acts or legislation were also discussed in this chapter, with the intention of investigating their alignment to instructional leadership: The South African Schools Act (No. 84 of 1996), the Employment of Educators Act (No. 76 of 1998), the Education Laws Amendment Act (No. 31 of 2007) and the PSASP (as amended in March 2016). This

was done in order to investigate whether instructional leadership practices are clearly captured for implementation by the participating principals. It is important to have an understanding of these aspects to provide insight into the principal's role as instructional leader. An adapted version of Hallinger's conceptual framework was chosen as it could provide structure and also contributes towards creating and sustaining a focus for the study. The rationale and purpose of this adapted conceptual framework was also discussed extensively in Chapter 2.

In Chapter 3, a description was given of the research methodology for the interpretivist research design, to investigate the research problem of how the participating primary school principals from previously disadvantaged communities in the Western Cape experience their roles as instructional leaders in their daily lives. Topics discussed include the sampling strategy that was followed to select participants, namely purposive sampling, as well as the concept and components of the research design and research method used in the study. The data collection methods, phenomenological data analysis (Moustakas, 1994) supported by the ATLAS.ti qualitative data analysis (QDA) computer programme (Scales, 2013), data validation procedures and ethical considerations related to qualitative research were also discussed.

Chapter 4 consisted of the findings obtained from the lived experiences of the participants, as identified from the interviews. This Chapter also included topics such as the biographical information of participants, and the identification and discussions of the themes. In the presentation of the findings as obtained from the analysis process, relevant extracts and quotations (see 4.4.1 to 4.4.3) were included to give authenticity to the study.

In the next section (5.3), a summary of the findings as obtained from the transcribed qualitative interviews about the lived experiences of the participants will be given in the light of the sub-questions of the study.

5.3 SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

The findings of this study established that there are practices that promote and support instructional leadership of school principals. The beliefs of principals of their

lived experiences as instructional leaders were identified from the reported data by focusing the research on a conceptual framework, adapted from Hallinger (see Figure 2.2). The conceptual framework portrayed in Figure 2.2, proved that the following three dimensions for the instructional leadership role of the principal forms the foundation of this proposed conceptual framework: (1) managing the instructional programme; (2) developing the school's vision and mission statement; and (3) promoting a positive school learning climate. Each of these instructional leadership dimensions was discussed in response to the sub-research questions of the study (see 1.4.1 in Chapter 1), which were as follows:

1. What does the national and international literature report on the instructional leadership roles and functions of school principals?

2. How do the selected principals perceive the nature and essence of instructional leadership in their schools?

3. How do the selected principals experience the different dimensions of instructional leadership in their schools?

4. How do the historical backgrounds and socio-economic conditions of the selected principals' schools impact on instructional leadership?

5. What recommendations can the selected principals make in order to successfully implement instructional leadership in their respective schools?

5.3.1 The participants' lived experiences of managing the instructional programme

5.3.1.1 Managing teaching and learning

The conceptual framework (see Figure 2.2 in Chapter 2) for this study includes amongst other elements, also the element of the effective management of teaching and learning. In this regard one concern came to the fore, namely how the majority of the participating principals perceived their instructional leadership roles to manage teaching and learning. It was found that this function is mostly delegated to senior

staff. This element of managing teaching and learning is also linked to the principal's indirect instructional leadership roles (see 2.7 in Chapter 2).

Not all participating principals' lived experiences included a strong focus on the improvement of teaching and learning, but that they saw their task as being more managerial in nature (see 4.4.1.1). From the interviews only Peter indicated that he, in collaboration with his HOD, was involved in managing all teaching and learning activities at his school. The reason for the success of this shared leadership with his HOD was because he was not only responsible for his daily instructional leadership responsibilities, but also for teaching learners in the Foundation Phase, especially when teachers are absent. The rest of the participating principals reported that their primary instructional leadership role was to manage the work of their HODs and deputy principals who were responsible for curriculum delivery. In this sense, the participating principals may have contradicted themselves by acknowledging that they did not see instructional leadership as their primary role but instead view themselves as 'curriculum organisers'. To address the latter contradiction, the participating principals should actually become involved in their instructional leadership roles of curricula implementation and teaching and learning in collaboration with their school management teams (SMTs).

The abovementioned is somewhat confirmed by the literature. The findings of a study by Yunus, Abdullah and Jusoh (2019) also provide a picture of the relationship between the principals' instructional leadership function and teachers' concerns about teaching and learning. Yunus *et al.* (2019:22) aver that for principals to become effective instructional leaders, it requires that they need to work more closely with teachers to establish a shared vision and mission, applicable strategies, skills and knowledge to advance teaching and learning. Therefore, it stands to reason that principals, as effective instructional leaders, need to become more involved in the management of teaching and learning activities (i.e. monitoring the learners' test results) and the assessment of teachers (i.e. the IQMS process) in collaboration with the teachers.

5.3.1.2 Managing teacher performance

The conceptual framework (see Figure 2.2 in Chapter 2) for this study includes the element of managing teacher performance and is also linked to the principals'

possible indirect instructional leadership roles (see 2.7 in Chapter 2). It was found that the participating principals' lived experiences of how the government evaluates teachers' performance by means of the implementation of the Integrated Quality Management System (IQMS) as an assessment tool, was an important element of their leadership (see 4.4.1.2). The study found that four out of the five principals evaluate teachers in a collaborative way in that they employ and utilise their DSG comprising HODs, deputy principals, subject heads and teachers who acts as 'peer assessors' (fellow colleagues teaching similar subjects in the same grade or phase).

From this study, it is also clear that the participating principals experience various practical problematic issues that result from the implementation of the IQMS. The principals experienced that the lack of time during the execution of the evaluation of the IQMS process by the DSG hinders the quality of positive performance feedback to teachers. In addition, it was found that the participating principals experienced that members of the DSG are not knowledgeable and competent enough to provide meaningful feedback to teachers regarding the improvement of their (the teachers') instructional practices and areas that reflect the need for professional development. It was also found that the participating principals experienced the assessment of teachers by means of the IQMS in collaboration with their DSGs not to have the desired outcome of improving teaching and learning (the 'core business' of a school).

From the study, it became evident that some of the participating principals did not receive adequate instructional support from district officials. This claim is verified by the literature. Linked to October's (2009) study, a recent study conducted by Bantwini and Moorosi (2017) found that the support primary school principals receive from district officials (e.g. area managers) pertinent to their roles as instructional leaders, is lacking with regard to the provision of resources and consultation in key decisions and key performance areas. Thus, it is clear that principals cannot perform their instructional leadership roles in isolation, but that they should seek the support of other school leaders to enable them to become effective instructional leaders.

5.3.1.3 Managing academic performance of learners

The conceptual framework (see Figure 2.2 in Chapter 2) for this study includes the element of the effective management of learners' academic performance. This element is also linked to the principal's indirect instructional leadership roles (see 2.7

in Chapter 2 and Table 4.3 in Chapter 4). The participating principals reported on their school's academic performance in the narrative reports (see 2.7.1.3 in Chapter 2), but they did not elaborate on how they were involved in the monitoring of their learners' academic performance. The findings indicate that the learners of John performed the best in Mathematics (Grade 2) and Afrikaans Home Language (Grades 4, 5 and 6) from 2013 to 2015. The reason why John's learners performed the best in the latter subjects is because he entrusted the management of curriculum and teaching tasks to his HODs as he believes they have the qualities to become very good principals in the future (see 4.4.1.1). Paul's learners performed the best in Mathematics (Grade 3) and Afrikaans Home Language (Grade 3) from 2013 to 2015 because he motivates his teachers to always do their best and in turn he rewards them for their efforts at school functions. From these findings it became evident that although some the participating schools delivered good performances in the ANA tests from 2013 to 2015, the majority of schools underperformed. From the aforementioned it is clear that the learners' academic performance in the ANA results is of a low standard and thus the need for principals to take a more pronounced role as instructional leaders.

