The Influence of Principal Leadership on School Performance: A Case Study in Selected Gauteng Schools

by

Habiba Sayed

Student Number: 36316148

Submitted in fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

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in

Education Management

University of South Africa

Supervisor: RJ Botha

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DECLARATION

I, Habiba Sayed (Student Number – 36316148), hereby declare that the dissertation “The Influence of Principal Leadership on School Performance: A Case Study in Selected Gauteng Schools” for the Master of Education (M.Ed.) degree in Education Management at the University of South Africa hereby submitted by me has not been submitted previously at this or any other university, and that it is my own work in design and in execution, and that all reference materials contained herein have been duly acknowledged.

Habiba Sayed : ..............................................

Date Signed : ..............................................
DEDICATION

Oh Allah! (Almighty Creator), I seek unshakeable belief in You and such favours which never end, and I remain in the service of our Prophet Muhammad (S.A.W.) in lofty gardens.

Oh Allah! Benefit me with the knowledge You have bestowed upon me and grant me such knowledge that would benefit me.

All praise and gratitude belongs to my Creator on the compilation of this thesis. Divine guidance directed the course of my journey through my studies and for that I am eternally grateful. Salutations and peace be invoked upon our beloved Prophet Muhammad (S.A.W.). The teachings of the best man sent to the Earth for the guidance of mankind, have undoubtedly fashioned me into the individual I have become.

The Prophet (S.A.W.) instructed mankind to seek knowledge from the cradle to the grave and following this directive, I endeavour to be a learner forever more.
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I am grateful to the principals, deputy principals, teachers and learners who have helped me with rich feedback needed for the research. A special thanks to all the participants who agreed to do the interviews. It is because of their sincere sharing and providing me with their insightful perceptions that this piece of research could have been put into perspective.

My appreciation is also extended to my colleagues and friends who always motivated me to do my best.

More than anyone, I acknowledge the great gift of love, patience and care so generously given to me by my parents, for their graceful way of bearing with me and to my family for their unrelenting encouragement.

I am grateful to Professor DC Hiss, Department of Medical Biosciences at the University of the Western Cape, for providing editorial and typesetting assistance.
SUMMARY

This study sought to analyse the influence of principal leadership on the performance of selected schools in the Gauteng Province of South Africa. The problems addressed in the research were what leadership and leadership styles in the school context entail, concept of school performance, attributes of leadership as perceived by principals and how these attributes impact on school performance and establish whether school performance is dependent upon principal leadership and his/her leadership style. It was a qualitative study. Stakeholders of the schools were interviewed and observations were made. The relationship between leadership and leadership style, in general, and school performance were investigated. The research established that unless principals were well equipped with knowledge and skills in management and leadership, they would not be able to improve school performance.

KEYWORDS: Leadership styles, school performance, learner performance, principal leaders, autocratic leadership style, democratic leadership style, laissez-faire leadership style, situational leadership style, effective leadership.
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<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
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<tr>
<td>ACE</td>
<td>Advanced Certificate in Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>AECT</td>
<td>Association for Educational Communication and Technology</td>
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<td>CPD</td>
<td>Continuous Professional Development</td>
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<td>DoE</td>
<td>Department of Education</td>
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<td>DP</td>
<td>Deputy Principal</td>
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<td>ELM</td>
<td>Education Leadership Management</td>
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<td>EMTI</td>
<td>Education Management Training Institute</td>
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<td>HoD</td>
<td>Head of Department</td>
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<td>L</td>
<td>Learner</td>
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<td>MDGs</td>
<td>Millennium Development Goals</td>
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<td>MLQ</td>
<td>Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire</td>
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<td>NMLC</td>
<td>National Management and Leadership Committee</td>
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<td>NPDE</td>
<td>National Professional Diploma in Education</td>
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<td>NQF</td>
<td>National Qualifications Framework</td>
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<td>P</td>
<td>Principal</td>
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<td>PAR</td>
<td>Participatory Action Research</td>
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<tr>
<td>REQV</td>
<td>Relative Education Qualification Value</td>
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<td>SANPQP</td>
<td>South African National Professional Qualification for Principalship</td>
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<td>SGB</td>
<td>School Governing Body</td>
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<td>T</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
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<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
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<tr>
<td>UNESCO</td>
<td>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</td>
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<td>USA</td>
<td>United States of America</td>
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE RESEARCH

1.1 Introduction to the Research

Globally, educating a nation remains the most vital strategy for the development of society throughout the developing world (Aikaman & Unterhalter, 2005). Many studies on human capital development concur that it is the human resources of a nation and not its capital or natural resources that ultimately determine the pace of its economic and social development. The principal institutional mechanism for developing human capital is the formal education system of primary, secondary, and tertiary training (Bush T, 2010). Since education is an investment, there is a significant positive correlation between education and economic-social productivity. When people are educated, their standards of living are likely to improve, since they are empowered to access productive ventures, which will ultimately lead to an improvement in their livelihoods. The role of education, therefore, is not just to impart knowledge and skills that enable the beneficiaries to function as economies and social change agents in society, but also to impart values, ideas, attitudes and aspirations which are important qualities for natural human development.

In order to change the role of education in society, the influence of leadership approaches must be understood in order to enhance efficiency and effectiveness. Improved efficiency is needed and can be achieved through management reforms, including raising the learner-to-teacher ratio, increasing teachers’ time on tasks,
reducing repetition and improving accountability (Bush T, 2010). Through inefficiency much learning time is lost in many Sub-Saharan African (SSA) education systems. Twenty five percent or more of school days may be lost each year in poorly managed schools (Lewin, K & Caillords: 2001). Leadership at work in education institutions is thus a dynamic process where an individual is not only responsible for the group’s tasks, but also actively seeks the collaboration and commitment of all the group members in achieving group goals in a particular context (Cole, 2002). Leadership in that context pursues effective performance in schools, because it does not only examine tasks to be accomplished and who executes them, but also seeks to include greater reinforcement characteristics like recognition, conditions of service and morale building, coercion and remuneration (Achinstein B & Athanases S: 2006).

Thus, leadership incorporates the accomplishment of the task, which is an organizational requirement and the satisfaction of employees, which is the human resource requirement (Barnett BG & O’Mahony GR: 2008). Christie P (2001) contends that, without a proper leadership style, effective performance cannot be realized in schools. Even if the school has all the required instructional materials and financial resources, it will not be able to use them effectively, if the learners are not directed in their use, or if the teachers who guide in their usage are not properly trained to implement them effectively. Armstrong (2001) defines leadership as influence, power and the legitimate authority acquired by a leader to be able to effectively transform the organization through the direction of the human resources that are the most important organizational asset, leading to the achievement of the desired purpose. This can be done through the articulation of the vision and mission of the organization.
at every moment, and will influence the staff to define their power to share this vision. This is also described by Sashkin & Sashkin (2003) as visionary leadership.

However, according to them, the concept of leadership that matters is not being limited to those at the top of the organization such as the principal, but depends on certain characteristics of their leadership. It involves much more than the leader’s personality in which leadership is seen as more of mutating followers to achieve goals (Sashkin & Sashkin 2003). This notion is supported by Laozi (as reported in Sashkin & Sashkin, 2003) that good leadership commits to doing less and being more. Good performance in any school should not only be considered in terms of academic rigour, but should also focus on other domains of education like the affective and psychomotor domains. This should be the vision of every leader in such a school and the cherished philosophy, structures, and activities of the school could be geared towards the achievement of this shared vision. However, Cole (2002) defines leadership as inspiring people to perform. Even if an institution has all the financial resources to excel, it may fail dismally if the leadership does not motivate others to accomplish their tasks effectively.

What is performance then and how is it measured in the context of schools? Mathibe I (2007) contends that performance refers to both behaviours and results, and adjusting organizational behaviours and actions of work to achieve results or outcomes. Behaviours are outcomes in their own right and reactions to the product of mental and physical effort applied to tasks. In school environments, therefore, performance should not only be defined in terms of test scores, examination results, learners’ ability to socially apply what is learnt, and the rate at which learners move on to higher
institutions of learning, but should consider the achievements of the school in other areas like equipping the learners with the requisite skills for survival.

School performance in the South African context mainly entails teaching consistently with diligence, honesty and regularity orchestrated by increased good results from learners, setting adequate written and practical exercises, ensuring effective marking, evaluating all exercises promptly and carefully observing academic regulations and instructions (Leithwood K, Anderson SE, Mascall B & Strauss T, 2010). The feeling by many people, including the researcher, is that this is a shallow understanding of school performance. The researcher is of the view that performance of any school should not only be considered in terms of academic outcomes, but should as well focus on other education outcomes such as the affective domains and the psychomotor skills. Contextually, in South Africa today, there is a desire to ensure that the best school principals lead schools, because of the rapid growth in school education orchestrated by the successful implementation of principal training programmes (Mathibe, 2007). In the twenty-first century, there is a growing realisation that leadership is a specialist occupation that requires specific preparation. The reasons for this paradigm shift includes the expansion of the role of school principal, the increasing complexity of school contexts, recognition is a moral obligation and discernment that effective preparation and development make a difference (Bush, 2008).

The case for specific preparation for school leaders is linked to the evidence that high quality leadership is vital for school improvement and learner outcomes. Leithwood, K. & Jantzi, D (2007:120) show that:
School leadership is second only to classroom teaching as an influence on learner learning.

Leadership explains about five to seven per cent of the difference in learner learning and achievement across schools and about one quarter of the total difference across schools. These authors also note that there would be a ten percent increase in learner test scores arising from an average principal improving their demonstrated abilities of leadership responsibilities. They conclude that (Leithwood et al. 2007:123):

There is not a single documented case of a school successfully turning around its learner achievement trajectory in the absence of talented leadership.

While the argument that leadership does make a difference is increasingly accepted, there is ongoing debate about what preparation is required to develop appropriate leadership behaviours. This relates to conceptions of the principal’s role. School leaders often begin their professional careers as teachers and progress to headship via a range of leadership tasks and roles, often described as ‘middle management’. In many cases, principals continue to teach following their appointment, particularly in small primary schools. This leads to the widespread view that teaching is their main activity (Roberts J & Roach J, 2006). This focus on principals as head teachers underpins the opinion that a teaching qualification and teaching experience are the only necessary requirements for school leadership, although that may be modified in twenty-first-century England where the extended schools movement means that differently qualified professionals may be appointed as principals. Bush & Oduro (2006) note that throughout Africa there is no formal requirement for principals to be trained as school managers. They are often appointed on the basis of a successful
record as teachers with the implicit assumption that this provides a sufficient starting point for school leadership. The picture is similar in many European countries, including Belarus, Cyprus, Denmark, Finland, Hungary, Iceland, the Netherlands, and Portugal (Lumby J, Crow G & Pashiardis P, 2008).

The former South African Department of Education (DoE) introduced a new threshold qualification for aspiring school principals as part of its wider strategy to improve educational standards. The course initially badged as an Advanced Certificate in Education: School Leadership (ACE), was piloted in six provinces from 2007–2009. The pilot was open to serving principals as well as to deputy principals and school management team members aspiring to become principals. Participants were nominated by the provincial departments of education. The ACE is being delivered by universities, through a common framework agreed with the DoE and the National Management and Leadership Committee (NMLC). The first pilot cohort involved only five universities, and the Matthew Goniwe School of Leadership and Governance. The intention of the course is that it should be different from typical university programmes in being practice-based: Its primary purpose is to ascertain how much of the course learning has been internalised, made meaning of and applied in practice in the school (Roberts J & Roach J, 2006).

This emphasis on practice resulted from the evidence (e.g., DoE, 1996) that, although many school leaders hold university qualifications in management, their collective impact on school outcomes had been minimal. Their focus appeared to have been on achieving accreditation rather than improving their schools. The Government’s Task Team on Education Management (DoE, 1996), described as ‘not only a turning point,
but also a starting point, for the training and development of education leaders in South Africa (Van der Westhuizen & Van Vuuren, 2007:436), was critical of much university provision. “Management development practices ... have tended to focus on the collection of qualifications and certificates with little attention being paid to actual ability to transfer this newly acquired knowledge to the institutions in which managers work” (Ibid:24).

Introducing the national ACE programme was a bold and imaginative decision, recognising the pivotal role of principals in leading and managing schools. This is part of an international trend to provide specific leadership preparation for current and aspiring principals (Van der Westhuizen & Van Vuuren, 2007; Lumby et al., 2008). International research shows that new principals experience great difficulty in adapting to the demands of their roles. The process of professional and organisational socialisation is often uncomfortable as leaders adapt to the requirements of their new post. Developing the knowledge, attributes and skills required to lead effectively requires systematic preparation. There is a growing body of evidence that effective preparation makes a difference to the quality of leadership and to school and learner outcomes (Bush, 2008; Lumby et al., 2008).

While the need for effective leadership preparation is widely accepted, the extent and nature of such provision varies substantially across continents. The flexibility and initiative required to lead and manage schools in periods of rapid change suggest that preparation should go beyond training principals to implement the requirements of the hierarchy to developing rounded and confident leaders who are able to engage all school stakeholders in the process of school improvement for the benefit of learners.
and their communities.

As Brundrett, Fitzgerald & Sommfeldt (2006:101) argue:

Educational programmes are required that develop the kind of reflective knowing and higher order cognitive abilities that will undoubtedly be required by leaders in the increasingly complex world of educational leadership in the 21st century.

The present research sought to analyse the leadership styles of principals on school performance. Observations were made during school visits and interviews with principals, teachers, HoDs and learners were conducted to identify factors affecting school performance and the effectiveness and relationship between principal leadership styles and school performance. Questionnaires were given to the participants and documentary analysis was performed. The researcher determined, on the basis of an extensive literature review and the in-depth research undertaken, whether principals adopt a range of leadership styles. However, for the purposes of this investigation, the researcher examined the relationship between leadership styles of the principal and school performance.

1.2 Background to the Research

Effective education leadership makes a difference in improving learning. There is nothing new or particularly controversial about that idea. What is far less clear, even after several decades of school renewal efforts, is just how leadership matters, how important those effects are in promoting the learning of all learners, and what the essential ingredients of successful leadership are. Lacking solid evidence to answer these questions, those who have sought to make a case for greater attention and
investment in leadership as a pathway for large-scale education improvement have
had to rely more on faith than fact.

Leadership has evolved over time and has taken different forms. Views on leadership
theories have been changing over the years. Oyetunyi (2006) asserts that the
leadership paradigm has changed over the last decades; and that it has transited from
the traditional leadership approaches to the new perspectives. Schermerhorn &
Osborn (2000) and Hoy & Miskel (2001) categorise trait, behavioural and situational or
contingency theories under traditional leadership perspectives, and charismatic and
transformational leadership theories under the new leadership perspectives.
According to Christie P (2010), leadership theories recognise that effective leadership
depends on the interaction of three factors, namely, the traits and behaviours of the
followers, the characteristics of the followers and the nature of the situation in which
leadership occurs.

1.3 Motivation for the Research

There is consensus among scholars that the importance of effective leadership cannot
be overemphasised. Sashkin & Sashkin (2003) maintain that leadership matters
because leaders help reduce ambiguity and uncertainty in organizations or society.
Leaders take constructive acts to achieve long-term goals and provide clear positive
reasons for their actions, goals and accomplishments. In essence, leaders add clarity,
direction and meaning to life. Moreover, leadership matters because effective leaders
make a difference in peoples’ lives; these empower followers and teach them how to
make meaning by taking appropriate actions that can facilitate change.
Schermerhorn et al. (2000) maintain that leadership is the heart of any organization because it determines the success or failure of the organization. Thus, the research of leadership in organizations is closely tied to the analysis of the organizations’ efficiency and effectiveness. In an organization such as a school, the importance of leadership is reflected in every aspect of the school: instructional practices, academic achievement, learners’ discipline, school climate, etc. For instance, the Social Policy Research Association’s findings (Brundrett M, 2006) on how leaders create circumstances for positive inter-group relations and a caring and safe environment indicate that strong leadership is of great importance. The principals in the schools were able to prevent disruptive behaviour by promoting positive inter-group relations using different approaches to create a safe and caring environment. In essence, the principal as a leader needs leadership skills to reduce racial tensions among learners that lead to negative social behaviour and attitude.

The findings of Quinn’s (2002) research on the relationship between principals’ leadership behaviour and instructional practices support the notion that leadership impacts instruction. His findings indicate that principals’ leadership is crucial in creating a school that value and continually strives to achieve exceptional education for learners. Similarly, Waters, Marzona & McNulty’s (2004) research findings show that principals’ effective leadership can significantly boost learner’s achievement. Apart from the fact that the principal knows what to do, s/he knows when, how, and the reason for doing it, the kind of changes that are likely to bring about improvement in learners’ achievements and the implication for teachers and learners. In effect, the principal is expected to communicate expectations for the continual improvement of
the instructional programme, engage in staff development activities and model commitment to school goals. It may therefore be argued that a principal, who does not engage in actions consistent with leadership, has a wrong perspective of the school’s goals.

It takes leadership for a school to be transformed and to be successful. This is evident in research findings as reported by Crow G, Lumby J & Pashiardis P (2008), which portray the principal as an individual capable of creating the climate needed to arouse the potential motivation of teachers and learners. The research indicates that an effective principal can turn around a school that lacks direction and purpose to a happy, goal-oriented and productive school. Thus, it may be argued that effective leadership is critical in increasing productivity and in transforming an unpromising circumstance in a school. Likewise, Leithwood et al. (2006) maintains that the most important thing to an organization is the quality of its leadership, particularly the quality of the principal in a school setting. In this context, Huber SG (2004) upholds that the principal is the answer to a school’s general development and improvement of academic performance, in that an effective principal creates an environment that stimulates enthusiasm for learning. Accordingly, it implies that the main job of the principal is to create an atmosphere that fosters productivity, effective teaching and learning. Therefore, the type of climate that exists in a school could be used as a yardstick to measure the principal’s effectiveness.

Cunningham & Cordeiro (2000) asserts that the principal is at the centre of all school improvement initiatives in teaching and learning and, therefore, s/he is a change agent for school success, and is expected to explore and judiciously use the resources for
continuous improvement in organizational performance. By implication, if the principal is not vision-oriented and productive in regard to his/her responsibilities, improvement of school achievement will remain a dream for a long time. In view of the aforementioned, in the context of this project, leadership will be perceived as the ability of the principal to relate with the teachers such that the flairs that are embedded in individual teachers are liberated, causing them to constantly see and seize opportunities to improve organizational performance and enhance individual development. Since leadership is an integral part of this research, various perspectives on leadership will be discussed.

According to Kouzes & Posner (2003), an effective manager is a leader. Leading is not simply giving orders. Three ways for a person to become a leader are knowledge, charisma and delegated authority (Kouzes & Posner, 2003). The basics of leadership have been the same for centuries. That means that its content has not changed though its context has changed drastically. For example, as a leader one needs to have influence, vision and values, which are the core aspects of a leader, which are the same now as they were at the start of the leadership concept. The context under which leaders work changes drastically with time, for example, the heightened uncertainty of life such as natural and non-natural disasters, globalisation, economic changes (global economy), social change (social capital), financial change (financial capital) and technological change, affect the way leaders lead (Kouzes & Posner, 2003).

A good principal manages things (status quo) while a good leader influences and impacts people. In spite of intensive research efforts it has proven difficult to isolate specific personal traits shared by leaders (Daresh J & Male T, 2000). According to
recent research, any person who is in a high position needs to have traits of a good manager and a good leader. The combination of good leadership and management skills always leads to successful organizations (good performance of the workers). It is important to note that leadership is not better than management or a replacement for it. Leadership and management complement each other, and expertise in both is necessary for successful strategy implementation and survival in the contemporary working situation/environment (Kouzes & Posner, 2003).

At the present juncture, South Africa is one of the few countries that do not require a compulsory and specific qualification for principalship. This particular need has been part of a discussion among educational leaders for the past thirty to forty years. Despite all the laudable efforts to redesign the landscape of Educational Leadership and Management (ELM) in South Africa, a major historical shortcoming has still been neglected, namely, lack of training of school principals to a national professional standard. After the first democratic elections in 1994, a report by the committee, which had reviewed the organization, governance, and funding of schools, referred for the first time in 1995 to the development of an Education Management Training Institute (EMTI).

The DoE assigned a task team to develop a capacity-building programme for ELM to implement the directives from policy documents. A series of drafts of a Policy Framework for ELM was published during 2003/4 as a charter and guide for the development of ELM to ensure excellence throughout the education system. A particular aspect which was emphasised in this Policy Framework was the professionalisation of ELM. The DoE responded by introducing a National Qualification
for School Leadership in the form of an ACE. This was the first concrete step towards implementing a compulsory professional qualification for principalship without which no teacher would be eligible for appointment to the post of first-time principal. Although the development of the envisaged programme presents vital challenges for the long and short term, principalship in South Africa is on its way to becoming a fully-fledged profession with a unique career path. Introduction of such a programme explains the development of leadership skills to enhance the performance of the school.

1.4 The Research Problem

There is much argument that the school principal is an important factor, if not the most critical element in a school’s effectiveness as far as teaching, learning, school climate, and accomplishing goals are concerned. It is generally believed that good school principals are the cornerstones of good schools and that without such learner achievement cannot succeed (Lumby J et al., 2008). Leithwood et al. (2010) have said that principals have a powerful and indirect influence on teaching quality and learner learning.

A number of researchers have focused on school performance in schools in South Africa. For example, Odubuker (2007) conducted a study to investigate the influence of the subject teachers’ management competencies on the management of primary schools in order to improve the teaching and learning process. The findings from the research revealed that the principals or subject principals’ management training was critical to the performance of the school. Similarly, Mathibe I (2007) examined the
effect of management of instruction materials on educator performance in primary schools. The purpose of the research was to determine the influence of coordination of instructional materials on educator performance and to assess whether teacher involvement in the selection of instructional materials has an effect on teacher performance. The study demonstrated a positive relationship between management of instruction materials and teacher performance and finally on school performance. Similar research by Thembinkosi Simon Mkhize on the influence of principals leadership on learner academic performance was conducted in 2005 in which he concluded that principals’ leadership styles does have an influence on school performance. He also concluded that the challenges facing schools or principals globally are enormous.

However, at the time this research was conducted, not sufficient was known about the contribution of any single factor and, indeed, the relationship between leadership and school performance. Hence this research intended to investigate principals’ leadership styles and their effects on school performance. It was also thought that an investigation in this area would shed light on the factors affecting performance, in particular the effect of leadership styles on school performance. We need to research leadership in schools as organizations for two reasons. Firstly, typical school leadership styles appear to be woefully inadequate for the needs that exist and, secondly, knowledge about school leadership at present reveals little about the transformational aspects of the role (Bush T & Oduro G, 2006).

On the basis of this background, the research proposed to ask the question, “To what extent does the principal’s leadership style has an influence on the school’s
This main problem led to the following FOUR sub-problems addressed in this research:

1. In what way does the leadership and leadership style of the principal affect a school?

2. What does school performance entail?

3. What attributes of leadership are perceived by principals and how do these leadership attributes impact on school performance?

4. How is school performance dependent upon its principals’ leadership and his/her leadership style?

1.5 Aims and Objectives

The research aimed to examine how leadership styles adopted by school principals influenced the schools overall performance. In addressing this central aim, the following specific objectives of the research were to:

- Discuss how leadership and leadership styles of a principal affect a school;

- Describe the concept of school performance;

- Determine what attributes of leadership are perceived by principals and how these attributes impact on school performance (addressed in both the literature review and empirical investigation);
• Establish whether school performance is dependent upon principal leadership and his/her leadership style (the empirical investigation of the research).

1.6 Research Methodology

1.6.1 The Qualitative Research Approach

The aim of this research was to investigate the influence of principal leadership on school performance. By visiting the schools physically and by using a qualitative research approach, the purpose for the researcher was to ascertain the extent to which the school as a whole (and indeed the school’s performance) was affected by the leadership of the school’s principal. The qualitative strategy persuades the reader through rich depiction, hence overcoming abstraction. A qualitative approach to research develops an understanding of the individuals and events in their natural setting, taking into account the relevant context (Borg & Borg, 1993). This is also in agreement with Nconco’s assertion that qualitative research is an important part of contextual analysis for the purposes of penetrating beyond the facts and the figures about institutions (Nconco, 2006). Such integration, therefore, is likely to elicit more robust or holistic data thereby providing a rich vein of analysis of different types of leadership styles adopted by school principals and their influence on academic performance (Kitavi M & Van der Westhuizen PC, 1997).

1.6.2 Population and Sampling

A population is a group of elements or cases whether individuals, objects, or events that conform to specific criteria and to which we intend to generalise the results of the research. This group is also referred to as the target population or universe. The
target population is often different from the list of elements from which the sample is actually selected, which is termed the survey population or sampling frame. It is important for researchers to carefully and completely define both the target population and the sampling frame. This begins with the research problem and review of literature, through which a population is described conceptually or in broad terms. A more specific definition is then needed based on demographic characteristics such as age, gender, location, grade level, position, and time of year. These characteristics are sometimes referred to as delimiting variables. Qualitative sampling strategies employed in a research study are identified from prior information and are reported in the research to enhance data quality. In addition, the persons or groups who actually participated in the research are reported in a manner to protect confidentiality of data. When sampling documents or records, researchers specify the public archives and private collections used and frequently refer to each document or court case in explanatory footnotes. In this manner, researchers use non-interactive techniques to research the past to reduce threats to design validity (MacMillan & Schumacher, 2001).

Purposive sampling will be used for this research. It is a sampling method in which elements are chosen based on the purpose of the research. Purposive sampling may involve studying the entire population of some limited group or a subset of a population. As with other non-probability sampling methods, purposive sampling does not produce a sample that is representative of a larger population, but it can be exactly what is needed in some cases - research of organization, community, or some other clearly defined and relatively limited group (MacMillan & Schumacher, 2001).
The research was conducted in three schools located in the suburb called Azaadville in Johannesburg of the Gauteng Province. The names of the schools are Azaadville Muslim School, Ahmed Timol Secondary School and Yusuf Dadoo Primary School. The researcher conducted ten interviews per school (one principal, 1 deputy principal, three heads of departments (HoDs), three teachers, and two learners), therefore totalling thirty (10x3) interviews. HoDs were selected because they are directly responsible for the day-to-day leadership of the schools. The educators were chosen for the research, since they are the subordinates who are led by HoDs of the schools. The learners were selected since they experience the impact of leadership in the school.

1.6.3 Instrumentation and Data Collection Techniques

For the purposes of this research, data collection strategies included interviews, questionnaires, documentary analysis and observational visits to the schools. Consistent with the notion that the methods and instruments chosen depend largely on the extent to which they can serve the purpose of the research, and address the research questions posed, interviews and observation proved to be appropriate instruments for data collection (MacMillan & Schumacher, 2001).

1.6.3.1 Interviews

Visits were arranged with each of the three sampled schools to conduct interviews with the ten participants. The aims of the visits were to investigate and acquire a clear understanding of the management and leadership styles employed by the schools’ principals and to observe how the teachers and learners perceived the principals’
leadership styles and responded to school rules and regulations. The interviews were conducted as informally as possible, with each informant provided with the freedom to choose convenient times which suited them. The interviews were tape-recorded for future reference and in-depth analysis. According to Drew, Hardman & Hart (1996), the advantage of the interview technique is that it enables the participants to enlighten the researcher about unfamiliar aspects of the setting and situation.

Interview guides are data collection instruments used through direct and verbal interaction between respondents. They involve the question and answer method of data sourcing. More and more data are collected through in-depth interviews and probing. MacMillan and Schumach (2001) argues that interview guides are important in sourcing for volumes of qualitative data. Thirty respondents were interviewed with each informant given the leeway to choose the convenient time and venue for the interview. The informants were notified two weeks in advance about the purpose of the research and the interviews through letters written and sent to them directly. This was after the researcher had secured permission from the DoE as well as the three principals.

The purpose of the interviews was to establish the leadership styles used by the school’s principal and how they perceived their management approaches in relation to their subordinates. The interviews were also intended to establish from the subordinates themselves how they perceived leadership styles and approaches used by their principal. The interview schedules were semi-structured to allow participants to share, highlight and explain their viewpoints, while the researcher sought clarifications from the participants. The interviews were tape-recorded to ensure the
accuracy of the data. The interview schedule for the principal focused on a wide range of thematic areas that included the principal's management, training and professional development, the qualities of a good and effective leadership style adopted by the school’s principal, the effects of the adopted leadership style on school performance, strategic planning and policy processes in the school, leadership styles of different principals, and management and leadership challenges of the principal. Since all the respondents had an opportunity to provide responses beyond the questions, these just served as guides to the process. The spirit of the interview was that the respondent had to feel free to air their feelings, thoughts, and emotions and to express themselves in ways they deemed appropriate. Questions in the other interview schedules which included HoDs, educators and learners were also based on the same thematic areas as in the principal's interview schedule.

1.6.3.2 Observations

During the observation phase, the researcher visited the three sampled schools to gain a sense of how the schools were being managed, in addition to obtaining information for the research. Observations were made during school visits to establish the overall performance of the school. This involved observing the physical appearance of the school, reception, attitudes of teachers and learners, behaviour of learners and interpersonal relationships of all the stakeholders at school.

1.6.3.3 Documentary Review

The researcher requested permission to access documents from the schools. The documentary review focused particularly on government policy documents relating to
leadership in education, government statutes, strategic plans and reports. Dissertations, journals and newsletters related to the education management field were also used as references.

1.6.4 Data Analysis and Interpretation

Semi-structured interviews were tape-recorded and analysed according to themes. They were later listened to attentively to identify emerging themes from the rich data. Questionnaires on demographic details that were given to the participants were carefully analysed. Verbal and nonverbal expressions of the participants were also taken into consideration by the researcher. The data collected on the basis of these multiple methods were used to back up various claims and conclusions reached.

1.6.5 Ethical Considerations

The researcher obtained permission from the DoE as well as from the three principals to gain access to the schools. This was followed by officially writing to the educators, HoDs and learners of the school to negotiate access to them. A consent form was designed and distributed amongst all the participants in this research. By the use of the consent forms, the researcher was able to gain informed consent of all the participants. The researcher also agreed with the participants that they had the right to withdraw from the research at any point in time, and that it would be their choice to participate or not. Pseudonyms were used in respect of the participants and the school selected for the purpose of this research. It was stipulated in the consent forms that any information so obtained from the participants would remain confidential between the two parties. The purpose of this was to ensure that anonymity and
confidentiality were strictly adhered to. Permission to interview the minor learners was given by the school deputy principals. During the time of data collection, analysis would be safeguarded as data were locked up in the researcher’s computer laptop by using a data protection password. The purpose of this was to ensure that nobody had access to the analysed data.

1.6.6 Reliability and Validity of the Research

1.6.6.1 Reliability

Reliability refers to the level of dependability of the items in the research instrument, and the consistency of the research instruments in tapping information from more than one respondent. In this research, the items were tested during pilot research of how consistent they would be in responding to questions using the pilot research school.

1.6.6.2 Validity

In order to ascertain face validity, the instruments were designed and handed to the principals. Thereafter, they were revised according to their comments. In addition, a content validity was also sought by requesting two experts in the field to provide their comments on the relevance and suitability of the items on the instruments.

1.7 Planning of the Research

This research is divided into six chapters. Chapter 1 provides a brief background to the research, statement of the problem, aims and objectives, and an overview of the research methodology adopted for the purposes of this research. Chapter 2 offers a
theoretical framework within which the research was conducted. It focuses on studies of leadership and school performance in schools, discussion on what leadership and leadership styles in the school context entail, and the concept of school performance is also discussed. **In Chapter 3**, the research methodology and design are discussed in detail. **In Chapter 4**, the research findings and analysis are presented. **In Chapter 5**, the discussion of the findings that emerged from the research is highlighted. **Chapter 6** provides an outline of the key findings and conclusions and delineates recommendations based on these findings.

### 1.8 Definitions of Key Concepts

#### 1.8.1 Leadership

According to the Oxford Dictionary, “to ‘lead’ means ‘to cause to go with one, especially by guiding or showing the way, or by going in front and taking a person’s hand, to guide by persuasion or example.’” For the purposes of this research, ‘leadership’ will refer to a process of inspiring individuals to give their best in the pursuit of desired results (Armstrong, 2001). Leadership focuses on getting people to move in the right direction, gaining their commitment and motivating them to achieve their goals.

#### 1.8.2 Leadership Styles

Leadership styles are modes or methods of leadership adopted by various leaders. For the purposes of this research, the definition of leadership styles is per the United States of America Army Handbook which recognises three styles of leadership, namely **authoritarian or autocratic**, the **participative or democratic** and **declarative or free-**
reign leadership. However, the research also employed the behavioural approach, which affirms that leaders can be made or that behaviours can be taught (Stoner, 2002). The behavioural approach to leadership, according to Mullins (2002), consists of the employee- and task-oriented leadership styles. In this research, the employee- and task-oriented styles are used to refer to the democratic and autocratic leadership styles, respectively.

1.8.3 School Performance

In the context of this research, school performance encompasses the full range of activities that would characterise a school as being successful. This would, in addition to academic performance, include well-motivated and committed teachers, learner satisfaction and involvement, parental involvement, a clean orderly school environment and strong principal leadership, amongst others. The definition is thus wider than merely academic performance in terms of pass rates and success in national examinations.

1.8.4 Principal Leaders

Principal leaders in a school situation are a head educator, headmaster, headmistress or the head or a phase manager as the most senior teacher, leader and manager.

1.9 Significance of the Research

The findings of this research will contribute to knowledge, which might justify stakeholders’ expectations of school principals. The researcher believes that the starting point to improve the performance of both the teachers and the learners is to
improve the school climate by the principal adopting a workable leadership style. Thus, this research will help the researcher to understand why some principals have not been effective in carrying out their responsibilities and therefore work with more effectiveness and efficiency using appropriate leadership styles to improve school performance. The findings will reveal methods whereby principals could adjust their leadership styles to create or enhance a positive school performance. It is assumed that a positive school performance enhances effective teaching, and therefore better academic performance by the teachers, which might invariably lead to good performance by learners. The results of this research will contribute to work being carried out in the quest for broadening and understanding the roles of principals with regard to school performance. Finally, the research will assist policymakers to assess the contents of the courses necessary for prospective and incumbent principals, to ensure that they are equipped with relevant skills required to run schools in a way that would enhance the achievement of learners.

The findings of the research will also be useful to the education policymakers and implementers in the various fields of education. The research will shed light on the relationship between leadership styles and school performance. This will be useful to authorities who appoint and deploy school principals as well as those who monitor the performance of schools. The findings will also be of value to those involved in support supervision and monitoring of schools, where special emphasis will be placed on the factors which influence school performance. By focusing on the specific leadership factors which influence school performance, the research might motivate future researchers to identify others factors with a view to establishing the role leadership
plays in the overall school performance. In terms of the system of performance appraisal of school principals, the findings of the research will also indicate the strength of leadership styles, and their contribution to the welfare and performance of the schools. For those responsible for organizing induction courses for newly appointed principals, the research would provide some lessons to draw on. The research will also shed light on the view of leadership as involving more than the leader’s personality and focusing on leaders as dominated by headship.

1.10 Conclusion

The present state of education, especially in some schools, calls for responsiveness. Management and administration of education at the school level need improvement to ensure higher learning and achievement. Lack of discipline on the part of some teachers and a good number of learners, is a major cause for concern. One of the ways to address this situation is to create a more positive climate that could enhance the performance of many teachers in schools, so that they can be more committed to their job; and the learners could improve on their behaviour and academic achievement. It is assumed that if a relationship exists between the leadership style of the school principal and school climate, then leadership styles of the principals could be employed to create a more positive school performance.

This chapter summarised a broad range of empirical research and related literature. The researcher’s purpose is to inspire the starting points for a major new effort to better understand the links between leadership and school performance. There seems little doubt that principal leadership provides a critical bridge between most
educational reform initiatives and their consequences for learners. Of all the factors that contribute to what learners learn at school, present evidence led us to the deduction that leadership plays a very important role for good school performance. Furthermore, effective leadership has the greatest impact in those circumstances (e.g., schools ‘in trouble’) in which it is most needed. This evidence supports the present widespread interest in improving leadership as a key to the successful implementation of large-scale reforms.

It is clear that not just the principal leadership style is most influential, there must be more efforts to improve their recruitment, training and evaluation, and ongoing development should be considered as highly cost-effective approaches to successful school performance. These efforts will become increasingly productive as further research provides us with more robust understandings of how successful leaders make sense of and productively respond to both external policy initiatives and local needs and priorities, and of how those practices seep into the fabric of the education system, improving its overall quality and substantially adding value to our learners’ learning.

1.11 Summary

This chapter provides a brief background to the issues of management and leadership in relation to school performance. The problem statement, justification for the research, detailing concerns of poor school performance, motivation to conduct the research, the problem statement, aims and objectives were highlighted, a brief outline of the research design, the procedures involved in the data collection process, measures to ensure validity and reliability and the significance of the research, and
limitations and delimitations of the research were included in this chapter.
CHAPTER 2

LEADERSHIP AND SCHOOL PERFORMANCE: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on a review of the literature related to a research of leadership styles and school performance. The review aims to focus on the definition, nature, evolution and conceptualization of leadership. It will also focus on leadership theories and styles with special reference to styles that relate to educational institutions. Leadership practices and leadership styles of principals in the realm of education in South Africa will be highlighted. A summary of the literature highlighting the possible gaps in the review and the lessons learned will be provided.

2.2 Conceptual Framework on Leadership and School Performance in Schools

2.2.1 Background Variables

The conceptual framework on leadership and performance is comprised of background variables, which denote the changes in the environmental conditions that affect leadership. These environmental conditions are globalisation, privatisation and the liberalisation of education, education reforms and participation and the involvement of other stakeholders. In addition, the amount of school resources available and disciplinary problems may also influence the leadership styles of school principals. School discipline influences changes in leadership strategies because a school where
learners are undisciplined requires stricter leadership compared to a school where discipline is good.

Throughout history, the evolution of leadership has led to the advancement of a series of leadership styles. The characteristics of the school and its environment influence the kind of styles adopted. Parental participation, community involvement and partnerships with other sectors like business, play a significant role in the improvement of educational management and leadership. In the new millennium there are potentially many types of stakeholders involved in the education management and leadership process, externally and internally, locally and globally (Cheng, 2002). The involvement of different constituencies or partners may not only be at the individual or institutional and community levels, but also at the society and international levels, as Cheng (2002) postulates, particularly as we are making efforts to globalise our classrooms and institutions through different types of worldwide networking and information technology in order to allow our learners and teachers to achieve world-class learning and teaching in the new millennium. The effective school principal of today will have to keep abreast of what takes place locally regionally and internationally.

The involvement of international constituencies for collaboration and partnership inevitably becomes a necessity. Cheng (2002) cites an example of more and more international education exchange programmes and immersion programmes organised at the tertiary and secondary levels in Australia, Hong Kong, Japan, United States of America and European countries. The direction of leadership extending influence on external constituencies has been repeatedly reflected in terms of environmental
leadership or strategic leadership in some recent literature (Cheng, 2000). The new trends in Human Resource Management as opposed to Personnel Management have also changed the relationship between leaders and their subordinates in the school’s setting.

2.2.2 Extraneous Variables

In attempting to investigate the influence of leadership styles on school performance in schools, there are, however other intervening variables that affect school performance. These extraneous variables are, interalia, the availability of instructional materials, funding, teaching methods, legislation and the learners’ entry scores. The intention of identifying these possible extraneous variables is to control them so that they do not affect the study.

2.2.3 Dependent Variables

The dependent variable in this research is school performance measured according to school output. For example, the outcome of learner academic performance which is part of the overall school performance can be in the form of passing examinations, tests, exercises, what the learners can practically do, and how the society perceives the learners in terms of the satisfaction they derive from the education obtained by the learners.

2.3 Introduction to Leadership

Carving out a succinct definition for leadership is very tricky. Different scholars interpret the concept of leadership differently. Yukl (1989) and Omar (2005) describe
the research of leadership as both daunting and enticing. It is daunting because it is regarded as one of the most important and pervasive concepts argued across a multitude of disciplines, including educational, political, legal and psychological ones. In addition, Omar (2005) argues that leadership is a subject of much published work produced annually. Over 7000 books, articles or presentations on leadership were produced in 1990 (Bass, 1990). In addition, its definitions, taxonomies and topologies are numerous; at one time, leadership was noted as having over three hundred and fifty definitions (Bennis & Nanus, 1985; Bass, 1990). It is actually difficult to achieve only one definition that is acceptable to all (Bass, 1985; Cheng, 2003).

Research in leadership is enticing and has been a preoccupation of human beings since the beginning of life (Bass, 1990). It provides an acceptable springboard for aspiring leaders to be able to rate themselves against great individuals who have worn the title of being great leaders (Bass, 1985; Cheng, 2003). According to Burns (1978), leadership is one of the most observed phenomena on earth and one of the least understood. He further asserts that the different scholars who have attempted to define, categorise and to attribute the study of leadership to particular situations, have only added to its confusion and incomprehensibility. According to Adlam (2003), leadership is a rather complex concept. This is due to the fact that several approaches have been employed to provide meaning to the term leadership and its effectiveness.