As an instructional leader, the principal can be influential in improving and promoting teaching and learning through guiding and assisting teachers to engage in sound assessment practices (Stiggins & Duke, 2008:286). Such principals collect and review relevant assessment data with the intention of using findings to improve the teaching and learning (Hallinger, 2008; Blase & Blase, 2010; Mendels, 2012). In addition, Hallinger, Liu and Piyaman (2019:341) maintain that principals play a pivotal role in managing the academic performance of learners.

5.3.2 The participants' lived experiences of leadership styles and developing the school's vision and mission statement

5.3.2.1 Leadership styles

The conceptual framework (see Figure 2.2 in Chapter 2) for this study includes the element of leadership styles. From the findings of this study (see 4.4.2.1) it is clear that the lived experiences of the participating principals of their instructional leadership roles in their schools, is characterised by a variety of leadership styles. It was also found that the majority of the participating principals utilised the distributed

leadership style (also referred to as shared or participative leadership) which enabled them to work collaboratively with teachers through shared decision-making processes based on mutual trust, curriculum knowledge and skills to improve teaching and learning and learner performance. The majority of the participating principals also perceived themselves as democratic leaders who work collaboratively with all staff members to achieve school objectives. Thus, it became necessary for the participating principals to seek the support of colleagues in performing their instructional leadership roles, as it not possible for them to do it on their own.

Van Knippenberg and Sitkin (2013:1) note that studying the different styles of leadership is a prerequisite for selecting the most effective style depending on the context in which the leadership occurs. Linked to this notion, Sun and Leithwood (2015:499) aver that the transactional style is an effective leadership style because it is task-orientated and focuses primarily on improving the quality of teaching and learning and learner performance, especially in disadvantaged communities. Tomkins and Simpson (2015:1013) add that transactional leadership is largely based on the exchange of rewards (incentives) for superior performance by teachers. Naeem, Jamal, Igbal, Shah and Riaz (2019) stress that the most preferred style used by principals is the democratic leadership style because it involves shared decision-making processes between principals and teachers to achieve school objectives.

5.3.2.2 Developing the school's vision and mission statement

This aspect of developing the school's vision and mission statement is a key element of the conceptual framework (see Figure 2.2 in Chapter 2) to support the development of principals' instructional leadership. 40% of the participating principals believed that it is important that the school's vision should be shared with the teachers to ensure that they take ownership thereof (see 4.4.2.1). Peter explained that when he became school principal, the school did not have a vision. He then developed a school improvement plan in collaboration with his teachers to achieve the school's vision through shared leadership. To ensure the successful implementation of the school vision, he surrounded himself with staff members who shared his belief that all learners can achieve success. Paul commented that all the teachers at his school should realise what their role is in making this vision a reality. He emphasised that it is also important for the teachers to be held accountable for

meeting the needs of all learners by presenting quality teaching and learning. From the interviews, it emerged that the other participating principals, however, did not mention how they communicate the school's goals with all stakeholders (i.e. parents, teacher and learners) as set out in the mission statement.

Most researchers, concurring with literature, unanimously agree on a common understanding with regard to the provision and establishment of a school vision statement, which should, in turn, be converted into a school mission statement (Khuzwayo, 2005; Blase & Blase, 2010; Botha, 2010). Salleh (2013:33) asserts that the communication of the school goals by the principal with all stakeholders allows him/her to inform them about future strategic school plans and expectations to improve learner performance. Watts, Steele and Mumford (2019:243) argue that in order for principals to formulate a shared vision, it is of utmost importance that they accommodate the views of all roleplayers within and outside the school. Therefore, it stands to reason that principals, as instructional leaders, need to engage teachers, parents and learners in the development and articulation of the school's vision and mission statement.

5.3.3 The participants' lived experiences of promoting a positive school learning climate.

5.3.3.1 Managing instructional time

The conceptual framework (see Figure 2.2 in Chapter 2) for this study includes the element of managing instructional time. In the interviews with the participating principals, none of the principals indicated how they managed the school's instructional time to optimise teaching and learning. Maponya (2015:40) suggests that the efficient allocation of instructional time spent on teaching and learning activities can increase learner performance. Several other researchers assert there are various ways in which instructional time could be conceptualised and measured, among others, by utilising the total available amount of instructional time to optimise teaching and learning, to maximise the time learners spend studying the content of the curriculum, and offering learners sufficient time to learn (Ngcobo & Tikly, 2010; Lam *et al.*, 2011; Mbali & Douglas, 2012). Further, literature suggests that coming late and absenteeism may reduce the learners' instructional time for teaching and learning (Mbali & Douglas, 2012:525; Spaull 2012:80).

5.3.3.2 Facilitating and ensuring the professional development of teachers

The conceptual framework (see Figure 2.2 in Chapter 2) for this study includes the element of facilitating and ensuring the professional development of teachers. The lived experiences of the participating principals are that they view the development of people within the school context, as a key function of their leadership roles. Participants encourage their teachers to attend WCED workshops as they score assessment points for professional development. It was also found that, according to the participating principals, subject advisers, who are expected to actually demonstrate higher levels of subject knowledge if it is required by the teachers, are not able to provide positive curricular and instructional support (see 4.3.3.1 to 4.4.3.2). It was also found that one participating principal claimed that he had experiences of an area manager who did not assist him with the development of a plan regarding feedback to teachers. In addition, the participating principals have lived experiences of area managers who demonstrated a lack of capacity during the presentation of workshops to empower principals, especially those serving the educational needs of learners in previously disadvantaged schools.

The findings of a study conducted by Vrieling, Van Den Beemt and De Laat (2019) reveal that although the professional development of teachers is a prerequisite for successful teaching and learning, achieving shared goals with all teachers is difficult. Vrieling *et al.* (2019:76) argue that unless the goals for professional development are clearly stated and agreed upon by all teachers, they can easily become demotivated and subsequently, underperform. Therefore, it is crucial that principals as instructional leaders communicate to teachers the aims and objectives of professional development courses in an effort to motivate them to attend these courses to improve their instructional capacity and grow as professionals.

5.3.3.3 Preparation for principalship

The conceptual framework (see Figure 2.2 in Chapter 2) for this study, include the element of preparation for principalship. It was found that is the importance of ensuring that principals are appropriately qualified and have enough experience pertinent to the continued professional development and training of principals (see 4.4.3.3). This study indicated that the majority of the participating principals' lived experiences are of the opinion that the minimum qualification for appointment as a

principal should be a four-year teacher diploma or an ACE-SLM course. However, some of the participating principals reported that a teacher should only have the needed managerial and leadership skills to become a successful principal and not qualifications per se. It was also found that some of the participating principals believed that aspiring principals should first become a HOD or a deputy principal before perusing the position otherwise they will possibly struggle as a principal.

Bush and Oduro (2006) and Mestry and Singh (2007) note that there is no formal training for school principals to equip them to be leaders and managers. Linked to this notion, some researchers claim that a lack of professional development programmes and support for school principals in the South African context compromises effective leadership and management and the quality of education in schools (Parsotam & Van der Merwe, 2011; Grobler *et al.*, 2012).

Naidoo (2019:12) argues that although the ACE-SLM may be an appropriate relevant point of departure for all aspiring and practicing principals this course alone is not sufficient as principals require additional instructional leadership competencies to cope with numerous challenges they face on a daily basis. Naidoo (2019:12) avers that it is only through continuing professional leadership development and practical experience, together with the application of appropriate skills, informed knowledge and values that principals will prevail as effective instructional leaders. Thus, the assumption that a teaching qualification (i.e. the ACE-SLM) and teaching experience are the only requirements for one to assume the leadership of a school seems not to hold true.

5.3.3.4 Providing incentives for teachers

The conceptual framework (see Figure 2.2 in Chapter 2) for this study, include the element of providing of incentives for teachers. In the analysis of the element of management of teaching and learning (see 4.5.2), the element of providing incentives for teachers came to the fore. In the interviews with the participating principals, only Peter reported that he provides incentives to teachers in an effort to motivate them to strive for better learner results. He did so by providing extrinsic motivation for his staff by acknowledging them at school functions and awarding them with certificates.

The findings from a study conducted by Neal (2011) revealed that there is a growing interest in education on the role incentives play in improving performance, and the general consensus on the subject is that these incentives are crucial to obtaining the expected results. Ni and Podgursky (2016:1075) add that the provision of incentives to improve learning and teaching is one of the critical practices that support instructional leadership by school principals to enhance performance, especially when acknowledging teachers for their superior achievements.

5.3.3.5 Maintain high visibility

The conceptual framework (see Figure 2.2 in Chapter 2) for this study includes the element of maintaining high visibility. From the interviews with the participating principals, only Peter stated that he was involved in all teaching and learning activities (i.e. managing the IQMS process) (see 4.4.1.2). This implies that he maintains high visibility in the teaching and learning activities at his school. Some of the other participating principals did, however, mention that they participate in class visits, but this only occurs on an irregular basis (see 4.4.1.2). This implies that their visibility in the school is low pertinent to their provisioning of instructional support to teachers to enhance quality teaching and learning.

Ahmed and Sayed (2009:203) state that through formal and informal class visits, the principal helps to create a motivating learning environment, which helps students to obtain better performance and enhance teachers' work satisfaction. Maintaining a high visibility in their schools enable principals to promote, encourage and stimulate learning in the classroom, which in turn will increase learners' performance (Harris, Day, Hopkins, Hadfield, Hargreaves & Chapman, 2013).

5.3.3.6 Developing positive relationships with all stakeholders

The conceptual framework (see Figure 2.2 in Chapter 2) for this study, include the element of developing positive relationships with all stakeholders (see 4.4.2.2 to 4.4.2.4). The participating principals indicated that their lived experiences focused strongly on leadership within the school context itself, which included parents. From the data obtained, it was found that the participating principals' leadership styles support the development of positive relationships between teachers and learners which are conducive to a culture of teaching and learning. It was found that the

majority of participants claimed that they are participative leaders as well as democratic leaders who work collaboratively with all staff members to achieve school objectives (see 5.3.2.1). It was also found that the participating principals all supported the development of positive relationships between teachers and learners which are conducive to a culture of teaching and learning.

There were reports from principals that a positive school climate leads to the holistic development of well-disciplined learners. Participants confirmed that they experienced positive relationships with their staff, as well as with parents. The latter group supported principals to solve most problems related to parents' grievances. Leading people within the school context itself thus included not only staff members, but also key stakeholders like parents. Akpan (2016) adds that principals as instructional leaders should develop a confidential environment, encourage professional development of teachers, allocate most of their time to the improvement of teaching and learning, develop high academic standards for the school and support teacher relations and cooperation.

5.3.4 Contextual factors

The participating principals' narrative reports of their lived experiences, pertinent to their working environments (see 4.2.3), provide a better understanding of the role of principals, as instructional leaders, within a specific context of poor and underperforming schools. In this study, all the participating principals are from previously disadvantaged primary schools located in a context of poor rural and urban communities. A further finding that was revealed is that the impact contextual factors may have an effect on principals as instructional leaders and on the performance of learners is significant. Principals therefore need to be trained to function and operate as instructional leaders in different school contexts, especially in relation to schools located in previously disadvantaged communities, which pose many challenges due to low socio-economic conditions and a lack of physical resources (e.g. school buildings), human resources (e.g. teachers) and financial resources (e.g. funds). Merely technically qualifying for principalship, e.g. by having the right academic qualifications, is not enough. Principals need to be empowered to function optimally in diverse contexts.

Wadesango and Bayaga (2013:209) argue that schools located in impoverished communities and characterised by low socio-economic conditions may have a bearing on the academic performance of learners and the instructional leadership roles of the principal. Dreyer and Singh (2016:245) assert that the contextual factors of a school have an influence on the cognitive development and learning of learners. Related to the latter statement, principals need to become aware of the contexts in which their schools are operating (especially those schools situated in poor, disadvantaged communities). This awareness by principals will enable them to act more emphatically to the socio-economical and educational needs reminiscent of learners from the impoverished communities they serve.

In the next section, Section 5.4, recommendations will be discussed.

5.4 RECOMMENDATIONS

In this research study, it was revealed that all the participating principals did not mention how they communicate the school's goals with the parents, teachers and learners (see 5.3.2.2). Therefore, research is required to investigate the impact of the effective communication of school goals on teaching and learning in schools to the relevant stakeholders.

It is also recommended that there should be compulsory, coordinated training for all principals in relation to their instructional leadership role of managing teaching and learning. This recommendation flows from the finding that the majority of the participating principals did not perceive their instructional leadership role of managing teaching and learning as their primary role as this function is mostly delegated to their senior colleagues (see 5.3.1.1).

In this research study, it became evident that the majority of the participating principals did not mention how they manage instructional time (see 5.3.3.1) and the academic performance of learners (see 5.3.1.3) as well as the maintenance of high visibility (see 5.3.3.5). Therefore, it is recommended that coordinated training for all principals is required pertinent to their instructional leadership roles of managing instructional time and the academic performance of learners, including maintaining high visibility to improve teaching and learning.

It was founded that most of the participating principals did not provide incentives to teachers to encourage them to deliver improved learner performance (see 5.3.3.4). Therefore, research is required on the influence of the provisioning of incentives to teachers by principals to improve learner performance.

From this study, it is found that the use of the conceptual framework (see Figure 2.2) was most valuable to determine the belief how principals experience their instructional leadership functions in actual practice. It is recommended that further corroborative studies of this conceptual framework be undertaken as well as putting it to use by extending the research to more schools so that the external validity of the framework can be determined.

In Section 5.5, the possible contribution of this study will be highlighted.

5.5 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY

In this study a conceptual framework (see Figure 2.2) was utilised and developed to underpin the research. This framework acted as a navigator to determine how primary school principals' from disadvantaged rural and urban communities perceive their instructional leadership roles in order to influence and enhance effective teaching and learning. This conceptual framework was based on literature reviewed, as well as the reported data from the phenomenological interviews conducted with the participants and used in an original way in a specific location within the South African context. This contextual nature of the study and given that previously no study of this kind, with a focus on principals from historically disadvantaged schools in South Africa has been undertaken, gives originality to the thesis. The main focus was on primary school principals and not on other possible instructional leaders in the school, for example, HODs, deputy principals or subject heads. New perspectives pertinent to the lived experiences of primary school principals with regard to instructional leadership, was thus established and revealed. This study thus makes an original contribution to research conducted on the instructional leadership roles of primary school principals in a South African context. This study extends upon recent research conducted by several scholars on instructional leadership in South Africa (Mestry, 2017; Naidoo, 2019; Naidoo & Mestry, 2019).

This conceptual framework provides a framework for any future research should someone wish to extend it to a broader context in both primary and secondary schools. Further corroborative studies are however required before external validity can be extended to other South African contexts.