The following are some of the definitions that have been rendered; leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an organized group towards goal setting and goal achievement (Stogdill, 1986). Lipman & Blumen (1994) define leadership as the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing an organization’s goals
and objectives and, according to Kenzevich (1975), leadership is a force that can initiate action among people, guide activities in a given direction, maintain such activities and unify efforts towards common goals. Jacques & Clement (1991) define leadership as a process in which an individual provides direction for other people and carries them along in that direction with competence and full commitment.

According to Oyetunyi (2006), this perception of leadership signals a shift from bureaucracy (in which the leader tends to direct others and make decisions for them to implement) to non-bureaucracy where the emphasis is on motivation, inclusion and empowerment of the followers. Along the same lines, Botha (2008) described leadership as the process of motivating people to achieve specific goals. However, he falls short of mentioning those motivational procedures that leadership offers to effect organizational change.

Basing his definition on the contemporary context, Dubrin (cited in Oyetunyi, 2006) define leadership as the ability to inspire confidence and support among followers who are expected to achieve organizational goals. For the purposes of this research, this definition will be applied more than others, for it has a lot to do with change, inspiration and motivation, the ingredients of which are critical for school performance. Furthermore, Oyetunyi (2006) infers that the leader’s task is to build the followers confidence in their jobs to be effective and that it is a leader’s responsibility to communicate the picture of what the organization should be, to convince followers and to channel all activities towards accomplishing it. Along the lines of the contemporary approach, but from a more recent perspective, Sashkin & Sashkin (2003) define leadership as the art of transforming people and organizations with the aim of
improving the organization.

In the South African context, school principals must have the culture of ‘Ubuntu’ at his/her school, which means collective personhood and collective morality (Mbigi, 1997). Black African cultural heritage places a great emphasis on and has great concern for people. Emphasis is also placed on being a good person. He added that Ubuntu should be reflected in our modern education (Mbigi, 1997). Msila (2005) states that Ubuntu is one of the fundamental values of the South African constitution. Ubuntu is rooted in African traditional society and espouses the ideal of interconnectedness among people. He links Ubuntu to democracy, claiming that it is the ‘ideal democratic tenet’ and contributes to ‘a world of moral stability’. The ACE: School Leadership course (DoE, 2007) introduced the concept of the ‘lekgotla’. The leader or ‘kgosi’ should adopt an approach that inspires trust in the decision-making process. Such a leader operates on the basis of a natural belief in humanity, who gives without expecting anything and listens without prejudice, creating a climate of trust.

In African leadership style, a leader leads as a chief and runs a ‘lekgotla’. The leader of the lekgotla is the kgosi or chief. The principles of a lekgotla could be seen as forming the basis of how a school should operate in that everyone has a say and a decision is always the outcome of a meeting. In African culture, the kgosi should adopt an approach that inspires trust in the decision-making process of the leader. Consider the words of Msila (2005) has said that kgosi is expected to possess persuasiveness, compassion and vision. The most essential thing is that a kgosi’s authority is based on the esteem in which the tribe holds him ... A leader who operates on the basis of a natural belief in humanity, who gives without expecting anything and listens without
prejudice, creates a climate of trust. Trust is the basis of inspiration, motivation and creativity...If a leader trusts his people; the people will repay this trust through hard work and by being inventive.” It sounds very appealing. Indeed, it is the basic style that former President Mandela used, following the African dictum: “I think because we are”. The true African leader believes in the community and the power of Ubuntu (togetherness and commitment to each other – we are who we are through others).

Characteristics of a typical kgosi are: listens to everyone’s voice, but stops interminable discussions, spells out the reality, asks questions, is sensitive to his/her surroundings and has vision, has sufficient time for education and relaxation in nature, generates trust on the ‘shop floor’ through encouragement and motivation, creates real commitment, takes decisions and keeps the community together.

According to the researcher, effective principals are community builders. They are able to nurture the development of open systems in which parents and members of the community are able to voice their opinions. The challenge for most principals is to foster a ‘community of learning’ among professional staff. They are central agents of change in the system for improving school performance. An effective principal is a necessary precondition for an effective school. The principal’s leadership sets the tone of the school, the climate of teaching, the level of professionalism and the morale of the teachers and learners.

The principal’s influence in both supervisory and instructional domains is strongly related to that of teachers’ active participation in decision making, suggesting the benefits of mutuality in school leadership. As community builders, principals must encourage others to be leaders in their own right. Other goals may include improving
the educational curriculum, providing a conducive environment and developing good relationships among teachers and learners.

2.4 The Importance of Leadership

Educational practitioners have recognized leadership as vitally important for education institutions, since it is the engine of survival for the institutions. This recognition has come at a time when the challenges of education development worldwide are more demanding than ever before (Nkata, 2005). The rapid growth of educational institutions and the ever-increasing enrollment will require improved management. Mass education at different levels will also require new leadership approaches in order to enhance efficiency and effectiveness. Schermerhorn, Hunt & Osborn (2000) maintain that leadership is the heart of any organization, because it determines the success or failure of the organization. Oyetunyi (2006) posits that in an organization such as a school, the importance of leadership is reflected in every aspect of the school like instructional practices, academic achievement, learners’ discipline, and school climate, to mention but a few.

Building a sense of educational development in school structures leads to the realization that a shared vision focusing on the relationship between school leadership and performance of schools, is the only prerequisite for effective standards. Blazing the trail and dominating the field in this direction, scholars and researchers like Mullins (2002), Steyn (2005) and Maicibi (2005) note that the study of school leadership is necessary to make school activities effective.

This argument is further augmented by Sashkin & Sashkin (2003) who contend that
leadership matters, because leaders help reduce ambiguity and uncertainty in organizations. School leadership can be situated within the larger framework of institutional leadership where leadership skills are necessary for effective management and performance. Linda (1999) has this to say on the influence of school leadership and management on teachers’ attitudes to their jobs:

Research findings indicated that there is a positive relationship between teacher morale, job satisfaction and motivation on the type of leadership in schools.

Indeed, head teachers have the capacity to make teachers’ working lives so unpleasant, unfulfilling, problematic and frustrating that they become the overriding reason why some teachers do not perform as expected and some have to exit the profession.

Linda (1999:27) quotes one of the teachers he interviewed in his research and who had this to say about her principal:

I don’t know what it is about her, but she made you want to do your best and not just for her, but for yourself ... You are not working to please her, but she suddenly made you realize what was is possible, and you, kind of, raised your game.

The key question is what is it about the head teacher to whom she referred that made her leadership so charming and hence effective.

It therefore goes without saying that if the secret of effective staff management lies in the leadership style that is adopted, then it is clearly important to identify the features of such a style. This study will therefore seek to analyse the different leadership styles
of head teachers with a view to determining the most effective ones in terms of enhancing school performance. Some heads of schools that employ the task-oriented philosophy of management confer it upon themselves that teachers and students are naturally lazy in achievement. They need to be punished in order to stir up their enthusiasm, commitment and support. The task-oriented style explores styles such as the autocratic and the bureaucratic leadership styles. The autocratic head teacher is concerned with despotic principles of management which concentrate leadership on the top rather than from the bottom, whilst the bureaucratic head teacher is concerned with the rules of the game, procedures, and regulations as a way of transforming productivity.

The employee-oriented school head focuses upon putting the subordinate at the centre of progress, with a view to tying the organization’s success on the shoulders of the subordinates. Hence, the subordinate is treated with compassion, care, trust and consideration that place him in the realm of school governance. Consequently, subordinates’ inputs in school functions are often pronounced as a result of high morale and motivation. The behavioural leader explores styles such as the democratic, participative and laissez-faire leadership styles. According to Leithwood, K. (1997), the democratic style of management regards people as the main decision makers. The subordinates have a greater say in decision-making, the determination of academic policy, the implementation of systems and procedures of handling teaching, which leads to school discipline and, hence, academic excellence and overall school performance in the fields of sport and cultural affairs.
2.5 Leadership Approaches and Models

The ways in which leaders behave, and the specific acts by which they play out their leadership roles are based on certain assumptions about human nature. Consciously or unconsciously, leaders get influenced on the basis of some personal theory of human behaviour - a view of what their subordinates are like as people.

2.5.1 Scientific Management Approach

Scientific management philosophy (Mullins & Laurie, 2005) is concerned with increasing productivity among workers. It regards workers as extensions of the machines they operate. It was first expounded by Frederick W. Taylor, who was an engineer in the early 20th century, and a foreman or the first-level supervisor. He argued that no consideration was accorded to employees as human beings, or as people with different needs, abilities, and interests. Workers were considered to be lazy and dishonest and to have a low level of intelligence.

2.5.2 The Human Relations Approach

The human relations approach (House, 1971) is an approach to leadership that regards employees’ needs as a legitimate responsibility. It arose in the 1920s and 1930s under the impact of the Hawthorne studies, which focused attention on workers instead of production. In the Hawthorne experiments, a new approach emerged where a new type of supervisor acted differently, allowing workers to set their own production pace and to form social groups. They were permitted to talk to one another on the job, and their views about the work were elicited. The new supervisor treated them like human beings.
2.5.3 Theory X and Theory Y Approach

The scientific management and human relations approach to leadership behaviour were given formal expression as Theory X and Theory Y (McGregor, 1960). The Theory X approach assumes that people are lazy, dislike work and therefore must be coerced, led and directed. Theory X is compatible with scientific management and bureaucracy. Bureaucracy is a formal, orderly and rational approach to organizing business enterprises. Theory Y assumes that people find satisfaction in their work and function best under a leader who allows them to work towards their goals. This is indeed true in the education situation in the case of the traditional schools with an impeccable culture and strong religious values, where the majority of teachers love teaching; they love their school and hence do not need direction.

In such institutions, control and punishment are not necessary to bring about good job performance. People are industrious, creative and seek challenges and responsibility on the job. However, in some new schools and particularly in respect of young teachers, the situation might be different. Some of them do not have the profession at heart, whilst some may have joined the teaching profession by default or as a last resort.

Theory Y is compatible with Maslow's view that people seek inner satisfaction and fulfilment of our human capacities towards self-actualisation. It is also compatible with the human relations movement in management and with the participative, democratic style of management. An example of the application of Theory Y is management by objectives.
2.5.4 Situational/Contingency Approaches to Leadership

There are diverse, complex situations in schools that demand diverse leadership skills (Oyetunyi, 2006). The principal with adequate skills will assess the situation and choose the appropriate leadership style that will be effective for a situation rather than try to manipulate situations to fit a particular leadership style. Dunklee (2000) claims that leadership in schools is a situational phenomenon as it is based on the collective perception of people working in the schools, linked to the norms and is affected by the rate of interaction among members of the school.

The essence of a contingency approach is that leaders are most effective when they make their behaviour contingent upon situational forces, including group member characteristics (Oyetunyi, 2006). In other words, the type of group and some other factors determine the behaviour of the leader. Thus, situational/contingency theory emphasises the importance of situational factors, such as the nature of the task and the characteristics of subordinates. This means that the best style of leadership is determined by the situation in which the leader works (Tannenbaum & Schmidt, 1973).

Under the situational/contingency leadership approaches (Blanchard & Hersey, 1988), there are five models/theories, namely the Tannenbaum and Schmidt Leadership Continuum, Fiedler’s Contingency Theory, the Path-Goal Leadership Model, the Vroom-Yetton-Jago Normative Contingency Model and the Hersey-Blanchard’s Situational Theory (Oyetunyi, 2006). It was therefore imperative to establish whether the contingency leadership theory exists in schools.
2.5.4.1 The Tannenbaum and Schmidt Leadership Continuum

This model highlights two major ways in which a leader can influence his/her followers. It is believed that a leader either influences his/her followers by telling them what to do and how to do it, or by involving them in planning and the execution of the task (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). Two related explanations of the leadership continuum are examined: the boss-centered versus employee-centered and the autocratic-participative-free-rein continuum. Tannenbaum and Schmidt’s Leadership Continuum is considered one of the most significant situational approaches to leadership (Oyetunyi, 2006). They suggest that managers choose a leadership pattern among a range of leadership styles. The choice is made along a continuum of boss-centered versus employee-centered and autocratic-participative-free-rein leadership. For the leader to choose the most appropriate style, s/he needs to consider certain forces in the manager, the subordinates and the situation.

2.5.4.2 The Vroom-Yetton-Jago Normative Contingency Model

Oyetunyi (2006) quotes Vroom & Jago (1988) who assert that this model, like the path-goal theory, describes how a leader should behave in certain contingencies to enhance effectiveness. It is based on one aspect of the leader’s behaviour and focuses on the subordinates’ involvement in decision-making. The authors assume that a leader may exhibit different leadership styles; this is particularly important when it relates to the decision-making process. The leader should be able to know when to take charge and when to allow the group to take decisions (Vroom & Jago, 1988). Interestingly, Vroom & Jago (1988) assert that there is no leadership style that is appropriate for all situations. It therefore follows that a leader develops a series of responses ranging
from autocratic to democratic and laissez-fair consultative and applies the leadership style that is appropriate to the decision situation.

The assumption is that the leader has to adapt his/her style to the situation. These authors suggest five decision-making styles, each requiring a different degree of participation by the subordinates. The styles are based on two variable factors: individual or group decisions and time-driven or development-driven decisions. Time-driven factors require a leader to make effective decisions as quickly as possible and development-driven factors are used when a leader is focused on developing subordinate’s capabilities in the area of decision-making (Oyetunyi, 2006). The study therefore intended to establish whether leaders in schools, exhibit different leadership styles depending on the decision-making processes in schools.

2.5.4.3 The Path-Goal Leadership Model

According to Oyetunyi (2006), the fundamental principle of this model is that leadership behaviour should be motivating and satisfying to the extent that it increases goal attainment by subordinates and clarifies the behaviour that will lead to these goals/rewards. The authors of this model (House & Mitchel, 1974) use it to explain how a leader’s behaviour influences the performance and satisfaction of the subordinates. Unlike some contingency leadership models, this model does not have a leader trait and behaviour variable. It therefore, allows for the possibility of adapting leadership to the situation.
2.5.4.4 The Charismatic Approach

Hoy & Miskel (2001) and Lussier & Achua (2001), as reported in Oyetunyi (2006), state that Max Weber initiated the charismatic leadership approach in 1947. According to these scholars, Weber used the term ‘charisma’ to explain a form of influence based on the followers’ perceptions that a leader is endowed with exceptional characteristics. Oyetunyi (2006) defines charisma as the process of influencing major changes in the attitudes and assumptions of organizational members and building commitment for the organization’s objectives. In the same vein, Lussier & Achua (2001) describe charismatic leaders as leaders who have distinguished qualities to inspire and motivate subordinates more than they would in a normal situation. Hoy & Miskel (2001), quote House and his colleagues who contend that personality characteristics do not make a leader charismatic. Rather, they contribute to the development of charismatic relationships (Oyetunyi, 2006). On the other hand, Sashkin & Sashkin (2003) observe that charismatic leaders seek control by manipulating others; they initiate a kind of relationship that is meant to cause other people to be dependent on them. Oyetunyi (2006) posits that charismatic leaders are not concerned about the followers and the organization, but about themselves, and so many of them make life unbearable for those who deal with them.

2.6 Theories of Leadership

Leadership has evolved over time and has taken different forms. Views on leadership theories have been changing over the years. Oyetunyi (2006) asserts that the leadership paradigm has changed over the last decades and that it has transited from the traditional leadership approaches to the new perspectives. Schermerhorn et al.
(2000) and Hoy & Miskel (2001) categorize trait, behavioural and situational or contingency theories under traditional leadership perspectives, and charismatic and transformational leadership theories under the new leadership perspectives. According to the above researchers leadership theories recognize that effective leadership depends on the interaction of three factors namely: the traits and behaviours of the followers, the characteristics of the followers and the nature of the situation in which leadership occurs.

Leadership, as studied through the traditional theories such as the Ohio State University studies (Halpin, 1966), the managerial grid model (Blake & Mouton, 1985), and the contingency theories (Kerr & Jermier, 1978; Fielder, 1971), is often assumed to occur between a leader and the followers (Cheng, 2002). However, most leadership theories are explored on the trait, behavioural, and contingency approaches (Mullins, 2002). As such, the following leadership theories provide scholars with a vision and introduce leadership behaviours that may assist head teachers and leaders of educational institutions to better manage their institutions in different situations.

2.6.1 Trait Theories

Trait theories are part of the traditional leadership theories that focus on the transactional process in which a leader gives something to followers in exchange for their satisfactory effort and performance in the task (Cheng, 2002). Trait theories investigate the personal characteristics of successful leaders. These theories consider the innate qualities or traits characteristic of good leaders. Such theories are based on the opinion that leaders are right and leadership is rooted in the authority of their
righteousness (Oyetunyi, 2006). Like the theories associated with great men, the trait perspective assumes that great leaders are born with distinguished traits/characteristics that make them different from other people.

Successful school leaders were described by Omar (2005) in terms of their personal attributes, interpersonal abilities, and technical management skills. Personal attributes include humour, courage, judgment, integrity, intelligence, persistence, work ethic, vision, and being opportunity conscious; interpersonal abilities include being outgoing, team builder and compassionate. Technical management skills include producing results, resolving conflicts, analysing and evaluating problems, the ability to enhance the work environment, and goal oriented (Bensimon, Neumann & Birnbaum, 2000).

Stogdill (in Sashkin & Sashkin, 2003) also found that leaders were a bit more intelligent, outgoing, creative, assertive, responsible and heavier than average people, although he contradicted himself later by concluding that a person does not become a leader because of a combination of traits since the impact of traits differs according to situation. However, while the early emphasis on individual personality and talent is no longer viewed as the sole determinant of a good leader, an appropriate combination of personal characteristics is seen as an important contribution to effective leadership. According to Rowley (1997), the following characteristics are generally viewed as being important: intelligence, initiative and self-assurance. From the study of traits/characteristics, it can be inferred that the trait theory framework can be used to identify potential leaders.
2.6.2 Behaviour Theories

Behaviour theories examine whether the leader is task-oriented (initiating structure), people-oriented (consideration), or both. Studies conducted at the University of Michigan and Ohio State University in 1945 (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988) established two major forms of leader behaviour, namely: employee-centred (consideration) and production-centred (initiating structure). The present study, therefore, intended to explore whether this exists amongst leaders in schools.

An employee-centred leader is sensitive to subordinates’ feelings and endeavours to fulfil their concerns. On the other hand a production-centred leader has, as the major concern, accomplishment of the task. While it is desirable that a leader possesses both considerate and initiating structure behavioural traits, Hoy & Miskel (2001) assert that it may be difficult to match a leader’s behaviour with effectiveness if appropriate behaviour cannot be linked to different situations, as situational factors affect the effectiveness of the leader’s behaviour. It is the bid to give consideration to situational factors that led to the birth of situational/contingency theories.

Under the behavioural theories are leadership styles expounded in Blake and Mouton’s leadership grid and Likert’s Management System. Likert’s research (cited in Oyetunyi, 2006) which studied various firms and organizations, including schools and universities, involving many managers and employees, head teachers and teachers, revealed four basic styles of management on a continuum from system one to system four: System I: Authoritative-Coercive; System II: Authoritative-Benevolent; System III: Consultative; and System IV: Participative.
The managerial grid also known as the leadership grid (Oyetunyi, 2006) was developed to clarify the dynamics of the three dimensions of organizational leadership: concern for production (Blake & McCanse, 1991), concern for people and motivation behind the leader’s behaviour. Blake & Mouton (1985) also adapted their managerial grid into an academic style and applied it to higher education. Their model suggests five styles of academic administration:

- Care-taker,
- Authority-obedience,
- Comfortable-pleasant,
- Constituency-centered, and
- Team oriented.

The optimum style is identified as team administration, which is characteristic of leaders who scored high on both - concern for institutional performance and concern for people (Bensimon et al., 2000).

2.6.3 Power and Influence Theories

There are two types of power and influence theories, namely:

1. Theories that consider leadership in terms of the influence or effects that leaders may have on their followers (social power theory and transformational
leadership theory), and

2. Theories that consider leadership in terms of mutual influence and reciprocal relationships between leaders and followers (social exchange theory and transactional leadership theory).

### 2.6.3.1 Social Power Theory

From this perspective, effective leaders are those who can use their power to influence the activities of others. The most likely sources of power for academic leaders are expert and referent power over legitimate, coercive, or reward powers (Bensimon et al., 2000). College presidents can exert influence over their campuses through charismatic power. This particular perspective maintains that academic leaders can cultivate charismatic power by remaining distant or remote from constituents, by attending to their personal appearance and style, and by exhibiting self-confidence. Similarly, head teachers of secondary schools exert influence over their subordinates through the legitimate powers placed on them by the force of the law together with the financial clout they wield. In this regard, the study thus hoped to establish whether head teachers in schools use their powers to influence others in schools.

### 2.6.3.2 Transformational Theory

As a way of responding to shortcomings of the traditional theories, an alternative perspective that emphasizes transformational leadership emerged. According to this perspective, a leader in an educational institution is one who not only adapts his or her behaviours to the situation, but also transforms it (Cheng, 2002). Transformational
theory suggests that effective leaders create and promote a desirable vision or image of the institution. Unlike goals, tasks, and agendas, which refer to concrete and instrumental ends to be achieved, a vision refers to altered perceptions, attitudes, and commitments (Omar, 2005). The transformational leader must encourage the college community to accept a vision created by his/her symbolic actions (Bensimon et al., 2000). Cheng (2002) also add that a transformational leader must be proactive about the organizational vision and mission, shaping members beliefs, values, and attitudes and developing options for the future, while a transactional leader is reactive about the organizational goals, using a transaction approach to motivate followers. Numerous ongoing education reforms in many countries in the Asia-Pacific region, Europe and America are requiring transformational leadership at both systems and institutional levels and from kindergarten to secondary vocational and higher education (Cheng, 2002).

The need for management of change in a school setting is aptly highlighted by Oyetunyi (2006), when she asserts that our society is characterized by change, which also affects the school as the expectations of the stakeholders change from time to time. Oyetunyi (2006) state that transformational leadership focuses on a different kind of leader’s influence that encourages followers to emerge as leaders. They create organizational conditions in which followers can develop their own leadership capabilities. Oyetunyi (2006) also quotes Sergiovanni (1998) and Wilmore & Thomas (2001) who hold that transformational leaders share power with followers rather than exercise power over followers and, by so doing, transformational leadership empowers followers to be able to accomplish what they think is important. Consequently,
followers are exposed to responsibilities that release their potential while leaders are more concerned with what followers are accomplishing rather than what they are doing.

However, Owens (1998) observes that, conventionally, schools have always been places where adults had difficulty in sharing collegiality, which is important to leadership and teacher empowerment. For, according to him, empowering teachers to establish a system for shaping the vision and mission of the school and indicating the importance of its accomplishment is the core of the head teacher’s leadership. Resultantly, head teachers should exhibit unequivocal interest in fostering collegiality and collective leadership. The study thus intended to establish whether there are such transformational and transactional leaders in schools.

2.6.4 Transactional Leadership Theory

Bass (1998), as reported in Oyetunyi (2006), asserts that transactional leadership is largely based on exchanges between a leader and group members, such as using rewards and punishment to control behaviour. Bass (1998) argues further that each party enters the transaction because of the expectation to fulfil self-interests and their leader is supposed to maintain the status quo by satisfying the needs of the subordinates. This type of leadership emphasizes a process in which the leader defines needs, assigns tasks, gives rewards to followers for good performance, or punishment for mistakes (Ubben, 2001). For instance, the head teacher observes what the teachers want from work and tries to provide them with what they want depending on their performance. S/he exchanges rewards and promises of rewards for their efforts
and responds to their immediate self-interest. Otherwise, s/he uses threats or punishment for their mistakes. Cunningham & Cordeiro (2000) opine that a transactional leader has a command and control mentality.

2.6.5 Contingency Theories

Contingency theory is an approach to leadership in which leadership effectiveness is determined by the interaction between the leader’s personal characteristics and aspects of the situation. In other words, contingency theories assume that the relationship between leadership style and organizational outcomes is moderated by situational factors, and therefore the outcomes cannot be predicted by leadership style, unless the situational variables are known (Cheng, 2002). Control is contingent on three factors, namely, the relationship between the leader and followers, the degree of the task structure and the leaders’ authority, position or power. From this approach, effective leadership requires adapting one’s style of leadership to situational factors. Situational variables in Fiedler’s (1967) contingency model prescribes a task-oriented leader who would do whatever is necessary to help staff to achieve a desired goal.

According to the theory, the task-oriented leader will be more effective in extremely favourable or extremely unfavourable situations. When the situation is moderately favourable, the person-oriented leader will be more effective. Balancing work concerns and human concerns is difficult under ideal circumstances. Fiedler (1967), who called these dimensions task-orientation and relationship-orientation, believed that leaders would be able to focus on either one or the other, but not both.
simultaneously. According to Fiedler (1967), task-orientation and relationship-orientation leadership styles are at two separate ends of a continuum and would thus be impossible to perform at the same time. His research on contingency theory ascertained that leaders who described their least preferred co-worker in positive terms were human-relations-oriented, whereas those who described the least preferred co-worker in negative terms were task-oriented (Mazzarella & Smith, 1989).

2.6.6 Fiedler’s Contingency Theory

Fiedler (in Lussier & Achua, 2001) was the first to develop this leadership theory, which shows that a situational variable interacts with a leader’s personality and behaviour. He believes that leadership style is a reflection of the underlining need-structure that prompts behaviour. Fiedler (1967) is of the opinion that leadership styles are constant. Thus, leaders do not change styles, but they change the situation. The bone of contention here is that a leader’s effectiveness depends on the situation (Fiedler, 1967). This implies that a leader may be effective in one situation or organization, but not in another. This theory is used to establish whether a person’s leadership style is task-oriented or relationship-oriented and if the situation (leader-follower relationship, task structure and level of authority) matches the leader’s style to maximize performance.

Leadership is largely determined by the feasibility of the situation at hand, which implies the extent to which the situation allows the manager to exert influence on the subordinates (Fiedler, 1967). Fiedler (1967) further conceptualizes the situation in terms of its favourableness for the leader, ranging from highly favourable to highly
unfavourable. He states that the greater the control exercised by the leader, the more favourable the situation is for him/her. The favourableness of the situation is determined by three factors. In the order of importance, leader-follower relations come first. This measures how well the followers and the leader get along, and how s/he is accepted by the followers. A high degree indicates good leader-follower relations and a low degree indicates poor leader-follower relations (Fiedler, 1967). The second factor is task structure, which measures the extent to which the tasks clearly specify goals, procedures and standard of performance. A structured task is routine, simple and easily understood. It is perceived to be more favourable because the leader needs not be closely involved whereas an unstructured task is ambiguous and complex and this is not favourable for it demands the leader to guide and direct the activities of the staff members (Fiedler, 1971). The last one is the level of formal authority to punish or discipline, promote, assign work, recommend for promotion and to fire. If the level of authority is high, the situation is favourable, but if the leader’s ideas especially, with regard to reward and punishment have to be approved by someone else, it means the situation is not favourable. Fiedler believed that a good relationship, a structured task and either high or low position of power leads to a very favourable situation for the leader, but a poor relation, an unstructured task and either high or low position of power create very unfavourable situations for the leader.

According to Fiedler (1971), a task-motivated leader is suitable for very favourable as well as very unfavourable situations. The theory suggests that if a leader-follower relation is poor, the task is unstructured and if the leader’s position of power is low, a task-oriented leader will be effective. Also, a task-oriented leader is said to be
appropriate for a situation where the leader-follower relation is good, the task is structured and the leadership position is high. Moreover, in the case of intermediate favourableness, it is suggested that a person-oriented leader is suitable. It is assumed that this kind of leader would improve leader-follower relations and thereby increase productivity (Fiedler, 1971). It is, however possible to have situations where the leader’s style does not match the situation. In this respect, Fiedler (1967) suggests that to be effective, the leader should either adapt his/her leadership style or change the situation by modifying the group task situation.

Fiedler’s contingency theory has alerted leaders to the importance of sizing up the situation to gain control. All the same, matching the situation to the leader may create problems, because the amount of control s/he exercises varies from time to time. For example, if a relationship-motivated head teacher finds the situation too favourable (good leader-follower relation) for exercising control, it is almost certain that s/he would attempt to make the situation less favourable. Thus, the set goals may not be accomplished by such a leader (Dubrin, 1998) who holds that a good relationship between the leader and follower is the most important factor that makes life easy for the leader in terms of influencing and exercising control over his/her situation. It appears that Fiedler’s theory suggests that there are two main leadership behaviour styles: task-oriented and relationship-oriented; otherwise, there are indications that the leader who is high on task behaviour may or may not be high or low on relationship behaviour. However, any combination of those two is possible. It has been observed that leaders who are people-oriented create a positive climate in their schools (Lussier & Achua, 2001).
In contrast, Hersey & Blanchard’s life-cycle theory and the Vroom-Yetton decision process theory, as reported in Oyetunyi (2006), identify individuals with a delegating and participative style of leadership. This theory is based upon the ability of the leader or manager to diagnose the group environment or situation with the purpose of adjusting the leadership style, the group situation, or possibly both. An application of the Vroom-Yetton model to the study of decision-making among department chairs concluded that they frequently chose autocratic styles of decision-making in situations where a consultative style would have increased the likelihood of the faculty’s acceptance of the decision (Bensimon et al., 2000). Hersey & Blanchard’s theory was used to develop a questionnaire that would help department chairs determine departmental level of maturity and select a corresponding style of leadership.

Analyses of studies on the behaviour of leaders by Bensimon et al., (2000) suggested that when given a choice of leadership roles, faculty members consistently preferred the leader to be a facilitator, or one who solved problems and who sought to provide the resources necessary for the research activities of faculty members. In describing situational leadership theory, Hersey & Blanchard (1988) theorise that there is a curvilinear relationship between task behaviour (initiating structure) and maturity. More accurately, as the leaders are able to assess the leadership situation with which they must deal, the leaders should adjust their behaviour or style to be compatible with the situation. As the maturity of the group increases, the leader should reduce task-directed behaviour and increase relationship behaviour. Maturity is seen as the degree to which the group is able to increase their level of aspirations and accomplishments. In the very mature state, a group essentially self-actualises and a
leader operates with a high degree of delegation.

Generally, contingency theories found their greatest applicability in the study of leadership in academic departments, because decision-making at this level is less equivocal than at higher levels of the academic organization (Bensimon et al., 2000). In spite of in-depth research into the contingency theory the validity of this theory remained in dispute. In response to these criticisms, Fiedler (1967) formulated the cognitive resource theory of leadership.

2.6.7 Cognitive Resource Theory

Cognitive resource theory is an approach to leadership that focuses on the interaction between leaders’ cognitive resources like intelligence, technical competence, job-related knowledge and job performance and stress. The level of the leader’s cognitive ability is related to the nature of the plans, decisions and strategies that will guide the actions of the subordinates. The better the leader’s abilities, the more effective the plans, decisions and strategies. If the subordinates support the leader’s goals and if the leader is not under inordinate stress, then the leader’s programmes are likely to be implemented. Cognitive theories have important implications for perceptions of the leader’s effectiveness. In many situations, leaders may not have measurable outcomes other than social attribution, or the tendency of their constituents to assign to them the credit or blame for unusual institutional outcomes. From this perspective, leaders are individuals believed by followers to be responsible for particular events. Leaders themselves, in the absence of clear indicators, are subject to cognitive bias that can lead them to make predictable errors of judgment and to overestimate their
effectiveness (Bensimon et al., 2000).

This theory depicts an approach to leadership in which leadership effectiveness is determined by the interaction between the leader’s personal characteristics and aspects of the situation. According to Hoy & Miskel (2001), quoted in Oyetunyi (2006), this approach proposes two basic hypotheses: that leadership traits and situational factors have a direct effect on school effectiveness. Referring to the school situation, as quoted by Oyetunyi (2006), these scholars explain further that the level of motivation and ability of both teachers and students are related to the goal attainment of schools. Also, the socio-economic status of students in a school relates to the students’ achievement on standardised tests. Hoy & Miskel (2001) uphold the fact that it is likely that the situational characteristics of a school have greater influence than a leader’s behaviour on leadership effectiveness. Thus, it is concluded that it is possible for one type of leader to be effective in one set of circumstances and ineffective in another, while under another set of circumstances, a different type of leader is effective.

The cognitive resources theory according to Hoy and Miskel (2001) is based on the following hypotheses:

1. When leaders are under stress, their cognitive abilities are diverted from the task and they focus instead on problems and activities that are less relevant. As a result, group performance will suffer.

2. The cognitive abilities of authoritarian leaders will show a higher positive
correlation with group performance than will the cognitive abilities of non-authoritarian (directive) leaders.

3. Plans and decisions cannot be implemented unless the group complies with the leader’s directives. Therefore, the correlation between a leader’s cognitive resources and group performance will be higher when the group supports the leader than when it does not.

4. The leader’s cognitive abilities will enhance performance only to the degree to which the task requires those abilities, that is, the degree of task is intellectually demanding.

5. The leader’s directive behaviour will be partly determined by the nature of the relationship between the leader and followers, the degree of task structure, and the leaders’ control over the situation.

Through stress management techniques, a leader’s cognitive resources can be developed and applied more effectively. A major source of stress for leaders arises from their own superiors in the organization. Similarly, leaders can also be another major source of stress to those they lead; as in one study (Linda, 1999) a teacher was quoted complaining about how her school’s management was a constraint on her doing her job, including her implementation of the national curriculum: “You ask yourself, Why am I bothering? Why am I giving up time to do work which is ignored?” When workers have a stressful relationship with their boss, they tend to rely on responses or behaviours that worked for them in the past, rather than on their
cognitive resources. When leaders are free from stress, they rely on their intelligence instead of being constrained by past experiences.

2.6.8 Path-Goal Theory

Path-Goal theory is the leadership theory that focuses on the kinds of behaviours leaders should exercise to allow their subordinates to achieve personal and organizational goals. Leaders can increase their subordinates’ motivation, satisfaction and job performance by administering rewards that depend on the achievement of particular goals. Effective leaders will help employees reach personal and organizational goals by pointing out the paths they should follow and providing them with the means to do so (Evans, 2000). Under this theory there are four leadership styles that leaders can adapt to facilitate employee attainment of goals:

1. **Directive leadership** where the leader tells subordinates what they should do and how they should do it.

2. **Supportive leadership** where the leader shows concern and support for the subordinates.

3. **Participative leadership** where the leader allows subordinates to participate in decisions that affect their work.

4. **Achievement-oriented leadership** where the leader sets challenging goals for subordinates and emphasizes high levels of job performance.

However, under this theory, the leadership style that will be most effective depends
on characteristics of the situation and of the subordinates, although in most instances
leaders must be flexible and adopt whichever style is called for. It was therefore
imperative to establish whether this was the case amongst school head teachers in
most African countries.

2.6.9 Normative Decision Theory

Normative Decision theory of leadership focuses on the correct norms or standards of
behaviour for leaders to follow. Although it focuses on correct norms in decision-
making, it is concerned with the extent to which leaders allow their subordinates to
participate in decision-making. It proposes five styles of leader behaviour ranging from
the autocratic style in which decisions are made solely by the leader to complete
participation by subordinates and during which decisions are reached through
consensus. Under this theory, the most effective style of leadership depends on the
importance of the decision, the degree to which subordinates accept it, and the time
required making the decision. Leaders must be flexible in selecting the decision
making approach that yields maximum benefits in terms of quality, acceptance and
time constraints.

2.6.10 Cultural and Symbolic Theories

Occasionally, effective leaders give symbolic meaning to events that others may regard
as perplexing, senseless, or chaotic. According to Omar (2005), these leaders do so by
focusing attention on aspects of college life both familiar and meaningful to the college
community. Leaders may play an important role in creating and maintaining
institutional sagas. The role of academic leaders in the preservation of academic
culture may be even more critical today than in the past, because increased specification, professionalism, and complexity have weakened the values and beliefs that have provided institutions with a common sense of purpose, commitment, and order.

Although leaders may not be able to change the current culture through management, their attention to social integration and symbolic events may enable them to sustain and strengthen the culture that already exists (Bensimon et al., 2000). Strategies of change that make sense to institutional members, and are therefore likely to elicit acceptance and support, may depend upon leaders’ understanding of an organization from cultural perspectives. These leaders may be required to act as anthropologists uncovering the organizational culture by seeking to identify metaphors embedded in the language of the college community.

Leaders may become more effective by using symbols that are consistent with the institution’s culture (Bensimon et al., 2000). A critical analysis of the leadership theories bring to the fore the significance of leadership styles in the effective management of education institutions. Theories of leadership styles are of much value to leaders attempting to improve their performance in different organizations, some of which, like in a school setting, are to raise the motivation of teachers and other staff, help them accept changes, improve morale, diminish stress, reduce workload, increase innovation, and improve human relations.
2.7 Conclusion on Leadership Theories

According to the researcher, these theories currently underpin the philosophical ideals of the subject and have far-reaching implications in shaping a more complex understanding of leadership as a discipline and have given many insights into questions such as what character traits define a leader and what constitutes excellent leadership practices. All activities of organizations, public or private, religious or the family, are impacted either directly or indirectly by the established principles associated with leadership. Organizational goals and objectives are accomplished through someone taking the lead and responsibility for influencing and directing people and activities and irrespective of whether such leadership is prudent or otherwise it does have significant implications and continues to be the cornerstone of man’s development or downfall.

2.8 Introduction to Leadership Styles

Leadership style is the manner and approach of providing direction, implementing plans, and motivating people (Lewin, Lippet & White, 1939). Lewin led this group of researchers to identify different styles of leadership. This early study has been very influential and established three major leadership styles, authoritarian, participative, and delegating. These styles of leadership have broadened over the years. The following studies have incorporated some aspect of these foundational leadership styles in an effort to aid principals in the development of leadership styles conducive to current educational systems. The literature on leadership styles (Hershey & Blanchard, 1977; Sergiovanni, 1995) provides some important clues on principal leadership styles. These leadership theorists argue that leadership style is a relatively
fixed construct for an individual and that while some individuals may have the capacity to lead using more than one style, leadership style flexibility is not characteristic of all leaders (Waters, 2004). While Fiedler (1974) and Hershey & Blanchard (1977) believe less in leader’s capacity to vary their styles, Sergiovanni (1991) proposes that under certain conditions individuals could adapt their leadership style to differing situations.

Blake & Mouton developed the Managerial Leadership Grid (1964) which was designed to explain how leaders help organizations to reach their purposes through two factors: concern for production and concern for people. Even though concern for production primarily refers to how a leader is concerned with achieving organizational tasks, it can refer to whatever the organization is seeking to accomplish (Blake & Mouton, 1964). The second factor, concern for people refers to how a leader attends to the people in an organization who are trying to achieve its goals.

Although many research studies can be categorised under the heading of the leadership style approach, the Ohio State and Michigan studies of the late 1940s, and the studies by Blake & Mouton (1964, 1978, and 1985) are strongly representative of this approach. In the Ohio study, subordinates completed questionnaires that identified how many times their leaders engaged in certain types of behaviours by using the Leader Behaviour Description Questionnaire, and a new form of the questionnaire by Stodgill (1974) called the LBDQ-XII. The researchers found that subordinates clustered around two general types of leadership behaviours: initiating, which were task behaviours, and consideration (Stodgill, 1974), which were relationship behaviours.
The University of Michigan studies, while focusing on the impact of leaders’ behaviours on the performance of small groups, identified two types of leadership behaviours. One, employee-orientation, is the behaviour of leaders who approach subordinates with a strong human relations emphasis. The second, production-orientation, consists of leadership that stresses the technical and production aspects of the job. From this orientation, workers are viewed as a means for getting work accomplished (Bowers & Seashore, 1966).

Huffman & Jacobson (2003) conducted a study to determine the relationship between teachers’ perceptions of their schools as professional learning communities and the leadership style of their principals (Williams, 2006). The subjects of the study were eighty-three prospective principals enrolled in an education administration course at a Texas university. Each subject identified his/her principal as having one of three possible leadership styles:

- Directive
- Collaborative
- Non-directive.

Participants in the research rated collaborative-style principals as more supportive of two key measures of professional learning communities:

- **Contribution** – providing a safe environment for diverse ideas, beliefs and strategies, and
- **Conscience** – being an organization guided by positive principles, ethics, and values.
Huffman & Jacobsons (2003) draw on research on principals in New Brunswick and use decision-making as a measure of leadership style (Williams, 2006). The collaborative style is only one of several possible leadership approaches. In this research the collaborative style was labelled as the conceptual style. The directive style described by Huffman & Jacobson (2003) was expanded to include a directive and an analytical style. Huffman & Jacobson (2003) describe the laissez-faire style that shares some characteristics with the behavioural style in this research. In addition, this particular research helped researchers realise that all leaders are not alike. This is an important point because the literature on school reform seldom considers the different leadership styles that principals bring to their positions (Williams, 2006).

After examining sixty nine studies in a meta-analysis, Marzano, Waters & McNulty (2005:42-43), found twenty one categories of leadership behaviours that were positively correlated to learner achievement. According to the authors these behaviours, referred to as responsibilities, will provide new insights into the nature of school leadership. These twenty one behaviours are as follows:

1. **Affirmation**- the extent to which the leader recognises and celebrates school accomplishments and acknowledges failures.

2. **Change Agent**- a willingness to change and actively challenge the status quo.

3. **Contingent Rewards**- recognizing and rewarding individual accomplishments.

4. **Communication**- the ability to establish strong lines of communication with and among teachers and learners.
5. **Culture** - fostering shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.