A summary of the limitations and strengths of the study will now be discussed.

5.6 LIMITATIONS AND STRENGTHS OF THE STUDY

The findings and conclusions of this study are limited and cannot be generalised as the research sample of the study was limited to only five primary school principals from disadvantaged communities in one specific province. This study provides theoretical insight in understanding principal support to teachers. As the study included a limited number of specific primary schools in one province in a specific context, the findings cannot be generalised with regard to all educational environments in this specific province.

Although the findings were drawn from only five participating schools, the detailed analysis of the study may make the findings implementable in other schools elsewhere in the country where the challenges facing support for instructional leadership are similar. But, further studies would be needed to explore to what extends the findings of this study can be corroborated.

A summary of the possible areas for future research will now be discussed.

5.7 POSSIBLE AREAS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

From this study on the lived experiences of primary school principals of their roles as instructional leaders, the following priority areas are recommended for future research:

- The level of development of the standards for the Policy on South African Standard for Principalship (PSASP) in quintile 1 and quintile 2 schools, can be researched.

- Research can be conducted on the identification and development of professional development courses and opportunities for aspiring principals, specifically with regard to instructional leadership. This research can include Advanced Diplomas in Education, with a focus on Educational Leadership and Management.

- Research can be conducted on the use of the conceptual framework used in this study in the training of future and current principals.

5.8 CONCLUDING REMARKS

From this study, it is clear that the contextualised challenges faced in specific schools have a direct bearing on instructional leadership roles of the participating principals and on how they view their leadership. The primary research question of the study was: "What are primary school principals' lived experiences of their roles as instructional leaders?" This research question was thus answered.

Schools in diverse contexts often have similar conditions of poverty that impact on the underperformance of learners. Success stories tend to be strongly related to the lived experiences of the participating principals of their historical backgrounds. Adamson (2012:1) says that a society that fails to maintain the commitment to protect children from poverty, even in difficult economic terms, is a society that is failing its most vulnerable citizens and storing up intractable social and economic problems for the years immediately ahead. Principals thus have crucial leadership roles to fulfil, not only with regard to managerial leadership functions, but also through instructional leadership to ensure that positive and dynamic teaching and learning environments are created and developed to empower learners to escape the cycle of poverty. Education is the answer and principals have a key role to play in unlocking the potential of both learners and staff through their leadership to ensure a better future for all. If principals are not willing to accept this challenge, effective curriculum development cannot occur and the questioning of quality schooling for all will remain for the years to come. Principals need to be creative and motivated change agents. This will demand that principals become curriculum change agents, requiring dynamic leadership. Adopting the responsibility of instructional leadership,

in conjunction with other types of leadership, is a challenge because of the multi-faceted nature of a principal's leadership.

I conclude with the following statement, which, although said 40 years ago, still has relevance for us today. Doll stated as early as 1978 (1978:330) that "… the process of curriculum development is greatly facilitated by the presence of adequate leadership". We owe it to our children to ensure a future in which schools have the best available leadership, with principals receiving the necessary support to fulfil their roles as instructional leaders.

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APPENDIX A
Consent letter from the Western Cape Education Department

Western Cape Government

Education

Directorate: Research
Audrey.wyngaard@westerncape.gov.za
tel: +27 021 467 9272
Fax: 0865902282
Private Bag x9114, Cape Town, 8000

REFERENCE: 20150520-486169
ENQUIRIES: Dr A T Wyngaard

Mr Jeremy Van Wyk
45 Olienhout Avenue
New Orleans
Paarl
7646

Dear Mr Jeremy Van Wyk

RESEARCH PROPOSAL: PRIMARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' LIVED EXPERIENCES OF THEIR ROLES AS INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERS IN SELECTED PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Your application to conduct the above-mentioned research in schools in the Western Cape has been approved subject to the following conditions:
1. Principals, educators and learners are under no obligation to assist you in your investigation.
2. Principals, educators, learners and schools should not be identifiable in any way from the results of the investigation.
3. You make all the arrangements concerning your investigation.
4. Educators' programmes are not to be interrupted.
5. The Study is to be conducted from **01 April 2016 till 30 September 2016**
6. No research can be conducted during the fourth term as schools are preparing and finalizing syllabi for examinations (October to December).
7. Should you wish to extend the period of your survey, please contact Dr A.T Wyngaard at the contact numbers above quoting the reference number?
8. A photocopy of this letter is submitted to the principal where the intended research is to be conducted.
9. Your research will be limited to the list of schools as forwarded to the Western Cape Education Department.
10. A brief summary of the content, findings and recommendations is provided to the Director: Research Services.
11. The Department receives a copy of the completed report/dissertation/thesis addressed to:

The Director: Research Services
Western Cape Education Department
Private Bag X9114
CAPE TOWN
8000
We wish you success in your research.

Kind regards.
Signed: Dr Audrey T Wyngaard
Directorate: Research
DATE: 09 March 2016

APPENDIX B
Letter of ethics clearance from Stellenbosch University

UNIVERSITEIT·STELLENBOSCH·UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvennoot · your knowledge partner

Approval Notice
New Application

29-Mar-2016
Van Wyk, Jeremy JM

Proposal #: SU-HSD-001910
Title: PRIMARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' LIVED EXPERIENCES OF THEIR ROLES AS INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERS IN SELECTED PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Dear Mr Jeremy Van Wyk,

Your **New Application received on 09-Mar-2016**, was reviewed. Please note the following information about your approved research proposal: Proposal Approval Period**: 23-Mar-2016 to 22 Mar-2017.**

Please take note of the general Investigator Responsibilities attached to this letter. You may commence with your research after complying fully with these guidelines. Please remember to use your proposal number (SU-HSD-001910) on any documents or correspondence with the REC concerning your research proposal. Please note that the REC has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

Also note that a progress report should be submitted to the Committee before the approval period has expired if a continuation is required. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary).

This committee abides by the ethical norms and principles for research, established by the Declaration of Helsinki and the Guidelines for Ethical Research: Principles Structures and Processes 2004 (Department of Health). Annually a number of projects may be selected randomly for an external audit. National Health Research Ethics Committee (NHREC) registration number REC-050411-032.

We wish you the best as you conduct your research. If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at 218089183.

Included Documents:
DESC Report
REC: Humanities New Application
Sincerely,
Clarissa Graham REC Coordinator Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humanities)

APPENDIX C
Interview schedule for phenomenological interviews with participants

ONDERHOUDSKEDULE VIR FENOMENOLOGIESE ONDERHOUDE MET DEELNEMERS

Ondersoeker: Mnr. Jeremy Mark van Wyk

Kursus: PhD (Kurrikulumstudies)

Studentenommer: 13473204-2009

ONDERHOUDSVRAE:

Die onderhoud sal semi-gestruktureerd wees en hou verband met die onderrigleierskap praktyke soos in die navorsingsvoorstel vervat en wat fokus op die primêre navorsingsvraag wat soos volg verwoord was: "Wat is die geleefde ervarings van primêre skoolhoofde van hul rolle as onderrigleiers?"

Die onderstaande vrae sal die onderhoud rig:

1. Hoe beskou jy die aard en omvang van onderrigleierskap in jou skool?
   ……………………………………………………………………………

2. Hoe ervaar jy die verskillende dimensies van onderrigleierskap in jou skool?
   ……………………………………………………………………………

3. Wat is jou ervaring van die stigting van gesonde verhoudings met opvoeders, leerders en ouers?
   ……………………………………………………………………………

4. Hoe sal jy jou ervaring beskryf om samewerking met opvoeders deur middel van effektiewe leierskap te ontwikkel om leerderprestasie te verbeter?
   …………………………………………………………………………..