6. **Discipline** - protecting teachers from issues and influences that would detract their teaching time or focus.

7. **Flexibility** – adapts his or her leadership behaviour to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.

8. **Focus** – establishes clear goals and keep those goals in the forefront of the schools’ attention.

9. **Ideals/Beliefs** – communicates and operates from strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.

10. **Input** – involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.

11. **Intellectual Stimulation** – ensures faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a regular aspects of the schools’ climate.

12. **Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment** – is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.

13. **Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment** – is knowledgeable about current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.

14. **Monitoring/Evaluating** – monitors the effectiveness of school practices and
their impact on learner learning.

15. **Optimizer** – inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.

16. **Order** – establishes and sets a standard operating procedures and routines.

17. **Outreach** – is an advocate and a spokesperson for all the school stakeholders.

18. **Relationships** – demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.

19. **Resources** – provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.

20. **Situational Awareness** – is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.

21. **Visibility** – has quality contact and interactions with teachers and learners.

Every school leader has a style of leadership. One style promoted in the business world and in religious organizations is servant leadership (Spears & Lawrence, 2002). Servant leadership emphasises service to others over self-interest and self-promotion. Servant leaders attempt to enhance the personal growth of organization members and improve the organization through a combination of teamwork, shared decision-making and ethical, caring behaviour (Spears, 1995). This leadership style contrasts with traditional conceptions of leadership based on power and authority. The term servant leadership is attributed to Robert Greenleaf (1991), who believed that effective
leadership comes from the desire to serve others. Greenleaf (1991) described servant leadership as a style of leadership that begins with the natural feeling that one wants to serve, to serve first. Then conscious choice brings one to aspire to lead. The difference manifests itself in the care taken by the servant first to make sure that other people’s highest priority needs are being served.

According to Stone & Patterson (2004), the overriding focus of servant leaders is on service to their followers. The extent to which leaders are able to shift the primary focus of their leadership from the organization to the follower is the distinguishing factor in determining whether the leader may be a transformational or servant leader. There is greater emphasis on service of and to followers in the servant leadership paradigm. Servant leaders gain influence in a non-traditional manner that derives from servanthood itself (Russell & Stone, 2002). Leaders, in this case, allow more freedom for their followers to develop and exercise their own abilities. Most importantly, leaders place a high degree of trust in their followers. Stone & Patterson's (2005) research has led to a servant leadership model encompassing seven virtuous constructs exhibited as behaviours by a servant leader and their interaction. These seven behaviours are agape love, humility, altruism, vision, trust, empowerment, and service. These virtues become constructs when activated within the context of servant leadership behaviours (2005).

Even though the term servant leadership is attributed to Greenleaf (1970: 37) idea on servant leadership comes from a 2000 year old philosophy that appears to be the foundation for this unique type of leadership. A success in building a billion-dollar African-American company in 2000, the author believed that good leadership is serving
others by placing the needs of his employees above his own. Much of his leadership style is centred on coaching, advising, and coaching subordinates while providing them with related training and development so that their careers can be enhanced. Ultimately, his intention was that his subordinates will grow and realize their full potential.

Stewart bases this management philosophy on the biblical passage (Mark 10:43-45, New International Version):

> Not so with you. Instead, whoever wants to become great among you must be your servant, and whoever wants to be first must be slave of all. For even the Son of Man did not come to be served, but to serve, and to give his life as a ransom for many.

These instructions that Jesus gave to his twelve disciples may be used by principals to inspire their subordinates to do their best. Similarly, Stone, G. & Patterson, K (2005) also believes that servant leadership thrives on serving subordinates. According to Bethel, if leadership serves only the leader, it will fail. She adds that true leadership comes only when service for a common good is the primary purpose. In other words, leaders should understand that good leadership and serving others are synonymous.

Mendel, Watson & MacGregor (2002) found, based on teachers’ perceptions, that the majority of principals practice a collaborative leadership style. These collaborative principals also contribute to the highest average scores on positive school climate. Based on this study, collaborative leadership is the most desirable style to help contribute to a positive school climate. On the contrary, in research conducted by Bulach, Boothe & Pickett (1998), one of the major complaints from teachers regarding
school climate is about principals who use ‘I’ and ‘my’ too frequently. They communicate the impression that they own the teachers and the building. Some teachers resent this immensely, so principals are urged to substitute the pronouns ‘we’ and ‘our’ when talking about their teachers or school (Bulach et al., 1998).

Marzano, Waters & McNulty (2005), introduced an interesting leadership style that dealt with situational awareness which addresses leaders’ awareness of details and the undercurrents regarding the functioning of the school and their use of information to address current and potential problems. Deering, Dilts & Russell (2003) describe this responsibility as anticipatory leadership. Recommendations are made for principals to identify clues of coming opportunities and hints about emerging threats. With the openness and mental agility of truly anticipatory leadership throughout the organization, the organization is well positioned to survive and prosper. To illustrate, the principal demonstrates the responsibility of situational awareness when s/he studies adequate yearly progress data in an attempt to identify problems that may occur with the scheduling of remedial classes.

Learner-centred leadership is another type of leadership style that involves a balance between the professional norms and personal dispositions of educators, with the larger good as defined by a learning community (Danzig & Wright, 2002). It involves changing the major source of inspiration for educational leadership away from management and towards education and learning. Murphy (2002) proposes a role for leadership which entails developing a learning community, one in which greater attention is needed to promote an atmosphere of inquiry with greater focus on collaboration and shared decision making.
As more and more women attained positions of leadership, questions whether they lead in a different manner than men and whether men or women are more effective as leaders have garnered great attention. According to research conducted by Zepp, Eckstein, Khalid & Li (2009) the choice of leadership styles and behaviours in highly masculine cultures should depend on leaders who are dependable, consistent, and broad-minded, while the traits of intelligence and confidence are less important than in more feminine cultures. Likewise behaviours should differ. A leader in a highly masculine culture should focus on showing respect to subordinates and pushing them to higher performance, while in a feminine culture, the leader should emphasize morality and the well-being of the subordinates (2009).

The findings of a study conducted by Johnson, Busch & Slate (2008) regarding male and female leadership behaviour revealed that males are more directive and authoritative whereas females prefer leadership through suggestion accompanied by a strong democratic style in an agreeable and deferential manner. Both male and female principals prefer to act on a high energy level while working to capacity in an industrious and physically active manner – females prefer an even higher level of activity. Both males and females also seem to consider the well-being of others, emphasizing values and the importance of the team while exhibiting cooperative and well-intentioned behaviour (Johnson, Busch & Slate, 2008).

According to Johnson, Busch & Slate (2008), empirical research supports small differences in leadership style and effectiveness between men and women. Women experience slight effectiveness disadvantages in masculine leadership roles, whereas more feminine roles offer them some advantages. In addition, Fondas (1997) observes
that women exceed men in the use of democratic or participatory styles, and they are more likely to use transformational leadership behaviours and contingent reward, styles that are associated with contemporary notions of effective leadership.

According to the researcher, these theories currently underpin the philosophical ideals of the subject and have far-reaching implications in shaping a more complex understanding of leadership as a discipline and have given many insights into questions such as what character traits define a leader and what constitutes excellent leadership practices. All activities of organizations public or private, religious or the family, are impacted either directly or indirectly by the established principles associated with leadership. Organizational goals and objectives are accomplished through someone taking the lead and responsibility for influencing and directing people and activities, and irrespective of whether such leadership is prudent or otherwise it does have significant implications and continues to be the cornerstone of humanity’s development or its downfall. For this qualitative study the researcher highlighted the following leadership styles.

2.8.1 Authoritative Leadership Style

Vibrant enthusiasm and clear vision are the hallmarks of the authoritative style. This leadership style, research has shown, drove up every aspect of the organizational climate. This leader motivates people by making it clear to them how their work fits into the larger vision of the organization. People understand that what they do matters and why, thus maximizing commitment to the organization’s goals and strategies. The standards for success and the rewards are clear, but people have great
freedom to innovate and flexibility in accomplishing the goals. This style works well in almost any business situation. It works best when the organization is adrift and the authoritative leader charts a new vision. A limitation is if the leader works with a group of experts or peers who are more experienced. They may see the leader as pompous or out of touch. If the leader becomes overbearing, s/he may undermine the egalitarian spirit of the team (Gewirtz, 2002).

2.8.2 Directive Leadership Style

Directive leadership engenders telling followers what needs to be done and giving appropriate guidance along the way. This includes giving them schedules of specific work to be done at specific times. Rewards may also be increased as needed and role ambiguity decreased (by telling them what they should be doing). This may be used when the task is unstructured and complex and the follower is inexperienced. This increases the follower's sense of security and control, and hence is appropriate to the situation (Kouzes & Posner, B., 2002).

2.8.3 Democratic Leadership Style

With this style, spending time getting people’s buy-in, the leader builds trust, respect and commitment. Because the democratic leader affords people a say in decisions that affect their goals and how they do their work, it drives up flexibility, responsibility and keeps morale high. Its impact on climate is not as positive as some of the other styles. Its drawbacks are the endless meetings, where consensus remains elusive and people can end up feeling confused and leaderless. This style works best when the leader is uncertain about direction and needs guidance or fresh ideas for executing the
vision. In times of crises, consensus may not be effective (Gewirtz, 2002).

2.8.4 Supportive Leadership Style

Supportive leadership style is more of a relationship-oriented style. It requires the leader to be approachable and friendly. S/he displays concern for the well-being and personal needs of the subordinates. S/he creates an emotionally supportive climate. This style is effective when subordinates lack self-confidence; work on dissatisfying or stressful tasks and when work does not provide job satisfaction (Hoy & Miskel, 2001).

2.8.5 Participative Leadership Style

The leader who employs this style consults with subordinates for ideas and takes their ideas seriously when making decisions. This style is effective when subordinates are well motivated and competent (Lussier & Achua, 2001).

2.8.6 Achievement-Oriented Leadership Style

In this style, the leader sets challenging, but achievable goals for the subordinates. S/he pushes work improvement, sets high expectations for subordinates and rewards them when the expectations are met. That is, the leader demonstrates both high directive (structure) and high supportive (consideration) behaviour. This style works well with achievement-oriented subordinates (Lussier & Achua, 2001:175).

2.8.7 Transformational Leadership Style

Transformational leadership is the buzz word in educational leadership today. This leadership style evolved from Marzano & McNulty (2005), who proposed a theory of
transformational leadership in his book, *Leadership*. Transformational leadership is a process in which leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of morality and motivation. According to him, transformational leadership is the favoured style of leadership given that it is assumed to produce results beyond expectations. Transformational leaders form a relationship of mutual stimulation and elevation that converts followers into leaders and may convert leaders into moral agents. In addition, the transformational leader articulates the vision in a clear and appealing manner, explains how to attain the vision, acts confidently and optimistically, expresses confidence in his followers, emphasizes values with symbolic actions, leads by example, and empowers followers to achieve the vision.

Bass (1998) gives four factors, also referred as the four Is of leadership, which characterize the behaviour of transformational leaders: individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence. Individual consideration is characterized by giving personal attention to members who seem neglected (Bass, 1998). Intellectual stimulation is characterized by enabling followers to think of old problems in new ways (Bass, 1998). Inspirational motivation is characterized by communicating high performance expectations (Bass, 1998). Lastly, idealized influence is characterized by modelling behaviour through exemplary personal achievements, character, and behaviour.

Regarding transformational leadership in education, (Bass, 1998) developed the transformational model of school leadership. He found that the four Is of transformational leadership are necessary for school principals if they are to meet the challenges of today’s schools. Each of the four Is of leadership, individual
consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence, might greatly impact a principal in building the foundation for a positive school climate. According to Bass (1998) transformational leaders achieve superior results from followers by engaging in one or more of the four Is.

Based on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), transformational leadership may work well in schools. The MLQ has been used for over a decade to test transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1998). Over time, this instrument has been refined. Analysts like Bass (1998) have concluded that transformational leaders receive higher ratings, are perceived as leading more effective organizations, and move followers to exceed expected performance further than transactional leaders.

Transformational leaders impact a school climate through their concern for subordinates. The leader considers the needs of others over his own, shares risk with followers, is consistent rather than arbitrary, demonstrates high standards of ethical and moral conduct, possesses and uses referent powers, and sets challenging goals for followers (Bass, 1998). The leader gets individuals’ team spirit and enthusiasm aroused. The leader clearly communicates expectations and personally demonstrates commitment to goals and the shared vision (Bass, 1998).

Bass (1998) suggest that it is important for transformational leaders to allow subordinates to become an integral component of the decision-making process in schools. Followers are included in the process of addressing problems and finding creative solutions, and are encouraged to try new approaches without fear of public criticisms because of mistakes made or due to a different approach from the leaders.
Under this type of leadership, teachers assume greater leadership roles and expanded authority, engage more in collegial relationships to share information and advice more frequently, and are involved in increased teamwork that serves as an integrative device for the school (Bass, 1998).

In a compilation of articles on leadership styles by library professionals, Bass (1998) highlights a conceptual framework for transformational leadership resulting from a meta-ethnographic analysis of the literature. Seven major themes that define a profile of transformational leadership are identified:

- **Creating a Vision**

  Transformational leaders paint an imaginary picture of the organization's potential future and share it with their followers, encouraging them to make it their own. When the vision is elevated to the level of the common good, both leader and led "raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality. Characteristics of shared vision include the ability to provide meaning, to inspire and excite, to inspire individuals to extra effort, to create a common sense of community and to view change as opportunity."
• **Communicating the Vision**

To be effective, vision must be shared with everyone in the organization through repeated communication. The transformational leader must clearly articulate the shared vision and must do so repeatedly. The vision is clarified and driven home through stories, analogies, symbols, ceremonies, rituals and traditions. Inspirational appeals are effective in persuading people of the importance of the vision. Transformational leaders give life to the spoken word by living the vision. Their actions are examined by followers who demand consistency with the spoken or written word.

• **Building Relationships**

Transformational leaders are approachable, friendly and informal. They are sincere in their invitation to engage in meaningful dialogue and two-way communication. These leaders frequently act as mentors, coaches and teachers to those with whom they share the vision. They emphasize recognition and reward, both formal and informal. They encourage social functions and professional development opportunities. All of these actions contribute to the development of trust between leader and follower.

• **Developing a Supportive Organizational Culture**

In order for leadership to thrive, a supportive organizational environment must be cultivated. Transformational leaders do this by treating people of diverse backgrounds with respect, distributing justice, correcting injustice, and acting with unfailing honesty and integrity. This is accomplished with constant communication and is institutionalized when others in the organization respond in the same way.
• **Guiding Implementation**

Transformational leaders shape the organization through their own actions and by personally guiding the implementation of the shared vision. They do this through leading strategic planning efforts, team building, innovating and setting high expectations for excellence with continuous quality improvement. They embrace the role of "servant leader" and enrich themselves by serving their own followers.

• **Exhibiting Character**

Transformational leaders exhibit character of the highest order, demonstrating honesty, integrity and unquestioned nobility of heart and mind. They exude self-confidence, passion, commitment and native intelligence. While they have many characteristics in common with charismatic leaders, they use their leadership more to advance the shared vision than to attract followers for their own sake. These leaders have a broad perspective that they demonstrate with a high degree of tolerance for ambiguity, and a healthy respect for organizational history and cultural sensitivity.

• **Achieving Results**

Transformational leaders are successful in achieving the shared vision. Those with whom they share the vision are moved to the highest levels of accomplishment and satisfaction. Leader and led are mutually perceived as increased in effectiveness and a higher level of performance (Bass, 1998).

Kouzes & Posner (1987, 2002) develop another perspective of transformation leadership. They developed this model by soliciting the perceptions of other leaders. According to this model consists of five fundamental practices that enable leaders to
get extraordinary things accomplished: model the way, inspire the shared vision, challenge the process, enable others to act, and encourage the heart.

### 2.8.8 Transactional Leadership Style

In the late 1970s, leadership theory research moved beyond focusing on various types of situational supervision as a way to incrementally improve organizational performance (Behling & McFillen, 1996). Research has shown that many leaders turned to a transactional leadership theory, the most prevalent method of leadership still observed in today’s organizations (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino, 1991). Transactional leaders lead through specific incentives and motivate through an exchange of one thing for another (Bass, 1990). The underlying theory of this leadership method was that leaders exchange rewards for employees’ compliance, a concept based on bureaucratic authority and a leader’s legitimacy within an organization (Yukl, 1998).

Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino (1991) suggest that transactional leadership focuses on ways to manage the status quo and maintain the day-to-day operations of a business, but does not focus on identifying the organization’s directional focus and how employees can work toward those goals, increasing their productivity in alignment with these goals, thus increasing organizational profitability. The idea of transactional leadership is near-sighted in that it does not take the entire situation, employee, or future of the organization into account when offering rewards (Crosby, 1996).

The underlying theory of this leadership method is that leaders exchange rewards for employees’ compliance, a concept based in bureaucratic authority and a leader’s
legitimacy within an organization (Yukl, 1998). Examples of this reward exchange included the leader’s ability to fulfil promises of recognition, pay increases, and advancements for employees who perform well (Bass, 1990). Transactional leadership is a theory considered to be value free; however, Heifetz (1994) contends that the values are simply covert.

2.8.9 Instructional Leadership Style

The shift toward instructional leadership started in the 1980s and was a response to the public’s desire that schools raise standards and improve the academic performance of learners (Resnick, L., 2002). The principal who was an instructional leader became the primary source of educational expertise in the building. The principal became responsible for managing the school and improving the teaching and learning in the building. The nature of instructional leadership was typically top-down because most principals set school goals.

The principal ‘led’ the faculty towards attainment of the goals as a means to school improvement. According to Resnick, L. (2002), however, the practices which defined an instructional leader were not achieved. Educational researchers have noted reasons and limitations of instructional leadership which help explain this failure to change schools. One major area of concern for scholars is the top-down nature of instructional leadership. School improvement is a complex and diffuse process so top-down leadership is not an effective mechanism to accomplish school change. The school improvement process is particularly difficult in secondary schools because the many specialized subject areas mean the principal lacks the curricular knowledge to
impact the teaching and learning. Another flaw in instructional leadership is that sometimes great leaders are not always great classroom teachers. The principal who is an instructional leader must have a solid grounding in teaching and learning. Some leaders do not have a vast knowledge base about teaching and learning, but are still able to improve schools (Resnick, L., 2002). In addition to these flaws in instructional leadership, the top-down approach of this leadership style did not blend well with the shift in the 1980s toward schools becoming more democratic institutions.

These issues with instructional leadership provided a type of foundational grounding for one of today’s more prevalent perspectives on leadership. That theory is transformational leadership. Resnick predicted that transformational leadership would subsume instructional leadership as the dominant leadership philosophy in schools. One of the major driving forces in the rise of transformational leadership was its ability to assist principals in coping with unplanned actions which are necessary for school reform.

2.9 Conclusion on Leadership Styles

According to the researcher, the type of a leader depends on his/her overall disposition. A leader will inherently have one or more of these leadership qualities. Hence, it’s essential that while looking for someone who will occupy the post of the leader, one should check the type of leader the organization really needs; otherwise it would be a futile exercise. In the above description of leadership styles, I have tried to set out some of the elements of a ‘classical’ view of leadership. I have seen how commentators have searched for special traits and behaviours and looked at different
situations where leaders work and emerge. Running through much of this is a set of beliefs that I can describe as a classical view of leadership where leaders:

- Tend to be identified by position.
- Are parts of the hierarchy.
- Become the focus for answers and solutions. We look to them when we do not know what to do, or when we cannot be bothered to work things out for ourselves.
- Give direction and have vision.
- Have special qualities setting them apart. These help to create the gap between leaders and followers.

This view of leadership sits quite comfortably with the forms of organization such as a school, where the desire is to get something done, to achieve a narrow range of objectives in a short period of time, and then it may make sense to think in this way. However, this has its weaknesses. Whilst some ‘classical’ leaders may have a more participative style, it is still just a style. A great deal of power remains in their hands and the opportunity for all to take responsibility and face larger questions is curtailed. As our awareness of our own place in the making of leadership grows, we may be less ready to hand our responsibilities to others.
DeCenzo & Robbins (1998) examined performance in relation to effectiveness and efficiency. According to them, effectiveness refers to goal accomplishment. For instance, a principal who takes over a stuck or a sinking school and who manages to rejuvenate it and improve performance might be referred to as an effective principal. Efficiency evaluates the ratio of inputs consumed to the output achieved. The greater the output for a given input, the more efficient you are. A principal who provides education to learners from a low socio-economic status and manages to provide them with good education (holistic education) ‘against all odds’ and with meagre resources so that they qualify for the next level may be referred to as an efficient principal. So in this case performance has been examined in terms of productivity (DeCenzo & Robbins, 1998). In addition, productivity, as measured in terms of efficiency and effectiveness, can also be used to describe an employee who not only performs well in terms of productivity, but also minimises problems for the organization by being at work on time, by not missing days and minimising loss. In summary, satisfactory performance implies a combination of many things. It means doing a job efficiently and effectively.

Defining educational performance is difficult and yet also essential. Certainly, it is not just academic achievement, but the social and emotional dimensions of the child’s overall development and the role of the school in the community (Genck, 1983). The arguments raised by the author seem to be true. There is a tendency for people to look at performance in terms of the cognitive development or academic achievement only. The researcher regards performance in the context of this study in terms of the
overall education outcomes. It is important for us to consider performance in terms of all three domains of education (affective, cognitive and the psychomotor domains). Therefore, a performing school should be able to score very well in all three domains, if it is to produce a holistic learner. Leithwood & Hopkins D (2006) concluded that learning is an unpredictable process. A teacher’s responsibility is to create conditions which enable a learner to generate significant outcomes for themselves. According to him, school performance should not only rely on academic results, but on the teaching and learning process. Similarly, Roberts J & Roach J (2006) contended that the school’s financial resources and the professional experience of its teachers are the two categories of school inputs that significantly contribute to its performance. He claimed that the above factors have a direct impact on the processes that determine the school’s performance. In addition, the nature of school leadership, teacher cooperation within the school and the school-level characteristics also affect the learner’s achievement directly or indirectly (e.g., the quality of instructions).

Genck (1983), on the other hand, identified the following as the characteristics of good school performance:

- Learner learning which entails academic progress and general development.

- Parent satisfaction, which entails sustaining public confidence, support and taking into consideration the learners opinions.

- Staff satisfaction, which has to do with programme quality and performance, working conditions, productivity and morale.
• Cost control which includes financial planning, management and control.

The pressure upon schools to improve and raise achievement is unlikely to recede over the next few years. Educationally, policy makers firmly focus upon securing increased learner and school performance (Harris & Bennett, 2001). Similarly, good performance in a school entails teaching consistently with diligence, honesty and regularity orchestrated by increased good results from learners, getting adequate written and practical exercises, ensuring effective marking, evaluating all exercises promptly and carefully observing regulations and instructions.

As international attention in the last decade or more has focused on calls for schools to improve performance in general, and to increase the equity of learner achievement in particular, so the debate around the role of school leaders in improving performance has intensified. New conceptions of leadership have been defined, and new polarities set up, as researchers strive to find the most appropriate combination of leadership qualities and activities to respond to heightened public expectations of schools. Thus, the notion of the principal as a charismatic individual who exercises authority in a hierarchical manner is counter posed to the concept of distributed leadership, where functions are shared by school managers and teachers; the term instructional leadership gives priority to the role of the principals in directing schools towards effective teaching and learning, while the concept of transformational leadership emphasises the function of leaders as agents of social change.

The loosely defined nature of many of these terms and the paucity of empirical evidence supporting claims made on their behalf (Leithwood et al., 2004) have moved
more than one commentator to adopt a rather jaundiced view of the leadership literature. For example, Levin (2006:43) notes the existence of a serious problem regarding the knowledge base on educational leadership:

There are many viewpoints in the field and very little solid research supporting them. Much of what parades as research is opinion garbed in the language of research.

According to Levin (2006:41):

Two of the challenges to leadership research ... were the complexity of the leadership phenomenon and the degree to which values and goals of authors, rather than the research evidence itself, dominate findings and recommendations.

Nevertheless, the importance of leadership to the success of schools is undeniable. In their evaluation of England’s National Literacy and Numeracy Strategy (NLS and NNS), which they judge to be one of the most ambitious and successful examples of large-scale school reform in the world to date, Leithwood et al. (2004) conclude that the nature and quality of leadership was a key reason for its success. Based on a large survey of English schools and case studies in 10 of these, the authors add a layer of complexity to some of the easy dichotomies frequently heralded in the literature: they conclude that transformational leadership can play an important role in school improvement, that such leadership may be widely distributed throughout the school, but that hierarchical and distributed forms of leadership both have important roles to play. Distributed leadership assumes a division of labour within the schooling system and allocates functions according to where and by whom they are best performed: the challenge for leadership in any complex system is communication and the coordination
of the component parts.

According to Leithwood et al. (2004), school principals perform three broad kinds of leadership functions in implementing the NLS and NSS: setting direction (and in particular fostering high expectations), redesigning the organization, and developing people. While leadership effects on student learning account for less of the variance than teacher effects, leadership creates the conditions under which teachers can work effectively: in other words, a school environment conducive to teaching and learning is a prerequisite for good school performance. In the words of Daresh J & Male T (2000), this entails fostering among teachers within a school a shared set of values and understanding about such matters as what they expect of learners academically, what constitutes good instructional practice, who is responsible for learner learning, and how individual learners and teachers account for their work and learning.

2.11 Measurement of School Performance

It is not adequate to discuss the effect of leadership on school performance without examining some indicators of school performance. These indicators help us to gain a better understanding of the relationship therein. The Oxford English Dictionary (2006) defines performance as the accomplishment and execution of tasks. The accomplishment of tasks, in the context of the academic function of schools, refers to academic excellence or efficiency, which is measured in terms of learner performance in class work, and national examinations. Teachers and learners or even principals of schools with the intention of positively transforming the academic culture of the school should aim to execute their tasks effectively. Effective school performance is
further conceived as the ability to produce desired education outcomes in relation to the school’s goals.

In the context of teaching, performance refers to the teacher’s ability to teach consistently with diligence, honesty, and regularity. To the learner, performance would mean excelling regularly in the examinations and class tasks. The researcher wishes to add, however, that the school’s performance should not only be viewed in terms of the academic rigour, but should also focus on other domains of education such as the affective and the psychomotor domains. A school that has all three domains should by all means be regarded as an effective school with a very good standard of performance. All this is only possible if the school’s principal focuses on the achievement of good results in all domains. Therefore, from this definition, one can deduce that the school’s performance is the response of the school to the needs of the stakeholders in terms of the education outcomes.

The focus of leadership on academic standards in the school will depend on the school’s dedication and commitment to effect academic changes in respect of the demands on the learners and the community at large. Focusing on teacher development initiatives is one of the ways in which academic standards can be maintained. The maintenance of this teacher development involves putting into place a leader who is committed to subordinate development (Christie P, 2010).

Furthermore, educationists have defined academic performance to include leader-led performance which is a means of getting the best academic results from the teams that constitute the HODs, policy makers who are responsible for controlling and
monitoring school performance, the teachers, learners and the parents. These should
conform, lastly, to the schools' goals and objectives. In order to achieve this
performance, the focus should be on the teaching process, examinations, tests and
exercises, the availability of instructional materials, discipline and respect for the
school's culture. Christie P (2010) believes that performance is something the person
regards as an outcome of work, because they provide the strongest link to the
strategic goals of the organization, customer satisfaction, economic and social
contributions. To sum up, effective performance is concerned with results that impact
on societal and organizational needs. The school principal's leadership efforts are the
cause of increased academic performance outcomes punctuated by the strongest
regard for the schools' goals. It is thus apparent that effective school performance
cannot be realized without authentic contributions from the school's heads because
they are the backbone of the school system. They have the powers to influence the
outcome of events.

2.12 The Role of Principals in Effective School Management and Performance

Successful implementation of these functions of the principals will depend on the form
of leadership and leadership style, the principals adopt. In terms of the form of
leadership, the principals can decide to distribute leadership to his deputies and HODs
as well as by promoting teacher leadership by empowering his teachers. The principals
manage tasks professionally which include (Tekamura, 2008):

- Setting achievable objectives for education,
- Seizing new opportunities and coping with change,
• Maintaining a committed staff and managing effective teams,

• Developing an effective communication system,

• Allocating and managing resources effectively,

• Participating effectively,

• Staff management, managing time effectively, and

• Evaluating the school curriculum.

Schools, as learning organizations, deserve to be led well and effectively. Principals need to be effective leaders if schools are to be good and effective. The principals should possess all good attributes of leaders and good quality leaders. Oyetunyi (2006) asserts that leadership matters because effective leaders make a difference in people’s lives; they empower followers and teach them how to make meaning by taking appropriate actions that can facilitate change. The findings of Quinn’s (2002) study on the relationship between principals’ leadership behaviour and instructional practices, supports the notion that leadership impacts on instruction and performance. Its findings indicate that the principal’s leadership is crucial in creating a school that value and ultimately strives to achieve academic excellence for students. Christie P (2010) research findings indicate that principals’ effective leadership can significantly boost learners’ achievement.

The ability of the principals to relate to the teachers, to enable them to act and to
improve organizational performance is critical for the smooth and effective operation of a school. Principals should motivate and encourage all staff members to feel that they are part of a team with a common mission. A good team is one that works in an atmosphere of mutual trust and concern for performance. The leader shares and delegates responsibility and ensures that individuals are not afraid to take initiatives and actions as needed.

Christie P (2010) asserts that principals are the answer to a school’s general development and improvement in the academic standard in that an effective principal creates an environment that stimulates enthusiasm for learning. This implies that if the principal is effective and uses an appropriate leadership style, s/he will create a positive learning atmosphere and inspire the staff to give off their best. The principal should involve the learners in developing a reasonable code of discipline.

The learners and their parents need to be brought on board by the principals to appreciate the vision and aspirations of their country, the ethics and values of the community and the school vision, mission and motto. Proper financial management is important for the development and performance of the school as a whole. Since the principals are pivotal in this process they need to put into place and implement a proper system for control and management of the financial resources. But above all, the principals need to ensure that there is transparency and accountability for the use of resources. Most of the aspects are directly related to the principal’s style of leadership/management. The role and proper functioning of the school governing bodies also depends heavily on the leadership style of the principals. When the governing bodies function well, the school is well supervised and performs well.
The governing bodies play an important role in the governance and management of the school for several reasons which include, but are not limited to, the following: liaising with the head teachers in upholding the culture of the school, maintaining school ethics and discipline and management of school funds, management of the general welfare of the school’s staff and learners, soliciting support for the school from the community and developing the quality and standards of education.

2.13 Models of School Performance

The nature of academic performance can be based on two models, that is, the holistic and the integrative models.

- **Holistic Model**
  
  Armstrong’s (2001) holistic approach to academic performance is helpful in exploring a comprehensive view of the constituents of academic performance. The holistic theory focuses on what people do (work), how they do it (behaviour), and what is achieved (results). In the context of leadership, an effective leader dedicates himself to knowing the academic task, how to accomplish it, and the results expected. Hence, he directs his effort and legitimate power towards addressing these elements for effective academic performance according to the holistic theory.

- **Integrative Model**
  
  The integrative model, on the other hand, examines how academic performance is integrated into the way the school is managed, and should link with other key processes such as the business strategy, employee development, and total quality
management processes in institutional development. This simply suggests that struggling to achieve academic excellence should be tied to other management efforts like teacher and school development. Academic performance can be linked to school inputs like the availability of funds, quality of teachers, learners’ entry scores, the education policy and strategy. In addition, it relates to the process of achieving academic performance in terms of parents’ participation and other stakeholders’ involvement. Declining school performance is not usually identified by the inadequacy of traditional school administrative practices to meet today’s requirements. There is a tendency to link the causes to the techniques and materials. People seldom attribute the causes to the human related aspects of school management, and the impact of these on the people involved - teachers, administrators, parents, the school board and learners (Genck, 1983).

2.14 Institutional Leadership in Context

In order to understand the concept of leadership styles in secondary school management, there is a need to understand the term ‘institutional leadership’ uniquely from leadership associated with other organizational entities. The term institutional leadership can best be understood from the perspective of what a school head as a leader does to lead (Adair, 1983). It can also best be understood by linking it to the purpose of leadership in an institution. Leadership in an institution can be perceived as the ability, through whatever means, to influence, direct and empower teachers, parents and students, to behave in a particular way perceived as desirable by the institution. In order to bring about positive increments in school performance, the following institutional elements should prevail:
• The leader should adapt the school’s purpose towards the attainment of a culture of academic excellence. This requires a sense of purpose and confidence engendered in followers.

• The followers (teachers, parents, learners) should be motivated and encouraged to achieve institutional goals.

It is thus apparent that institutional leadership is nested in the feelings and actions of the teachers, students, parents and workers and in the achievement of the institutional goals (Adair, 1983). Effective leadership is thus pivotal to institutional success. The institutional head needs influence, power, and the ability to use concepts to coordinate all school functions and resources towards excellence in academics. S/he does this through his/her ability to galvanize the efforts of followers, and always creates new ideas for the group. According to Adair (1983), creating as a function of leadership, supplies, valuable ideas, products, services, and methods for the institution to use in order to identify better means of achieving its goals and objectives. This will depend on creativity, planning, coordination and motivation. Without these aspects schools will neither excel in academic performance nor in other spheres. The school that fails to take creative leadership into account does so at its own peril, because it ignores the fact that a leader is made by creativity borne from the styles used. The absence of proper planning, coordination, creativity and motivation will thus ultimately lead to mediocre performance because these are the pillars of the management of schools.

It is imperative to note that the study of leadership is also a comparative analysis of
different geographical experiences around the developed as well as the developing world. Since the beginnings of principalship in American education, educators have struggled to define a distinctive role of the position as school head teacher/leader. Scholars and analysts have repeatedly dissected the job in the larger social and educational context, urging principals in one generation to be task-oriented and in another to be employee-oriented and yet in another situational leaders (Adair, 1983). The lesson learnt here is that in the American education system, the leadership perspective changed from time to time resulting in new perceptions of the essence of leadership. However, the development of leadership from one generation to another provides educationists in South Africa with varied forms of the leadership approach that school heads could implement to improve academic performance and discipline in their school systems.

Like in South African schools, principals in American schools serve as leaders in learner learning. They must know academic content and pedagogical techniques. They must work with teachers to strengthen skills because leadership is about the provision of supportive systems. It is also important to indicate that most American systems adopt the democratic style of leadership, which involves subordinates in real decision-making. Historically, Odaet (2000) argues that during the Middle Ages people migrated from Europe to the new found lands of America. These new migrants became part of the founders of the American education system, which depended on the community aspect in education. It was meant to be free, involving, and democratic in character. This is why democratic thinking traverses boundaries in American schools.
2.15 Leadership and Performance

2.14.1 Autocratic Leadership and Performance

This part of the thesis examines the relationship between the autocratic leadership style and school performance in schools. Dubrin (1998) described autocratic leadership style as a style where the manager retains most authority for him/herself and makes decisions with a view to ensuring that the staff implements it. S/he is not bothered about attitudes of the staff towards a decision. S/he is rather concerned about getting the task done. S/he tells the staff what to do and how to do it, asserts him/herself and serves as an example for the staff. This style is viewed as task-oriented (Dubrin, 1998).

Autocratic leaders are generally disliked, as there is no scope for initiative, consideration, and self-development on the part of followers. Teachers and learners, for example, whose school principals employ the autocratic leadership style, remain insecure and afraid of the leadership authority. This eventually reduces their ability to explore their potential. This style is typical of a leader who tells his employees what he wants done and how he wants it done, without requesting the input/advice of his subordinates. Some people tend to perceive this style as a vehicle for yelling, using demeaning language, and leading by threats and abusing their power. However, under certain conditions the autocratic leadership style is appropriate, especially when one has all the information to solve the problem, when one has little time, and when employees are well motivated.

In the case of schools where autocratic leadership is practised, its application is most
likely to be characterised by arbitrary advances, arbitrary disciplinary measures, and termination of services. The effect has always been dissatisfaction with work on the part of the employees. Mullins (2002) argues that autocratic leaders in schools are more concerned with despotic influence in order to get the job accomplished rather than with the development and growth of subordinates. As far as they are concerned the work and the accomplishment of the goals of academic success matter more than their concern for those being led.

Autocratic leaders create a situation where subordinates who do not want to realise the importance of work are forcefully led to work (Mullins, 2002). According to Mullins (2002) autocratic leaders supervise subordinates very closely to ensure compliance and the completion of work in the designated time. Leadership is meant to be effective even where the situation seems harsh so as to drive organizational intentions towards goal achievement. Principals generally emphasise it, since it reaps results very quickly, as subordinates work under pressure to meet deadlines. Other studies by Mullins (2002), however, note that principals, who use authority to get things done, are too strict in the formality by which things are done. This hinders teacher creativity, especially in instances where creativity and planning are imperative to anchor the academic programme in schools.

2.15.2 Democratic Leadership and Performance

Decentralisation of authority, participatory planning and mutual communication are some of the main features of democratic leadership. However, as Oyetunyi (2006) points out, the major focus is sharing - the manager shares decision-making with the
subordinates. Even though s/he invites contributions from the subordinates before making a decision, s/he retains the final authority to make decisions (consultative). The manager may also seek discussion and agreement with teachers over an issue before a decision is taken (consensus). S/he may allow the subordinates to take a vote on an issue before a decision is taken (democratic). S/he coaches subordinates and negotiates their demands (Dubrin, 1998).

This type of leadership is viewed as an important aspect of empowerment, teamwork and collaboration. It has been observed that a school is more effective when those who are affected by the organization’s decisions are fully involved in the decision-making process. Good as it is, the concern expressed by Dubrin (1998) is that the participative style of leadership wastes time due to endless meetings and may lead to confusion and lack of direction. By implication, it is not appropriate for use in times of crisis when the situation demands on-the-spot decision (Oyetunyi, 2006). However, unlike the laissez-faire style, the leader adopting this style maintains the final decision-making authority. Using this style is not a sign of weakness; rather it is a sign of strength that one respects the employees’ ways of doing things. Using this style is of mutual benefit as it allows staff to become part of the team and allows one to make better decisions.

David T. G (2007) argues that effective democratic and participatory school administration and leadership affect the trust levels of stakeholders. David’s (2007) study focused on a survey of the effectiveness of democratic and participatory school administration and management in one school division in the Philippines. Indicators of participatory school administration, leadership and management effectiveness,
according to David’s study, correlated with the stakeholders’ level of trust. The study suggested that school leaders wishing to enhance the levels of trust among the stakeholders in their schools should consider these indicators, pertaining to the participatory or democratic leadership approach, in carrying out their leadership duties and responsibilities. The implication of this study is that just like in the Philippines, they engage subordinates, parents, learners and the community in the decision making process.

As pointed out by Kouznes & Posner (2003), school principals know that no one does his/her best when feeling weak, incompetent or alienated; they know that those who are expected to produce the results must feel a sense of ownership. In order for a school to provide quality education, those who have been empowered to lead the transformation of the schools to address the challenges of the new millennium should carefully nurture democratic leadership. Democratic leadership can be effectively utilised to extract the best from people and the most effective and efficient educational climate can be created in a school when democracy is employed. The democratic leadership practices in schools outline procedures to develop and use the potential of all the stakeholders of a school in order to create and foster quality education. The principles of democratic leadership are flexibly applied in order to create a climate in which all stakeholders are able to express themselves freely and hence feel that they are part of the democratic decision-making process. Stakeholders need to feel that they are able to have an influence over what should happen at the school rather than to be subjected to the decisions of those placed in positions of hierarchical power (Kouznes & Posner, 2003).
2.15.3  Laissez-Faire Leadership and Performance

The manager delegates almost all authority and control to subordinates. There is no person of authority in the organization. The manager leads the organization indirectly, s/he does not make decisions; rather s/he abides by popular decisions. There is no setting of goals and objectives by the manager. Tasks are done the way the manager thinks it should be done, but s/he gets involved on request and this may lead to the digression from broad organizational policy. Thus, this style of leadership may be effective with well-motivated and experienced employees (Dubrin, 1998), but could lead to failure when subordinates are deceptive, unreliable and untrustworthy.

2.15.4  Situational Leadership and Performance

The situational theory of leadership presupposes that an analysis of leadership not only involves the individual traits and behavioural approaches to leadership, but also focuses on the situation (Chandan, 2004). The focus is often on the situation and not the leader. Different kinds of situations demand different characteristics and behaviours, because each type of leader faces different situations. The principal is required to size up the situation and choose the appropriate leadership style that will be effective for a situation, rather than try to manipulate situations to fit a particular leadership style. Oyetunyi (2006) quoted Dunklee (2000) who claimed that leadership in schools is a situational phenomenon as it is based on the collective perception of people working in the schools, linked to the norms and affected by the rate of interaction among members of the school. A successful principal under one set of circumstances may be unsuccessful and/or a failure in another.
Chandan (2004) asserted that leadership is the leader’s ability to handle a given situation and is based upon the leader’s skill in that particular area that is pertinent to the situation. The person most likely to act as a leader is the one who is most competent for the situation of a given group as the case may be. The nature of the situation dictates the style of leadership because leadership success is dependent on the ability of a leader to fit in the prevailing situation. According to Leithwood & Hopkins D (2006) primary propositions of situational leaders in schools. Firstly the leadership employed by an individual is relative to the situation and, secondly, different situations warrant different kinds of behaviours from the school leaders/managers. Therefore, several principals of schools posted from first class schools to third class ones may fail to make the latter school successful, not because they are incompetent, but because the situations are different and require different approaches. It requires a complete change in leadership style in order to lead the new group, people, resources and processes. Leadership effectiveness cannot be determined without understanding the total situation, including the follower’s traits such as abilities and education, structural configuration of the school, role definitions, and internal and external environmental conditions.

Mullins (2002) points out two fundamental generalisations that emerge from the above set of characteristics. Firstly, the properties of the situation combined with the traits of the leader to produce behaviour on the part of the leader are related to leadership effectiveness. Secondly, the characteristics of the situation have a direct impact on performance. The situation, for example, combines the teachers’ attitudes, education, knowledge, experience, responsibility and power. It is also important to
know the nature of the teacher, if effectiveness is to be accomplished. This is because, as Okumbe (1998) observes, different situations breed different staff personalities and traits. The gimmicks of the situational leader require that a particular situation may require an authoritarian leader whilst another may require a totally democratic leader.

Further still, Okumbe (1998) notes that the kind of situation needed to define the leader may depend on the school culture in terms of the vision, mission, openness, participation, group atmosphere, values and norms. It is imperative to note that school principals need to understand the values and norms of the schools which they are leading and the level of participation of members. Therefore, to exercise effective leadership the principal of the school will need to influence the teachers, parents, learners and the community.

Under the Tannenbaum and Schmidt Leadership Continuum model (Oyetunyi, 2006), a leader may influence his/her followers in two ways. It is believed that a leader may either influence his/her followers by telling them what to do and how to do it or by involving them in planning and the execution of the task. Tannenbaum and Schmidt’s (1973) Leadership Continuum is one of the most significant situational approaches to leadership. They suggested how managers could choose a leadership pattern from a range of leadership styles. The choice is made along a continuum of boss-centred versus employee-centred and autocratic-participative-free-rein leadership. For the leader to choose the most appropriate style, s/he needs to consider certain forces in the manager, the subordinates and the situation (Oyetunyi, 2006).
2.16 Summary

This chapter was a presentation of the review of the literature relating to leadership styles and school performance. In this review, the researcher traced the evolution and trends of leadership in recent times. An analysis of leadership approaches, models and theories was also presented. From the different models and theories, several leadership styles were examined. The review of the literature illustrated that empowering, enabling, informing, inspiring and sharing of vision between the leader and his/her subordinates enhance organizational performance. Although there are many ways of examining leadership styles as there are leadership styles, for the purposes of this study the focus was on the four leadership styles: autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire and situational. It is also imperative to note that the theories of leadership have built up around themselves a series of assumptions and biases. This chapter also focused on the role of principals as the administrative and managerial leaders of schools, and the leadership styles employed by them for effective management and performance of schools. Chapter 3 will focus on the research design and methodology adopted for the purpose of this study.
CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the methods and procedures of data collection and analysis are presented. This is followed by focusing on the research design, population under investigation, sample size and sampling techniques, data collection methods and instruments, measures used to ensure validity and reliability of the instruments, research procedures, methods of data analysis and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Design

3.2.1 The Concept

Broadly conceived, a research design refers to the plan and schedule of work, or a process of creating an empirical test to support or reject a knowledge claim (Ball & Gall, 1989). A research design is the programme that guides an investigator on the process of collecting, analysing and interpreting observations. It is a logical model of methodological proof for a researcher to draw inferences from the data, and later on to define the domain of generalisability of the same findings (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 1996). Nconco (2006:63) defines research design as a:

Blueprint or detailed plan for how a research study is to be conducted-operationalising variables so that they can be measured, selecting a sample of interest to study, collecting data to be used as a basis for testing a hypothesis, and analysing results.
The qualitative approach refers to the more descriptive methods of data management which are mainly employed to manage the analysis of interview data and secondary sources. Qualitative research develops an understanding of the individuals and events in their natural setting, taking into account the relevant context (Borg & Borg, 1993). This is also in agreement with Nconco’s assertion that qualitative research is an important part of contextual analysis for the purposes of penetrating beyond the facts and the figures about institutions (Nconco, 2006:64). Qualitative methods raise methodological and ethical issues pertaining to the influence of the researcher on the data collected and the informants. The aim of this research study was to investigate the relationship between the leadership styles of principals and school performance. By visiting the schools physically and through qualitative research, the purpose of the researcher to ascertain the extent to which the whole school and indeed the school performance were affected by the leadership style of the school principal.

3.2.2 The Research Approach

Qualitative research is concerned with non-statistical methods of inquiry and analysis of social phenomena. It draws on an inductive process in which themes and categories emerge through analysis of data collected by such techniques as interviews, observations, videotapes/audiotapes, and case studies. Samples are usually small and often purposively selected. Qualitative research uses detailed descriptions from the perspective of the research participants themselves as a means of examining specific issues and problems under study. A number of advantages of qualitative methodologies for social work have been noted in the literature. Descriptive, inductive, and unobtrusive techniques for data collection are viewed as compatible
with the knowledge and values of the social work profession. Situations in which social workers are faced with issues and problems that are not readily amenable to quantitative examination and, as such, qualitative methods have been advocated. The social–psychological bases of qualitative research suggest that it is compatible with the person-in-environment paradigm of social work practice (Creswell, 1994).

Creswell (1994) suggested that qualitative approaches are similar in method to clinical social work assessments. Clinicians rely on interviews to gather data on a client's issues in the context of the environment. A clinician goes over a series of hunches and working hypotheses that are based on observations made through ongoing contact with the client. Qualitative researchers, like clinicians, are trained to look at each case individually, without imposing preconceived notions or attempting to generalise to all clients having a particular problem. Qualitative researchers maintain field notes and documents on their research, just as clinicians keep running accounts of contact with a client in the form of process recordings or case records.

In studies of social processes of complex human systems such as families, organizations, and communities, qualitative methodology may be the most appropriate research strategy Creswell (1994). Scholars of the family now extol the benefits of qualitative methodologies in gaining Verstehen\(^1\), or understanding, of the dynamic processes, meanings, communication patterns, experiences, and individual and family constructions of reality. Field settings and social service agencies provide unique opportunities for the qualitative study of social processes.

Qualitative approaches also have the advantages of flexibility, in-depth analysis, and the potential to observe a variety of aspects of a social situation (Creswell, 1994). A qualitative researcher conducting a face-to-face interview can quickly adjust the interview schedule if the interviewee's responses suggest the need for additional probes or lines of inquiry in future interviews. Moreover, by developing and using questions on the spot, a qualitative researcher can gain a more in-depth understanding of the respondent's beliefs, attitudes, or situation. During the course of an interview or observation, a researcher is able to note changes in bodily expression, mood, voice intonation, and environmental factors that might influence the interviewee's responses. Such observational data can be of particular value when a respondent's body language runs counter to the verbal response given to an interview question.

Leadership scholars seeking to answer questions about culture and meaning have found experimental and quantitative methods to be insufficient on their own in explaining the phenomena they wish to study. As a result, qualitative research has gained momentum as a mode of inquiry. Creswell (1994) defines qualitative research as ‘a form of systematic empirical inquiry into meaning.’ By systematic he means ‘planned, ordered and public’, following rules agreed upon by members of the qualitative research community. By empirical, he means that this type of inquiry is grounded in the world of experience. Creswell (1994) claim that qualitative research involves an interpretive and naturalistic approach which means that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them.

The advantages of doing qualitative research on leadership include (Creswell, 1994):
• **Flexibility** to follow unexpected ideas during research and explore processes effectively;

• **Sensitivity** to contextual factors;

• **Ability** to study symbolic dimensions and social meaning; and

• **Opportunity** to develop empirically supported new ideas and theories for in-depth and longitudinal explorations of leadership phenomena; and for more relevance and interest for practitioners.

Mirroring the diversity within interpretive communities, the work of qualitative researchers studying leadership covers the spectrum from post-positivism to post-modernism. There is, however, no consensus about whether qualitative research is yet sufficiently valued within the more academic leadership literature. According to Creswell (1994) there are efforts to ‘triangulate’ quantitative and qualitative research for increasing confidence in both. He agrees that there is a growing appreciation about the need for both methods in leadership research, but also reports that ‘pure’ qualitative research has received very little attention in the field. He also believes that qualitative research continues to be underutilised in the field.

So far, most work on leadership falls within the more traditional side of the qualitative spectrum. Creswell (1994) content analysis of the 188 articles published in *Leadership Quarterly* until 1999 reported what they call a ‘healthy mix’ of quantitative (71%) and qualitative (39%) methods, and a small subset of mixed studies. In terms of analytical methods, about one half of the studies used content analysis, a little less than half case
studies and about one fifth grounded theory. These methodologies are favoured within the post-positivist interpretive community. Nevertheless, interest in other forms of qualitative research to study leadership keeps growing and are gradually gaining currency in the field. The advantages for choosing this approach are to:

- Explore a phenomenon that has not been studied before (and that may be subsequently developed quantitatively).

- Add rich detail and nuance that illustrates or documents existing knowledge of a phenomenon generated quantitatively.

- Better understand a topic by studying it simultaneously (triangulation) or concurrently with both methods (mixing quantitative and qualitative methods at the same time or in cycles, depending on the problem).

- Advance a novel perspective of a phenomenon well studied quantitatively, but not well understood because of the narrow perspectives used before.

- Try to understand any social phenomenon from the perspective of the actors involved, rather than explaining it (un成功fully) from the outside.

- Understand complex phenomena that are difficult or impossible to approach or to capture quantitatively.

- Understand any phenomenon in its complexity, or one that has been dismissed by mainstream research because of the difficulties to study it, or that has been
discarded as irrelevant, or that has been studied as if only one point of view about it was real.

Scholars inclined toward the post-positivist side of the qualitative continuum favour the first four reasons. They see qualitative research as an inductive approach to develop theories that then must be tested deductively via quantitative models. Scholars leaning toward the post-modernist side favour the last four reasons. They see qualitative research as an approach to inquiry that stands on its own and best allows a researcher to attain ‘a glimpse of the world’.

Qualitative research is a term with varying meanings in educational research. Creswell (1994), for example, suggest that the term is often used interchangeably with terms such as naturalistic, ethnographic, subjective, and post positivistic. He said that choose to use the term ethnographic as an overall rubric for research using qualitative methods and for ethnographies. Qualitative research is defined as research devoted to developing an understanding of human systems, be they small, such as a technology-using teacher and his/her learners and classroom, or large, such as a cultural system. Qualitative research typically includes ethnographies, case studies, and generally descriptive studies. They often are called ethnographies, but these are somewhat more specific. For instance Creswell (1994) define ethnographies as ‘analytic descriptions or reconstructions of intact cultural scenes and groups’. A case study may indeed be viewed as ethnography, however, the investigator may have set out to answer a particular question rather than to describe a group or scene as a whole.
Qualitative research methods typically include interviews and observations, but may also incorporate case studies, surveys, and historical and document analyses. Case study researches are also often considered methods on their own. Qualitative research has several hallmarks. It is conducted in a natural setting, without intentionally manipulating the environment. It typically involves highly detailed rich descriptions of human behaviours and opinions. The perspective is that humans construct their own reality, and an understanding of what they do may be based on why they believe they do it. There is allowance for the ‘multiple realities’ individuals thus might construct in an environment. The research questions often evolve as the study does, because the researcher wants to know ‘what is happening’ and may not want to bias the study by focusing the investigation too narrowly. The researcher becomes a part of the study by interacting closely with the subjects of the study. The researcher attempts to be open to the subjects’ perceptions of ‘what is,’ that is, researchers are bound by the values and worldviews of the subjects. In qualitative research, it is not necessarily assumed that the findings of one study may be generalised easily to other settings. There is a concern for the uniqueness of a particular setting and participants. In the following section, I present some of the many points of debate about the definition and use of qualitative methods.

3.2.3 Research Methods

Designing qualitative studies is quite different from designing experimental studies. In fact, designs and methods are continually refined while the researcher conducts a qualitative study. Creswell (1994) suggests, the researcher initially chooses methods based on the questions to be addressed, however, the questions, issues, and topics of
the study themselves may change as the researcher’s conception of the reality of the
‘world’ being studied changes. This may be uncomfortable for those experienced with
more quantitative, experimental, or quasi-experimental research. However, most
qualitative researchers (Creswell, 1994) recommend this process of continual
refinement for example, noted that methods are:

Adjusted, expanded, modified, or restricted on the basis of information
acquired during the mapping phase of fieldwork. Only after final withdrawal
from the field can researchers specify the strategies they actually used for a
particular study.

He addressed the contradictory idea of ‘designing’ a naturalistic study completely prior
to beginning the study, calling this a ‘paradox’ in that most funding agencies require
specificity regarding methods, whereas methods in a good qualitative study may be
expected to change as the study progresses. He mentioned that most researchers take
the middle road by maintaining that the answer to whether a naturalistic study should
be designed in advance is ‘Yes—to some extent’. They recommend beginning the
study by specifying a research problem, selecting a research site, developing working
hypotheses, and using interactive processes to refine the research questions. They
further suggest that the researcher plan for the stages of conducting the study. These
may include negotiating entry to the site, planning for purposive (rather than random)
sampling and for data collection, planning for data analysis, determining how quality
will be ensured in the study, deciding how the findings of the study will be
disseminated, and developing a logistical plan. Creswell (1994) also recommend
reviewing the design of the study regularly. In determining what the research problem
is, he suggested that researchers ask themselves five questions:
• Does this topic (i.e., setting, school, organization, institution—and data collection method) really interest me?

• Is this a problem that is amenable to scientific inquiry?

• Are adequate resources available to investigate this topic? (To study this population? To use this particular method?)

• Will my research question, or the methods I want to use, lead to irresolvable ethical problems?

• Is the topic (community, method) of theoretical interest?
Once a question or issue has been selected, the choice of qualitative methods falls roughly into the categories of observations, interviews, and document and artefact analyses. Qualitative methods, however, form continua on various dimensions, and researchers espouse many views of how methods may be categorised and conceptualised. Creswell (1994), in their frequently cited text on anthropological research methods, remind us that the human investigator is the primary research instrument. These authors categorise methods as either verbal or nonverbal techniques. Verbal techniques include participant observation, questionnaires, and various forms of structured and unstructured interviews. Non-verbal techniques include observations and measures of interactions; proxemics, kinesics, and research involving videotaped observations; use of various types of technical equipment for collecting data; content analysis; and analysis of artefacts and records. Creswell (1994) added that methods may be described as having an ‘emic’ or insider’s view, as in participant observation, versus an ‘etic’ or outsider’s view, as in non-participant stream-of-behaviour analyses.

Other researchers use variations of these taxonomies. Creswell (1994) divided methods into interactive (participant observation and several types of interviews) versus non-interactive methods (forms of nonparticipant observation, as well as artefact collection and analysis). He classified methods as those that collect data from human sources (observations and interviews) as opposed to those that collect data from non-human sources (documents and records). Other authors, however, note that methods can rarely be classified as simple dichotomies, such as interactive or not, in large part because the researcher is a human being, and thus involved, and plays a
role even in non-participant observation. Creswell (1994) provided the example of the ‘participant/observer continuum’, describing the ways in which observers who refrain from being overt participants may still interact to varying degrees with those subjects. Researchers who work using an ethnographic perspective consider all methods ‘doing fieldwork’. Similarly, he called participant observation the ‘foundation of anthropological research’; some would say that this deep, involved method of interacting with subjects defines qualitative research.

It is assumed that educational technologists will use methods ethically and with a view to doing quality research, but may not always be bound by anthropological tradition. We are in another field with questions to answer other than those in which anthropologists or sociologists may be interested. For instance, it is now possible to design instruction using a multitude of techniques, using many delivery systems. As Creswell (1994) noted, many design factors contribute to the success of instruction using new technologies, such as distance education, interactive multimedia and internet-based delivery systems. Educational technologists may successfully use and adapt qualitative methods to investigate new and challenging questions.

The case study is described as referring to research that investigates a few cases, often just one, in considerable depth. This is evident in as they assert that the essential methodological feature of a case study is that it provides in-depth, detailed analysis. Creswell (1994) states that case studies are studies of particular individuals, but they could also be studies of single families, units or social policies. This view is supported because in a case study researcher typically observes the characteristics of an individual unit. It is due to this view that I intend using a case study method in my
research because I will research only three schools instead of a large number of schools, and I believe that this will help me gather adequate data within a real-life context. Creswell (1994) states that the method identifies a phenomenon of interest and then selects a case to investigate the manifestation of the phenomenon in real life.

The intention of this study is also to present an in-depth ‘description’ of understanding the concept of participative management. The case study method best suits this study. The strength of the case study is its ability to examine a situation within its context. It also presents research or evaluation of data in a more publicly accessible form than other kinds of research report in a narrative form Creswell (1994). Hence, case studies subscribe to the interpretive paradigm and help the researcher see the situation through the eyes of his/her participants.

3.2.4 Aims and Objectives

The research aimed to examine how leadership styles adopted by school principals influence the schools overall performance. In addressing this main aim, the following specific objectives in the research were to:

- Evaluate to what extent the leadership and leadership style of the principal affect a school’s performance.
- Describe the concept of school performance.
• Determine what attributes of leadership are perceived by principals and to
determine how these attributes impact on school performance (addressed in
both the literature study and empirical investigation).

• Establish whether school performance is dependent upon principal leadership
and his/her leadership style (researched in the empirical investigation of the
study).

3.2.5 Research Problem

The research problem, formulated and stated in Chapter 1 (section three), was
documented and set out in the following question: **To what extent does the
principal’s leadership style have an influence on the school’s performance?**

The following four sub-problems, which were derived from the main research
problem, that will direct the empirical research of the study, were:

• In what way does the leadership and leadership style of the principal affect a
  school?

• What does school performance entail?

• What attributes of leadership are perceived by principals and how do these
  leadership attributes impact on school performance?

• How is school performance dependent upon principals’ leadership and
  his/her leadership style?
3.3 Population and Sampling

3.3.1 Population

The target population of the research was school principals, teachers, non-teaching staff and learners sampled from schools in the Gauteng West region. In order to choose a manageable number for the research, the researcher computed the sample size. The principals, deputy principals and HODs were selected because they are the chief executives of the educational institutions and also understand the leadership styles they employ in the schools. Teachers and learners were selected for the research because they have different perceptions regarding the principals’ leadership styles and how the school is managed.

3.3.2 Sample Size Selection and Sampling Techniques

In observational research, sampling becomes not random but purposive (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). For the research to be valid, the reader should be able to believe that a representative sample of involved individuals was observed. The ‘multiple realities’ of any cultural context should be represented. The researcher, for instance, who is studying the impact of an educational innovation, would never be satisfied with observing only the principals in the schools. Teachers and learners using the innovation would obviously need to be observed. What is not so obvious is that it is important in this example to observe novice teachers, more experienced teachers, those who are comfortable with the innovation and those who are not, along with those who are downright hostile to the innovation. How these various individuals use the innovation becomes the ‘reality of what is,’ rather than how only the most enthusiastic teachers or experienced technologists use it.
The population element provides a basic picture of the population characteristics of the participants in a research study. This element examines the past population trends, characteristic of age and sex distribution, racial composition, education attainment, income and projected future populations. Elements of a population refer to the ‘parts’ that make up the target population. Elements of a discrete population are easy to describe in that they are the individuals that make up the population.

A population is a group of elements or cases whether individuals, objects, or events that conform to specific criteria and to which we as education researchers intend to generalise the results of the research. This group is also referred to as the target population or universe. The target population is often different from the list of elements from which the sample is actually selected, which is termed the survey population or sampling frame. It is important for researchers to carefully and completely define both the target population and the sampling frame. This begins with the research problem and review of literature, through which a population is described conceptually or in broad terms. A more specific definition is then needed based on demographic characteristics such as age, gender, location, grade level, position, and time of year. These characteristics are sometimes referred to as delimiting variables.
Qualitative sampling strategies employed in a research are identified from prior information and are reported in the research to enhance data quality. In addition, the persons or groups who actually participated in the research are reported in a manner to protect confidentiality of data. When sampling documents or records, researchers specify the public archives and private collections used and frequently refer to each document or court case in explanatory footnotes. In this manner, researchers using non-interactive techniques to study the past reduce threats to design validity (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001).

Purposive sampling will be used for this case study. It is a sampling method in which elements are chosen based on the purpose of the research. Purposive sampling may involve studying the entire population of some limited group or a subset of a population. As with other non-probability sampling methods, purposive sampling does not produce a sample that is representative of a larger population, but it can be exactly what is needed in some cases - study of organization, community, or some other clearly defined and relatively limited group (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001).

The research was conducted in three schools in the suburb called Azaadville in Johannesburg of the Gauteng West region of the Province. The three schools were Ahmed Timol Secondary School, Yusuf Dadoo Primary School and Azaadville Muslim School. The researcher wanted to study schools from the same area as the challenges would be the same considering the demographic characteristics of the stakeholders and various other factors affecting the school such as the schools relationship with the community, challenges hampering the school performance, how do the principals’ leadership styles differ in order to tackle the same challenges that they are facing with
the learners, what are the strategies that they are applying to improve the performance of the school. The three schools were also selected because they have rich historical backgrounds. Two of the state schools (Ahmed Timol Secondary School and Yusuf Dadoo Primary School) were renamed after political leaders who played a significant role in the political struggle. These schools have a strong background of what leadership entails, while the third school (Azaadville Muslim School) which is an independent school, was established to fulfil the needs of the community that demanded an integrated school which offers both religious as well as secular education. This school is a perfect example of what a good leader can do for the benefit of his community through empowerment of education.

The researcher conducted ten interviews per school (one principal, one deputy principal, three heads of departments (HoDs), three teachers, and two learners), therefore totalling thirty (10x3) interviews. HoDs were selected on the basis of their experience, qualifications and expertise in the field of teaching. The reason for including them in the research was because they were directly responsible for the day-to-day leadership of the schools. The teachers were chosen for the study since they were the subordinates who were led by HoDs of the schools. The learners were also selected since they experienced the impact of leadership in the school. The participation of learners was considered important because the research was an action research. According to McMillan & Schumacher (2001) ‘Participatory Action Research (PAR) is essentially a research which involves all relevant parties in actively examining together current action (which they experience as problematic) in order to change and improve it’. PAR is not just research which is hoped to be followed by
action. It is action which is researched, changed and re-researched, within the research process by participants. Nor is it simply an exotic variant of consultation. Instead, it aims to be active co-research, by and for those to be helped. Nor can it be used by one group of people to get another group of people to do what is thought best for them - whether that is to implement a central policy or an organizational or service change. Instead it tries to be a genuinely democratic or non-coercive process whereby those to be helped, determine the purposes and outcomes of their own inquiry. Thus, reality will be achieved because the findings will include all the people who are responsible to bring about the change in school performance.

3.3.3 School Profiles

3.3.3.1 Government-Aided Schools

These are schools which were founded by the Government and other religious organizations, but all of which received government aid in terms of staff salaries and wages, capitation grants, capital development grants (when funds become available) and any other support as provided by the education sector budget. In the research study there are two government schools.

3.3.3.2 Private Community Schools

These are also started by the communities on a private, non-profit basis. They are normally in areas that are not yet provided for by the government. The research study included one private community school.
3.3.4 Staff Profiles

The minimum requirement for principals in schools in South Africa is a degree. Some have Masters degrees, whilst others are holders of PhDs. There is no specialised training for principals, except that some, who opt for Masters degrees, can do a course in Management. The teachers are either graduate teachers with degrees or doing postgraduate studies in the education sector. The appointment of principals is primarily based on the number of years of service.

3.3.5 Ethical Measures and Considerations

In addition to the ethical issues raised by authors cited earlier in discussions of specific methodologies, there continues to be great concern that qualitative researchers conduct and report their studies in an ethical manner. MacMillan & Schumacher (2001), however, suggests that qualitative researchers should not be daunted or deterred by ethical issues. In fact, he advises that ‘fieldwork is fun; it is easy; anyone can do it; it is salutary for young academics to flee the nest; and they should be able to take any moral or political dilemmas encountered in their stride’. He describes the ethical issues that are common with most scientific research, such as biomedical research, in this country at this time. For instance, all researchers must be concerned with preventing subjects from being harmed, protecting their anonymity and privacy, not deceiving them, and securing their informed consent. In discussing recent debate about qualitative methods, however, Punch adds other issues arising, including, “Does the pursuit of scientific knowledge justify the means? What is public and what is private? When can research be said to be ‘harming’ people? And does the researcher enjoy any immunity from the law when he or she refuses to disclose information?”
Punch discusses the concepts of codes, consent, privacy, confidentiality, and trust and betrayal in detail. He further describes three developments that have stirred the debate. These included the women’s movement and its attendant concern that women have been studied as subjects/objects, the trend toward conducting action research in which participants are partners or stakeholders to be empowered and therefore not to be duped, and, finally, the concern of funding agencies for ethics that has led to requirements for the inclusion of statements of ethics in proposals and reports. Creswell, J. (1994) addresses similar issues and recommends that researchers conduct their studies in good faith and that the research should be not only not harmful to subjects, but worthwhile.

Creswell, J. (1994), in their discussion of ethical issues assert that participants can withdraw from the research at any time without any penalty, echoed the previous concerns with regard to privacy, confidentiality, harm, deception, and informed consent. They add that in contracted research, situations may arise that could compromise the research by restricting freedom or encouraging suppression of negative results. From a more ‘action research’ type of perspective, these authors furthered Creswell’s idea that studies should be of value to subjects and that they should educate subjects. Educational technology researchers must determine for themselves their answers to ethical questions, realising that their work may or may not fall into the category of action research. Many authors blend concerns for ethics with criteria for evaluating the quality of qualitative studies, in that an unethically conducted study would not be of high quality. The criteria to use in determining whether a qualitative study is sound and strong are illustrated in the following section.
Since educational research does not occur in a vacuum, educational researchers are constantly interacting with a complex and demanding socio-political environment that influences their research decisions, both formally and informally. To cope with such influences, the researcher followed a number of guidelines in research, which included, amongst others, seeking informed consent of the respondents and making it known to them that their participation was indeed voluntary. The integrity of the researcher was safeguarded by protecting the respondents from harm, either emotional or physical and by the manner in which the researcher posed questions and reported the findings.

Through the use of consent forms, the researcher was able to acquire the informed consent of all the participants. The researcher also agreed with the participants that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any point in time, and that it was their prerogative to participate or not. Pseudonyms were used in respect of the participants and the schools that were selected for this study. It was stipulated in the consent forms that any information so obtained from the participants would remain confidential between the two parties. The purpose of this was to ensure that anonymity and confidentiality were strictly adhered to. During the time of data collection, analysis was safeguarded as data stored in the computer using data protection passwords were locked up in the researcher’s office. In this way confidentiality was ensured.

The interactions, between the researcher and participants in this research, took place during individual face-to-face interviews and observations, hence, the reason for the researcher to enter the participants’ private and personal environment. This
qualitative research study is characterised and proofed to be based on intimate and personal encounters between the researcher and participants and, as a consequence, required the researcher to view all information, observed and/or heard, as confidential.

3.4 Instrumentation

3.4.1 Literature Review

The literature review continued all the way through the entire investigation as a precise research focal point. A large number of different sources were reviewed for the purpose of this study, namely journals, electronic documents, reports, government documents, dissertations, articles, books, and newspapers. A review of the literature on the research topic continued while interviews were conducted, observations were carried out, and while artefacts were collected from the Department of Education. McMillan & Schumacher (2001) suggests that it is common for qualitative researchers to have completed an extensive literature review at the end of their research. The authors propose that the extensive literature review simply reveal the discovery direction and inductive approach of qualitative research.

A preliminary literature review was carried out, to gather information and evaluate an assortment of materials that were available, on the subject of principal leadership on school performance, globally. This provided the researcher with a preliminary outline to focus the interviews and observations, of the selected schools in the Gauteng West region. Chapter 2 encompassed a full literature review of relevant literature, to outline the theoretical background to the intended study on the influence of
leadership styles of principals on schools performance. McMillan & Schumacher (2001:140) explicitly state how a literature review is judged in the following statement: “The quality of the literature review is evaluated according to whether it furthers the understanding of the status of knowledge of the problem and provides a rationale for the study.”

3.4.2 Observations

The researcher carried out observations during the school visits when she conducted interviews with the various participants in the schools. The researcher took note of the physical appearance of the school, the reception at the gate, in the offices and in other places. The researcher observed the culture of the schools, the staff and how they went about their duties. She aimed to observe how and when the school activities started, and when actual teaching and learning begun. The researcher interacted informally with staff, attended meetings and had the opportunity to examine how the staff collaborated with each other and also with the administration. The researcher attended classes, and observed how lessons and other co-curricular activities were conducted.

3.4.2.1 Participant Observation

Participant observation is a qualitative method frequently used in social science research. It is based on a long tradition of ethnographic study in anthropology. In participant observation, the observer becomes ‘part’ of the environment, or the cultural context. The method usually involves the researcher’s spending considerable time ‘in the field’, as anthropologists do. Anthropologists typically spend a year or
more in a cultural setting in order really to understand the culture in depth, even when they begin the study with a broad overall research question. The hallmark of participant observation is interaction among the researcher and the participants. The main subjects take part in the study to varying degrees, but the researcher interacts with them continually. For instance, the study may involve interviews interspersed with observations so that the researcher can question the subjects and verify perceptions and patterns. These interviews may themselves take many forms, as noted in an upcoming section. For example, the researcher began by conducting open-ended unstructured interviews with several teachers to begin to formulate the research questions. This was followed by a set of structured interviews with a few other teachers, based on results of the first series, forming a sort of oral questionnaire. After patterns began to appear in the observational data, the researcher conducted interviews asking the teachers about these patterns and why they thought they were occurring or if, indeed, these were categories of information. Similarly, the researcher conducted interviews with the teachers to determine how the teachers themselves categorised these behaviours. Thus, the researcher became a long-term participant in the research setting (Creswell, J., 1994).

Educational researchers have come under some criticism, at times legitimately so, for observing in educational settings for very brief periods of time, such as once for a few hours, and then making sweeping generalisations about teachers, schools, and learners from these brief ‘slices of time’. Yet educational researchers typically do not have the resources to ‘live’ in the observed settings for such extended periods of time as anthropologists do (Creswell, J., 1994).
It is reasonable that fine educational technology research can be conducted using participant observation techniques, with somewhat limited research questions. Not every phenomenon can possibly be recorded. Most qualitative observational studies rely on the researcher’s writing down what occurs in the form of extensive field notes. The researcher then analyses these notes soon after observations are carried out, noting patterns of behaviours and events and phenomena to investigate in further observations. Still, the researcher is the instrument in most participant observations and, being human, cannot observe and record everything. Therefore, in most educational research studies, the investigator determines ahead of time what will be observed and recorded, guided but not limited by the research questions (Creswell, J., 1994).

Creswell, J. (1994) discussed the types of questions one might address using participant observation techniques. These include such questions as who the participants are; their typical and a typical patterns of behaviour; and where, when, how, and why the phenomena occur. In short, participant observation is often successfully used to describe what is happening in a context and why it happens. These are questions that cannot be answered in the standard experiment.

3.4.2.2 Non-Participant Observation

Non-participant observation is often used to study focused aspects of a setting, to answer specific questions within a study. This method can yield extensive detailed data, over many subjects and settings, if desired, to search for patterns or to test hypotheses developed as a result of using other methods, such as interviews. It can thus be a powerful tool in triangulation. Guidelines for conducting nonparticipant
observation are provided by Creswell, J. (1994). They recommend that researchers strive to be as unobtrusive and unbiased as possible. They suggest verification of data by using multiple observers. Before the study is begun in earnest, the units of analysis, and thus the data to be recorded should be specified; recording methods should be developed; strategies for selection and sampling of units should be determined; and, finally, all processes should be tested and refined.

3.4.2.3 Multiple Observers

If several observers are used to collect the data, and their data are compared or aggregated, problems with reliability of data may occur. Remember that human beings are the recording instruments, and they tend to see and subsequently interpret the same phenomena in many different ways. It becomes necessary to train the observers and to ensure that observers are recording the same phenomena in the same ways. This is not as easy as it may sound, although it can be accomplished with some effort. A brief description of these efforts should be described in the final research report, as this description will illustrate why the data may be considered consistent.

It should be noted that in studies in which multiple observers are used and behaviours counted or categorised and tallied, it is desirable to calculate and report interrupter reliability. This can easily be done by having a number of observers record data in several of the same classroom sessions or in the same segments of tape and then computing the degree of their agreement in the data.
3.4.3 Interviews

In contrast with the relatively non-interactive, non-participant observation methods described earlier, interviews represent a classic qualitative research method that is directly interactive. Interview techniques, too, vary in how they may be classified, and again, most vary in certain dimensions along continua, rather than being clearly dichotomous. For instance, Creswell (1994) describes interview techniques as being structured or unstructured to various degrees. He explicates the most informal type of interviewing, followed by unstructured interviewing that has some focus. Next, Bernard mentions semi-structured interviewing and, finally, structured interviews, typically involving what he called an interview schedule, which others called interview protocols, that is, sets of questions, or scripts.

Creswell (1994) expand this classification scheme by noting that interviews may be conducted individually or in groups. Again, exemplifying modern trends in qualitative research, these authors added that unstructured interviews now may include oral histories and creative and postmodern interviewing, the latter of which may include use of visual media and polyphonic interviewing, that is, almost-verbatim reporting of respondents’ words, as well as gendered interviewing in response to feminist concerns. Creswell (1994) note that other classification schemes may include scheduled versus non-scheduled or standardised versus non-standardised. However, their division of interview techniques into key-informant interviews, career histories, and surveys represents a useful introduction to the range of interviewing techniques. An interview is a form of conversation in which the purpose is for the researcher to gather data that address the study’s goals and questions.
A researcher, particularly one who will be in the setting for a considerable period of time or one doing participant observations, may choose to conduct a series of relatively unstructured interviews that seem more like conversations with the respondents. Topics will be discussed and explored in a somewhat loose, but probing manner. The researcher may return periodically to continue to interview the respondents in more depth, for instance, to focus on questions further or to triangulate with other data. In contrast, structured interviews may be conducted in which the researcher follows a sort of script of questions, asking the same questions, and in the same order, of all participants.

Creswell (1994) consider these to be surveys, whereas other authors did not make this distinction, and some deemed surveys and questionnaires to be instruments respondents completed on their own without an interview. Interviews or a series of interviews may focus on aspects of a respondent’s life and represent a standard technique in anthropology for understanding aspects of culture from an insider’s view.

Creswell (1994) note that for educators such interviews, which focus on career histories, may be useful for exploring how and why subjects respond to events, situations, or, of interest to educational technologists, particular innovations. Guidelines for conducting interviews are relatively straightforward if one considers that both the researcher, as data gathering instrument, and the respondents are human beings, with their various strengths and foibles in communicating. The cornerstone is to be sure that one truly listens to respondents and records what they say, rather than to the researcher’s perceptions or interpretations. This is a good rule of thumb in qualitative research in general. It is best to maintain the integrity of raw
data, using respondents’ words, including quotes, liberally.

Most researchers, as a study progresses, also maintain field notes that contain interpretations of patterns, to be refined and investigated on an ongoing basis. Creswell (1994) summarise that a good interviews are those in which the subjects are at ease and talk freely about their points of view. Good interviews produce rich data filled with words that reveal the respondents’ perspectives. He also suggests letting the informant lead the conversation in unstructured interviews and asking probing questions that serve to focus the interview at natural points in the conversation. Whereas some advocated only taking notes during interviews, Creswell (1994) stresses that memory should not be relied on, and tape recorders should be used to record exact words. This may be crucial later in identifying subjects’ points of view and still later in writing reports.

Ensuring the quality of a study by maintaining detailed field journals is also emphasised by Creswell (1994). They suggest keeping a daily log of activities, a personal log, and a methodological log. They add that safeguards should be implemented to avoid distortions that result from the researcher’s presence and bias that arises from the researcher, respondents, or data-gathering techniques. They indicate that participants should be debriefed after the study. Stages in conducting an interview are described by Creswell (1994). He described how to decide whom to interview, how to prepare for the interview, what to say to the respondent as one begins the interview, mention that most interviews begin with small talk, how to pace the interview and keep it productive, and, finally, how to terminate the interview and gain closure.
Many old, adapted, new, and exciting techniques for structured interviewing are evolving. For example, Creswell (1994) describe confirmation instruments, participant-construct instruments, and projective devices. Confirmation instruments verify the applicability of data gathered from key-informant interviews or observations across segments of the population being studied (It may be added that this type of structured interview could be adapted as a questionnaire or survey for administering to larger subject groups). Participant construct instruments may be used to measure degrees of feelings that individuals have about phenomena or in having them classify events, situations, techniques, or concepts from their perspective. According to Creswell (1994), this technique is particularly useful in gathering information about lists of things, which respondents can then be asked to classify.

Types of questions to be asked in interviews are also categorised in a multitude of ways. Creswell (1994) describe these as ‘experience, opinion, feeling questions, hypothetical questions, and propositional questions’. He provides one of the more extensive discussions of questions, indicating that they may be descriptive, structural, or contrast questions. He further explains ways to conduct analyses of data collected through interviews and observations. In an earlier work, he explicates how cultural knowledge is formed through symbols and rules and describes how language can be analysed to begin to form conceptions of such knowledge.

Interview guides are data collection instruments used through direct and verbal interaction between respondents. They involve the question and answer method of data sourcing. More and more data are collected through in-depth interviews and probing. Creswell (1994) argues that interview guides are important in sourcing for
volumes of qualitative data. Thirty respondents were interviewed with each informant given the leeway to choose the convenient time and venue for the interview. Of these, 9 were teachers, 9 were HoDs, 3 principals, 3 deputy principals and 6 were learners. The informants were notified two weeks in advance about the purpose of the study and the interviews through letters written and sent to them directly. This was after the researcher had secured permission from the permanent secretary of the DoE (Gauteng West) to conduct the study. The researcher visited all the schools that participated in the study to gain a sense of how the schools were being managed, in addition to obtaining information for the study.

The purpose of the interviews was to establish the leadership styles used by the schools’ principals and how they perceived their management approaches in relation to their subordinates. The interviews were also intended to establish from the subordinates themselves, how they perceived leadership styles and approaches used by their principals. The interviews also sought to establish the relationship between the leadership styles used by the principals and school performance. The interview schedules were semi-structured to allow participants to share, highlight and explain their viewpoints, while allowing the researcher to seek clarifications from the participants. The interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed to ensure the accuracy of data. The interview schedules included, but were not limited to the following:

- Principals’ management, training and professional development
- Qualities of a good and effective school
• Factors affecting school performance
• Strategic planning and policy processes in the school
• Leadership styles
• Management and leadership challenges

All the respondents had an opportunity to provide responses beyond the questions, these just served as guides to the process. The spirit of the interview was that the respondents had to feel free to air their feelings, thoughts, and emotions and to express themselves in the ways they deemed appropriate.

3.5 Data Collection Procedures

The interview process was planned and fifteen open-ended questions were formulated to guide the interview process. The researcher followed the following steps during the interview process at each participating special needs school:

• Audio recording equipment was set up and tested to minimise the possibility for equipment failure during the interview process.

• A second set of recording equipment, charger, batteries, and electrical leads were checked and placed strategically as backup if equipment failure should occur.

• Audio recording equipment was introduced and tested by the researcher.
• The researcher established a relationship with each participant based on mutual trust, respect, and reciprocal co-operation.

• Interviewees’ were given a comprehensive account of the purpose and focus of the study.

• Participants were assured that all information is confidential and the researcher guaranteed their anonymity.

• Participants received an overview of the interview content and context and highlighted the importance of the data.

• Eighteen open-ended questions were asked only after the interviewer was satisfied that the interviewee was relaxed. All responses were recorded. (Interviewees’ non-verbal cues and tacit modes of communication were noted during the interview to be analysed with the recorded material.)

• Participants participated in a debriefing session after the interview was conducted, to provide opportunity to clarify and set misinterpretation right that may have occurred during the interview.

• The researcher noted any disturbances and interruption before leaving the field.

The researcher scheduled one-and-a-half-hour to two-hour sessions for conducting each interview. Interview time frames varied depending on the situation and personal
schedules of participants.

3.6 Data Analysis and Presentation

3.6.1 Documentary Analysis

The purpose of documentary analysis is to enrich the literature review and also to support the study’s findings derived from the participants’ responses. The secondary sources are good for collecting data for both surveys and ethnographies that are largely qualitative. Creswell, J. (1994) states that documentary evidence is necessary because it provides a rich discourse of facts punctuated with opinions making it useful in cross referencing of present findings.

Documents analysed were strategic and development plans, mission statements and other official documents from the schools visited. Books on leadership, journal articles, dissertations, newspapers, internet works, statistics and papers written by prominent scholars and educationists, were perused by the researcher. Documents analysed included policy strategic plan documents of the DoE. Permission to use these DoE documents had been granted by the head office of the department.