5. Wat is jou ervaring van onderrigondersteuning aan opvoeders?
   …………………………………………………………………………..

6. Hoe sal jy jou ervaring beskryf om volgehoue professionele ontwikkeling van alle personeellede te verseker?

…………………………………………………………………………….

7. Wat is jou ervaring van die evalueringsisteem, die geïntegreerde gehalte bestuurstelsel (GGBS)?

……………………………………………………………………….

8. Wat is jou ervaring van prestasie terugvoering aan opvoeders?

……………………………………………………………………………

9. Hoe beïnvloed die historiese agtergrond en sosio-ekonomiese omstandighede onderrigleierskap in jou skool?

…………………………………………………………………………….

10 Watter aanbevelings kan jy maak om onderrigleierskap suksesvol in jou skool toe te pas?

……………………………………………………………………………..

APPENDIX D
Informed consent letter from the participants

UNIVERSITEIT·STELLENBOSCH·UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvennoot • your knowledge partner

UNIVERSITEIT STELLENBOSCH
INWILLIGING OM DEEL TE NEEM AAN NAVORSING

Die studietitel is as volg:

PRIMÊRE SKOOLHOOFDE SE GELEEFDE ERVARINGS VAN HUL ROLLE AS ONDERRIGLEIERS.

U word gevra om deel te neem aan 'n navorsingstudie uitgevoer te word deur Jeremy Mark van Wyk (POD, HOD, Dipl. HRM, PGDE, B.Tech, Mphil), van die Fakulteit van Opvoedkunde aan die Universiteit van Stellenbosch. Die resultate van die studie sal deel vorm van 'n navoringsproefskrif. U word as moontlike deelnemer aan die studies gekies, omdat u as primêre skoolhoof, geleefde ervarings het van onderrigleierskap.

1. DOEL VAN DIE STUDIE

Die hoofdoel van die studies is om data te versamel oor primêre skoolhoofde se geleefde ervarings van hul rolle as onderrigleiers.

2. PROSEDURES

Indien u inwillig om aan die studie deel te neem, vra ons dat u die volgende moet doen:

1. Inwillig tot 'n onderhoud met die navorser wat tussen een uur tot 'n uur en 'n half kan duur.
2. Die onderhoud met die navorser sal deur middel van 'n digitale bandopnemer opgeneem word.
3. Die onderhoud sal plaasvind by die skool waar u verbonde aan is, in 'n vertrek wat privaat en veilig vir u sal wees.

3. MOONTLIKE RISIKO'S EN ONGEMAKLIKHEID

Dit mag dalk ongemaklik wees om oor persoonlike, geleefde ervarings te praat. Die navorser is opgelei in die onderhoudstegnieke, en sal dus 'n atmosfeer skep om elke deelnemer op sy/haar gemak te laat voel.

4. MOONTLIKE VOORDELE VIR PROEFPERSONE EN/OF VIR DIE SAMELEWING

Daar is geen direkte bevoordeling verbonde vir deelnemers aan hierdie studie nie. Die samelewing mag egter voordeel uit die studie trek deurdat dit moontlik kan bydra tot meer insig oor die geleefde ervarings van primêre skoolhoofde met betrekking tot hul rolle as onderrigleiers.

5. VERGOEDING VIR DEELNAME

Deelnemers sal geen vergoeding betaal word nie.

6. VERTROULIKHEID

Enige inligting wat deur middel van die navorsing verkry word en wat met u in verband gebring kan word, sal vertroulik bly en slegs met u toestemming bekend gemaak word of soos deur die wet vereis. Vertroulikheid sal gehandhaaf word deur middel van die gebruik van 'n kodenommer en/of 'n skuilnaam. Data sal bewaar word in die woning van die navorser, in 'n geslote brandkluis en op rekenaar wat met 'n wagwoord voorsien word. Slegs die navorser sal toegang tot die data hê.

Onderhoude wat op oudio-band geneem word, mag deur die deelnemer hersien of redigeer word.
Onmiddellik na afloop van die onderhoude, sal die navorser die deelnemer 'n geleentheid gee om die onderhoud te hersien of te redigeer. Slegs die navorser sal toegang tot die bande hê. Die bande sal na die suksesvolle voltooiing van die navorsingsproefskrif skoongevee word.

7. DEELNAME EN ONTTREKKING

U kan self besluit of u aan die studie wil deelneem of nie. Indien u inwillig om aan die studie deel te neem, kan u te eniger tyd u daaraan onttrek sonder enige nadelige gevolge. U kan ook weier om op bepaalde vrae te antwoord, maar steeds aan die studie deelneem. Die navorser kan u aan die studie onttrek indien omstandighede dit noodsaaklik maak.

8. IDENTIFIKASIE VAN ONDERSOEKERS

Indien u enige vrae of besorgdheid omtrent die navorsing het, staan dit u vry om in verbinding te tree met Jeremy Mark van Wyk by 0824366393 of jerrymark@telkomsa.net, of toesighouers, prof. A.E. Carl by 021-808 2285 of aec2@sun.ac.za en prof. L.L.L. Le Grange by 021-808 2280 of llg@sun.ac.za.

9. REGTE VAN PROEFPERSONE

U kan te eniger tyd u inwilliging terugtrek en u deelname beëindig, sonder enige nadelige gevolge vir u. Deur deel te neem aan die navorsing doen u geensins afstand van enige wetlike regte, eise of regsmiddel nie. Indien u vrae het oor u regte as proefpersoon by navorsing, skakel met Me. Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] van die Afdeling Navorsingsontwikkeling.

VERKLARING DEUR PROEFPERSOON

Die bostaande inligting is aan my, ...gegee en verduidelik deur Jeremy Mark van Wyk in Afrikaans en ek is dié taal magtig. Ek is die geleentheid gebied om vrae te stel en my vrae is tot my bevrediging beantwoord.

....
Handtekening van deelnemer

APPENDIX E
Interviewing calendar for phenomenological interviews with participants

RESEARCHER: Mr. Jeremy Mark van Wyk

COURSE: PhD (Curriculum Studies)

STUDENT NUMBER: 13473204-2009

NO.	PSEUDONYMS	DATES	TIME SCHEDULE
1.	Peter	13 April 2016	15:00–16:30
2.	Paul	20 April 2016	15:00–16:30
3.	Harry	27 April 2016	15:00–16:30
4.	John	7 May 2016	15:00–16:30
5.	Mary	14 May 2016	15:00–16:30

APPENDIX F
Proof of language practitioner's editing of dissertation

Liné Loff
Language Practitioner

14 Oewersig
Molteno Street
Stellenbosch

lineloff1@gmail.com
083 576 7718

4 November 2019

RE: JEREMY MARK VAN WYK DISSERTATION

To whom it may concern

This letter serves to confirm that I have performed a language edit on Jeremy Mark van Wyk's dissertation titled "Primary school principals' lived experiences of their roles as instructional leaders in selected primary schools". This dissertation will be presented for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Faculty of Education at Stellenbosch University.

The edit was done by suggesting changes using the "Track changes" function on MS Word and by inserting comments where relevant. All changes were reviewed and either accepted or rejected by Mr van Wyk.

Please do not hesitate to contact me if you have any further questions.