3.6.2 Document and Artefact Analysis

Beyond non-participant observation, many unobtrusive methods exist for collecting information about human behaviours. These fall roughly into the categories of document and artefact analyses, but overlap with other methods. For instance, the verbal or non-verbal behaviour streams produced during observations may be subjected to intense microanalysis to answer a number of research questions. Content analysis, as one example, may be done on these narratives.
The artefacts of interest to educational technologists are often written, but computer trails of behaviour are becoming the objects of analysis as well. Examples of artefacts that may help to illuminate research questions include textbooks and other instructional materials, such as media materials, memos, letters, and, now, e-mail records, as well as logs of meetings and activities; demographic information, such as enrolment, attendance, and detailed information about subjects; and personal logs kept by subjects (Creswell, J., 1994). He adds that archival data may be running records, such as those in legal records or the media, or they may be episodic and private, such as records of sales and other business activities and written documents. Physical traces of behaviours may be recorded and analysed. He describes these as including types of wear and tear that may appear on objects or in settings naturally, as in police tracing of fingerprints or blood remains. In recent studies in educational technology, researchers are beginning to analyse the patterns of learner pathways and decisions they make as they proceed through computer-based lessons. Based on his earlier work he describes the development of a Hyper card-based researcher’s tool for collecting data from counts of key presses to analyse categories of choices made within computer-based instruction, such as the mean numbers of practice or example screens chosen.

As noted earlier, the records made using audiotape to collect information in non-participant observation may be considered documentary data and may be subjected to microanalysis. Guidelines for artefact collection are provided by Creswell, J. (1994). They identify four activities involved in this type of method: ‘locating artefacts, identifying the material, analysing it, and evaluating it’. He recommends that the more
informed the researcher is about the subjects and setting, the more useful artefacts may be identified and the more easily access may be gained to those artefacts. He suggests that from artefacts, a theory of material culture may be built. He describes types of objects and working with respondents to determine how they might be used (Anyone who has accompanied older friends to an antique store, especially one that includes household tools or farm implements from bygone eras, may have experienced a type of interactive description and analysis of systems and culture of the past based on physical artefacts.). He continues with a discussion of the ways in which material items in a cultural setting change over time and reflect changes in a culture.

3.6.3 Analysing Qualitative Data

Qualitative data are considered to be the ‘rough materials researchers collect from the world they are studying; they are the particulars that form the basis of analysis’ Creswell, J. (1994). As described earlier, qualitative data can take many forms, such as photos, objects, patterns of choices in computer materials, and videotapes of behaviours. However, words often are the raw materials that qualitative researchers analyse, and much advice from researchers discusses analysing these words. The need for brevity in this chapter precludes an extensive discussion of analysing qualitative data. However, we introduce the researcher to the issues underlying decisions to be made and provide several views of how to analyse data. In his in-depth sourcebook, beginning researchers may quake in the face of the ‘deep, dark question’ regarding how to have confidence that their approach to analysis is the right one. Yet we concur with the thoughtful, but practical approach of these authors, that one must just begin and that more energy is often spent discussing analysis, and research for that matter,
than ‘doing it.’ He noted, in a decidedly unnaive approach, that any method that works, that will produce clear, verifiable, credible meanings from a set of qualitative data, is grist for their mill. He added that the creation, testing, and revision of simple, practical, and effective analysis methods remain the highest priority of qualitative researchers, adding that, we remain convinced that concrete, shareable methods do indeed belong to ‘all of us’. It is in this spirit that we present approaches to analysing qualitative data.

One of the major hallmarks of conducting qualitative research is that data are analysed continually, throughout the study, from conceptualisation through the entire data collection phase, and into the interpretation and writing phases. In fact, he describes the processes of analysing and writing together in what they call analysis and interpretation. How these activities may be done is explored here.

### 3.6.4 Steps for Analysing Qualitative Data

Depending on the basic philosophical approach of the qualitative researcher, many steps exist for analysing data. For this research the researcher had open-ended questions which had written comments on questionnaires that generated single words, brief phrases, and full paragraphs of text. Individual interviews generated data in a few words, lengthy comments, either in person or written correspondence. Observations that were recorded infield notes generated a summary of the individual’s interview and word for word transcripts. Documents, reports and news articles or any published written material related to the research served as evaluation data. Creswell, J (1994) states that qualitative data analysis consists of “three concurrent flows of
activity: data reduction, data display, and data management”. Most researchers advocate that reducing and condensing data, and thereby beginning to seek meaning, should begin as the study begins and continue throughout data collection.

### 3.6.4.1 Data Reduction

Field notes consist of observations and the researcher’s interpretations. Macmillan, James & Schmacher (2001), call these two types of field notes contents “the descriptive part and the reflective part”. They stated that the descriptive part consists of detailed descriptions of the subjects and settings, the actual dialogue of participants, and descriptions of events and activities, as well as descriptions of the observer’s behaviour, to enable determining how this may have influenced participants’ behaviours. The reflective part of field notes, they added, consists of the observer/researcher’s analysis. The researcher records speculations about patterns and how data can be analysed, thoughts about methods and ethical concerns, and even ideas about his or her own state of mind at the time.

If researchers collect data using audiotape or videotape, written transcripts of language recorded are often prepared. Later analysis can be done, but notes should still be recorded immediately after being in the field. Such notes, for instance, will include observations about participants’ non-verbal behaviours, what was occurring in the immediate surroundings, or activities in which participants were engaging. Even in the case of interviews, notes might include these descriptions, as well as what participants were doing just prior to interviews. As noted in the discussion of data collection methods, audiotapes and videotapes may be subjected to detailed microanalysis. Usually data are coded and counted, but due to the labour-intensive
nature of this type of analysis, segments of these ‘streams of behaviour’ are often systematically selected for analysis. It is advisable to collect data in its raw, detailed form and then record patterns. This enables the researcher later to analyse the original data in different ways, perhaps to answer deeper questions than originally conceived. The researcher many weeks into data collection may realise, for example, that some phenomena previously considered unimportant hold the keys to explaining participants’ views and actions. In addition, preserving the raw data allows other researchers to explore and verify the data and the interpretations.

If researchers have collected documents from subjects, such as logs, journals, diaries, memos, and letters, these can also be analysed as raw data. Similarly, official documents of an organization can be subjected to analysis. Collecting data in the form of photographs, films, and videotapes, those produced either by participants or by the researcher, have a long tradition in anthropology and education. These data, too, can be analysed for meaning.

3.6.4.2 Data Display

In this study, as in most qualitative studies, coding schemes were continually added to, collapsed, and refined as the study progressed. However, in some studies, only pre-assigned codes are used to collect and/or analyse data. As in the use of Bloom’s categories by Macmillan & Schmacher (2001), usually these codes have been derived from studies and theories of other researchers or from pilot studies conducted by the researchers themselves. These studies may use observational coding forms or protocols on which data are recorded in the coding categories. Another example of
using pre-assigned codes is a study conducted to investigate how visitors to a botanical garden use interactive signs.

Among other types of data collected in this study these researchers trained observers to record behaviours visitors engaged in while they used signs. Observers recorded whether visitors stopped to read a sign at all; if so, for how long; and the level of interactivity visitors exhibited. Based on the work of Creswell, J. (1994), interactivity was coded as stopping briefly and glancing only; obviously reading the sign and looking at the plant exhibit near it; and, finally, engaging in highly active behaviours, such as reading the sign aloud, pointing to the plants displayed, discussing information being learned, and pulling friends and family over to the sign to read it. In a blend of coding methods typical in many studies, observers also wrote ethnographic-style notes to describe what if any content on the signs was being discussed, what misconceptions appeared, what excited visitors most, etc. In this study, visitor surveys and interviews were also used.

3.6.4.3 Data Management

Analysis of data requires examining, sorting, and re-examining data continually. Qualitative researchers use many means to organise, retrieve, and analyse their data. Many researchers simply use notebooks and boxes of paper. Creswell, J. (1994) describe two mechanical means to organise and review data. One way they described is to write initial codes in margins of field notes, photocopy the notes, and store the originals, then cut up and sort the text segments into piles according to codes. These coded data can be stored in boxes and resorted and analysed on an ongoing basis. The
second method is to record field notes on pages on which each line is numbered, field notes coded and then the page number, line numbers, and a brief description of each piece of data written on a small index card. These cards can then be sorted and analysed. The authors noted that this second method is better suited for small sets of data, as it often requires returning to the original field notes to analyse the actual data.

3.6.5 Overall Approaches to Analysing Qualitative Data

Qualitative researchers choose their analysis methods not only by the research questions and types of data collected, but also based on the philosophical approach underlying the study. For example, Creswell, J. (1994) outlines three overall approaches to analysing qualitative data. An “interpretive” approach would be phenomenological in nature or based on social interactions. Researchers using this approach would seek to present a holistic view of data rather than a condensed view. They might seek to describe a picture of “what is.” They would generally not choose to categorise data to reduce it. Creswell, J. (1994) notes that the interpretive approach might be used by qualitative researchers in semiotics, deconstructivism, aesthetic criticism, ethno methodology, and hermeneutics. The second approach described by these researchers is “collaborative social research,” often used by action researchers in partnerships composed of members of many, and sometimes opposing, organizations. The final approach to analysing data described by Creswell, J. (1994) is that of “social anthropology,” which relies primarily on ethnography. Researchers using this approach seek to provide detailed, or rich, descriptions across multiple data sources.

They seek regular patterns of human behaviour in data, usually sifting, coding, and
sorting data as they are collected, and following up analyses with ongoing observations and interviews to explore and refine these patterns, in what McMillan & Schumacher (2001) call a recursive approach. Researchers using a social anthropology approach also tend to be concerned with developing and testing theory. Researchers who develop life histories, work in grounded theory and ecological psychology, and develop narrative studies, applied studies, and case studies often base their analyses on this social anthropology approach. Many of the methods and views about analysing qualitative data are based on this social anthropology approach.

### 3.6.6 Methods for Analysing Qualitative Data

Depending on the basic philosophical approach of the qualitative researcher, many methods exist for analysing data. McMillan & Schumacher (2001) state that qualitative data analysis consists of “three concurrent flows of activity: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification”. Most researchers advocate that reducing and condensing data, and thereby beginning to seek meaning, should begin as the study begins and continue throughout data collection.

### 3.6.7 Data Presentation

The researcher transcribed the interview recordings and typed all handwritten records of observations, questionnaires, field notes, and artefact notes. The interviews provided an insight into how the principal’s leadership influences school performance. The typed drafts were edited to eradicate transcribed errors. The final record included the following:

- Precise verbatim accounts of interviews.
• Details of interviewees’ non-verbal communication.

• Preliminary insights and comments to augment the search for meaning.

• The final document was dated and contained information regarding the setting and informant codes. (P) – Principal/ (DP) – Deputy Principal – (T)Teacher – (L)Learner (HoD) -Head of Department

• Additional elaborations of each interview session.

• Researcher’s self reflections on the researcher role.

• Researcher’s reflections on interviewees’ reactions.

Data were managed manually and by computer assistance to establish a system to organise them in one place and to make it easy for the researcher to retrieve data. The inductive data analysis process is a cyclic progression integrated throughout all the stages of this research, which include: continuous discovery to identify tentative pattern during the entire research project; distribution of data into specific categories; evaluating the trustworthiness of data in order to refine and establish emerging patterns; documenting all emerging patterns and categories. McMillan & Schumacher (2001) state that categories and patterns are not forced on to the data before the researcher collects the data but rather appear from the data.

The data were selected, categorised, compared, synthesised, and interpreted in a reasonably systematic process, to provide a better understanding of the influence of principals’ leadership on school performance. The process of inductive data analysis demonstrated by McMillan & Schumacher (2001:463) is depicted in Figure 3.1. The four phases overlap during the process and allow the researcher to return to prior phases
when moving to more abstract phases (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:462-464). The researcher can evaluate and refine the data analysis and interpretation to gain better understanding of the phenomenon under study. In this study, the researcher organised the data by implementing a classification system to separate data into “smaller pieces of data that contains a chunk of meaning” called segments or analysis units (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:268).

The subject matter of the segment was portrayed as a topic. Topics were categorised and the category captured the different topics that have the same meaning. The researcher engaged in a pattern seeking process by ordering the categories. McMillan & Schumacher (2001:476) describe the pattern seeking process as: “It demands a thorough search through the data, challenging each major hunch by looking for negative evidence and alternative explanations. Researchers now shift to a deductive mode of thinking-moving back and forth among topics, categories, and tentative patterns for confirmation. Part of this phase is to evaluate the data for information adequacy, usefulness, and centrality.”
In this study, the major patterns that emerged from the pattern seeking process provide the structure and outline for reporting the data that came out of the research investigation. Figure 3.2 is a schematic representation of the pattern seeking process developed by McMillan & Schumacher (2001:477).

### 3.7 Testing Validity and Reliability of the Instruments

In this study, a combination of data collection strategies were employed, as discussed previously, to enhance the validity of the study, namely: multi-method strategies, accurately documenting participants’ language, audio recording of data, scrutiny of data by participants, and final review by participants (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:407-408).
In-depth interviews with participants were used as the core data collection technique, to investigate the influence of the principal’s leadership on school performance. Prolonged and persistent fieldwork provided the researcher with the opportunity to consider interim data and make initial associations and verifications (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:408). Subsequently, processing ideas and making sure that there is a correlation between data that were gathered and the views of participants.

Data collection strategies, namely, participant observation, open observation and artefacts were secondary strategies that the researcher used, making it possible to use triangulation of data. Triangulation of data enhanced the credibility of findings in the study on job satisfaction of special needs educators. Different viewpoints of the various data collection strategies were acknowledged and incorporated by the researcher. The data gathered through the main interactive data collection strategy

**Figure 3.2:** The pattern seeking process.

was supported and confirmed by the secondary strategies. Documents and artefact
collection were non-interactive data collection strategies that provided additional data
to corroborate findings from interviews and observations.

The researcher used well known terminology, regimented subjectivity, and expanded
results to strengthen the validity, thus enhancing the degree to which the explanations
and ideas have joint meaning amongst the participants and researcher. “Cultural
translators” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001:409) were taken into consideration during
the study. Terms and concepts were discussed and clarified first, and then agreement
on the meanings was communicated between the researcher and participants. It was
agreed by all participants during the informed consent process, that the researcher can
use the following descriptive terms to refer to the schools and interviewees. The type
of special needs school would not be disclosed to provide further protection for
participants’ privacy.

A large number of direct quotations are presented in the study to clarify and validate
the participants’ viewpoints. Low-inference descriptors used by the participants
guided the researcher to identify patterns which emerged from the data analysis.
McMillan & Schumacher (2001:409) report that: “Verbatim accounts of conversations,
transcripts, and direct quotes from documents are highly valued as data.” Participants
were given the opportunity to review the collated data to make sure that the data
represent their viewpoints as intended and communicated by them during the
interview sessions. All participants were invited and allowed to make changes and
suggestion to data, to ensure that their viewpoints were captured accurately by the
researcher, before the researcher started the analysis of the data. McMillan &
Schumacher (2001:407) define validity of qualitative research as, “In other words, validity of qualitative research designs is the degree to which the interpretations and concepts have mutual meanings between the participants and the researcher. The researcher and participants agreed on the description or composition of events, especially the meanings of these events.”

Various presumptions, plans (designs) and modes are used in qualitative research to promote insight into the research topic (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001). The authors suggest the use of all or a combination of strategies to validate qualitative research, including prolonged and persistent fieldwork, multi-method strategies, verbatim accounts of participants’ language use, low-inference descriptors, multiple researchers, mechanically recorded data, participant researchers, member checking, participant review, and negative cases or discrepant data.

3.8 Summary

In this chapter, the research design, population and sampling, instrumentation, testing validity and reliability of instruments, data collection procedures and data analysis and presentation were presented. The researcher found the study’s participants very cooperative and was able to acquire more information than was expected. Visiting the schools prior to the commencement of the research proved very useful as it helped the researcher to build a trustworthy relationship with the participants. Chapter 4 will focus on the data presentation, analysis and interpretation.
CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH DATA

4.1 Introduction

The researcher presented a detailed description of the research method and design in the previous chapter. The aim of the research, the research method, and the design of qualitative research methodology were described. The researcher also concentrated on qualitative sampling techniques, population selection, research instrumentation, and data collection procedures. Data analysis, processing methods and the presentation of data were thoroughly scrutinised. Validity and reliability of this qualitative research study were clarified in an attempt to provide readers with a clear understanding.

In this chapter, the researcher provides a presentation, analysis, and explanation of the data that were collected through the questionnaire on demographic information, documents and artefacts analysis, an analysis on observations and through the open-ended, semi-structured interview questions. Firstly, the researcher formulates graphic presentations of the data and analyse the participants’ demographic data with regard to age, gender, mainstream teaching experience, highest academic qualification, ethnicity and nationality. Secondly, the researcher focuses on the data obtained from documents and artefacts, and thirdly analyses the observations and data obtained from the open-ended, semi-structured interviews pertaining to the sub-problems of the research study.
Twenty four information-rich participants completed the questionnaires on their demographic details and 30 participated in the one-on-one interviews. The researcher conducted 10 interviews per school (1 principal, 1 deputy principal, 3 heads of departments, 3 educators, and 2 learners), thus totalling 30 (10x3) interviews conducted in the 3 schools. The interview sessions were recorded (audio/video) and on the request of the participants were deleted later on after the researcher gathered all the necessary information. To protect the anonymity of the participants, the researcher used a coding technique where the participants were coded as: 3 principals (P1, P2 and P3), 3 deputy principals (DP1, DP2 and DP3), 9 heads of departments (HoD1 to HoD9), 9 teachers (T1 to T9) and 6 learners (L1 to L6).

4.2 Presentation, Analysis and Discussion of Demographic Data

Demographic details gathered from the questionnaire were analysed and presented in graphical format. The demographic questions were designed to elicit information about participants’ age, gender, mainstream teaching experience, highest academic qualification attained, ethnic group and nationality. All 24 participants who included 3 Ps, 3 DPs, 9 HoDs and 9 Ts returned their demographic questionnaires. The 6 Ls were not given a questionnaire because the questions were not applicable to them and thus the researcher asked them their age during the course of the interview. The researcher illustrated the participants’ demographic data in graphical format in Figures 4.1 to 4.11 below.

4.2.1 Ages of the Participants

As presented in Figures 4.1 to 4.4, the principals’ ages in years were P1-60, P2-49 and
P3–60. The deputy principals’ ages in years were DP1–48, DP2–60 and DP3–60. The heads of departments’ ages in years were HoD1–44, HoD2–45, HoD3–48, HoD4–47, HoD5–38, HoD6–44, HoD7–43, HoD8–49 and HoD9–39. The teachers’ ages in years were T1–47, T2–38, T3–49, T4–38, T5–40, T6–44, T7–53, T8–38 and T9–39. The learners’ ages in years were L1–17, L2–18, L3–13, L4–14, L5–17 and L6–17.

![Figure 4.1: Ages of principals and deputy principals in years.](image)

The principals and deputy principals were mostly above 50 years of age, except two who were between 46-50. Heads of departments were all between 41 and 50 years of age, except two who were between the ages of 36-40. These were followed by four teachers whose ages ranged between of 36-40, one between 41-45, two between 46-50 and three between 51-55. The largest proportions of learners (4 out of 6) were between the ages of 16 and 20 years which were from the high schools and two participants were between the ages of 13 and 14 years of age which were from the primary school.
Figure 4.2: Ages of heads of departments in years.

Figure 4.3: Ages of teachers in years.

Figure 4.4: Ages of learners in years.
The significance of these results is that the school foundation bodies deploy older people with the appropriate experience and maturity to manage schools and their complex problems. The high level of experience and maturity of many principals was vital in adding value to the trend of findings for this study. It should be noted, however, that while the policy of appointment of principals favoured those with long years of service and experience, it locked out the young inexperienced but energetic teachers. Some of those with energy and fresh enthusiasm could have performed better if afforded an opportunity to do so.

It was later observed that those principals and deputy principals who were 50 years and above generally balanced their leadership styles. They used much of the situational leadership approach, because their rich experience has taught them that the situation around the school affects the leadership style of the principals. In addition to being older, they have had a chance to work in various schools and have experienced different ways of doing things. The different challenges they have faced at the end of the day have enabled them to mature in judgment. They have come to note that the differences in values, norms and cultures of schools automatically suggest a variation in leadership styles and a proper variation in leadership styles prompts better school performance. P3 when interviewed had this to say, “A leader has various leadership styles depending on the situation. Leadership is dependent on hands-on experience and differs according to the situation.”

Many of the opinions on the relationship between leadership styles and their influence on school performance emerged from the older group of teacher participants. There were few opinions expressed by the other age groups. This is because the complexity
of this education environment requires someone mature enough, both in age and reflection, to be able to make rational decisions. In addition, the policy of recruitment of principals requires teachers to have served a given number of years before they can be appointed.

Twenty one per cent of all South African teachers are under the age of 40, 36 per cent are between the ages of 40 and 50, and 12 per cent are aged between 50 to 60. Recent studies by the DoE showed that the educator workforce is generally older than the formal sector workforce. Twenty nine per cent of educators are 45 and older, compared to only 21 per cent of the general workforce in the formal sector who are 22.

While, overall, South Africa’s teaching workforce has aged, it has not done so evenly. Considerable differences exist in age structure by region, school sector and school level. For example, teachers aged 55 and over form a lower proportion of the teaching workforce than do employees aged 55 and over of the overall national workforce. Thus, while within the teaching workforce, the share of older teachers has increased over the past 30 years, the increase appears to be concentrated in the 45–55 year age group. Also, a substantial proportion of the teaching workforce will be eligible to retire on age grounds within the next 5–10 years, that is, between 2005 and 2015, a fact which has attracted considerable policy debate. As far as supply issues are concerned, the age profile issue appears to be of greater significance for certain areas of teaching. This has been identified as a significant policy issue in relation to the quality of teaching, and hence of learner learning.

On the one hand, while older teachers may be highly experienced and confident in their teaching roles, there is also a need for updated curriculum knowledge and
pedagogical procedures, as well as for rethinking the structure of a teaching career. However, this need not entail ‘new blood’ policies, but might take the form of new opportunities for professional learning for older, highly experienced teachers. Nevertheless, if an increased number of younger candidates do not enter the teaching profession, and remain in it for an extended period, the teaching profession will be negatively impacted. There will be inadequate numbers to replace those who leave the profession due to age. To avert an imminent shortage, government must embark on an intense drive to attract younger people into the profession.

4.2.2 Gender of the Participants

As presented in Figure 4.5, there were 13 male participants and 17 female participants. There was no major difference in the number, but one feature was very striking to the researcher, that is, most of the principals and deputy principals were male, except one female was a deputy principal. The rest of the positions like the heads of departments and teachers were dominated by females. In South Africa, women dominate the profession with respect to numbers. Seventy one per cent of all teachers are women. The dominance of female teachers in the public sector, most particularly in primary schooling (Foundation and Intermediate phases), mirrors an important aspect of gender roles in the society.

The overall gender imbalance in the profession reflects what many teachers consider an inadequate presence of male role models in the field of teaching. An increased ratio of female teachers has recently manifested itself as a world-wide trend, characteristic of all levels of education, although particularly noticeable in pre-primary and primary
education. A by-product of this is a growing shortage of male role models in teaching, which has a number of effects on learners, one of which is that it tends to undermine attempts to attract male candidates into the teaching profession. This has an impacted on supply, especially for certain critical subjects which conventionally attract more male than female learners.

![Figure 4.5: Gender of the participants.](image)

While the number of female teachers has been rising overall, it has not been increasing, to any comparable or significant degree, in secondary specialist areas such as Science and Mathematics. This presents a challenge to education authorities either to encourage more female educators to specialise in these learning areas or to design strategies to entice more males into taking these subjects in the teaching profession. Given the current qualitative shortages and projected shortfalls in these areas, both strategies will probably be necessary. Despite the increasing feminisation of the teaching profession, women are still underrepresented in management positions in schools. Only pre-primary schools and primary schools are largely under the managerial responsibility of women.
4.2.3 Experience of the Participants

Figures 4.6-4.8 depict the experience of the participants in years, P1-40, P2-22 and P3-42, DP1-23, DP2-42 and DP3-40, HoD1-17, HoD2-18, HoD3-23, HoD4-28, HoD5-18, HoD6-17, HoD7-23, HoD8-18 and HoD9-13. Two of the principals had experiences of 31 years and more and one between 21-25 years. Two deputy principals had experiences of 31 years and more and one between 21-25 years. One HOD had experience between 11-15 years, five between 16-20 years, two between 21-25 years and one between 26-30 years. One teacher had experience between 5-10 years, three between 11-15 years, four between 16-20 years and one between 21-25 years.

![Figure 4.6: Principals’ and deputy principals’ experience in years.](image)

Most of the participants felt that the greater the experience the lesser the need to use autocratic leadership styles and the greater the use of democratic leadership styles. This is because many participants who had taught for 10 years and longer detested the use of strict methods of leadership. The way the teachers perceived and appreciated the principals’ leadership styles varied on the basis of the number of years of service.
Many teachers with more than 10 years experience supported democratic leadership style. Teachers themselves tended to use the democratic leadership style while enforcing discipline and managing the schools programmes, because they wanted the learners to take ‘ownership’ of their behaviour which would eventually impact positively on their performance.

![Figure 4.7: Heads of departments’ experience in years.](image)

![Figure 4.8: Teachers’ experience in years.](image)
4.2.4 Academic Qualifications of the Participants

Figure 4.9 shows that 10 of the participants possessed an educational degree, 6 had an honours degree, 5 had an educational diploma and 2 had a master’s degree. None of them had a doctoral degree. It was very striking to the researcher that very few had any specialised degree in the education field which is very important for excellent service delivery.

![Bar chart showing academic qualifications](chart.png)

**Figure 4.9:** Participants’ academic qualifications.

Qualified teachers are amongst a nation’s most valuable resources as they contribute towards ensuring quality education, and a continued flow of skilled young people into the economy. Qualified teachers have a noticeable impact on the quality of education. However, teacher qualifications per se are only one of the input factors for quality education. Teacher competence is a combination of academic knowledge and methodology. Academic skills are not enough to have a positive influence on learners’ results, and a broader teaching competence is also necessary.
The current qualification framework is specified in the Norms and Standards for Educators, published in 2000. Currently, 77 per cent of South Africa’s teachers have a three-year qualification (a Diploma in Education). The framework has raised the minimum qualification requirement for all new teachers from a three-year post-school level (REQV 13) to a four-year professional degree level (REQV 14). For the present, educators on REQV 13 will continue to be regarded as adequately qualified for employment, but all new educators joining the teaching profession will be required to obtain the minimum of an REQV 14 qualification.

The DoE has introduced initiatives to reduce levels of under-qualification in its teacher workforce, mainly through offering an interim in-service, site-based upgrading of qualifications, the National Professional Diploma in Education (NPDE). As a result of these initiatives, the total number of unqualified and under-qualified educators has been reduced significantly since 1994, when as much as 36 per cent of the workforce fell into this category, having increased consistently during the previous two decades. By 2001, the proportion of unqualified and under-qualified educators had fallen to 18 per cent.

4.2.5 Ethnicity of the Participants

According to Figure 4.10, 22 of the participants were Indians followed by 6 Africans and 2 whites. None of them were coloureds. The effects of the apartheid regime are still felt in every institution in South Africa, and the education system is no exception. Racial bias—the institutionalisation of discriminatory practices and inequality between groups—has led to extreme disparities in the delivery of education.
4.2.6 Nationality of the Participants

As presented in Figure 4.11, 27 participants were South Africans and 3 were non-South Africans (two were from Zimbabwe and one from Cameroon). Although it did not affect the research findings, looking at the current shortage of teachers in South Africa, it is a matter of concern.
Research has been carried out on the movement of South African teachers from their country to other countries. By comparison, little research has been done on the movement of non-South African teachers into the country. Research on teacher migration in South Africa appears to be centred on highlighting and understanding the reasons for the decline in quality of education in the country with the problem being attributed to the loss of teachers to other countries. The movement of teachers out of South Africa left a vacuum in the education system, and led to South Africa becoming a receiving country. The research also revealed that South Africa primarily attracted Zimbabwean skilled workforce, including teachers. Indeed, South Africa has long been attracting intellectuals from the rest of the African continent and projections point towards the continuation of such a trend of migration as long as South Africa remains economically dominant and attractive in Africa (Mestry R & Singh P, 2007).

4.2.7 Conclusion

The demographic data gathered through the questionnaires yielded valuable information on the backgrounds of the participants in schools. From the data analysis, it became clear that most of the higher management positions were dominated by older age groups. There is a need for more male teachers in the education sector who could be good role models for learners. There is also a need for teachers to acquire better qualifications in the education field. Schools had a skewed ethnic group distribution that need to be changed in order to ensure quality education for all. There were few non-South African participants which highlighted skill shortage in the teaching profession in South Africa.
4.3 Presentation, Analysis and Discussion of Documents/Artefacts

4.3.1 Introduction

Documents and artefacts analysis is very important because researchers constantly use contrast to build interpretations that are grounded in the data, within and across actors, events, times, actions, and activities that constitute the social situations of everyday life. Many qualitative (particularly ethnographic) researchers examine material, activity, semiotic (meaning-carrying), and/or social dimensions of everyday life and its consequences for members. The analytic principles of practice that they use include comparing and contrasting data, methods, theories, and perspectives, examining part-whole relationships between and among actions, events, and actors, seeking insider understandings of experiences, actions, practices and events, and identifying through these what is relevant to the local group.

4.3.2 Vision, Mission and Culture

Data collected from the schools studied identified the importance of Vision, Mission, and Culture to school effectiveness. The vision of the principals, staff members, HoDs, teachers and learners was a prominent factor in all the data. The principal’s ideas for success of the school greatly impacted learning in the school. T9 reinforced that a good leader is someone who incorporates the school’s vision in his leadership style. During interviews, staff members, teachers and HoDs used phrases like: ‘vision is very critical in the functioning of a school’, ‘character as well as academics’, ‘academically excellent in all areas’, and ‘transforming the learners’ lives’, and the mission of the school is firmly in place.'
In this study, the culture in schools were characterised by a strong family-based culture of love, peace, mutual respect, and in building the character of the learners so that they can eventually contribute to the betterment of society. This aspect of school effectiveness was supported by the literature. According to Leithwood & Hopkins D (2006), the successful principal must be a strong leader who relates well with people and can bring diverse constituents together to achieve the common purpose of effectively educating learners. They are of the opinion that principals must lead in the development of effective relationships. They also emphasise that the principal is the key to school improvement and must develop the vision of what the school should become.

4.3.3 Curriculum and Classroom Instruction

Data collected during the study of schools indicated the importance of curriculum and classroom instruction to school effectiveness. The principal was seen as an instructional leader. The teachers were involved with the curriculum and addressed individual learners’ needs. All the schools were successful with its curriculum and classroom instruction, given the track record of attendance of its learners. The principals played a key role in ensuring that the curriculum is implemented effectively.

During the interview, P2 mentioned that he is in and out of the classroom regularly. He does formal and informal evaluations. He also incorporates national standards and department standards that influence the way he structures the curriculum in the school. The school’s focus was recognised when T6 mentioned his school bonds well with the community because by involving the community they become active
participants in the upliftment of learners outside the school environment. Teachers were very intentional about learners’ learning. DP1 expressed negative viewpoints concerning the curriculum’s definition, the learning attitudes of the learners, and overall effectiveness of instruction. He felt that learners only wanted to pass the requirements and the school was not achieving high enough levels of instruction.

During the interview, T3 mentioned to the researcher that a personal strength of the principal is his support of new ideas in the classroom and the freedom to do them and that their school is strongly focused on having every learner achieve at least an exemption in order to do a degree course. This aspect of school effectiveness was supported by the literature. Lumby J, Crow G & Pashiardis P (2008) note the importance of a curriculum that reflects the values of the school and teachers that lead within the classroom. They stress the importance of an instructional focus of established academic goals and the frequent monitoring of learner performance. They observed that teachers must understand classroom and family dynamics, lead within the classroom, and develop skills to teach deep subject matter mastery. They also noted that high performing schools focused on the delivery of high-quality teaching and learning for all learners.

4.3.4 Collaboration and Shared Leadership

Data collected during the school study showed evidence of the importance of collaboration and shared leadership to school effectiveness. The principals ensured that decisions connected to teaching and learning were made in an atmosphere of collaboration and shared leadership. P1 expressed a team style of leadership - he truly
believed that people work much better when they are vested in the outcome of whatever the project is. While DP1 agreed to this statement by describing the leadership in the school to be collaborative and shared with regard to vision.

Other teachers lent their support to the high degree of teamwork, for example, T2 mentioned that there is an extensive sense of consensus building. The principal is a charismatic leader and not an overbearing, administrative kind of a leader. He is very collaborative with the staff, and has a lot of control over the curriculum, has classroom style and organization skills. T1’s insight reflected that they can sit down as a whole school and decide how to do things. He thinks they have quite a bit of collaboration in that way because they are working and making decisions together. This aspect of school performance is supported by the literature. Bass, B. (1985) reports that high performing schools had principals who shared leadership among administrators, teachers, and parents. Successful principals had a personal commitment to helping, working with, and trusting others. Sergiovanni (2000) emphasises that the effective school must be a learning community where all the stakeholders are partners. Andrews, R. L., Basom, M., & Basom, M. R., (1991) also show that high-performing schools had collaborative instructional improvement. True collegiality among teachers, parents and principals can make a difference in improving schools from within.

4.3.5 Family and Community Relations

This study identified the importance of family and community relations to school effectiveness. All the schools showed varying degrees of family and community involvement. One of the principal’s shared his plans to bolster parental involvement.
P2 said that their participation in numerous community events makes their school likable and their learners get a chance to serve the community. DP2 said that they definitely have a strong parent organization. But he had an different view on the community when he said the community (as individuals) are somewhat unapproachable, but formal community organizations have a very warm reception to them, and they like their placement there and he thinks that they care for their learners. He continued and said their learners are respected in the community and this community has embraced their school.

This aspect of school effectiveness is supported by the literature. Huber SG (2004) lists as one of the correlates of effective school performance healthy home-school relations. He emphasises the importance of increasing parental involvement at local school sites and principals must welcome parents, regardless of socioeconomic status, and include them in their learner’s educational process. The Urban Institute (Lumby J, Crow G & Pashiardis P, 2008) indicates that exceptionally performing schools principals are more responsive to their community. Thus the researcher concludes that successful schools have strong involvement with parents and communities.

4.3.6 Effective Management

The study also identified the importance of effective management to school success. One would expect a natural dichotomy between an intimate family-style organization and tight efficient management. The principals demonstrated good management practices. DP3 gave his perspective on effective management and insight to his style of leadership. He said that a person adopts a leadership/management style depending on his/her hands on experiences. DP3 took more of the responsibility for good
management. He said that when it comes to management of discipline, it falls into his purview and curriculum decisions are taken by the other deputies as they share responsibilities.

In one of the schools with a newly appointed principal, T8 commented that a first year teacher seemed to struggle with the principal’s disorganised leadership style. However, as far as managing their morale, spiritually and emotionally, he’s great, exceptional at that and encouraging, loving and all those things. T7 said that he thinks that the principal’s forte is being a charismatic leader. He knows he handles lots and lots of details, but he handles them in a much more impulsive way compared to the former principal.

Bush T (2010) determined that administrative behaviour, policies and practices have a significant impact on school effectiveness. He found that high-performing schools had principals who were effective managers of the resources in their schools. He concluded that an effective principal must be a manager and a leader. He noted that principals of tomorrow’s schools must provide managerial support and assistance to teachers.

4.3.7 Conclusion

Data collected during the school study identified the importance of the principal’s leadership behaviour and practices to school effectiveness. The principal’s leadership characteristics as revealed by Kouzes & Posner’s Leadership Practices Inventory were very evident. They were seen as being very strong in modelling the way, inspiring a shared vision, challenging the process, enabling others to act, and encouraging the heart. These aspects of school effectiveness are supported by the literature. Gronn, P.
(2002) has mentioned that the principals of tomorrow’s schools must be instructional leaders who possess the requisite skills, capacities, and commitment to lead. Excellence in school leadership should be recognised as the most important component of school reform in a nutshell, the successful school principal of the future will be the individual who raises academic standards, improves academic achievement for all learners, and provides support and assistance to the faculty.

4.4 Presentation, Analysis and Discussion of Observation Data

4.4.1 Introduction

Observation methods are useful to researchers in a variety of ways. They provided the researcher with ways to check for non-verbal expression of feelings, determine who interacts with whom, grasp how participants communicate with each other, and establish how much time is spent on various activities. Participant observation allowed the researcher to corroborate definitions of terms that participants use in interviews, observe events that informants may be unable or unwilling to share when doing so would be impolite or insensitive, and observe situations informants have described in interviews, thereby making them aware of distortions or inaccuracies in description provided by those informants. It provided several advantages of using participant observation over other methods of data collection, including access to ‘backstage culture,’ i.e., richly detailed descriptions of one's goal of describing ‘behaviours, intentions, situations, and events as understood by one's informants’. It provided opportunities for viewing or participating in unscheduled events.
4.4.2 Valuing Human Resources

The principals were visible in all the schools. They tried to show that they care about every single individual on the premises of the school. They involved themselves in casual conversations throughout the day. During the observations sessions at the schools, the researcher noticed that the principals went beyond the development of a common vision; they value the human resources of their organizations. They provided an environment that promotes individual contributions of deputy principals, HoDs, teachers and learners to the organization’s work by always consulting with them. They developed and maintained collaborative relationships formed during the development and adoption of the shared vision. They formed teams, supported team efforts, developed the skills that groups and individuals need, and provided the necessary resources, both human and material, to fulfil the shared vision.

4.4.3 Physical Environment

All three schools believed in going green. The physical environment depicted the initiative taken by learners and teachers to turn their school greener. Lots of environmental friendly projects were held at the school like recycling, planting of trees as well as making their school litter free by promoting awareness in children by addressing them during assemblies. All the schools had good sports grounds and were planning to improve their facilities by raising funds and involving the community to contribute to their strategic plan. Learners had adequate seating place to do their work. Classrooms were decorated with information-rich charts. The classrooms were also wide and there was personal space for each learner. The environment was conducive to learning. The teacher’s staffrooms were spacious. They were provided
with computers, printers and storage place for their teaching material. The teachers were never isolated and interacted to each other in a friendly manner. If they needed to send messages they liaised with the secretary to pass on the message through the intercom which leads to the smooth functioning of the school.

In addition, the availability of time and money to improve the physical structures of schools may also facilitate or impede change or school improvement. In their study of urban school change, Huber SG (2004) cite constraints of the physical plant as a major source of implementation problems. Because they are restricted to the classroom and tend to have a limited network of ongoing professionally-based interaction within their schools or with their professional peers, most teachers have limited contact with new ideas. On the other hand, a study conducted by Bush T & Oduro G (2006) shows how, even in a physical environment that is conducive to interaction, an aggregate of people who are interdependent yet isolated” may exist. The staff of the school that they studied had a philosophy of freedom and of high communication levels, yet “people did not talk about significant events. This seems to indicate that the physical environment may contribute to the betterment of the schools performance.

4.4.4 Principals’ Presence in School

On many visits to the schools, the researcher freely roamed in the corridors. The principals were most of the times monitoring the movement in the school. They encouraged teachers and learners to put up inspirational posters and displays on the walls of the corridors. Since the principals gave the researcher free range of the school, she visited many classrooms and sat quietly and observed both learners and
the teacher. In every classroom, teachers were teaching and learners were on task and the principals were very often spotted interacting with teachers and learners in the classrooms. She observed learners changing classes. There was little time wastage during this period. Changing classes was not a time for socialisation in this school as learners quickly took seats at their desks and the teachers promptly began teaching because the principal was always monitoring their movement.

The researcher also observed the principals on many occasions while she was waiting for her interview sessions to begin. They seemed to be in the corridors constantly, talking to learners and always calling them each by name. They were warm and caring with the learners as well as the teachers. The teachers and the learners seem to know that they are important to him. This feeling of a warm and caring culture was validated over and over again as the researcher observed the atmosphere in classrooms and talked with staff, non-teaching staff and learners. How people acted and what they said about the school also validated the importance of a warm and caring culture at the schools.

As it goes between teacher and principal so will it go in other relationships in the school. If the teacher-principal relationship can be characterised as helpful, supportive and trusting, so too will relationships between teachers, learners, and parents. Unfortunately, according to Daresh J & Male T (2000), the relationships between teachers and principals have become increasingly strained with growing emphasis on teacher empowerment, learner minimum competency, collective bargaining, reduction in teacher force, increased litigation and, above all, ‘accountability’. The administrative subculture must deal with issues of accountability, control, and change.
Christie P (2010) asserted that these values, frequently place principals in direct conflict with teachers. According to Daresh J & Male T (2000), however, a bond of trust and mutual support between principal, teachers and learners appears to be basic to school improvement.

4.4.5 Conclusion

It was noted by the researcher that broad participation in developing the change programme is essential to implementation. Schools, like other social systems, can be described in terms of power relationships and recognition of these relationships and the distribution of power is a significant issue in change. The basis for power rests with the acquisition of three commodities: information (technical knowledge, expertise), resources (money, human services, material goods, space, time), and support (endorsement, backing, legitimacy). Access to these commodities by those ultimately responsible for using a specific innovation is critical to successful implementation. Personnel who will encourage the flow of information between the formal and informal systems and, where needed, make sure that the flow occurs.

4.5 Presentation, Analysis and Discussion of Interview Data

4.5.1 Introduction

In this section, the researcher present, analyse and discuss information regarding the sub-problems, namely:

- In what way does the leadership and leadership style of the principal affect a school?
- What does school performance entail?
• What attributes of leadership are perceived by principals and how do these leadership attributes impact on school performance?

• How is school performance dependent upon principals’ leadership and his/her leadership style?

The researcher conducted 30 one-on-one interviews with the respective participants at the 3 schools. The focus of Chapter 4 is therefore port back on the opinions of the 30 participants, namely the 3 Ps, 3 DPs, 9 HoDs, 9 Ts and 6 Ls who participated in the interviews.

4.5.1.1 In What Way Does the Leadership and Leadership Style of the Principal Affect a School?

In order to establish whether there was any kind of relationship between performance and the leadership style, the participants were asked whether the principal’s leadership style had an effect on the overall performance of the school. A number of responses were elicited from the participants. P2 pointed out:

If the principal’s leadership style is stressful when he doesn’t consult with stakeholders of the school on issues pertaining to teaching and learning in the school the school won’t function normally which will result in low school performance.

Teachers in the same school reiterated the same views. The teachers pointed out that in most schools where the principals had some kind of cooperation with the teachers and the learners, there was commendable performance. Similarly, the learners interviewed were of the view that poor leadership and a lack of communication and effective consultation was responsible for poor school performance. The findings from the teachers and learners seem to be in agreement with D’Souza’s (1994) conclusion.
that building a strong sense of educational development in school ownership structures may lead to the realisation of school improvement. P3 pointed out:

Leadership is critical in the school and because of this I use a consultative method which includes all the stakeholders of the school. This is because we want to build a consultative relationship in the school. This has helped to create teamwork and as members of the school we can easily work together, and in so doing we have been in position to produce good results.

In order to triangulate the findings from the principals, it was deemed fitting to establish the views of the teachers. The responses from the teachers indicated that their participation was recognised when the learners performed well. During the evaluation of results in the staff meetings, the principal and the deputy principals would always call upon the teachers to identify the reasons for the poor performance in the school. When the problem had been identified, the teachers and the principal and, if necessary, parents would sit together as a team to solve the problem. In most cases they would agree on extra tuition for relevant candidate classes and learners. This, according to the teachers, had gradually improved the academic performance in the school as a whole. An analysis of the teachers’ responses revealed that in this school there was a democratic style of leadership. P1 pointed out:

If one’s leadership is consultative, then it must result in a very good performance. If there is a lot of dictatorship, a lot is likely to be withheld from teachers or learners. For us the system we have is to involve all the stakeholders. The purpose of this is to create ownership. So when everybody owns such policies like assessment and curriculum, then it can lead to excellent performance.

The researcher also had the opportunity to confer with teachers in the same school who were of the view that only through consultation with teachers that the school
performance could be improved. The views expressed by the participants seem to be in tandem with Day & Harris’s (in Frost & Harris, 2003) conclusion that teachers have leadership capabilities waiting to be unlocked and engaged for the good of the school. Frost & Harris (2003) inferred that enabling teachers to exercise leadership is an essential dimension of capacity building in the school. P3 revealed:

"Leadership style is depending on the performance of various factors such as school’s climate, the administration as well as the non-teaching staff. This is because when you take all these factors into account, everybody is likely to be involved and where everybody is involved, there is likely to be accountability. Working together for good performance is part and parcel of being accountable. So the leadership style matters in improving performance."

An attempt was made to talk to the teachers in order to verify the researcher’s findings. The teachers revealed that the principal did consult them especially on issues concerning academic progress, more especially on issues concerning management of learner preparation time, issues on co-curricular activities, challenges affecting particular subjects, issues related to the inter-school exchange programmes such as seminars and the purchase of the various academic facilities such as textbooks. On how this had influenced performance, teachers pointed out, that adequate consultation has enhanced cooperation between the learners, teachers, HODs and parents. This has gradually improved academic performance.

An analysis of the viewpoints of the participants revealed that in this school there was consultation among the stakeholders in matters concerning teaching and learning. Lastly, P3 revealed that ‘where’ the principal is conversant with the work in the school and involves others this will be reflected in the performance of the school. So the
principal whose approach is bottom up is likely to be more successful. From the above, therefore, it was worth noting that the democratic leadership style can yield better school performance if properly implemented.

**4.5.1.2 What Does School Performance Entail?**

In this section, participants’ responses to the question, “What are the factors determining performance in the school?” are provided. All principals gave almost similar responses by referring to strong leadership, discipline and hardworking staff, supportive parents, discipline and committed learners and a strong culture where learners are self-motivated to do things on their own and where there a rich environment for teaching and learning.

On strategies to make their schools performing ones, principals gave responses ranging from transformation to building a new culture characterised by, among others, inculcating a spirit of self-instruction among learners. During the course of the interview, P2 who considered teachers as the most critical resource for improved school performance said:

> The school is performing well because the teachers know their subject material which leads to great results. As soon as I was posted to this school my first action was to raise the bars of expectations.

All principals, however, asserted that a principal has a very crucial role to play in school effectiveness. HoD3 commented:

> Our principal is a nurturer where people just grow on a personal and professional level. We are trying to move away from working as individuals
to working as teams collaboratively. Once the teachers saw that he is with and for them, they all started working hard.

An examination of school performance is important because, as Bush T & Oduro G (2006) study points out:

Alike as schools may be in many ways, each school has an ambience of its own and, further, its ambience may suggest to the careful observer useful approaches to making it a better school.

Van der Westhuizen PC & Van Vuuren H (2007), in their study of five districts implementing and then discontinuing programmes, postulate that the key to programme implementation and continuation is “the interactive relationships that teachers have worked out together regarding 'how we get things done here.’” Depending upon how well leaders understand and use this notion, factors affecting performance of the school assist school improvement efforts for at-risk learners, or act as a barrier to change. The performance of the school reflects the local culture in many ways. When schools seek to improve, a focus on the values, beliefs, and norms of both the school and the environment outside the school is necessary Barnett BG & O’ Mahony GR., (2008).

One cannot rule out the role of school culture in ensuring good school performance. According to Barnett BG & O’Mahony GR., (2008), performance depends on a complex set of values, including beliefs, assumptions and symbols that define the way in which an organization conducts itself to achieve its goals. In this sense, performance by all stakeholders has a strong influence on an organization like a school. The core element of organizational performance is shared values (Wiener, 1988; Daft, 2002). Through
the school’s vision, mission, values and traditions, a well-built performance of excellence and discipline plays a pivotal role in the enhancement of the school’s progress. Indeed, schools with a strong culture of excellence will always remain so irrespective of a change in headship and leadership style.

4.5.1.3 What Attributes of Leadership are Perceived by Principals and How Do These Leadership Attributes Impact on School Performance?

- **Autocratic Leadership Style and School Performance**

The autocratic style of leadership refers to a situation whereby a leader issues close instructions to his subordinates and makes most of the decisions (Ezenne, 2003). In this study, it was necessary to ascertain the levels at which the autocratic leadership style singularly influences school performance, that is whether autocratic styles result in poorer school performance. According to Charlton (2000), principals who use strict control measures are likely to face learner and teacher resistance and an increase in indiscipline because the teachers and learners tend to protest against dictatorial measures used. Learners hate harsh administrators who make their academic performance record decline tremendously. Likewise, teachers do not want commanding authority. Such authority makes them lose morale and they neglect their duty.

In much the same way, descriptive statistics computed regarding the parents’ opinions on the use of the autocratic leadership style to enhance school performance, provides the same results. Teachers perceive the use of the autocratic leadership style in enhancing school performance in a negative light. Learners need guidance and counselling into the learning process other than coercing them to learn. Autocratic
leaders, according to teachers, are too strict to ensure effectiveness. From the interview sessions with the teachers, it was established that all the participants were of the view that where some principals adopt an autocratic leadership style, the school may not obtain good results. In one of the schools where this kind of leadership was not practised by the principal but one of the deputy principal practised this kind of leadership, HoD2 said,

Autocrats are dictators who just impose their commands on others which lead to the distancing of people from them.

The same HoD reported how very seldom the deputy passes their messages to the principal because he always wants things to be done his way. A lot of teachers from that school agreed that autocratic leadership is practised by some of the heads in the school. P1 was asked whether during his time of leadership, he used the autocratic leadership style. He replied:

Yes, sometimes I needed to adapt autocratic style of leadership when it came to the implementation of policies from the department”. DP1, when asked about this style of leadership, replied, “There are situations when you have to take decision without consultation, as there cannot be too many chiefs of an Indian tribe.

Similarly, P3 replied:

I use autocratic leadership style which is called the Shura in Islamic terms, where each person is allowed to give their suggestions which builds their self-confidence, but the final decision will be taken by me and the stakeholders will be explained why this decision was made.

From the above, it is clear that the autocratic leadership style was used in schools
although it was not a common practice. This kind of leadership was used under various circumstances, especially when policies had been compromised. An analysis of the views from the participants revealed that in some schools there was a top down leadership style, which in this study is characterised as the autocratic kind of leadership. It has also been observed that whereas it might be easy to initiate and implement changes from above, sustaining them over a long period of time might prove difficult. In most cases, decisions might require a bottom up approach.

It was also established that learner leaders, too, did not favour autocratic leaders, because such leaders are believed to be harsh towards learners and decisions are in most cases self-centred. This is also in conflict with learners. In cases where the school’s stakeholders have an interest in the school they contribute to the academic excellence of a school as a whole. It is not wise to adopt the autocratic leadership style because this style denies collective involvement and participation. The views from the participants on the relationship between the autocratic leadership style and school performance seemed to indicate that where autocratic leadership was practiced it was not very easy to come up with very good performance in schools. DP2 said:

> Autocratic leadership woks in a school which is totally in a mess. So in such a situation autocrats can walk in and dictate, to put the systems in place to improve the schools’ performance.

This argument is supported by Sashkin & Sashkin (2003:25) as follows: “When an employee is not ready, that is, has inadequate skills and lacks motivation to get the job done, the appropriate leadership strategy, according to the Hersey-Blanchard theory, is to be very directive.”
In such a situation, he goes on to explain, that the supervisor, in this case the principal, tells such teachers what to do, how to do it, and supervises them closely to make sure the work gets done as required. It is also not uncommon to find staff who know what to do, but won’t do it.

This is as McGregor (1960) explains in his Theory Y, that human beings are lazy, dislike work and that they will only work when coerced to do so. However, some people can also work without being coerced. This is especially the case with mature teachers, particularly if they are motivated. But even in the case of young teachers who are willing and ready to work, the emphasis should be on encouragement and motivation.

Sashkin & Sashkin (2003:25) posit:

If there is some readiness, evidenced by willingness (motivation), but inadequate skills, the supervisor becomes a coach, guiding the employees through the details of the task while providing encouragement.

In that case, the leadership approach is based on giving support, whilst refraining from giving directions. This is because employees, like teachers, need good motivation and support, but this can only be attained by having a very good principal with a good leadership style. The views of the participants were also found to be in agreement with Frost & Harris’s (2003) conclusion that in order to build capacity in schools it is important that all teachers are afforded opportunities to exploit their potential so as to bring about change and development in schools. It has been demonstrated that the quality of leadership matters in determining the motivation of teachers and the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom.

- Democratic Leadership Style and School Performance
Principals contend that democracy is the best leadership strategy for school environments. With the democratic leadership style, decisions are made democratically by the group, encouraged and assisted by the leader. Decisions on various activities in the organization are made after communication, consultation and discussions with the various members of the organization. In the democratic style of leadership, the leader also delegates some of his responsibilities to his subordinates, providing them with the opportunity to participate in organizational decision-making after they have been discussed (Ezenne, 2003). Similarly, in terms of the democratic leadership style, there is high cohesion and involvement in the affairs of the institution, and staff members show a positive attitude towards their leaders (Ezenne, 2003). The democratic style of leadership uses discussion and bargaining to arrive at decisions. This generates high morale among staff and promotes greater group productivity (Ezenne, 2003). So in order to ascertain the aspects of democratic leadership, structured interviews were administered among selected participants. The interviews intended to establish the perceptions of principals in relation to the democratic type of leadership, why they use it, when it is used in schools and the relationship between the democratic leadership style and school performance. P2 said:

Schools cannot function systematically only through the contribution made by one person. We need to work as a team to attain success and reach higher levels in school performance. The principals, for example, need the co-operation and leadership of teachers in order to ensure academic excellence. The principals and teachers need the parents and the community in order to share information on their children’s progress and at the same time to get financial assistance for equipping the school with educational materials. Later on with the infrastructural development parents are also critical friends of the school who are able to identify where
the gathered funds can be utilised in the school.

The participants in this study asserted that the views of all stakeholders in the school are important. For example, P3 pointed out:

The style of leadership is critical to school performance, how leadership is implemented and how the people respond and influence each other is very important.

In order to understand the role of leadership in the school, the researcher triangulated the findings from the principals by cross-checking them with the views from the teachers and learners. The teachers were asked to describe the leadership style of principals and this is what T2 said:

He sustains the cordial relationship between the teaching, non-teaching staff and support staff. He is very observant and alert about what’s happening around the school. We often find him having casual conversation with the learners which I think is to get the feel of what’s happening in their peer groups. So teachers are encouraged to have an input on issues pertaining to the performance of the school. The principals also establish teamwork among the teachers and act as coaches.

On reflection of the teacher’s remarks, it can be concluded that the principal enjoys working with the staff and facilitating teamwork. This might, therefore, mean that these principals believe in teacher leadership. With teacher leadership, there is always the use of the power of teamwork so that people can benefit from each other’s strengths and synergy. This style of leadership also reflects invitational leadership in which leaders invite others to participate in decision-making. So in this study, there was some evidence of democratic leadership. In response to a question on when principals consult the teachers, the teacher responded that it was on every day during
staff briefings. Here the principals consult with the teachers on issues pertaining to
the management of the school. It was also revealed that consultations are made
during the departmental meetings and subject meetings as well. Relating specifically
to what issues teachers got involved in, T7 responded as follows:

Any major issues like discipline and staff grievances are taken up with the
board of members. Then the teacher representatives who are represented
by the staff members report back with the solutions and then the matter is
resolved.

Consultation is critical if the school is to succeed. So in this study, the researcher
sought to understand the teacher’s perception on the importance of consultation. T3
had this to say on consultation:

Consultation in a school setting with the stakeholders is critical because it
helps us to move as a team and avoid disappointment and disagreement. It
actually brings about ownership of decisions and creates a consensus of
decision-making in the school as they have also agreed in the decision
making process.

An attempt was made in this study to establish the teachers’ perceptions on the role of
leadership in the vision and mission in the school. This is because the mission clearly
explains the purpose of the school’s existence and the vision charts the way forward
for the actualisation of the mission. So, in this study, it was the intention of the
researcher to establish whether teachers were aware that the school had mission and
vision statements and how these were developed. T9 replied:

The school has a mission and the vision which play a very important role to
set our goals for academic excellence.

Planning is crucial for the success of the school. So in order to establish the planning
process in the school, the teacher was therefore asked whether there was any planning in the school, what the school planned for and who was involved in the planning processes and why. The teacher responded that planning was normally done in August –September of the current year for the following year, although there were other planning frameworks in the school, such as the five-year strategic and development plans made at the board level, which guide the direction of the school. At the departmental level, HODs and teachers plan for the materials to be used and they submit them to the principal. When questioned why all stakeholders were involved, the teacher said because as a team they can relay their needs to the principal it was important for them to be involved at the outset.

At the board level, it is imperative to involve all stakeholders, because these are interested parties and therefore their interest must be protected. When asked what the role of leadership in the school planning process was, the teacher responded that it was meant to basically provide direction and to facilitate the planning process. So the fact that the planning process was collaborative is an indication of participatory leadership. Leadership of the school is critical to its performance. So in this study it was the intention of the researcher to establish from the teachers the role of leadership in as far as school performance was concerned. T5 replied:

To maintain good ties with parents and community of the school, academic excellence, and to involve all stakeholders in the management of the school is very important.
On the relationship between leadership style and performance, T6 had this to say:

We all work as a team which offers support and suggestions during the process of problem solving. In our school we have a very open relationship with each other which is due to the democratic leadership practiced by our dear principal. There is also a collaborative arrangement in decision-making between the teachers and their HoDs as well as on a higher management level such as the deputy principal and principal, not forgetting the board members. This, in turn, has led to the good performance of the school.

Similarly, T3 responded,

The principal’s leadership skills are very critical. The principal’s sharing of the vision with the rest of the school community is important in leadership.

This is very true in a school context; leadership is about sharing the vision with the school community. However, this can effectively be done when there is some kind of collaboration in a school in as far as leadership is concerned. This is in tandem with Ezenne’s (2003) conclusion that leaders usually establish directions by developing visions for the future in an organization. P1 pointed out that:

Leadership in a school is very important, especially consultative or participative leadership.

On why this was so, P1 revealed:

The participative kind of leadership creates ownership of policies and programmes in a school.

When teachers in a school are involved in decision-making, they will own the decisions and, therefore, the policies in the school. In addition, the democratic style of leadership can create teacher leadership. Teacher leadership refers to the behaviour
that facilitates principled pedagogic action towards whole school improvement. It is about teachers’ choices in initiating and sustaining change in schools (Frost & Harris, 2003). So the democratic kind of leadership in a school can bring about distributed leadership where teachers may take on their own initiatives. This might also create motivation amongst teachers, which eventually may lead to good school performance. The message on the basis of the views of the participants is that leadership in schools is critical. All the participants seemed to imply that effective leadership is needed in order to give direction. This is congruent with Adair (in Law & Glover, 2000) who concluded that effective educational leaders give direction, for example, finding ways towards generating a clear sense of direction, identifying new goals, offering inspiration to followers and building teamwork. In order to elicit principals’ perceptions about the kind of leadership that they used in schools, interviews were administered amongst themselves. From the responses that were elicited, the democratic style of leadership was the most preferred.

P3 pointed out the following:

Personally, I prefer the democratic style of leadership, but at times I am forced to use a different style of leadership depending on the situation. I use the autocratic where people fail to contribute during decision making process.

P2 revealed:

Democratic style of leadership allows each member to voice their opinion; actually it’s their right to do so. They have to be involved in decision-making. When teachers are involved, they get to own the decisions in schools. Depending on the situation the kind of leadership varies between the democratic and the autocratic.
More or less the same ideas were expressed by one of the female teachers in the same school. In a bid to describe the principal’s leadership style, T4 had this to say:

I think his style is co-operative. He co-operates with every stakeholder. He lets other people give inputs, although on some issues, he will take the final decision.

The teacher pointed out that another important function of principals as leaders is team building, so that even in the absence of the principal the school can still function smoothly. It is one of the dimensions of democratic leadership, which includes distributing responsibility among members of the school organization, empowering these members, and aiding their participation Roberts J & Roach J (2006).

Asked on what and when he delegates, T1 replied:

Deputy Principals are given powers to conduct meetings or at times different people are put in charge on different occasions. For example, the curriculum and academic committees can decide the monitoring of learners’ progress on behalf of the principal.

In response to why he thought that delegation was important, T1 revealed:

It helps to develop the leadership in all the stakeholders in the school. It makes other people responsible and accountable to what goes on in the school.

In terms of how he would describe the kind of leadership style employed in the school, the teacher replied that it is mostly democratic and sometimes dictatorial. He would, however, have preferred a scenario incorporating most of the time democratic approach and at times autocratic approach and that autocratic leadership should be
only used when it is absolutely necessary.

Relating to when teachers get involved in decision-making, it was reported that it was usually during planning meetings at the beginning and end of the term. It was also learnt there were HODs meetings and briefings in the morning and whenever issues arose, teachers would be consulted. On whether consultation of teachers was important, the teacher revealed that teachers are implementers of most of the decisions in the school. So if they are not involved they might not do what they would otherwise have done if they were not consulted. In response to whether there was any relationship between the principal’s leadership style and the performance of the school, T5 responded as follows:

Because of the democratic leadership, people give ideas and on many occasions such ideas are adopted by the principal in the school. This kind of leadership brings about teacher empowerment, which eventually might lead to improved school performance.

An analysis of the teachers’ responses reveals that their principal used two types of leadership styles. There was evidence of the democratic and the autocratic styles of leadership. It was also evident that the democratic style of leadership was favoured compared to the autocratic one. It was also established that when the democratic style of leadership was used, it was more likely to have better school outcomes. This is in agreement with Roberts J & Roach J (2006) conclusion that working with stakeholders to set school improvement goals and plans for achieving them, and involving stakeholders in school planning and decision-making, are key indicators of school improvement.
P1 pointed out:

I am very consultative. My role is to provide direction to what has been discussed. Teachers come up with ideas and I try to implement some of their suggestions during policy and curriculum discussions. The situation in the school at a particular time may dictate the kind of leadership in a school. So this means that I vary leadership depending on the situation.

Similarly, HOD2 revealed:

Sometimes I am a little harsh when the teachers don’t do their job properly like, for example, when they go late to their classes or when they don’t hand in the marks to the office on time. Under such circumstances, the democratic style may not be used.

On whether, it was important for teachers to get involved in decision-making, T8 replied:

Teachers are the most important role players in the school as they are the ones who teach the learners, so in order for the schools to run efficiently, teachers’ involvement is critical.

On whether there was any relationship between the principal’s leadership style and performance, T9 revealed:

Actually for the school to perform well there must be good leadership style of the principal because if the leadership of the school is weak the school will not perform well.

T9’s direct words are as follows:

Poor leadership will lead to poor academic performance. So in this case, the quality of leadership matters.
In order to establish whether there was any relationship between the autocratic style of leadership and school performance, the researcher asked the teacher how the autocratic leadership style of the principals had affected performance. P2 revealed,

I engage my teachers in their professional developments who eventually engage themselves in good teaching and learning process.

A teacher in the school was asked how he perceived the principal’s leadership style. The teacher’s response indicated that the principal appeared to have two styles of leadership; sometimes he is democratic and on other occasions he is autocratic. On the issue of flexible leadership styles, P2 further argued:

Good performance can only be achieved when the leadership style changes according to the need of the situation. To bring about positive change in the performance of the school all the stakeholders must know the need of the situation and act accordingly.

When HoD7 was asked how he would describe the principal’s leadership style, he responded:

He is very impulsive and takes decisions without thinking of the consequences, but he tries to please everyone as he listens to them.

As to why it was important for teachers to get involved in decision-making, HoD7 pointed out that it was necessary for effective participation and performance. HoDs’ involvement also creates ownership of decisions and so teachers feel free to accept them. It was also learnt from the teacher that HoDs in this school get involved in decision-making when they are called upon. Also where there is room, teachers also take initiatives, but more especially when called upon to do so.
On whether the school has had a mission and vision statement, it was found that the school had both a mission and vision statement. On the role of leadership in the vision and mission process, T4 replied:

Role of leadership is to lead by example and if the leader has the same mission and vision as the school, the school will yield good performance.

On whether, the school engages in participatory planning at all, T4 revealed:

The school plans for curriculum delivery, and that teachers in the department participate in planning for their departments. They plan because they know the level of the learners and the contents to cover.

It was also noticed by the researcher that the deputy principal was involved in the supervisory role of planning; ensuring that what is planned for is harmonised with adequate resources. But the principal is the overall supervisor. In addition, all stakeholders are involved. So there is collaborative planning. On whether there was any relationship between principal’s leadership style and school performance, T2 had this to say:

Proper leadership can enable the school to have better results because through strong leadership you will find that nearly every staff member will feel free to contribute to the smooth running of the school, learners will also be open and free to study because they are not interrupted all the time; but if there is chaos somewhere in leadership, chaos will spread to the learners and it will confuse them or disturb their studies.

In order to verify the findings from the principal and teachers, the researcher interviewed the deputy principal to establish whether their school is a good and an effective one. DP2 had the following to say:
It is a good school, when you consider the kind of learners we take. We, for example, admit learners with dismal passes at the primary school whose start to high school is a bit shaky. A lot of effort is put in by the teachers to bridge that gap through intervention classes which are held twice a week. So I think our school is an effective school.

Concerning the relationship with the stakeholders, T4 revealed:

The relationship is good. We relate very well with the community. For example, our outreach programme like annual walk, feeding scheme, fund raising, etc. Some of our learners are from affluent families from the community itself, they manage to donate some items to the needy members within the community.

In order to make the study more credible, the researcher elicited the views of the learners in relation to the issues raised with the principals and the teachers. When asked to comment on the school performance, L1 pointed out:

The school is good because of its exemplary performance. The academic standard is good and relationship between the teachers and parents is good. We take part in lots of department competitions and our learners perform very well in them. The principal also loves and cares for learners. He allows interpersonal conversation with them. He gives us plenty of time. He is also fatherly.

T8 pointed out:

Every leader has his own leadership style. Our current principal is younger than the ex-principal and thus he is always visible in extracurricular activities of the school, even on weekends. He has been able to create a strong teamwork among staff. He works with us. He is everywhere and he attends all the staff meetings in the school. There are no communication gaps and he has been able to develop leaders amongst us.
Similarly, T2 had this to say:

The principal is very accommodating and knows us on a personal level. He is very accommodating and he encourages us to do the best in all aspects of life. A principal should be a person who is open to all stakeholders who come to the school, he should show interest in those people...the other point is that he should be flexible and be able to change and find the right way of how to do things.

In this study, the researcher established that the principal in this school practised some kind of democratic leadership, although at times he was assertive. This was pointed out by T3 as follows:

Our principal is a very busy person, so most of the information is passed through staff meetings. The purpose of this is to involve everybody.

On how this was done, T2 pointed out:

Whatever is done in the school is discussed first during staff meetings. For example, our principal is currently on sick leave as he underwent a heart surgery so the staff decided to let the deputy principals of the school act on his behalf. They take major decisions in his absence.

Similarly, L3 revealed:

The principal is very co-operative he listens to the learners’ views before making decisions related to them. He consults us and at times listens to our views and sometimes our views are taken into consideration.

On whether such a kind of leadership approach in the school was necessary for effective school performance, T4 responded:

It creates teamwork and participation. No one will say that this policy was forced on to us. So it enables us to move harmoniously.
It was also revealed that through HODs, the class and subject meetings were effectively used in the school to create a forum for consultation in the school. It was also pointed out that the teachers meet once every two weeks with the learner representatives. This, therefore, allowed them to elicit learners' opinions. Another salient feature in this school was that some teachers in the school were given a responsibility. Teachers were assigned some learners for the purposes of giving them advice and guidance. Questioned on the significance of this, T3 replied:

Having an interpersonal relationship enables our learners to be open to us.
It motivates teachers and learners which can lead to school improvement.

It was also discovered that because of the democratic leadership in the school, teachers could take their own initiative. Similarly, L4 answered:

We have informal chats with our class teacher where we openly discuss our grievances if something is not working for us. Through such meetings our suggestions are taken into consideration.

It was also ascertained that learner committees were in place. The purpose of this is to get ideas from the learners and then take them to the school administration. L3 concluded:

We are given various channels of communications. Through such channels, ideas from the learners can be taken to the teachers and if it's for the betterment of the learners it gets incorporated into the school policies and plans by the principal.

On why it was important to consult the learners in policy formulation and decision making in the school, L5 pointed out:
It is important because any change in the school will have a direct effect on us as learners, for example, the change in homework plan, assessment or exam dates.

The realisation of the vision and the mission of any organization are synonymous and dependent on good leadership. In this study and in this case in particular, it was the intention of the researcher to establish whether the school had a vision and a mission, how these were formulated and the role of leadership in the formulation of the vision and mission of the school. Specifically, it was established that the school had a vision and mission, but these were not known to all the learners.

It was observed that the school’s mission statement as displayed was to, “Provide quality education and mould learners into God-fearing, responsible and socially acceptable members of the society.” The school’s vision on the other hand was “To excel in grooming learners to serve the society.” The researcher discovered that both the vision and mission were collaboratively developed, although at a certain point in time, the teachers were given an opportunity to refine them. Thereafter, the vision and mission were translated into action.

Unfortunately, it was discovered from the learners that they had a vague idea about the vision and the mission of the school. On the role of school leadership, in the process of developing the vision and the mission of the school, it was understood from the teachers that school leadership should provide direction to the people in the performance of their specific tasks, offer guidance, create teamwork and ensure that all the stakeholders are informed about the vision and mission in the school.
Similarly, L6 said:

The most challenging thing for me is how to win the hearts of the learners because they are the most difficult ones. If you do not win their interest and support you will not be a leader in other sense a role model for them. The vision and mission plays a very important role in a school and I always remind my fellow learners to keep that in mind to achieve good results.

Planning in the school is another area that needs effective leadership and involvement of all the stakeholders. In this study, therefore, it was the intention of the researcher to establish whether schools undertake planning, strategic planning development, what the school planned for, who was involved and why? It was discovered that in this particular case, the school planned for the human and financial resources for the effective delivery of the curriculum. On who was involved, T4 replied:

All the stakeholders such as the teachers, HoDs, deputy principals, principals and the school governing body (SGB) members are involved in the planning process.

On why the school involves all the stakeholders in planning, T3 indicated:

Some of these stakeholders are the ones to implement these plans like the principal, deputy principal and few teachers. If you are planning to build a multipurpose court and you do not involve the stakeholders who are in charge of making arrangements for the necessary funds, you will be wasting time. So is the purchase of books without informing the teachers you will be wasting the resources because they are the ones who implement the use of the books.

Leadership, especially from the principal, is generally acknowledged as an important influence on a school’s effectiveness (Anderson & Dexter, 2005). Studies of school improvement also point to the importance of principal’s leadership in such efforts
(Dexter, cited in Fullan, 2001). So, in this study, it was the intention of the researcher to establish from the participants whether leadership in a school contributes to school performance and whether there was any relationship between the leadership style of the principal of a school and its performance. It was established that leadership is key to school performance. T6 expressed her views as follows:

The leadership must also ensure that there is equal distribution of resources in the school. In a school, this is critical; without it may not succeed. In addition, creation of unity and teamwork among teachers is the role of leadership. In this school, the principal offers direction in all curriculum work. He offers motivation to teachers both verbally and monetary to the teachers and encouragement to the learners, he does the supervisory role. He supervises what is done in the school. He is on the ground.

Likewise, L5 revealed:

When our principal encourages us to work hard we get motivated. This enables us to strive to achieve and eventually we succeed or get there. During the extra time and prep, the learner leaders also contribute a lot because they have been made part of the school administration. They guide other learners. This has enabled the school to achieve its objectives. This reveals some kind of democratic leadership.

On whether the principal’s leadership has influence on the school’s performance, T7 pointed out:

The relationship between the two is big. There is participation and ownership of school policies. For example, we own the policies and the results in the school because we participate in initiation of academic polices. Teaching staff has the liberty to lay strategies. If you think that as a teacher you may require extra instructional material to guide learners, we have the liberty to do so after consultation. Our principal’s leadership style allows us to take decisions that will help us to improve the performance of the school through these policy changes.
The teachers pointed out that the climate of the school is generally good. The relationship between the teachers and the learners is good, so is the relationship between the teachers and principal and between the principal and learners. The leadership, especially the learners, has been empowered to take on leadership responsibilities and, in addition, there is good parental and community participation. In a bid to triangulate the views of the teacher, the researcher interviewed some learners. The learners were asked whether they liked the school. It was learnt from the learners that the school has a good learning environment. L1 revealed:

The school gives us an opportunity to explore our talents, we are given opportunities to participate in inter-school sport events and other extracurricular activities and that is why we perform well in all aspects of schooling.

The life skills given to the girl child suggest that there is evidence of holistic education in this school. L5 revealed:

The school gives us an opportunity to explore our talents. In addition, the school grooms the girl child on how to conduct herself by giving her life skills.

Hence, this school seems to be on the continuum of a performing school. Good leadership in the school should involve all the stakeholders in the school. Accordingly, in order to establish the relationship between the school administration, stakeholders and the community, T5 responded:

The relationship with all the stakeholders is good. We involve all the parents. We relate very well with the community. The purpose of all this is to give allegiance to the community and to reciprocate the community for the good work done by them to us as a school.
L4 also pointed out that:

Parents are given a chance to come any time. It is done on a voluntary basis. They come to help the learners who are not performing so well at school. They come up with new methods to teach those learners which will eventually help them to understand their work. Through such work the school bonds with the parents and the community as a whole.

HoD7 pointed out:

The principal always consults our spiritual leader (Amir) and he suggests solutions according to the need of the situation. Sometimes we let children do some community service depending upon the seriousness of their offences and we address it in the assembly’s to create a God-fearing youth which is part of the school mission. The community and parents are aware of this policy of our school. There is also good relationship between the community and the school because the school is in existence due to the tremendous support provided by the parents and the community which yields excellent results. Our matric pass rate is hundred percent for a very long time which is very remarkable.

The concept of the powerful leader of a school has long been synonymous with school success and educational improvement. Quality of leadership of the principal plays an important role in school improvement initiatives. Thus, in this study it was the intention of the researcher to establish from the participants their perceptions about how the principals managed the school. In this study, T3 revealed:

He is an experienced leader; he does not take decisions alone. On a weekly basis he meets the management team to get feedback from their departments so that he can track the performance in the school. Any decision with regard to the discipline and academic performance of the learners is taken after listening to all the parties. Important messages are given to the management staff so that they can relate them to other staff members.
Similarly, L2 pointed out:

As the leader, the principal delegates his work. He does not do everything alone. He has got two deputies. For example, one deals with curriculum while as the other deals with discipline issues in the school. He is democratic; he does not decide on issues alone. He involves all the stakeholders, including learners and parents. Learners are given forums to express their views and complaints. In such forums the learners’ views are received and addressed.

It was also learnt from the learners that the principal is democratic when necessary and that sometimes he is not. For example, L1 stated:

Sometimes he listens to our views and he has to choose whether what we are saying is helpful in the development of the school. But on the whole we are given a chance to talk.

As to why this was the best kind of approach in leadership, T3 pointed out that

It yields results. We also own what is taking place in the school.

The learners’ views were summarised by L1 as follows:

If a person is willing and able to serve the learners, it brings about fellowship of learners to their democratically elected leaders. Here democracy is a virtue. It creates the culture in the school when there is democracy, there are no conflicts in the school and hence as learners we can concentrate on our studies.

It is the role of leadership to guide development of the mission and vision, articulate them and translate them into meaningful activities. In this study, the researcher wanted to confirm whether the school has a mission and vision, how they were developed and the role of leadership in the visioning in the school. It was learnt that
the school has a mission and vision statement. The mission is to produce youth who are morally upright, academically and socially balanced and physically capable of serving society and their country with ability.

This mission and vision had collaboratively been developed. On the role of leadership in visioning in the school, T7 revealed:

Leadership should be able to help actualise the vision and the mission of the school. This can be done by always ensuring that it is emphasised to the learners, teachers and the parents and to teachers during staff development workshops and annual events at the school.

It was also learnt from T7:

Every term we develop specific objectives which are implemented. These objectives are derived from the mission and vision statements. We try as much as possible to deliver as per our objectives.

Collaboration is one of the means of ensuring participative, consultative or democratic leadership in schools. In this study it was one of the intentions of the researcher to study the planning processes in schools in order to establish whether collaboration was reflected in the school planning process. In order to achieve this objective, questions such as what the school planned for, who was involved and why such involvements of different stakeholders were asked from the participants. On who was involved, T2 pointed out:

There is a deputy principal in charge of administration in and school programmes. However this programme is open. First of all, staff members have to have an input in the programme. Thereafter the draft is presented to top management for refinement and improvement. This is then taken to the principal.
The same views were more or less expressed by L6:

Teachers consult the learner leaders on some activities before they are implemented.

On why every stakeholder was involved, one of the learner leaders revealed:

We are the representatives of the learners. So our involvement enhances democracy in the school. We ourselves are learners’ and, therefore, we are best placed to know what learner’s want.

Leadership, especially from the principal is generally acknowledged as an important influence on school effectiveness (Anderson & Dexter, 2005). So it was the intention of the researcher to establish from the participants in this school the role of leadership in school performance. Throughout the observations in this school, it was discovered from the participants that there was a democratic leadership style in this school. Hence, in order to establish whether this was true, participants were asked whether there was any relation between the principal’s leadership style and the school’s performance. T8 pointed out:

If you do not have a democratic kind of leadership, staff and other stakeholders will always be unhappy and may leave the school one by one. This will inevitably lead performance to head towards a downhill. But with democratic leadership all stakeholders are likely to be involved and there is a likelihood of having fewer conflicts.

L6 expressed more or less the same views:

If the teachers are not working as a team and are not involving the learners in school leadership, the learners will be unhappy and when this happens, definitely school performance will be affected.
It was found that the climate in the school was friendly and well facilitated by the school leadership. T8 revealed:

Over the years, the teachers have developed a spirit of comradeship.

So according to the teacher this school was a good one. To support his argument, T8 pointed out:

Over the years performance has been good. To us it is not only grades that determine schools quality but we have the responsibility to groom them into better human beings.

Similar views were expressed by L5:

We are given chance to express ourselves. Also, the school has a rich curriculum that helps to explore our talents. We are able to learn from the teachers and the learners. The teachers guide and give us chance to research for ourselves. This encourages us to learn. In addition, as learners we are given chance to express ourselves. There is also a well-equipped library that gives us chance to get exposure to vital information and knowledge.

Another objective of this study was to establish how the principal manages the school. In order to verify this, the participants were asked their opinions on how the principal managed the school. In reply, T7 said:

Management is good. A system evolves over the years. Despite being a new principal, he has tried. He is relatively new, but he is using the already existing structures to run the school.
T8 revealed:

There are a lot of changes that have happened. There has been improvement in the way teachers come to class. There is more interaction with the learners compared to the immediate past leadership. The former principal was a father figure to whom most of the learners were fearful, but the current principal is like a brother and a father.

On how the teachers viewed the principal’s style of management, T9 reiterated:

The principal recognises the already existing structures in the school. He normally refers to the relevant stakeholders and assigns them with responsibilities.

Conversely, L6 pointed out:

The system of leadership in the school is democratic. The principal does listen to our voices. He has initiated a lot of changes for the betterment of the school. We liaise with our teachers who understand our needs and who act is the best interest of the school.

L5 reported:

Right now, I am a learner representative, and when we present the learners’ problems to him he listens to us.

The views that were expressed by the learners motivated the researcher to find out more on the learner leadership in the school. For this reason, the researcher asked the learners their level of involvement in the learner leadership. On whether teachers were involved in decision-making in the school, T5 replied:

Every member of the staff has a different responsibility. Every year during the planning process we chose what we want to do in the following year. Most of the times we get what we want to do.
L4, on the other hand, pointed out:

Learners are the most important stakeholders of the school, and hence it is important for us to participate in decision-making. It is very important for us to participate in decision making because the decisions that are made are for us. So if we are part of them it makes it easy for us to implement.

In this school it was established that the school has vision and mission statements, but these were not well known by the learners. The learners were not well versed on how the mission and the vision had been developed in the school. On the role of leadership in envisioning the school, it was learnt that leadership is the propelling force. If leadership is misdirected, then the chances are that you may not be able to accomplish your objectives. So leadership was critical.

L5, on the other hand, pointed out:

Leadership should understand the demographic background of the school and should create an environment that accommodates all of them which can eventually lead to the betterment of the performance of the school.

Most of the participants in this school, being learner leaders, motivated the researcher to determine from them their vision of learner leadership in the school.

L6 replied:

To lead by examples and to guide the fellow learners.

On why there were a number of stakeholders, T4 revealed:

Each person is different, thus each of them can come up with a different solution and idea to a particular problem. The best solution or idea can be implemented for the betterment of the school.
On whether there was a relationship between leadership and school performance, T8 replied:

Leadership has to do with management and formulation of policies and strategies and their implementation, thus all the stakeholders must be involved in this process.

On whether there was any relationship between the leadership style and the performance of the school, HoD7 pointed out:

The principal is still new, but I have noticed that the learners are much more happier than before because he is an approachable kind of a person and also the staff members are more free to air their opinions which wasn’t noticed before in the school.

L4, on the other hand, said:

He always listens to what we have to say.

One of the participants described the school as a lively school. The teachers revealed that there is cooperation between administration, the teachers and the learners. It was also learnt that the school is a good one and the relationship amongst stakeholders is advantageous. The performance of the school is good. It is an attractive school for the community. The welfare of the teachers is taken care of.

L2 also pointed out:

The school is good, and our teachers are cooperative and supportive to us. For example, the teaching and learning environment is reaching its desired goals.
On how the participants perceived the new principal’s leadership style in one of the high schools, T7 said:

He is still new but at least I appreciate what he does. He delegates. He is friendly to people and he believes in teamwork. He always encourages us to own the things together.

Also, L5 pointed out:

The management of the school is good and the principal respects our views, does not humiliate us. He also respects our parent’s opinions.

In order to describe the principal’s leadership style, one teacher revealed that the principal was highly democratic. On why the participants in the school felt that the decentralisation of management activities in the school was important, T5 stated:

He wants the teachers to contribute as much as possible because we are constantly in touch with the learners and we recognise their needs.

On how the teachers get involved in decision-making, it was reported that this is done through departmental heads, class and subject meetings. During such forums, policies are floated, discussed and then passed. The learners also pointed out that they were involved in decision-making through learner’s leadership and through the prefect orate body. The administration normally meets the prefects and learner leaders.