Yours sincerely

Liné Loff

APPENDIX G
Transcribed data from the participants' phenomenological interviews

1. **Managing teaching and learning**

   - Peter viewed his main responsibility *"as being involved in the management of all teaching and learning activities at my school". (Part 1, Interv, line 1)*

   - Peter claimed that managing teaching and learning will lead to teachers and learners, *"committing to the learning process and that his responsibility was to put his knowledge into practice by developing his teachers professionally".* (*Part1, Interv, lines 2-3)*

   - Peter mentioned that he *"monitors schedules and delegate the progress of learner portfolios for monitoring and evaluation to the respective HODs in his school". (Part 1, Interv, lines 4-5)*

   - Peter noted that *"here is a well-documented learner portfolio for you to scrutinise". (Part 1, Interv, line 6)*

   - Peter claimed that *"managing activities associated with teaching and learning". (Part 1, Interv, line 7)*

   - Paul stated that *"managing detailed discussions of lesson outlines and plans to ensure successful curriculum delivery". (Part 2, Interv, line 8)*

   - John reported that *"the SMT also plans and does lesson plans". (Part 4, Interv, line 9)*

   - Mary claimed that "*teachers are getting paid do a job. They should therefore be well prepared to teach so that learners will also become eager to come to class and learn. I strongly believe that I don't have the time to tell teachers what to do and how to do it." (Part 5, Interv, lines 10-12).*

   - Peter reported that *"principals play an important role regarding curriculum implementation and you play an important role to lead as curriculum*

organiser, with your deputy principals and heads of department." (Part 1, Interv, lines 13-14).

- Peter acknowledges that his approach of creating ownership and motivating staff to take development opportunities has led to him *"having a teaching team that is excellent" (Part 1, Interv, line 15).*

- Paul also noted that his task was to *"lead as a curriculum organizer" and* by *"providing extrinsic motivation for his staff … awarding their teaching … efforts by acknowledging them at school functions" (Part 2, Interv, lines 16-17)*

- John said that "*my role as principal is taking care of school governance matters in collaboration with the school governing body, whilst the role of the deputy principal is to deal with instructional issues related to the curriculum and instruction." (Part 3, Interv, lines 17-18)*

- Mary too saw her role as *"dealing with school governing bodies" and the* deputy principal's role as *"dealing with curriculum matters". (Part 5, Interv, lines 19-20)*

- Paul, Harry, John and Mary view their *"main responsibilities as managing administrative and learner discipline matters". (Part 2, 3, 4 & 5 Interv, line 21)*

- Paul said that *"it is impossible for one person to do everything". (Part 2, Interv, line 22)*

- Harry commented that…*"I trust them completely with these tasks". (Part 3, Interv, line 23)*

- John claimed that *"they have the qualities to become very good principals one day". (Part 4, Interv, line 24)*

- Mary posits that *"she is a very competent HOD". (Part 5, Interv, line 25)*

2. Accountability

- Peter and Paul reported *"that that they are accountable towards an employer, namely the WCED". (Part 1 & 2, Interv, line 26)*

- Harry declared that he is accountable to *"those people who pay them for the provisioning of their services"*. *(Part 3, Interv, line 27)*

- John explained that *"therefore teachers are obliged to be 'submissive'." (Part 4, Interv, line 28)*

- John said that *"I do what they expect of me to do". (Part 4, Interv, line 29)*

- Mary commented that *"although my SMT is responsible for managing the IQMS process, I am still held accountable for the verification of the final assessment marks of teachers to the WCED". (Part 5 Interv, lines 30-31)*

- Peter acknowledged the assistance of SMT members, but stressed that *"if something goes wrong it starts with me". (Part 1 Interv, line 32)*

- Paul said that *"you have to account as an individual…accounting on behalf of other people". (Part 2 , Interv, line 33)*

- Harry argued that *"as principal you have do everything yourself…you cannot give it away to somebody else"*. *(Part 3, Interv, line 34)*

- Mary argued that *"being accountable is part and parcel of a principal's job". (Part 5, Interv, line 35)*

- Mary argued that although she delegates some managerial duties to her HOD, *"the principal is ultimately alone accountable to the WCED for everything that happens in the school…the buck stops by me." (Part 5, Interv, lines 36-37)*

- Mary said that "*a principal's job can become a very lonely one*". *(Part 5, Interv, line 38)*

- John said that the duties of a principal the duties of a principal "*appear to be too bureaucratic, among others, managing parental problems and meeting with WCED officials*". *(Part 4, Interv, line 39)*

3. Managing teacher performance

- Peter declared that *"I am solely responsible for the management of the IQMS process at my school, because I want to do it myself. I believe that a principal must get involved in the management and leadership activities in school to ensure that all planned instructional goals are achieved"*. *(Part 1, Interv, line 40)*

- Paul, Harry, John and Mary all declared that "*my deputy principal and HOD are responsible for managing the IQMS process*". *(Part 2, 3, 4 & 5, Interv, line 41)*

- Peter declared that he *"assess what the teacher actually do in the classroom"*. *(Part 1, Interv, line 42)*

- Paul said that *"evaluation takes place"*. *(Part 2, Interv, line 43)*

- Harry claimed that the *"QMS is introduced to monitor the quality of education"*. *(Part 3, Interv, line 44)*

- Paul and Mary both declared that the IQMS is *"window dressing" and a "once-off thing"*. *(Part 2 & 5, Interv, line 45)*

- Peter argued that *"the IQMS is a farce and it is not always a true reflection of teachers' competencies"*. *(Part 1, Interv, line 46)*

- Harry claimed that *"one lesson can't determine how good or bad you are"*. *(Part 3, Interv, line 47)*

- *John posits that "the IQMS may lead to favoritism by peers when allocating assessment marks". (Part 4, Interv, line 48)*

- Paul explained that "*the IQMS should be a continuous process and not a 'once-off thing'. It should be monitored throughout the whole year to enable the principal and his school management team to identify various problems in the classroom."(Part 2, Interv, line 49)*

- Peter proposed that "*the IQMS managers should always do a SWOT-analysis of teacher performances the previous year to identify specific areas for improvement the following year. It also important that teachers indicate clearly in their personal development plans how they are going to achieve its objectives." (Part 1, Interv, lines 50-53)*

- Paul commented that "*colleagues are supposed to empower each other by providing various teaching strategies after classroom visits during the Integrated Quality Management System process to improve teaching and learning." (Part 2, Interv, line 54)*

- Harry stated that *"teachers receive no support because the support group lacks the necessary skills and knowledge to give support. I think that it is my responsibility as principal to support these teachers by organising cluster meetings with teachers from other schools so that they can they can learn from each other to improve their instructional practice." (Part 3, Interv, line 55)*

- Peter proposed that "*the WCED should provide money so that I can arrange workshops on IQMS results with my teachers over week-ends to enable them to improve their classroom practice and learner performance in school". (Part 1, Interv, lines 56-57)*

- Harry argued that *"district officials such as the area managers and subject advisors can assist the school more to improve it". (Part 3, Interv, line 58)*

- Mary posited that "*the assessment criteria need to be revisited by the WCED, as some are too vague". (Part 5, Interv, line 59)*

4. Providing performance feedback to teachers

- John and Mary both declared that *"performance feedback to teachers after classroom observations is very important as they "want to know how good their performance is". (Part 4 & 5, Interv, lines 60-61)*

- Peter said that "*I praise my teachers who performed excellently during the Integrated Quality Management System process, because I feel that by doing so, it will inspire their colleagues to improve their own classroom practice." (Part 1, line 62)*

- John commented that "*I praised my teachers, who performed excellent during the IQMS process". (Part 4, Interv, line 63)*

- Mary reported that "*I praise my teachers at performance feedback sessions because feel that it will encourage them to further improve of their classroom instruction and thereby improve the academic performance of their learners." Part 5, Interv, line 64)*

- Peter claimed that *"by praising teachers at performance feedback sessions leads to the improvement of their classroom instruction". (Part 1, Interv, line 65)*