L5 further revealed:

The mission and the vision revolve around excellence in all aspects of life and in developing youth that can contribute meaningfully for the upliftment of the community and the country as a whole.
On the role of leadership in the formulation of the vision and the mission, it was learnt from the teachers that ideally the role of leadership was guidance and instilling a culture of hard work and to organise the people to work towards realisation of the vision and the mission, and to improve quality of learning for both boys and girls. In terms of the planning process in the school, T8 articulated:

Planning is decentralised; the principal insists that each department head should have a plan for their department. In order to do this effectively, the principal always sends us for workshops. The purpose of such workshops is to empower us to be able to make good strategic and development plans for the school and to be in touch with what's happening in the education department. But on the whole we plan for the delivery of curriculum and improvement of structures in the school.

On who was involved in the planning process, T6 replied:

All the stakeholders - the teachers and the HoDs are involved in operational planning whereas the SGB members, the deputy principals and the principal are involved in strategic or long-term planning. They work on a 3-year strategic plan. For example, recently because of the encroachment on school land, we are making a strategic development plan (for the structures) to utilise the land to build more well planned sports grounds with better equipment for the learners.

In response to a question relating to the reasons for the inclusion of all stakeholders, T5 revealed:

The purpose is to bring all the stakeholders on board so as to create ownership and consensus by all the stakeholders in the school. Secondly, to ease the implementation process of school policies when all they have been consulted.
On whether there was a relationship between school leadership and school performance, T8 replied:

Leadership is important because it aspires people to give off their best of abilities. When a leader leads by example they gain self-confidence by looking up to such aspiring people.

There is a strong relationship between discipline and performance. Normally, well-disciplined learners tend to perform well, so when there is good leadership, discipline is likely to be instilled in learners. Such good leadership will presumably also be passed on to the teachers and thus shape the learners’ performance. As such, teachers will make the time to guide the learners. This will definitely have a positive impact on the learners’ performance. On whether there was a relationship between the democratic style and the performance of the school, T3 pointed out:

With the democratic leadership style, people are free to express themselves and therefore they can contribute positively to the institution’s development.

Views from all stakeholders, including learners, are likely to be elicited. Thus democratic leadership practiced by the principal in school can create a good learning environment, which is conducive for teaching and learning.

Learners were also asked to indicate their perceptions regarding the principal’s leadership style according to the principal’s actions in the teaching-learning process. Most of the learners indicated that their principal uses consultative meetings, delegations of powers, and discussions with learners and staff in order to solve problems that may hinder learner education. This implies that most principals use the
democratic style of leadership in ensuring learners academic performance. From the study, it is clear that no one kind of leadership style was used. Although the democratic leadership style was used more often, other leadership styles were resorted to depending on the appraisal of the situation. On why the democratic style of leadership was used, it was corroborated that this kind of leadership creates ownership. P2 revealed:

The democratic style of leadership involves everybody so people take ownership and they buy in because they were part of the decision making process. This can only be possible when there is leadership that allows participation. When people participate they eventually own the policies in the school.”

There was only one divergent view on the use of the democratic leadership style. P3 said:

I delegate to the managers because they are constantly in touch with the staff members so they know what is working and what is failing and thus then I can make the necessary changes for the betterment of the school’s performance.”

This is in agreement with Sashkin & Sashkin’s (2003) view that when employees are able, willing and ready to take on a challenge, the effective leader delegates and gets out of the way. The democratic style of leadership in a school is likely to bring about teamwork. Where decisions are collaboratively made, trust is likely to be created. This kind of leadership is certain to build a spirit of togetherness in the school, as all the stakeholders are involved in leadership. This might in turn enable such schools to achieve their objectives.
In order to establish whether this style of leadership was actually used, the participants were asked when the democratic leadership style was used. A number of responses were elicited. Principals revealed that they consulted teachers in staff meetings, in subject and departmental meetings and sometimes used the informal consultations in the school corridors. It was also established that consultation enables the leaders in the school to evaluate themselves and chart the way forward, but more specifically it was intended to create ownership of policies in the school. Through collective consultations and discussions with teachers, principals encourage the sharing of ideas in order to improve performance. The teachers are motivated to participate collectively in making decisions relating to improved academic performance. More so, learners are also required to participate in decision-making by providing their opinions for the greater improvement of academic excellence. Learners are the centre of concern in schools and their input into the programme of academic achievements is of paramount importance.

• **Laissez-Faire Leadership Style and School Performance**

Laissez-faire leadership style is not suited for use by principals because complete delegation without follow-up mechanisms creates performance problems. Ensuring affective academic performance requires the involvement of both the superiors and subordinates through collective participation and monitoring of performance. Delegation of duties does not imply failure to monitor and follow up progress. Teachers and learners are motivated when they are afforded opportunities to make their own decisions. The acceptance of their opinions and ideas, together with the monitoring of their performance by principals is a healthy way of enhancing academic performance in schools. Teachers were interviewed on whether it was reasonable for
the principal to use a laissez-faire leadership style in order to manage academic performance in the school. Accepting teachers to fully make decisions that are intended to improve the academic standards of the schools is quite good. However, the principal should monitor and concur with decisions made. In the interview, T9 had this to say:

Much of us teachers have to make decisions regarding the academic programme in their departments, the principal has to monitor and approve the decisions because he is the head of the school. Whatever wrong goes on in school, he is accountable.

**Situational Leadership Style and School Performance**

One of the most frequently used approaches to leadership in school management is the situational leadership approach. School managers contend that there is no single style of leadership used all the time. The adoption of a particularly relevant style in a specific situation leads to school effectiveness and is better than the use of one style throughout one’s management experience. One of the senior teachers commented that it is appropriate for an experienced principal to use various leadership styles interchangeably depending on the prevailing situation in a school. HoD5 added:

In some instances, when principals and their deputies are transferred from one school to another they tend to adopt new leadership styles because the new environment demands a change in leadership style.

HoD4 revealed:

It is always the failure of the principal to accommodate and listen to others that will lead to the failure of the system. Secondly, if the principal flouts to change his leadership style it will lead to all the stakeholders to rebel and become disinterested in doing any good to improve the performance in the school.
One principal argued that leadership is dictated by change within the school situation and outside. At one time, learners may be too unruly and too militant that it requires the principals of schools to use an autocratic leadership style in order to enforce strict measures of discipline so as to improve their school performance. However, in another situation learners may be so committed and focused that it may require being liberal minded to allow participative leadership for them to perform well.

Many schools have adopted mixed leadership styles depending on the demands of the situation. If it necessitates authoritarianism, the principal will apply authoritarian methods to generate good results. The majority of teachers supported the view that leadership styles can be varied according to environmental changes. They asserted that a single approach could not be effective in all circumstances. Some of the issues pointed out by the principals might relate to school culture. Schools have different cultures. So when a principal is transferred from one school to another, it is important to understand the school’s culture before embarking on any changes in the school. This is because what works in one context might not work in another environment.

It is therefore important to study the culture of schools, the different structures and the various stakeholders in the school. With stakeholders it is important to identify the influential ones and to establish how to bring them on board. Thereafter, it is important to embark on the change process and innovation in the school. However, this should be done gradually to enable members of the school community’s to get used to the new changes.
4.5.1.4 How is School Performance Dependent Upon the Principal’s Leadership and His/Her Leadership Style?

Leadership can be defined as the process by which an individual influences another individual or a group to achieve a common goal (Bass, B.M., 1998). These authors simplify leadership as the involvement and use of interpersonal approaches or techniques with the intention to persuade followers to accept a goal. As T5 has said:

A leader is someone who believes in what he does and thus motivates others to follow his/her path.

Once accepted, leaders also motivate followers to engage in the behaviours necessary to achieve the goal. The definition of leadership suggests that the process involves a transition from the current state or condition of the followers, to a future state desired by the leader that can be accomplished by achieving the goal and is well aware of the happenings around him or her. As HoD4 has said:

The principal knows what he is doing and is in touch with the department so we are always aware of what changes has taken place and thus we act accordingly. In the context of a school, the principal acts as organizational leader, influencing teachers to achieve the common goal of improved academic achievement among learners.

The style of the leader can also influence the way in which the leader executes a particular approach. Leadership styles involve the behaviours of leaders in their relationships with followers.

T2 had this to say:

His style is very accommodating, he listens to us which is very important for the school to function smoothly.
T6 said:

He has very good interpersonal relationships with his staff, he enquires about our well-being very often during his casual conversations in the school.

A leadership style can be directive or authoritarian whereas the leader informs the followers of the objectives and the way in which the objectives should be achieved (Lumby J, Crow G & Pashiardis P, 2008). HoD2 said:

There are times when we disagree with some decisions taken by him, but it is immediately resolved when we give our opinions and explain to him why this is going to work.

A more participative leadership style takes place when the leader establishes the objectives, but encourages the followers to determine the best means to achieve the objectives. The style adopted by the leader can theoretically mediate the effectiveness of the specific leadership approach by influencing the followers’ perception of the quality of the relationship with the leader.

4.6 Conclusion

It is obvious from the research that there is no monopoly of a particular style of leadership claiming to be the perfect one leading to improved school performances and learner achievements. School principals are required to be more flexible in adapting appropriate leadership styles with the creation of collaborative working environments with higher levels of commitment, motivation, ownership, developing trusting and healthier school cultures, and facilitating higher productivity and increased learner achievements. The research findings discussed above have clearly
demonstrated that leadership roles of school principals have led to increased learner and school performances. In particular, the research on effective schools indicates the importance of strong administrative leadership, high expectations and focus on learner achievements. Changes to school culture, dedicated and qualified staff, setting appropriate school goals in conformity with school and systemic expectations, monitoring learners' progress with adequate resources are factors that encourage and stimulate good school performances and learner achievements.

Research findings on school reform initiatives revealed a number of major trends in school restructuring requiring school leaders to confront new challenges and play innovative roles in order to meet stakeholder and systemic expectations and prescribed standards. School leaders are required to manage the schools guided by school councils or boards with authority over and responsibility for managing financial, physical and human resources while being accountable to the systemic authorities and school communities. Consumer control is instituted through school councils and governors comprising parents and other stakeholders, forcing them to market their schools to the prospective learners with the improvement of facilities and learner and school performances projecting a good school image. However, the empowerment of school leaders comes with many new responsibilities and challenges. These include recruiting developing and leading school staff, managing the financial and physical resources, and organising and contracting out the provision of facilities and services required by the school. More importantly, the principals of 21st-century schools are required to encourage, motivate and energise the teachers and learners towards the creation of effective teaching and learning environments leading to continuous
improvements in school and learner performances (Mestry R & Singh P, 2007).

As a direct consequence of these new trends, demands and challenges have both negative and positive effects on school principals. The negative impact, for instance, relate to creating stress-related problems such as feelings of failure, depression, and even explosions of anger on the part of principals and teachers (Waters & MacNulty, 2004). On the other hand, most school leaders enjoy their role of school leadership with newly found power and authority, recognition and the ability to guide the direction of the school and the satisfaction of achievement when the schools and learners accomplishments are high (Mestry R & Singh P, 2007). However, with appropriate professional development and inductions to confront recent challenges and trends, principals are required to be flexible in their leadership styles, behaviours and managerial practices for the purpose of continuous improvement of schools’ and learners’ successes. In this context, school principals are required to be school managing directors, leaders, change agents, marketers, facilitators, mediators and key decision-makers.

4.7 Summary
In this chapter it was established that principals’ leadership styles play a very important role in school performance. Moreover, the democratic or consultative form of leadership was revealed to be the best for most schools. It was also found that principals used this kind of leadership in order to create ownership in schools. Even though no one kind of leadership style was used in schools, the democratic style was most preferred, depending on situations in the school, but leaders tended to vary the different leadership styles. At times principals used the autocratic style of leadership,
but this was very seldom and mostly when policies in schools had been compromised.

It was also established that where the democratic style of leadership was practised, the school was likely to achieve a good overall school performance. In Chapter 5 the researcher will focus on the discussion of the research findings by furnishing a conclusion on each aspect of the sub aims/problems.
5.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on a discussion of the findings in relation to the research sub-problems.

5.2 Findings Related to Sub-Problem One: How Does the Leadership and Leadership Style of the Principal Affect a School?

In a bid to have a holistic approach to the research of leadership styles and school performance, the researcher analysed the demographic characteristics of the participants in sub problem one (see 4.2.1).

5.2.1 Age of Participants

In this research the researchers concluded that the younger the teachers the more authoritarian the principals tended to be. On the contrary, more mature teachers appeared to be at peace with more democratic leadership approaches and they could even perform well under a laissez-faire style of leadership. The perceptions of the leadership styles of the principal by the young teachers differed from that of the older ones. They constantly looked to the principal for guidance even when his/her leadership approach appeared democratic.

The ages of the principals, however, were not found to be a critical factor in
influencing the leadership style employed. However, it could be inferred that principals probably become more democratic with age, professional maturity and experience. The age of learners had no direct relationship to the leadership style of principals.

5.2.2 Principals’ Training and Professional Development

As indicated in the presentation of findings, principals were well trained as teachers, but not as school managers. The training given to principals when training as teachers is inadequate to prepare them for leadership roles. As observed by Mestry R & Singh P (2007), there is a gap in leadership training to prepare principals for their roles. Given the education reforms and the many challenges, which come with the reforms, educational leadership is increasingly becoming a major concern. Schools today are faced with challenges that emphasize the demand for effective leadership.

This demands that principals with good leadership skills direct the school towards good performance, and academic excellence is increasing at a faster rate than ever before. Such principals do not just require training in general education administration, but specialised training which is capable of imparting the necessary management and leadership skills. It was clear from the research that the principals are not able to improve school performance unless they are equipped with certain knowledge, intellectual, social and psychological skills. On being appointed as principals, they are given job descriptions, which centre on the implementation of government policies, rules and regulations to ensure efficient school functioning. They also focus on administrative responsibilities such as preparing annual financial reports and budget

Routinely, principals also supervise teachers and monitor learners’ performance. However, there are functions, which the principals cannot do as a matter of routine. These require someone to be knowledgeable and to have the necessary skills to do them. Such functions like spearheading the development of the school vision and mission, preparing strategic plans for the school, setting goals and monitoring the implementation and achievement of those goals, creating and maintaining effective teams and motivating of staff are just a few to mention. For most of the work that requires these skills, the principals interviewed admitted that they did not have the competence to handle them. Actually, during the interview, some of the participants informed the researcher that they were in the process of procuring a consultancy for developing the strategic plans. Unfortunately, when an outsider is employed to develop the plans, vision and mission of the school, management and staff do not own them and hence such plans may not serve the purpose. It was unfortunate that, a most of the principals had not received any induction management training and in-service training.

There is a need for a continuous professional development program for the principals. Principals play many roles and for them to fit the profile of principals that Van der Westhuizen PC & Van Vuuren H (2007) described as change agents, they must not only manage but lead. For any reforms to succeed, principals, as gatekeepers, must be up to the task and hence the need for continuous professional development. But reforms apart, the principals of today and tomorrow must have skills for dealing with an ever-changing education environment, as Huber SG (2004) puts it:
Schools are changing drastically. Principals in the coming decades will lead schools that are far different from today. Learners will be more numerous and diverse than ever, and they will continue to bring many of society’s problems to the schoolhouse door. Academic achievement will be the priority for professional accountability. In other words, principals will be expected to lead in an atmosphere of constant, volatile change. Many current principals have received little training or support to help him/her deal with the emerging challenges of school-wide leadership for learner learning.

The schools of the 21st century will require a new kind of principal, one whose role will be defined in terms of:

- **Instructional leadership** that focuses on strengthening teaching and learning, professional development, data-driven decision making and accountability (see 2.8.9);

- **Community leadership** manifested in an awareness of the school’s role in society, shared leadership among educators, parents and learners and advocacy for school capacity building and resources; and (see 2.8.4)

- **Visionary leadership** that demonstrates energy, commitment, entrepreneurial spirit, values and conviction that all children will learn at high levels, as well as inspiring others with this vision both inside and outside the school building Huber SG, (2004) (see 2.8.6).

5.3 **Findings Related to Sub-Problem Two: What Does School Performance Entail?**

The features an effective school as highlighted by the principals’ interview responses
were almost similar to the characteristics of effective schools by Edmonds (as reported in Lockheed & Levin, 1993:5), as follows:

(a) Strong leadership of the principal;

(b) Emphasis on mastery of basic skills;

(c) A clean and orderly school environment;

(d) High teacher expectation of learner performance;

(e) Frequent assessment of learner progress.

The responses centred on leadership, availability and effective utilisation of instructional materials, well-motivated and committed teachers and parental involvement and support as the major ones. Like the critics of Bush T, Duku N, Kiggundu E, Kola S, Msila V & Moorosi P (2007a), some principals argued that whereas the leadership factor is crucial, a clean and orderly environment with heavy investment in the infrastructure was a better guarantee of an effective school. According to them, the emphasis should be placed on creating a school climate conducive to effective teaching and learning. However, the teacher was put at the centre of everything as Witte & Walsh (in Lockheed & Levin, 1993), posit: effective schools’ characteristics - particularly teacher involvement in decisions and parental involvement in schools, were modestly associated with higher learner achievement.

This emphasis on the teacher is supported by Sergiovanni’s (2000) list of the nine characteristics of good schools, which clearly illustrates the importance of looking beyond management and administration to teacher leadership. The characteristics
speak of influence-oriented practice based on pronounced agreement between staff. They include: school centeredness, academically rich program, instruction for supporting learners growth, a positive school climate that supports learning, fostering of collegial interaction, extensive staff development, shared leadership practices, creative problem solving and involvement of parents and community. Another group of principals argued that what constitutes a good and an effective school varied from place to place depending on different situations, and that there cannot be a set of characteristics that are constant. This view is confirmed by Purkey & Smith (1983), who emerging from the ‘second wave’ of effective school researchers, identified nine organizational and four process characteristics.
The organizational characteristics were:

- School-site management;
- Instructional leadership;
- Staff stability;
- Curriculum articulation and organization;
- School-wide staff development;
- Parental involvement and support;
- School-wide recognition of academic success;
- Maximize learning time; and
- District support.

The process characteristics were:

- Collaborative planning and collegial relationships;
- Sense of community;
- Clear goals and high expectation;
- Order and discipline.
But, like one principal who lamented that one cannot start talking of an effective school when there was not even a bare minimum in terms on instructional material, staffing and others, Lockheed & Levin (1993), in support, summarize this situation as follows:

Creating effective schools is significantly more difficult in developing countries than in developed countries, because schools in developing countries lack even the basic minimum inputs necessary for them to function as schools at all, while schools in developed countries are adequately provisioned. We argue that creating effective schools in developing countries requires all three elements: basic inputs, facilitating conditions and the will to change.

While all three elements are very important, the will to change which is anchored on leadership is the major determinant even for the realization of the other two. A visionary and an enterprising leader in the person of the principal will mobilize strong parental and community support, create linkages with other schools, both within and without and galvanize all his/her staff to work as a team to turn the school around.

As Lockheed & Levin (1993) affirms: in effective schools, teachers typically are decision makers and play important roles in shaping the school. In Thailand, principals, in a bid to improve school performance, promoted shared decision making within the school and greater collaboration among teachers (see 2.10, 2.11 & 2.12).

5.3.1 Policy and Planning

Effective school performance requires visionary leadership. From the principals’ interview responses, many of them did not have clearly articulated vision and mission statements. One of the core functions of a principal is to provide direction to his/her
The principal’s greatest leadership responsibility is that of formulating and articulating the vision of the school. It is through shared vision and mission that the principal will be able to offer a sense of direction to his staff. All the staff should be able to have a shared understanding on where the school should be in the foreseeable future. Barnett BG & O’Mahony GR (2008) affirms that without understanding the school’s past, its aspirations and processes, a principal cannot become part of the team that s/he leads to bring about positive change in the school. All stakeholders expect principals to meet the ever-increasing demands of their jobs, which include amongst others, galvanizing all the resources towards the attainment of the schools’ missions and goals.

There is a very strong relationship between visionary leadership and transformational leadership, which in this research is recommended for future education leaders. Visionary leaders are often very transformational leaders. Transformational leadership, as Bush T (2008) quotes, means developing a shared vision which can enhance collegiality among teachers, provide individual support, intellectual stimulation, and motivate staff toward the acceptance of school goals, values, and moral work practices for advancing strategic culture change (Burns, 1978; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2007). Strategic goals and objectives operationalise the school’s vision and mission. The absence of a well-articulated vision and mission implies that the school has no clearly articulated objectives.

Strategic planning is a very important process in the life of every organization. While a few schools had strategic plans, a majority did not. Although the effect of the strategic plans on the school’s performance was not apparent, it says a lot about the type of
leadership in the school. In this era of results-oriented management, management and staff cannot perform well if the goals of the institution and the tasks of the different players are not clearly articulated. In the light of the scarcity of resources, it is also imperative that the school leadership be able to prioritize activities, because there are always too many demands on scarce resources. A good plan forms the basis of allocation and prioritization of the scarce resources. A well thought out strategic planning process, which is broad based and consultative would foster teamwork and collaboration in the school. It will also enhance shared leadership. These are critical ingredients for the successful performance of the school. It should be highlighted that the process of developing a school’s vision and mission and later on the strategic plan should be a very consultative process, and should involve all stakeholders, including the parents and other critical friends of the school (see 2.14).

5.3.2 Parental Involvement

Building on the literature reviewed and responses from this research, it has also emerged that the role of parents is instrumental both to the learners learning achievement and to the well-being and performance of the school. It is the desire of every parent to see his/her children in school; for most parents would wish to see their offspring exceed their education standards. Parents want to see their children successful in life, of course after succeeding in school. However, without the involvement of parents in the management of schools, secondary schools today can hardly expect to achieve good academic results much as they have effective leaders. This is in consonance with findings from Amason & Sapienza (1997) that parents play a vital role in the school system. They encourage their children to read, as well as
support and encourage the teachers to work towards improved learner’s academic achievement. Further still, Amburgey & Rao (1996) observe that school development is dependent on the parent input more than the leadership code. Ballantine (1999), cited in Hornby (2000:1) posits that “Parents are critical to children’s successes during the school years”. Ballantine (1999) suggests further that the positive outcomes of parental involvement also include:

- Improved communication between parents and children;
- Higher academic performance of the children whose parents are involved;
- High school attendance and less disruptive behaviour;
- Increased likelihood of completing high school and attending college;
- A sense of accomplishment for parents;
- Higher parental expectations of children;
- Improved study habits among children;
- Increased likelihood of parents deciding to continue their own education.

The list of potential benefits is extended by Sussel et al. (1996), as reported in Hornby (2000) who suggests the following:

- More positive parental attitude towards teachers and schools;
- More positive learners attitudes and behaviour;
- Improved learner performance;
• Improved teacher morale;

• Improved school climate.

In South Africa, the contribution of the parents, particularly through the parent-teacher association (PTA) has been very immense. They have contributed to the infrastructural development of the school, the teachers’ welfare and together with teachers controlling learners’ discipline. Small’s experience, as reported in Oyetunyi (2006), as a teacher who loves to involve parents in children’s school work indicate that parent-teacher partnership promotes learning and brings about growth in learners. This is to say that when the school involves parents in the education of their children, it improves learners’ performance both in academic work and character, which otherwise may not be achieved by the school alone.

Unfortunately as noted by the researcher in this study, there was a lack of parental interest in the matters of the schools such as failure to turn up for meetings and other big events in the schools. There are diverse reasons to explain this apparent lack of interest by the parents, but from the researcher’s observations and experience, the leadership of the school plays a major role in this regard. If the school principal shows interest and commitment to involve them then they are likely to come on board. This is in tandem with Oyetunyi’s (2006) argument that the principal should be the individual to initiate and facilitate parental involvement in a school. Constantine (in Oyetunyi, 2006:100) alludes to the assertion that school leaders do not encourage the parents in school and argues that even though the school leaders claim to delight in parental involvement in school, they limit the relationship by taking actions that do not
encourage parental involvement in school, otherwise, parents would have been actively involved in the school activities, and realize their dream for their children.

The principals’ leadership style contributes to a larger extent to the parents’ lack of interest in the affairs of the school. If the principal is not transparent and accountable to the parents, then they will distance themselves from the school. Although Hornby (2000) justifies the fact that the minimal parent involvement in school is a worldwide phenomenon, and Benhamtye (in Oyetunyi, 2006) further observes that in most cases, parents get involved when what they feel that the school has violated their expectations, for many of them believe that it is the school’s responsibility to educate their children.

Kitavi M & Van der Westhuizen PC (1997), however, holds a different opinion with regard to the parents’ lack of interest in their children’s education. He believes that parents are willing to cooperate with teachers so much so that if teachers are willing to involve them, they come readily as resource individuals and helpers in the teaching-learning process. Principals who are democratic and involve stakeholders like parents not only in those activities where they are financing or supporting the school, but also in other decision-making processes, such as visioning and planning activities, ensure that parents are critical friends of the school and hence available whenever called upon (see 2.8.4).

5.3.3 Teacher Motivation

Regarding teachers’ remuneration and motivation, it cannot be an overstatement to say that teachers who are well motivated will work devotedly in order to ensure that
learners pass with good grades. They will certainly be active in many other areas of the school’s performance and development. A good leader, in most cases, is one who motivates his subordinates in order to be able to influence results. However, it is also important to observe that good leadership remains important to the schools’ performance. Without it, activities cannot be implemented in accordance with the stakeholders’ expectations. But for leadership to succeed it will need to have a reliable and committed staff. Motivated employees are always looking for better ways of doing their job, and are usually concerned about quality. As emphasized by Steyn & Niekerk (2002:141):

Highly motivated workers are more productive than apathetic ones.

Grant (2006:512), quoting the DoE (1996:28), contends that:

Any hope of the vision of the education policies succeeding will depend largely on the nature and quality of their internal management.

Linda (1999:27) also has this to say on the influence of school leadership and management on teachers’ attitudes to their jobs:

It is, for the most part, leadership and management that define the school – specific contexts that affects teachers working lives. My research findings revealed, categorically, that the greatest influences on teacher morale, job satisfaction and motivation are school leadership and management.

Indeed principals have the capacity to make teachers’ working lives so unpleasant, unfulfilling, problematic and frustrating that they become the overriding reason why some teachers do not perform as expected and leave the profession. Teachers are only concerned about remuneration, motivation comprises more than human needs.
It can also be determined by school climate set by the principal. If the principal sets a conducive and supportive atmosphere in the school, staff will be motivated.
Steyn & Niekerk (2002) add:

They (principals/school managers) should note the important role effective communication, mutual trust and openness between teachers and staff can play. If a teacher is seeking promotion, provide opportunities for exposure and growth.

Teachers want to feel good and proud about what they are doing. They feel more valuable if they are meaningfully involved in real decisions that affect them (see 2.11).

5.4 Findings Related to Sub-Problem Three: What Attributes of Leadership Are Perceived by Principals and How Do These Leadership Attributes Impact on School Performance?

5.4.1 The Autocratic Leadership Style and School Performance

This style of leadership has strong negative relationship with the stakeholders. This simply means that the more autocratic a principal becomes, the poorer the performance of the school and the contrary is also true. Principals who use the authoritarian leadership style lead to poor academic performance, because they adopt harsh leadership styles, which are highly resented by their subordinates. The greater the use of autocratic principles, the poorer the learners’ academic performance. The coercive style leader often creates a reign of terror, bullying and demeaning his subordinates, roaring with displeasure at the slightest problem. Subordinates get intimidated and stop bringing bad news or any news in fear of getting bashed or blamed for it, and the morale of the workers plummets.

Schools led by autocratic head teachers are characterized by a closed climate. Such principals are not open-handed and transparent themselves. They are highly aloof and impersonal; who emphasize the need for hard work but fail to work hard themselves.
Teachers working in closed climates, according to Leithwood et al., (2006) do not work well together, derive little satisfaction from their work and dislike their principals. This research has also indicated that the more the subordinates are motivated the better the school performance. From the teachers’ responses, this leadership style is least effective in most situations in the schools and has a negative impact on the school’s climate. The extreme top-down decision-making approach employed by the autocratic principals stifles the subordinates’ ideas and creativity. Their sense of initiative and ownership plummets, so they have little accountability for improved school performance.

The authoritarian leadership style should be used with extreme caution, as in a crisis or genuine emergency in the school. If the leader solely relies on this style, the long-term impact will be ruinous to the schools’ performance. Learners despise harsh administrators, who make their life miserable, resulting in a decline in the school’s performance. Likewise, teachers do not appreciate commanding authority. Such authority makes them lose their initiative and morale and they eventually neglect their duty or even think of applying for transfers to other schools. When a school keeps on losing teachers through transfers because some of them may not be replaced immediately or gets other teachers but who might not be as experienced as the ones transferred, the performance and standard of the school might decline. This position is also supported by findings elicited from the teachers’ responses to the questionnaires. However, the principal admitted that they had to sometimes resort to an autocratic style of leadership, because the staff was uncooperative. Often times, the teachers abandon their professional ethics and miss lessons, absent themselves
without informing their principals so that a replacement can be found.

This is when the principal has to use coercive methods for the teachers to be able to do the work as required. As McGregor (1960) postulates in his Theory X; that by human nature most human beings are lazy, and dislike work and so they can only perform when led and directed. The principals interviewed indicated that they usually encountered misconduct among young, ambitious and inexperienced teachers. The idea of having to coerce the subordinates by their leader is supported by Sashkin & Sashkin (2003:25) who assert:

> When an employee is not ready, that is, has inadequate skills and lacks motivation to get the job done, the appropriate leadership strategy, according to the Hersey-Blanchard theory, is to be very directive.

In such a situation he goes on to explain, the supervisor in this case, the principal, tells such teachers what to do, how to do it, and supervises them closely to make sure the work gets done the way required. Although it is also not uncommon to find staff who know what to do, but won’t do it anyway. However, at times, vibrant enthusiasm and clear vision are the hallmarks of the authoritarian style. This leadership style can motivate teachers by making it clear to them how important the work is to them and how it fits into the larger vision of the school’s organization. People understand that what they do matters and why, thus maximizing commitment to the organization’s goals and strategies, knowing that when their organization fails, they sink with it. If the standards for success and the rewards are clear, people have great freedom to be innovative and creative. Schools, for example, need leaders who drive teachers and learners towards innovative thinking in order to ensure quality performance and academic excellence.
The research established that sometimes the principals were obliged to employ autocratic leadership styles due to a lack of trust and confidence in their subordinates. This is particularly true with the principals who wanted to appear or emerge as charismatic leaders, and as the only ones with the vision and knowledge to push the school to greater heights. From the researcher’s observations and experience, this often emerged during head teachers’ transfers. Principals would plead to and were supported by their members of the SGB, not to be transferred because when transferred the school would collapse. They would also not feel shy to say that in the whole school and among a staff of over one hundred well-qualified teachers, they were the only ones with a vision for the school and capacity to run it effectively.

This phenomenon of charismatic leaders in relation to the school’s performance is explained very well by Sashkin & Sashkin (2003) who observed that charismatic leaders seek control by controlling others; they initiate a kind of relationship that is meant to cause other people to be dependent on them. Oyetunyi (2006) argues further that charismatic leaders are not concerned about the followers and the organization but about themselves, and so many of them make life unbearable for those who deal with them. The research established that principals, who were effective, were not necessarily those using legitimate powers only, but those who, in addition had to influence their staff through a number of ways including through rewards and recognition. This explains the research’s findings that the schools, which were paying allowances to their staff, had an edge in performance even when the principals did not attend school regularly. The autocratic principals also met the description of task-oriented leaders who had to do whatever it took to accomplish the task, irrespective of
the plight of the staff. This is why sometimes school performance had to decline instead (see 2.15.1).

5.4.2 The Democratic Leadership Style and School Performance

Most principals use the democratic leadership style compared to other leadership styles in order to buy in subordinates. Schools are composed of intelligent people whose ideas are crucial in the day-to-day running of the same schools. Teachers, learners and prefects, for example, have the capacity to advise effectively on academic matters in the school. Their ideas and contributions cannot be ignored. This approach to management has led many school managers to rely on participatory governance mechanisms or the democratic leadership style. The leader in the school uses the democratic leadership style to build trust, respect and commitment because the style allows people to have a say in decisions that affect their goals and how they do their work. Learners in schools need to be involved in the school’s administration and in the implementation of decisions because these affect them directly.

School principals contend that democracy is the best leadership strategy for school environments because schools are systems with parts that are interrelated. The principals, for example, have to motivate the teachers to participate in decision-making because academic progress depends on the quality of teaching exhibited. Today there is a very strong school of thought that schools can no longer be managed by a lone figure at the top of the hierarchy.

According to the research relating to effective schools, an effective school is characterized by the following features:
• A system-wide mission is clear and focuses on teaching and learning. It incorporates the belief that all children can learn.

• The principal is a strong instructional leader and an effective competent manager.

• Staff members hold high expectations for the educational accomplishments of all their learners and for themselves. A safe, orderly, caring, goal oriented environment, which is essential to teaching and learning.

• Where acquisition of essential skills takes precedence over all other school activities. Frequent and thorough monitoring of learner performance is done and results are used to make educational decisions.

• Parent and community involvement is actively sought.

• Human, fiscal and physical resources are equitably distributed among the schools and tailored to learners needs Mathibe I (2007).

An effective school is one where the teaching and learning processes in the classroom are effective. This in agreement with James & Connolly’s (2000) conclusion, that “A school may be considered effective when learners’ progress is greater than might be expected”. So the fact that this school can add value to learners with dismal performance from the primary level, qualifies it to be an effective school. This can only be possible if there is good leadership in the school that develops the school’s vision and properly articulates and translates it into teaching and learning. Stoll & Fink (in James & Connolly, 2000) developed a model that categorized effective schools into three groups:

(a) A common mission; a shared and communicated vision of school goals and
priorities, where the principal plays a major role in the encouragement of teachers, parents and learners in commitment to and responsibility for the vision.

(b) An emphasis on learning, characterized by teachers who have and convey high expectations to their learners. Teachers who use a variety of teaching and monitoring strategies and where there is a collaborative culture of teaching and learning.

(c) A climate conducive to learning; where morale and self-concepts are high, due to active involvement and responsibility on the part of the learners, recognition and incentives, and fairness and consistency with regard to learner behaviour. The learning environment is attractive and inviting to parents and members of the community, who are involved in school life.
A close examination of this model reveals that there was a common vision communicated to all the stakeholders. This was reflected in T 5’s response as follows:

The principal sustains the cordial relationship between the staff and the support staff, between the staff and the parents and in addition sustains the relationship with the community. He invites everybody to participate in the performance improvement of the school.

In addition, one can identify that there was effective leadership in this school. Effective leadership is where there is professional leadership that is characterized by a firm and purposeful participative approach in school leadership (Sammons, Hillman & Mortimore in James & Connolly, 2000). The principal in this school seems to be the kind of principal who believes in teacher leadership and empowerment. It is perhaps prudent to argue that this head teacher was a pedagogical leader.

Sergiovanni (1998) extends the concept of pedagogical leadership further in the context of learning communities and the development of human capital. He saw the development of social capital and academic capital for the learners, and intellectual capital for the teachers as central to the success of the school. The core purpose of pedagogical leadership is to create an environment that is conducive to higher levels of learning. This principal allowed HODs to bring in resource personnel in order to facilitate the candidate classes. According to T 6:

This has helped the school to transform the learners into better ones.

In addition, one can argue that leadership in this school focused on instructional leadership. With instructional leadership whatever the principal does is to improve instruction in the school. The principal in this school went the extra mile to facilitate
teaching and learning in the school. This perhaps explains why learners who had attained poor grades were in a position to improve their grades after form four which is known as the Ordinary level education in South Africa. This is very typical of instructional leadership. It was also discovered that there was a high level of the school community partnership in this school.

This kind of approach in the school may assist it to cater for the affective domain of education, which emphasizes the life skills. School improvement studies point to an effective school as one that is successful in all the domains of education. The school community partnerships also reveal that this school was an effective school. One of the characteristics of an effective school is the school community partnership. This is in agreement with Roberts J & Roach J (2006) conclusion that one of the features of an effective school is a sense of community and parental involvement. So in this school, it was established that there was a good relationship between the school and the community.

The principals were able to create a collaborative culture where all the stakeholders in the school work together in order to bring about school improvement. This kind of collaboration in a school may bring about the concept of a learning community with its associated advantages of creating the social and academic capital for learners and the intellectual capital for teachers. This eventually improves the overall performance of the school as a whole. All this is evidence of good leadership. It was also discovered that the principal in this case was a model and normally good leaders always ‘walk the talk’. This therefore implies that the principal in this school was an example of a good leader.
This, in my view, is an example of good modelling and indeed this is the cost of leadership. But also in the process of working with them, the principal might set the direction and also articulate the vision of the school. This perhaps explains why principals are prepared to teach as well.

This might also mean that the principal in this school distributed leadership amongst other members, hence the reason for the principals walking around in order to monitor and evaluate the performance of the subordinates. Because leadership in this school was highly distributed, the principal had to monitor the performance of the subordinates by walking around. It was also established that despite the above unique features, the principal in this school practiced both the democratic and autocratic leadership styles.

This means that there is no one kind of leadership style in the school. This is in agreement with Christie P (2010) conclusion that contingent leadership approach assumes that what is important is how leaders respond to the unique organizational circumstances or problems that they face as a consequence, for example of the nature and preference of co-workers, conditions of work and tasks to be undertaken. This approach to leadership assumes, as well that there are wider variations in the contexts for leadership, that to be effective, these contexts require different leadership responses. Furthermore, this approach to leadership also assumes that individuals providing leadership, typically those in formal positions of authority, are capable of mastering a large repertoire of leadership practices.

In this research it was found that the mission and vision had been collaboratively
developed, articulated and translated into meaningful activities. This seems to have an input on the kind of leadership demonstrated. In this particular case, both of them were collaboratively developed and therefore, a reflection of consultative or democratic leadership. It was found that in this particular case, the principal put in place an enabling environment for the development of the mission and the vision in the school. This kind of collaboration in the school in my view is a sign of effective, democratic leadership in the school. The same was also discovered in the planning process in the school. The planning process in the school was collaboratively done. This is in agreement with Huber SG (2004) concluded that effective planning for school improvement is dependent on a broad base of involvement including teachers, parents, community members, learners, central office personnel and anyone who is a stakeholder in the school.

This kind of involvement is a reflection of good leadership in the school. It was also found in this school that leadership was critical to the performance of the school as a whole. This is in agreement with the common sense view, that leaders are essential and have an impact on the performance of the organization (James & Connolly, 2000). In this case, it was also found that the principals allowed the teachers to take initiatives so as to improve the school.

In addition, departments were empowered to lay strategies in order to improve teaching and learning in the school.

This in my view is a reflection of teacher leadership. Teacher leadership in a school is a sign of democratic leadership. There are a lot of advantages of teacher leadership. So
because of the collaborative kind of leadership in the school, which is democratic and participative, the school has managed to improve its performance. However, despite this, there was also some kind of autocratic leadership in the school. This is, however, necessary especially when some the teachers in the school fail to comply with the rest of the members of the school. It was also discovered that there was some kind of democratic leadership in the school. This reflects a measure of democratic leadership.

It was also found that this school was an effective school. Effective schools are known for the provision of other domains of education other than only the academic rigor. This is in line with Cohn & Rossmiller’s (in Fertig, 2000) conclusion that effective schools should not necessarily be defined in terms of gains in cognitive knowledge rather than the broader, more inclusive measures of the schooling outcomes. From the participants’ responses this seemed like an effective school.

It is only effective leadership that may create this kind of environment in the school. It was also pointed out that good leadership was associated with having a caring environment in the school. This kind of caring environment is sometimes associated with good leadership and may lead to improved education outcomes. It may also lead to a situation where learners can develop a culture of confiding in their teachers. In such cases when and where the home environment worsens, the learners can always use the school as the last resort. This may improve the performance of the learners. This seems to be in agreement with Wing’s (2003) view that the feeling that no one cares is pervasive and corrosive. Real learning is difficult to sustain in an atmosphere rife with mistrust. Similarly, positive social capital may be highly productive because they allow for the accumulation of social capital that can be converted into socially
valued resources or opportunities. Beyond helping individuals to attain such human capital as education and skills, social capital may foster the development of trust, norms and expectations among youth who come to school Wing (2003). In this school the teachers seemed to know almost all the learners and their problems. This was observed during the period of research in this school. During the period of this research, the researcher observed a positive relationship between the teachers and the learners. In addition, teachers were seen assisting and following up on learners especially in the fields of Mathematics and Science. When asked whether this was so, the teacher said most of them were low performers who needed extra assistance. On whether this was a free service, the teacher responded in the affirmative, but added that when a parent is satisfied, a token can be given to the teachers. It was also discovered that there was a good partnership with the community. Leadership in this particular case managed to forge good relationships with its community.

From the voices of the teachers, it is perhaps important to conclude, that this kind of stakeholder involvement and community participation in the school is a sign of collaborative leadership. Such collaborative and participative kind of arrangement by all the stakeholders may only be achieved if there is good leadership that can develop and articulate the vision and envision all the stakeholders in the school. In this research, it was found that leadership in this school was more or less similar to the transformational kind of leadership. Transformational leadership is perhaps associated with higher order school improvement. The transformational leader raises the level of awareness of the significance of outcomes and processes, getting the followers to transcend their own interests for the sake of the team (James & Connolly, 2000).
Transformational leaders motivate followers to adopt a critical reflective approach to practice and to actively engage in the consideration of their work. They also experiment with ways, perhaps radical and creative, of improving the processes and outcomes. An analysis of the learners’ responses reveals that there were some traces of this kind of transformational leadership in this school.