- Mary said that "*performance feedback meetings also inform teachers about their strengths and weaknesses related to certain performance areas that need improvement". (Part 5, Interv, lines 66-67)*

- Paul stated that *"these feedback sessions with teachers occur immediately after the class visits, which are attended by the IQMS committee, comprised by him, the deputy principal and the HOD"*. *(Part 2, Interv, lines 68-69)*

- Harry claimed that, *"the focus of the feedback sessions at his school is on the areas for development relating to the teachers' performance at school"*. *(Part 3, Interv, lines 70-71)*

- Harry commented that *"after numerous requests, the area manager from the Western Cape Education Department district office failed to support the school with a developmental plan, which led to mistrust between the school and the Western Cape Education Department. I believe that this mistrust is not beneficial for the improvement of teaching and learning.(Part 3, Interv, lines 72-76)*

5. Developing relationships with all stakeholders

5.1 Teacher-learner relationships

- John said that he encouraged the development of *"sound relationships between the teachers, parents and learners, because it is important for the success of the school"*. *(Part 4, Interv, lines 77-78)*

- Peter declared that *"because of the positive attitude of the teachers towards me, in turn assisted them to build positive relationships with their learners"*. *(Part 1, Interv, lines 79-80)*

- Peter explained that *"these positive relations between teachers and learners not only led to improvement in learner performance Mathematical Literacy but also in Afrikaans Home Language and English First Additional Language"*. *(Part 1, Interv, line 81)*

- Harry and Mary both declared that *"a positive school environment is the reason that the majority of learners at his school feel happy". (Part 3 & 5, Interv, line 82)*

- Harry stated that *"I do everything in my power to ensure that teachers develop the learners holistically so that they can focus not only on the cognitive, but also on physical, spiritual and social development of learners." (Part 3, Interv, line 83)*

- Mary claimed that *"I ensure that learners are well-disciplined and give their teachers the needed assistance to enhance the establishment of positive classroom climate through short informal class visits." Part 5, Interv, line 84)*

- Paul commented that "*I encourage teachers to respect the rights of learners by acting according to the school conduct policy which guides their actions when dealing with learner discipline". (Part 2, Interv, lines 85-86)*

- John became stressed that "*teachers should not do anything negative, for example, by using corporal punishment as it could jeopardise their teaching careers." (Part 4, Interv, lines 87-88)*

- John claimed that *"I inform my teachers to always refer serious ill-disciplined learners to senior staff, among others, the deputy principal or HODs". (Part 4, Interv, line 89)*

- John stated that "*by accepting and implementing the aforementioned instructions, it led to these teachers developing of positive relationships with their learners, which in turn resulted in the development of a positive classroom atmosphere". (Part 4, Interv, lines 90-91)*

5.2 Collegial relationships

- Peter commented that "*I worked harder to gain the respect of my colleagues, which in turn led to improvement in the quality of teaching and learning." (Part 1, Interv, lines 92-93)*

- Paul declared that *"treating teachers' problems confidentially in the office led to the establishment of trust and confidence in my leadership."* (Part 2, Interv, lines 93-94)

- Mary explained to the aggrieved teacher that, "*I am only one of the SGB members and that the parents have the final say about appointments for vacant posts". (Part 5, Interv, lines 95-96)

- Harry added that *"currently competition for vacant promotion posts at our school makes the school vulnerable, but I feel that this situation is temporary."* (Part 3, Interv, lines 97-98)

- John believed that *"every person in the school must work collaboratively to achieve school success and every roleplayer's input should be considered to achieve the school's vision."* (Part 4, Interv, lines 99-100)

- Harry commented that *"by having an open-door policy and ensuring that everyone is clear about their roles at the school help to create a positive school culture." (Part 3, Interv, lines 101-102)

5.3 Parent-teacher relationships

- Peter said that *"I generally have good relationships with learners and parents, but recently I experienced a case of parental unhappiness about a learner's mother who was unhappy about her child's test results and she directly approached the Western Cape Education Department about this matter."* Part 1, Interv, lines 103-105)

- Peter claimed that "*I think that a situation like this can lead to the development of negative relationships and mistrust between the Western Cape Education Department, the employer, and the teachers, the employees. Teachers felt incompetent and believed that the Western Cape Education Department with this outcome to progress the learner was not in the interest of education, but a

political one to satisfy the needs of a difficult parent." (Part 1, Interv, lines 106-112)

- Mary explained that *"the parents of the learners, who were allegedly punished by a teacher, came to school to talk to her about the matter". (Part 5, Interv, line 113)*

- Mary informed the aggrieved parents that *"the teacher involved admitted to the use of corporal punishment against their children in his class they decided to forgive him, but stressed that it should never happen again". (Part 5, Interv, lines 114-115).*

- Mary explained to the parents that, *"I regularly informs teachers not to use corporal punishment against learners, because it is against departmental policy". (Part 5, Interv, line 116-117).*

6. Describing effective leadership

- Peter and Mary claimed that *"they are participative leaders who lead by example and that they are involved in all planned activities through distributed leadership". (Part 1 & 5, Interv, lines 118-119).*

- Peter stated that he thought that *"my teachers performed the task of improving the academic performance of all learners, because they were working as a team and not as individuals". (Part 1, Interv, lines 120-121)*

- Peter reported that that "*problems with parents and learners were being solved faster, and difficult situations were being diffused before they developed into larger problems''. (Part 1, Interv, lines 122-123)*

- Peter claimed that he is a '*leader of leaders*', *who acts exemplary". (Part 1, Interv, line 124)*

- Peter claimed that *"I bought an electronic devise, a mouse scanner, to copy official documents and other written reports, save it on a computer and retrieve it later when necessary."* *(Part 1, Interv, lines 124-125)*

- Peter said that *"I encourage my teachers to use computer application technologies daily for instructional purposes in school"*. *(Part 1, Interv, line 126)*

- Peter explained that*, "the school's conduct policy prevents learners from using cellphones at school". (Part 1, Interv, line 127)*

- Peter claimed that "*cell phones can also be used as an effective communication tool to inform parents of certain pressing issues such as their children's' behaviour at school and parent evenings". (Part 1, Interv, lines 128-129)*

- Peter explained that "*when I became school principal, the school did not have a vision that satisfied the needs of the learner. So, I developed a school improvement plan in conjunction with my teachers to achieve the school's vision through shared leadership. I surrounded myself with people who shared my belief that all learners can achieve success." (Part 1, Interv, lines 130-132)*

- Peter explained that *"my SMT has different ways of viewing problems and they would continuously be challenging one another's ideas". (Part 1, Interv, line 133)*

- Peter mentioned that *"my SMT comprises of an HOD in the Junior Primary Phase and three grade heads". (Part 1, Interv, line 134)*

- Peter stated that after the development of the SIP, *"I allowed each member of the SMT, whom I trusted, to come up with the best ways to make their ideas work". (Part 1, Interv, line 135)*

- Mary claimed that "*I employed the participative and distributed leadership styles". (Part 5, Interv, line 136)*

- Mary stated that *"a distributed leadership style enables her to make decisions in collaboration with her SMT, because she trusts them. (Part 5, Interv, line 137)*

- Mary claimed that, "*I try to consider the ideas of her SMT and other teachers as she values their input regarding all curriculum matters". (Part 5, Interv, line 138)*

- Mary declared that "*I support and celebrate all teachers who accept additional leadership roles". (Part 5, Interv, line 139)*

- Mary stated that *"I believe that all teachers have the ability to perform some leadership role in their grade, subject of any other school activity". (Part 5, Interv, line 140)*

- Paul claimed that *"I am a democratic leader who is not afraid to delegate various tasks and responsibilities to his SMT". (Part 2, Interv, line 141)*

- Paul said that "*all teachers at my school must realise what their role is in making this vision a reality. I it is also important that they be held accountable for meeting the needs of all learners through the presentation of quality teaching and learning." (Part 2, Interv, lines 142-143)*

- Paul reported that *"my deputy principal and HODs assist me with the management and assessment of classroom instruction. (Part 2, Interv, line 144)*

- Paul explained that "*the reason for seeking the assistance of my deputy principal and heads of department to manage the curriculum and learner problems is because I trust their abilities. I also feel that by delegating these managerial tasks to my deputy principal and heads of department it will assist them to develop the necessary skills to become a principal one day." (Part 2, Interv, lines 145-148)*

- Paul and Harry both ascribe to democratic leadership style, "*but sometimes sometimes employ the autocratic leadership style". (Part 2, Interv, line 149)*

- Harry stressed that *"teachers must live the school's vision continuously, as it guides their daily actions towards improvement in teaching and learning. (Part 3, Interv, line 150)*

- Harry stated that "*I would sometimes ask teachers to become involved in shared decision-making processes during staff meetings at school". (Part 3, Interv, line 151)*

- Harry added that, *"if teachers do not participate in shared decision-making processes at school, they will not have a voice in the decisions of the school." (Part 3, Interv, line 152)*

- Harry explained that *"my deputy principal and HODs (the SMT) manage and oversee certain managerial and leadership responsibilities at school, because he trusts them as colleagues". (Part 3, Interv, line 153-154)*

- Harry stressed that the main reason for sharing leadership is that, *"one person could not handle all the responsibilities of a school". (Part 3, Interv, line 155)*

- Harry asserted that *"the timeous completion and submission of these documents to the WCED makes him act autocratically which sometimes lead to great stress among teachers". (Part 34, Interv, line 156-157)*

- Harry claimed that "*to counter this stressful environment, I established a positive climate between myself and the teachers. To ensure that this happens, I make them feel happy to come to school every day to do their best to improve the quality of teaching and learning, which is the main objective of our school." (Part 3, Interv, line 158)*

- John also ascribed to the democratic leadership style and mentioned *that "he relied on his SMT for assistance because he trusted in their leadership abilities". (Part 4, Interv, line 159)*

- John stated that *"I meet with his SMT regularly and that their feedback helped to shape the decisions that influenced school improvement". (Part 4, Interv, line 160)*

- John mentioned that "*I feel that the majority of my school management team members have the ability to become very good heads of department and deputy principals in the future." (Part 4, Interv, line 161)*

7. Preparation for principalship

- Peter felt strongly that *"the minimum qualification for appointment as a principal should be a four–year teacher diploma or an ACE course". (Part 1, Interv, line 162)*

- Peter proposed that, "*teachers should attend a very good additional leadership and management course organised by the WCED before becoming a principal". (Part 1, Interv, line 163)*

- Paul, argued that *"a teacher should only have the needed managerial and leadership skills to become a successful principal and not qualifications per se". (Part 2, Interv, lines 164-165)*

- Paul mentioned that "*qualifications are not the only guarantee that people will succeed as principals". (Part 2, Interv, line 166)*

- Harry commented that "*teacher qualifications are not the only prerequisite for appointment of principals, but that teachers should set an example and be able to share their values with all staff members". (Part 3, Interv, line 167)*

- John and Mary both stated that some teachers at their school are currently "*studying further towards the ACE at a local university to empower themselves with required curriculum* knowledge and skills to improve their instructional skills and knowledge". (Part 4 & 5, Interv, lines 168-169)*

- John and Mary both felt that *"experience gained over time and hard work would ensure that an ordinary post-level teacher could become a successful school principal". (Part 4 & 5, Interv, lines 170-171)*

- Mary claimed that she believes that "*to become a principal, a person should not necessarily have to be a head of department or a deputy principal before becoming a principal." (Part 5, Interv, line 172)*

- John argued that to become an effective principal*, "I believe that to become an effective principal, one has to climb the promotion ladder, for example, first head of department, deputy principal and then principal […] You gain experience which is crucial to make informed decisions when needed […] A person without it will possibly struggle as a principal." Part 4, Interv, lines 173-174)*

8.   Providing continuous support to teachers

- Peter claimed that "*I use the ANAs and the WCED systemic results as a basis for improving learner performance". (Part 1, Interv, line 175)*

- Peter claimed that "*I selected the best teacher with the appropriate skills and knowledge to support the other teachers to improve their instructional practice." (Part 1, Interv, lines 176-177)*

- Paul declared that *"I contacted the curriculum adviser to provide additional instructional support to teachers when needed". (Part 2, Interv, line 178)*

- Harry and John both declared that they accompanied the HOD during class visits *"for support, especially the younger inexperienced teachers, to improve learner performance". (Part 3 & 4, Interv, line 179)*

- John commented that, *"teachers accumulate professional development marks by attending these WCED workshops". (Part 4, Interv, line 180)*

- Paul argued that *"teachers from other schools do not want to share their instructional expertise with at these cluster meetings". (Part 2, Interv, line 181)*

- John argued that *"facilitators need to use updated CAPS-curriculum information to improve teachers' content knowledge". (Part 4, Interv, line 182)*

- Peter claimed that *"teachers at my school feel that the workshops offered by the curriculum advisers are a waste of time because it lacks new content information related to the CAPS-curriculum." (Part 1, Interv, lines 183-184)*

- Harry posited that *"teachers generally feel that at these the cluster meetings you seldom learn something new". (Part 3, Interv, line 185)*

- Mary stated that *"no teachers at my school are attending any cluster meeting because they believe it is a waste of time". (Part 5, Interv, line 186)*

- Mary claimed that "*the minority of the area managers facilitate these workshops successfully, while the majority does not appear to be competent."* *Part 5, Interv, lines 187-188)*

- Paul claimed that *"sometimes I invite financial advisors to his school to advice staff members about financial matters, as some of them are not knowledgeable about how their pension funds work*". *(Part 2, Interv, lines 189-190)*

- John declared that "*by attending a basketball training course, led to the school to becoming one of the best basketball schools in the Paarl region". (Part 4, Interv, line 191)*

- John said that "*this basketball training course also assisted with the holistic development of learners at his school*". *(Part 4, Interv, line 192)*

- Mary added that "*my enrollment in a mentorship course motivated two other teachers in her school to develop their Physical Education skills by attending a basketball training course at a local university*". *(Part 5, Interv, line 193-194)*

9. Encouraging participation in continuing teacher education

- Paul, Harry and Mary encouraged their *"Foundation Phase and Intermediate Phase teachers to enrol for short courses during the June and September school holidays at a local university in Wellington, a town in the Western Cape province. (Part, 2, 3 & 5, Interv, line 195-196)*

- Paul reported that *"two Foundation Phase teachers decided to enroll for a short course offered by a local university to improve their content knowledge of the CAPS-curriculum" (Part 2, Interv, lines 197-198)*

- Harry stated that *"three teachers in the Intermediate Phase decided to attend the short courses offered by a local university to improve their content knowledge of the new CAPS-curriculum." Part 3, Interv, lines 199-200)*

- Mary claimed that *"only one Foundation Phase teacher decided to register for the short courses offered at a local university to strengthen their content knowledge relating to the CAPS-curriculum." (Part 5, Interv, lines 201-202)*

- Peter stated that *"I encouraged one teacher to register for the ACE at a local university as it will improve her chances to be appointed in promotion posts." (Part 1, Interv, lines 203-204)*

- John claimed that *"two of my teachers are studying further at a local university towards the ACE as it is viewed as a requirement for promotion posts." (Part 4, Interv, lines 204-205)*