This seems to suggest that leadership in this school was visionary and therefore, transformational. So the vision was developed and the leadership in the school managed to translate it into action and envisioning others to follow suit. The findings from this school also suggest that the principal was an effective educational leader who believed in teacher leadership and teamwork.

The learners on the other hand revealed, from their point of view, that the principal had a mix of both the democratic and autocratic leadership style. They pointed out that although the principal used the democratic style, in some instances he was dictatorial. For example, the principal sometimes listens to their views and he has to choose whether what they are saying is helpful to the school. But on the whole they are given a chance to express their views, but in most cases he would not listen to complaints from the learners especially if it was detrimental to the school’s development. An analysis of this approach reveals an effective educational leader who believed in distributive leadership and teacher leadership and therefore, democratic leadership. This particular case also reiterates the previous case that there is no one single kind of leadership style in the school setting. Principals, therefore, tend to use a mix of different leadership styles, depending on the situation. It was also discovered from this research that where there was collaboration and participation by all staff at
the school level, there was a likelihood of having an improved overall school performance.

Like in the previous case, it was found that the principal in this school used both the democratic and autocratic styles of leadership in the school. This is what is referred to as the contingent leadership style. It was also discovered from this research that where there is a stable, democratic environment, there would always be less chances of learner unrest. Consequently, this may lead to the creation of a good learning environment in the school, which eventually may lead to improved educational outcomes in the school as a whole.

The nature of leadership in this school was also reflected in the school’s planning process. It was established in this research that where there is collaboration in the school through processes like planning, then such a school may depict some elements of democratic leadership. In this particular case, it was learnt that all stakeholders of the school were involved in this process and the rationale behind this was to create ownership of policies and plans in the school. It can also be concluded from this research that where there was collaboration and participation in the school’s activities, there was the likelihood for the school to improve its performance.

This view from the participants seems to be in agreement with Fertig’s (2000) conclusion that effective schools should not only be viewed from the academic achievement of the school but rather there is also the need to consider the broader, more inclusive measures of the outcomes of schooling. Therefore, the responses of the participants seem to suggest that this was an effective school. It was also found that when leadership in this school is still new, managing change innovations is always
In this research, it was established that the learners were not happy with the reforms in the school. This was reflected in the responses of the learners. This, therefore, seems to suggest that the learners were not effectively involved in the change process, and besides, the change process was not well managed. Despite the above, it was observed that in this school there was delegated leadership.

This seems to suggest that these head teachers were trying to manage change in the school, hence a reason for not tampering with the old structures. Despite this, however, it was clear that there was a collaborative or participative leadership. This was evident in the planning processes of the school. It was discovered that planning was a collaborative arrangement intended to create ownership of policies and plans at the school level.

This seems to be in tandem with Sashkin & Sashkin’s (2003) conclusion that leadership is about creating conditions that enable others in the school settings to achieve results. It was established that the period one has spent in the school does not matter when it comes to school performance provided one uses good leadership style.

All that the participants were saying is that with democratic leadership, teachers are empowered and motivated to work and take initiatives. This eventually may lead to overall school improvement. It was found that the principal in this school had succeeded in consolidating himself and managing change in the school.

Under such circumstances, it is important to listen to the views of all the stakeholders. This is in tandem with Davies’s (2006) conclusion that conversations lead to greater
knowledge and participation in discussions. It can be a difficult and slow process from the previous state of being concerned with only the short term to the new state of being involved in the broader and longer term strategic issues. It can be a process of recapturing the organization. The process of discussion of greater awareness and participation in discussion is a key feature, which may develop the ability of the organization to build leadership capacity in depth. The key ability here is to build involvement in the longer-term development of the school.

Strategic organizations use staff groups that cut across roles in the school. In addition, features of the learning organization were also identified in this school. Learning organizations are defined as a group of people who take an active, reflective, collaborative, and learning-oriented and growth promoting approach toward the mysteries, problems and perplexities of teaching and learning (Retallick & Farah, 2005). Some of these were found in this research. The learners pointed out that the school is good, their teachers are cooperative and the teaching and the learning environment is wonderful. Effective leadership in the school can only bring about such an environment.

This was dispersed or distributed leadership. That is why the teacher in this very case described leadership in this school as being democratic. Dispersed or distributed leadership in school is associated with overall school improvement. With such leadership in place therefore, it may be easy for the school to achieve its overall outcomes. Another feature of participative leadership in this school was discovered in the planning process. It was discovered that the planning process in the school was highly collaborative. There was participation and involvement of all stakeholders. It
was also learnt from the participants that stakeholder involvement was a prerequisite for the ownership of plans and policies in the school. Transformational leadership was also established in this school.

This kind of leadership that is both visionary and empowering is associated with transformational leadership. In this research, it was discovered that good leadership is associated with the school performance.

The learners also pointed out that there is a strong relationship between discipline and performance. In the school setting, this can only be brought about by good school leadership. It was also discovered that a school with effective or good leadership that is dispersed or distributed was bound to yield good performance.

Other than owning the policies and decisions in the school, it is important to add that this kind of empowerment motivates the teachers and creates job satisfaction and enrichment. This in turn may lead to improved educational outcomes in the school. The only way schools will be able to face the challenges of the 21st century is to tap into the potential of all staff members and allow teachers to experience a sense of ownership and inclusiveness (Mujis & Harris, 2003).

In this research, learners supported teacher participation in decision-making, because teachers enable learners to solve the problems that may hinder their learning. As already emphasized in this research, most scholars are of the view that, academic progress depends on making allowance for the participation of all stakeholders in the school’s matters (Nkata, 1996). It can be argued that in schools the principal should avoid making lone decisions regarding what team members should do and how they
should do it.

On school climate, teachers who reported serving under democratic principal described their school situation in terms of the principals’ easy accessibility, collaboration amongst themselves, state of discipline of both their colleagues and their learners, all enjoying being at school. This sort of climate is reported to be conducive to good performance, because teachers therein are highly motivated and the principal is himself enthusiastic, conscientious and hardworking, well balanced in temperament, not aloof and very much in control (Halpin, 1996).

Such principals are described by Nias (1980:261) as positive because they set high professional standards, adapt a dynamic but consultative policy decision-making and actively support the professional development of their subordinates. The issue of the staff development featured very prominently in teachers’ responses, like one who had a very bitter complaint against his principal. In spite of being the preferred style, the democratic leadership style has some drawbacks like having endless meetings, failure to secure a consensus on critical issues which need urgent handling and in times of crisis (see 2.15.2).

5.4.3 The Laissez-Faire Leadership Style and School Performance

This research established that principals who use the laissez-faire leadership style tend to fail to follow up on those they have delegated tasks to and consequently performance declines. They leave everything to the mercy of their subordinates, some of whom may lack the necessary skills and competence to execute the work. Others may simply not like to do the work unless they are supervised. In a research of railroad
section groups, Katz, Maccoby & Gurin (as quoted by Frischer, 2007) found that the groups were unproductive if their supervisors avoided exercising control over their subordinates. These supervisors also did not differentiate their role and that of the workers. This indicates that laissez-faire leadership creates neglect and a lack of follow up of activities, which may water down concerns towards effective performance. Laissez-faire leadership is not the best leadership style to use in the school’s organization because complete delegation without follow-up mechanisms may create performance problems, which are likely to affect the school’s effectiveness.

During the interviews, teachers were asked whether they would make decisions independently regarding academic programs without the principal’s intervention. Their responses were that as much as teachers have to make decisions regarding academics, the principal has to monitor and approve the decisions because s/he is the head of the school. Whatever goes on wrongly s/he has to be answerable to as a leader. Group members under the laissez-faire leadership style reported more isolation and less cohesiveness from the leader and less empowerment in decision making. MacDonald’s (2007) research of laissez-faire leadership shows that it is associated with the highest rates of truancy and delinquency and with the slowest modifications in performance which lead to unproductive attitudes and disempowerment of subordinates. As indicated in Chapter 2, the laissez-faire leadership style may work well when trying to build team harmony, increase morale, improve communication or repairing broken trust among staff.

However, the laissez-faire leadership approach when properly implemented does not fully imply autonomy and irresponsibility of subordinates. The answer lies in the fact
that if the subordinates are skilled, self-starting and professionally mature, they may need autonomy and freedom in decision making with the directive boundary specified by the principal, the school or even the task itself. In this case, there is no need for principal intervention. Within these boundaries, the school manager should permit the already competent and motivated subordinates to complete their assignments in the manner they think best, but under staff who needs directives to navigate through difficult situations this style can leave them leaderless and helpless (see 2.15.3).

5.4.4 The Situational Leadership Style and School Performance

From the research, it was discovered that one of the most frequently used approaches to leadership was the situational leadership. School managers have, through experience, come to terms with the fact that the adoption of a particularly relevant style in a specific situation leads to school effectiveness, rather than relying on a single style of one’s choice (Mullins, 2002). Several arguments captured in the research account for the significance of the situational leadership approach. When principals and their deputies are transferred from one school to another, they tend to adopt new leadership styles because the new environment dictates differently. Leadership is dictated by environmental changes within and outside the school. At one time, learners may be so unruly and militant that it requires the head of schools to use strict measures of discipline so as to improve their academic performance. However, in another development learners may be so committed and focused that it may require being liberal minded to allow participative leadership to prevail. Of course, this depends on the changes in the situation of the school. This is also corroborated by Cheng (2002) who asserts that the relationship between school performance and
leadership style is moderated by the situational factors. He further argues that learning outcomes cannot be predicted by leadership styles unless the situational variables are known.

The researcher does not agree with this argument, although it is felt that effective leadership requires adapting one’s style of leadership to situational factors. Nevertheless, his argument is supported by the very first proponent of the contingency theory, Fielder (1967), whose opinion was that leadership styles are constant and that leaders do not change styles, but they change the situation. The majority of teachers who participated in the research were not in support of the variations in leadership styles. They preferred principals with either democratic or laissez-faire leadership styles. This could probably explain the weak relationship between the situational leadership style and school performance. The principals, the majority of whom supported the situational leadership approach, indicated that teachers were also reflected as part of the situation, and a very difficult situation to handle. For example, while school strikes are attributed to principals’ incompetence and autocratic tendencies, principals blamed the strikes on teachers. They contend that teachers incite learners to strike, because some of them are either ambitious and want to replace the learners or some of the teachers are just incompetent and lazy and do not want to work. This is sometimes true.

Teachers who are lazy and who do not want to work dislike a very serious and strict principal who makes them work. Such teachers create a very unfavourable situation for the principals. Fielder (1967), who conceptualises the situation in terms of its favourableness or unfavourableness, supports the argument that leadership is largely
determined by the favourableness of the situation at hand, which means the extent to which the situation allows the manager to exert influence on the subordinates. The relationship between the principal and the teachers is a key factor in determining the working environment in the school. If the teachers and the principal do not get along with each other, the learners soon get to know and sometimes take sides. This adds to the favourableness or unfavourableness of the situation in the school.

This research has also established that most of the principals learn the skills of administration on the job. The training they undertake does not sufficiently prepare them for leadership roles. This is another fertile ground for creating an unfavourable situation in the school. As the principal learns on the job, s/he may not be in a position to spell out clearly the tasks in the school and particularly when the school is not well established. But the teachers, and particularly the HODs, would be turning to him for assignments or for specifying goals, procedures and performance standards. When the principal finds her/himself in a situation where s/he cannot guide and direct the activities of the staff members, then she/he cannot be said to be in charge and in control of the school.

Where the school is well established and the tasks are already well structured, the principal may lose his initiative and innovativeness as s/he finds him/herself in a fix. Attempts to change such a status quo are always met with resistance and sometimes rebellion. “This is not how we do things here or that this is always done like this, like that” teachers would constantly remind the principal. Unfortunately in such a situation, the principal’s level of authority, particularly to administer rewards or sanctions is already compromised by his inadequate knowledge and skills in
management and leadership (see 2.15.4).

5.5 Findings Related to Sub-Problem Four: How Is School Performance Dependent Upon Its Principal’s Leadership and His/Her Leadership Style?

The researcher’s task was to establish the relationship between leadership styles of principals and school performance in schools. Leadership style may be a strong factor accounting for the academic performance of students in a school but its degree of influence may be limited if the school does not have good teachers, funding is limited, the principals’ lack experience and the culture of the school towards academic excellence is poor. The rest is the extent to which extraneous variables like the quality of teachers, availability of school facilities, instructional materials and the experience of principals, school culture and nature of learners contribute to school performance. This explains the magnitude of the contribution of leadership style to school performance. In order to improve the academic progress of schools, libraries need to be well stocked with up to date resource materials. Funding of academic projects also needs to be prioritized.

A school leader’s role, therefore, is to urge learners and teachers to utilize the available instructional materials in order to encourage a strong academic and continued research based culture in the school. It is, however, equally demanding for a principal to direct his/her efforts towards the improvement of the school if instructional materials are neither available nor effectively utilized. Further still, the culture of the school influences the academic progress of the same school. Schools, which have maintained their culture of academic excellence and discipline, will
continue to excel, regardless of the leadership factor including the leadership style adopted by the principal. This is because their vision and mission are already well articulated and shared by most of the stakeholders of the school from the employees to members of the SGB to parents. The founders, and now the foundation body, invested heavily and took time to restructure and maintain quality with a view to upholding the good performance of the school. Top ranking schools in South Africa pay their allegiance to a strong culture maintained by their foundation bodies and other stakeholders.

Other factors that influence academic excellence in schools include the quality of teachers; the sort of management practices employed, and staff motivation and remuneration. All of these imply that it takes more than leadership alone to have an effective school system. The effectiveness of schools is beyond one variable, but a combination of many other effective variables (Pedraja, Rodriguez & Rodriguez, 2007). However, other factors notwithstanding, leadership remains pivotal towards school performance. Camilleri (2007) adds an important assertion that the rapid pace of change in the school’s organization demands that leadership be more effective in order to confront the challenges that schools have to contend with especially learner academic growth. Adei (2004) summarizes it very well by saying, leadership is the cause while everything is effect.

It is apparent that leadership plays a very critical role in galvanizing all the other factors in the school together. However, in spite of the importance of leadership, its contribution to improved school performance will not be maximized, unless leadership is distributed and shared with the significant others. The researcher agrees with the
school of thought that the concept of leadership must change, as Grant (2006:512) argues that a different understanding of leadership is needed; a shift from leadership as headship to distributed form of leadership. There is a distinction between leadership and headship in the context of school management. Gronn (2002:660) posits:

The excision of leadership from headship means that the former can be disassociated entirely from occupancy of formal positions. The sole features that distinguish a manager or a head, then, are the legal authority bestowed by appointment, along with any accrued status deriving from the trappings of office, previous experience, individual capacity or other attributes. In summary, leadership is no more the monopoly of managers than any other element in the overall calculus of power, in which case as has been suggested, any organization member may influence, lead or persuade her or his peers. This prospect facilitates the distribution of leadership.

From the foregoing contention the researcher would like to argue that in this research the reason for a strong positive relationship between leadership style and school performance, but a weak overall contribution, could be attributed to the fact that leadership was still vested in an individual who when his/her style of management was poor, resulted in poor performance. When a principal does not let go of some of his powers, this will result in his/her staff becoming demotivated and subsequently performance will be affected (see 2.12).

5.6 Summary

It is evident that while some schools are well managed, others are not, suggesting that the research findings can also be generalized to other schools in the country. An increasing lack of seriousness and commitment among teachers was noted. While a number of factors affecting school performance were identified and discussed, the
emphasis was on the leadership style employed by the school principals. The chapter has highlighted the significance of principals’ training and continuous professional development. Inadequate preparation of principals for their leadership roles was singled out as one of the factors responsible for inadequate school performance. In a number of schools, teachers and other staff members were not involved in decision-making processes and this was found to be responsible for teachers’ indifference towards schools’ programmes and commitment to learners’ academic needs. Lack of teamwork and collaboration among staff affected performance. The research established that there is a significant relationship between democratic leadership and academic performance. The research indicated that it is only through democratic leadership that different views can be brought together, challenges identified and collective decisions reached. Chapter 6 will make recommendations for mitigating the identified challenges in leadership and school performance discussed in Chapter 5.
CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSION

6.1 Introduction

Effective school research reveals that there is a very significant leadership effect not only on the learner learning, but also on an array of school conditions as well. Leadership is a very strong predictor of school performance Bush T & Oduro G (2006). This research established that among the pillars on which education is anchored leadership is pivotal. For example, if leadership per se, is expected to have a pronounced effect on education, it must be visionary, transformational and shared. This chapter therefore proposes to make recommendations and conclusions on the basis of the research findings.

6.2 Summary of Findings

The findings of the research can be summarized as follows:

- The training that teachers and principals undergo does not prepare them adequately for leadership roles (see 4.2.4);
- There was no relationship between the principals number of years in service and school performance (see 4.2.3);
- There is a disjointed relationship between the training received by principals from the universities and teacher training colleges, and the performance requirements in the schools (see 4.2.4);
• Some schools had their vision, mission and strategic plans, the teachers and other key stakeholders were involved in the process of developing them (see 4.3.2);

• The research established that there is a strong positive relationship between the leadership style and school performance (see 4.5.1).

6.3 Recommendations Related to Sub-Problem One: In What Way Does the Leadership and Leadership style of the Principal Affect a School?

6.3.1 Principals’ Training and Professional Development

The leadership style employed by a school’s principal is a function of his/her training, professional development and exposure. Being a principal today is more challenging than ever before. Not only because the principal is dealing with a changing educational environment, but also with a very different, have difficult and diverse clientele and the changing demands of the job itself. Although no amount of training can teach a principal how to deal with the difficult challenges, s/he needs to equip her/himself with the necessary management and leadership skills. Since it emerged as an important factor several recommendations are made in respect of the principal’s training and professional development.

6.3.2 Principals’ Training

As already observed principals receive training for teachers like any other teachers. It should also be noted that this initial training is at best only the start of their professional education. It is therefore important that while undergoing training, teachers be exposed to knowledge and skills required by school managers. It is also appropriate that a specialized course for those aspiring to become principals be
designed. This research therefore submits that a specialized management and leadership training course be designed for those aspiring to become principals in schools.

6.3.3 Principals’ Professional Development

Even after receiving adequate training, teachers remain lifelong learners. Due to the ever dynamic and changing nature of the professional demands, and the development of professional practices, training is a continuous process which lasts for the duration of the career of a committed professional teacher. Similarly, principals must also have continuous professional development. Principals are in charge of schools, which operate as professional learning communities. In support of this, Fullan (in Bass, 2007) alludes that the illiterates of the 21st century are not those who cannot read and write, but those who cannot learn and unlearn. Teaching is a lifelong learning profession and therefore principals should be at the forefront of learning.

Research indicates that an organization’s ability to improve and sustain improvement largely depends upon its ability to foster and nurture learning communities (Hargreaves & Fink, 2003; Mujis & Harris, 2003). It is therefore recommended that a Continuous Professionals Development (CPD) system for principals be established and institutionalized in the education system.

6.3.4 Education Leadership Training Institute

The research has also established that there is a need for the country to build a constant supply of the needed manpower including leaders for the schools. Responses
from both the teachers and principals indicate that none of the schools had as part of their plans staff development and succession plans. Apart from addressing the supply and availability of the pool of resources for the principals and deputy principals, the issue of the quality of leadership is equally important and has to be addressed. These concerns need to be addressed in a more concrete and sustainable way. This is because, as postulated by Bush T (2010), the demand for leadership excellence has significantly changed the institutional face of our education system. It is not by default that in the United Kingdom, the National College for School Leadership was opened in 2000, with a focus on school leadership development, research and innovation. In South Africa, the Mathew Goniwe School of leadership and governance is another attempt towards answering the same cause. This research therefore recommends that in the medium to long term an education leadership training institute/college be established in South Africa.

6.3.5 Ongoing Training and Refresher Training

In a bid to grapple with the changing educational terrain; overburdened roles, difficult parents, increased responsibilities and accountabilities, outbreaks of fires, learner unrest (strikes and violence), dilapidated facilities, inadequate resources particularly inadequate staff, principals will need constant refresher training Christie P (2001). In addition a number of policy reforms are taking place and it is imperative that the principals be kept abreast of these changes. This research recommends that principals constantly be trained and provided with updated knowledge and skills for leadership. As the learner community and other clientele change, so does the need for constant leadership training.
From the responses of principals and teachers, it also emerged that there is no relationship between the number of years one served as a teacher and as a principal and performance. In view of this observation, the research recommends a policy shift. The number of years one has been in the service as a teacher or as a principal should not be used as selection criteria for the appointment of principals and deputy principals to the disadvantage of those younger but brilliant teachers with fewer years of service. Use of aptitude tests and other academic achievements can be used to identify the talented young professionals with the potential of being very good and effective leaders. Changes are also required in the teacher training colleges and universities. Programmes offered at these institutions are disconnected from the daily realities and needs of schools. At the institutions there is no comprehensive package to provide principals with different leadership skills and styles.

6.3.6 Mentoring of School Principals

In a bid to improve the performance of principals, a mentoring program is strongly recommended for newly appointed and underperforming serving principals. Anderson & Dextor (2005) defined mentoring as a nurturing process in which a more skilled and more experienced person serving as a role model, teaches, sponsors, encourages, counsels and befriends a less experienced for the purposes of promoting the latter’s professional and personal development.

In this programme, the Ministry of Education identifies mentors from experienced and knowledgeable serving principals with a proven track record of success. This method of mentoring beginner principals registered improvement in schools’ performance particularly in the United Kingdom and the United States of America where it started.
Mentoring is not only beneficial to the mentee, but it also benefits the mentor. Both the mentor and the mentee are afforded opportunities for both professional and personal growth. The mentee acquires technical, managerial and leadership skills. The mentor also gains professional satisfaction, improved communication skills, heightened motivation and most importantly also learns to share and to be more sympathetic to the needs of their less fortunate professional colleagues Huber SG (2004). In the 21st century, organizations are being encouraged to be learning organizations. Mentoring is one of the strategies for the creation of a learning organization.

6.3.7 Curriculum for Teacher Training

The researcher recommends a review of the curriculum for the training of teachers so that sufficient attention is given to management and leadership skills. The need to review the training curriculum is precipitated by the existing gap between theory and practice. Through practice and observation of schools the researcher established that some principals who made efforts to accumulate qualifications and certificates, had no significant improvement registered at the schools they were heading. This implies that either the knowledge acquired was not relevant to the situation on the ground or there was a failure to translate the theoretical knowledge into practice. All the teachers are potential leaders - future principals. Ministries of Education and the universities in liaison with the teacher training colleges should undertake the review of the said curricula Mathibe I (2007).
6.3.8 The Role of Universities and Teacher Training Colleges

It was observed that universities which train teachers and principals, for that matter be detached from the schools which is the point for delivery of the services by the products from the universities and training colleges. The training institutions cannot abrogate their responsibilities when their products are found wanting and cannot deliver quality work.

It is therefore recommended that universities and other teacher training institutions maintain a regular presence in the classrooms. An arrangement similar to what they do during school practice teaching.

6.4 Recommendations Related to Sub-Problem Two: What Does School Performance Entail?

6.4.1 Policy and Planning

The importance of policy formulation and planning in the life of an institution cannot be over-emphasized. This research established that a key variable in school performances is a visionary leader. A visionary leader is responsible for defining a clear vision to provide direction to the future of the school. As Roberts J & Roach J (2006) asserts, this vision would reflect their own personal understandings and perceptions of both the current situation and the future. However, as quoted by Roberts J & Roach J (2006), one critical element in this strategic visioning is the leader’s ability to assess the school’s environment and take into account its major stakeholders (Huffman & Jacobson, 2003).

It is therefore strongly recommended that every school undertake a strategic visioning
process whereby the leaders and the stakeholders create a vision for the school. It is through a shared vision and mission that the principals will be able to offer a sense of direction to his/her staff. All the staff should be able to have a shared understanding on where the school should be in the next few years. With a succinct vision and mission, the school can and should then develop a strategic plan. The plan should be broadly shared and understood by all the stakeholders. If this is accomplished, it will help the school to deliver quality education and hence improve school performance. However, the process must be participatory to enable all stakeholders to buy into it. A well thought out strategic planning process, which is broad-based and consultative would foster teamwork and collaboration in the school. It will also enhance shared leadership. It is therefore recommended that the process of developing a school’s vision and mission and later on the strategic plan be a very consultative process, and involve all stakeholders including the parents and other critical friends of the school.

6.5 Recommendations Related to Sub-Problem Three: What Attributes of Leadership Are Perceived by Principals and How Do These Leadership Attributes Impact on School Performance?

6.5.1 Autocratic Leadership Style of Principals and School Performance

From the research’s findings, the autocratic leadership style of the school’s principals has a negative effect on school performance in schools in South Africa. Many arguments were advanced including the fact that, autocratic school managers tend to be too strict and harsh which discourages their subordinates from performing to the best of their ability. The research also established that in schools with autocratic leadership, there is always resistance. Whereas it might be easy to initiate and implement change from above (top-down), sustaining such reforms in an autocratic
leadership environment might be difficult. Literature also points to principals employing autocratic leadership styles as a major impediment to the development of teacher leadership, as they militate against teachers attaining the autonomy and taking on leadership roles within the school (Mujis & Harris, 2002).

There is always a fear and uncertainty leading to an overemphasis on control, as their prime mechanism in maintaining bureaucratic and hierarchical structures in the school. Such principals, in most cases, fear to disperse or distribute leadership to teachers either because of a lack of trust or the belief that teachers may not effectively perform to the required standards. Teachers need to be involved in the process of deciding the roles they wish to take on and then be supported by the school leadership in doing so. One of the roles of a principal is to build capacities of his/her subordinates. Even where the teachers are weak in some areas they need to be empowered and supported to be able to perform to the required standards.

It is therefore recommended that school principals avoid the use of the autocratic leadership styles in the management of schools. This style of leadership does not only demotivate staff, but also discourages learners and hence their learning achievement. It does not allow the teachers to give off their best. Teachers have a lot of potential which remains untapped due to bad leadership. The schools, in addition to being learning organizations, should be training grounds for future education leaders. But this requires a conducive and supportive environment.
6.5.2 The Laissez-Faire Leadership Style and School Performance

This research has established that there is a very low correlation between the laissez-faire leadership style in secondary schools and school performance in schools in South Africa. One of the findings of the research was that laissez-faire leaders do not delineate the problem that needs to be solved and tend to over delegate their duties which leads to poor performance because most of the work remains undone at the end of the day. For, while one can delegate duties, one cannot delegate responsibilities. One remains accountable.

It is therefore recommended that school managers, avoid the laissez-faire leadership style which permits total delegation of responsibility to teachers and learners. Managers need to monitor activities so as to ensure compliance and results. The problem with laissez-faire leaders is that they neglect their duty of overseeing things and seem to over trust subordinates. This should only be in situations where subordinates like work, are trustworthy and are professionals. The school manager should know that he is accountable for every action so he needs to monitor the school’s progress and performance.

6.5.3 The Democratic Leadership Style and School Performance

This research established that school performance in schools in South Africa is positively related to the democratic leadership style employed by school principals and that the democratic leadership style is the most used style in schools. The research has also documented the gains and contributions accruing from the use of the democratic leadership style by head teachers. The democratic leadership style
encourages everybody to participate in the affairs of the school as a whole. The staff feels they are part of the school, and hence they are part of the leadership of the school. This motivates them to work hard and consequently all programs in the school are implemented and the overall performance of the school increases. From the literature and practice one factor that has consistently been found to enhance school effectiveness is collaboration between teachers.

This research also established that there is a strong relationship between democratic leadership style of principals and teacher leadership. This is where teacher leadership is seen as a collective form of leadership in which the teacher develops expertise by working collaboratively. One of the dimensions of teacher leadership is that it focuses upon participative leadership where all teachers feel part of the change process and have a sense of ownership (Mujis & Harris, 2003). So they work together with colleagues to shape school improvement efforts. A school that wishes to embrace teacher leadership would need to develop a culture that supports collaboration, participative decision-making, and partnership team teaching. These are all characteristics of a school whose principal believes in and practices a democratic leadership style. This is where a principal is willing to part with some of his powers to others. Empowering teachers to take on leadership roles enhances the teachers’ self-esteem and work satisfaction, which in turn leads to higher levels of performance due to higher motivation. Most schools would improve their performance by becoming more collaborative and more democratic. This research therefore submits that the principals of schools in particular be encouraged to use this style of leadership in the management of schools. In order to promote democratic leadership style in the
schools the following are recommended at the institution level:

- Do away with top down decision-making processes;
- Distribute the responsibility and power for leadership widely throughout the school;
- Share decision-making powers with staff, and allowing staff to manage their own decision-making committees;
- Take staff opinions into account;
- Ensure effective group problem solving during staff meetings;
- Provide autonomy for teachers;
- Alter working conditions so that staff has collaborative involvement in decision-making related to new initiatives in the school;
- Create opportunities for staff development. There are many other factors accounting for academic performance in schools and these combined constitute the greatest influence on school performance.

These were established to be, inter alia, the following:

- School culture;
- Parental participation and involvement in school management;
- Availability of instructional materials;
- Funding;
- Discipline of students and school climate.

These in combination with leadership styles of school managers can lead to effective school performance.
6.6 Recommendations Related to Sub-Problem Four: How is School Performance Dependent Upon Its Principal’s Leadership and His/Her Leadership Style?

The research established that there is a strong positive relationship between the leadership style of principals in schools and school performance, but that the contribution of the leadership style towards the overall school performance is low. However, from the research and also through the literature reviewed, it is clear that leadership is a very important component and a critical ingredient in the process of improving the school’s performance. This observation led the researcher to probe further during the interviews to identify reasons for this apparent contradiction. What was established from the literature and confirmed by the research was that leadership, though important, can be misused, particularly when it remains vested in an individual, more so when the leadership style of that individual is autocratic. This research established that in the selected schools, leadership was premised upon individual endeavor rather than collective action, whereas the trend now is that authority to lead need not be located in one position of the leader, but can be distributed among the staff. In other words, leadership should be detached from the heads of schools and should be primarily concerned with relationship and connections among individuals within a school (Mujis & Harris, 2003). The idea is that leadership should not be equated to headship. While making a pertinent appeal for the transformation of South African schools, Grant (2006:514) argues this point very well:

Given the inequalities that remain pervasive in the schooling system, coupled with a range of new policies that require radical change in every one of its systems, schools can no longer be led by a lone figure at the top of the hierarchy. The only way that schools will be able to meet the challenges is to tap the potential of all staff members and allow teachers to experience
a sense of ownership and inclusivity and lead aspects of the change process”. This research therefore submits that for leadership to remain important and useful towards the promotion of quality education, it MUST be distributed appropriately among the different levels of administration in the school; to the school top management teams (distributed leadership) and also decentralized among the teachers, which is known as teacher leadership.

This view is supported by Thurlow (cited in Grant, 2006:513) who posits that in keeping with the notion of distributed leadership, teachers need to be encouraged to find their voices and to take up their potential as leaders and change agents to produce a liberating culture in their schools. This requires a radical shift from ‘dependency culture’ to one of ‘empowerment’. Teachers have leadership capabilities waiting to be unlocked and engaged for the good of the schools. Sillins, Mulford & Harris (2002) conclude that learners’ outcomes are more likely to improve where leadership sources are distributed throughout the school and where teachers are empowered in areas of importance to them. By distributing powers, principals do not become weak; they instead become stronger as the institutions they head excel in performance.

6.7 Conclusion

This research sought to analyse the leadership styles of principals and school performance of schools in South Africa. The researcher recognized from literature and experiences from observations of leadership in schools that there are many leadership styles employed by school principals. However, for the purposes of this research, the researcher examined the relationship between leadership styles in general and school performance, and analysed four leadership styles and school performance.
The research established that there was a relationship between the age of the principals and their leadership style. Principals tended to become more democratic with age professional maturity and with experience. It was also noted that the young teachers, because of over ambition, tended to be more aggressive which led to the principals adopting a more autocratic leadership style. Another interesting finding from the research was in respect of principals’ training. It was established that the nature of principal's training contributed to either poor or good leadership and hence school performance. That the principals were well trained as teachers did not automatically make them good school leaders. That type of training did not prepare them for leadership roles as Roberts J & Roach J (2006) observe that there is a gap in leadership training to fit principals for their roles.

While noting the many challenges and demands on the principals’ job, the research underscored the need for management and leadership skills on the part of the principals. The research established that unless principals are well equipped with knowledge and skills in management and leadership, they would not be able to improve school performance significantly. All of the principals interviewed indicated that they had neither attended any induction management training course upon being appointed as principals, nor undertaken any training during their tenure of service as principals. This research strongly recommends induction training in management and leadership for the newly appointed principals. Similarly, a programme for CPD including issues of management and leadership is recommended for serving principals. The research established that effective school performance requires visionary leadership among other things, and that there is a strong relationship between
visionary leadership and transformational leadership which is recommended for future education leaders.

The research established that most principals did not involve key stakeholders like teachers in formulating school vision, mission and strategic plans, and subsequently there was no ownership and shared understanding of the developed missions and plans. The failure by the stakeholders such as the teachers to buy into the plans means poor implementation of the school programs and hence poor performance. In successful schools, the school community shares values and goals and work as a team. Teamwork can enhance quality management in schools as teams can utilize resources more efficiently and effectively, increase organizational effectiveness, improve the quality of educational programs and create better learning and working environments. Thus, successful teamwork is considered an indispensable ingredient in the process of building successful schools (Steyn & Niekerk, 2002:113).

This research has also established that distributed leadership is instrumental towards school improvement. Where leadership is shared, teamwork is valued and usually organizations in which teamwork flourishes are more effective than organizations dominated by a single individual. The traditional approach that only top managers had the competence to make decisions and staff had to carry out the decisions, is now outdated. From the research’s findings, the autocratic leadership style of school principals was found to have a negative effect on school performance in schools in South Africa. It was accordingly recommended that school principals avoid the use of the autocratic leadership styles in the management of schools. Most recent conceptions of educational leadership indicate that there is a move away from
autocratic leadership styles to a more democratic mode of decision making in schools. This is in a bid to ensure that decision-making takes place at the lowest possible level.

This study has established that school performance and in particular learners’ academic excellence in schools in South Africa is positively related to the democratic leadership style employed by school principals and that the democratic leadership style is the most used style in schools. It was therefore recommended that the principals of schools in particular be encouraged to use this style of leadership in the management of schools.

The ongoing educational reforms require educational leaders who can work in democratic and participative ways in order to build successful relationships to ensure effective delivery of quality education. It is thus apparent from this research that there is a significant relationship between leadership styles and school performance and that if schools hope to operate as successful entities; the leadership will have to adopt approaches that take cognizance of the diverse needs of all stakeholders that it purports to serve.

6.8 Implications for Further Research

Although this research represents an initial effort to examine the influence of principals’ leadership on school performance, it has also fostered questions regarding the personal characteristics needed of the leaders involved in these efforts. The following questions are implications for further research.

- Do the characteristics discussed represent a composite picture of principal leaders of educational change or are there other characteristics that have not surfaced?
• Is there a unique formula for these characteristics that principals attempting to implement an educational innovation or a systemic change at the school to improve school performance should seek to possess?

• Does having congruent values between a community and a principal promote and encourage school improvement?

• What is the influence of principal leaders' values and beliefs on their leadership styles?

• Can these styles be learned or are they innate? If they can be acquired, how does this occur?

This research represents an initial attempt to identify the styles of principal leaders who initiate, guide, and provoke school performance. Further research attempting to answer the questions that have emerged from this research will broaden our understanding of what types of individuals can lead the needed school reforms as well as provide information on whether these leadership styles can be acquired throughout a principal's career. The possibility of being able to acquire and use these characteristics holds great promise for those participating in and leading the educational reforms of the day.
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APPENDIX A1

REQUEST TO GAUTENG DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SCHOOLS OF THE GAUTENG WEST REGION

The Director: Knowledge Management and Research, Gauteng Department of Education

Request for permission to conduct research interviews and observations in schools in the Gauteng West region

It would be appreciated if respected director would give me permission to conduct research interviews and do observations in the Azaadville schools of the Gauteng West region. I am currently studying towards a Master of Education – Educational Management degree. My dissertation topic is: The influence of principal leadership on school performance: a case study in selected Gauteng schools

The aims of this research project are:

1. In what way does the leadership and leadership style of the principal affect a school?
2. What does school performance entail?
3. What attributes of leadership are perceived by principals and how do these leadership attributes impact on school performance?
4. How is school performance dependent upon its principals’ leadership and his/her leadership style?

The study aims to examine how leadership styles adopted by school principals influence the schools overall performance. In addressing this main aim, the following specific objectives in the study are to

- Discuss what leadership and leadership styles in the school context entail;
- Describe the concept of school performance;
- Determine what attributes of leadership are perceived by principals and to determine how these attributes impact on school performance;
- Establish whether or not school performance is dependent upon principal leadership and his/her leadership style.

The principal, deputy principal, Head of Departments, teachers and learners will be approached to take part in this research study. A total of thirty participants will be interviewed. An interview schedule will be presented to all purposefully selected participants to allow educational managers to be interviewed without causing any disruption to the school programme. Informed consent will be obtained from all participants and all data gathered will be held in confidence and be used strictly for research purposes. Your favourable consideration in this regard would be appreciated.

Yours faithfully
Ms Sayed
REQUEST TO DISTRICT DIRECTOR OF WEST RAND, KRUGERSDORP, TO CONDUCT RESEARCH IN SCHOOLS OF THE GAUTENG WEST REGION

District Director of West Rand (Krugersdorp)

Request for permission to conduct research interviews and observations in schools in the Gauteng West region

It would be appreciated if respected director would give me permission to conduct research interviews and do observations in the Azaadville schools of the Gauteng West region. I am currently studying towards a Master of Education – Educational Management degree. My dissertation topic is: The influence of principal leadership on school performance: a case study in selected Gauteng schools

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Yours faithfully

Ms Sayed
REQUEST TO PRINCIPALS FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH INTERVIEWS AND OBSERVATIONS IN SCHOOLS

Dear Principal

Request for permission to conduct research interviews and observations in school

It would be appreciated if respected principal would give me permission to conduct research interviews and do observations in the school. I am currently studying towards a Master of Education – Educational Management degree. My dissertation topic is: The influence of principal leadership on school performance: A case study in selected Gauteng schools

The aims of this research project are:

1. In what way does the leadership and leadership style of the principal affect a school?
2. What does school performance entail?
3. What attributes of leadership are perceived by principals and how do these leadership attributes impact on school performance?
4. How is school performance dependent upon its principals’ leadership and his/her leadership style?

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- Describe the concept of school performance;
- Determine what attributes of leadership are perceived by principals and to determine how these attributes impact on school performance;
- Establish whether or not school performance is dependent upon principal leadership and his/her leadership style.

The principal, deputy principal, Head of Departments, teachers and learners will be approached to take part in this research study. A total of ten participants will be interviewed. An interview schedule will be presented to all purposefully selected participants to allow educational managers to be interviewed without causing any disruption to the school programme. Informed consent will be obtained from all participants and all data gathered will be held in confidence and be used strictly for research purposes. Your favourable consideration in this regard would be appreciated.

Yours faithfully
Ms Sayed
APPENDIX B

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I understand the overview given to me on the study: **The influence of principal leadership on school performance: a case study in selected Gauteng schools.**

It is my understanding that:

1. The study focuses on the influence of principal leadership has on school performance. My identity will remain confidential and my name or the name of my institution will not be used in the study or in reporting its findings at any point.
2. The purpose of the study is not to judge me on the issue or type of responses I give during the study.
3. I hold the right to decline to answer any question.
4. I hold the right to withdraw from the study at any point in time.
5. I will be audio recorded when I am interviewed.
6. I express willingness to participate in the study by signing this form.

Name: ___________________________________________

Signature: ________________________________________

Date: _____________________________________________
# APPENDIX C1

RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER FROM THE DIRECTOR OF KNOWLEDGE MANAGEMENT AND RESEARCH, GAUTENG PROVINCE

<table>
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<td>16 May 2012 to 30 September 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Name of Researcher:</td>
<td>Sayed H.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Address of Researcher:</td>
<td>P.O. Box 6589 Greenhills Randfontein 1767</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Telephone Number:</td>
<td>011 412 1095 / 072 555 2036</td>
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Re: Approval in Respect of Request to Conduct Research

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school’s and/or offices involved to conduct the research. A separate copy of this letter must be presented to both the School (both Principal and SGB) and the District/Head Office Senior Manager confirming that permission has been granted for the research to be conducted.

The following conditions apply to GDE research. The researcher may proceed with the above study subject to the conditions listed below being met. Approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions listed below be flouted:

1. The District/Head Office Senior Managers concerned must be provided with a copy of this letter that would indicate that the said researchers have been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.
2. The District/Head Office Senior Managers must be approached separately, and in writing, for permission to involve District/Head Office Officials in the project.

Office of the Director: Knowledge Management and Research

Making education a societal priority

[Image of a stamp or logo]
3. A copy of this letter must be forwarded to the school principal and the chairperson of the School Governing Body (SGB) that would indicate that the researcher has been granted permission from the Gauteng Department of Education to conduct the research study.

4. A letter/document that outlines the purpose of the research and the anticipated outcomes of such research must be made available to the principal, SGBs and District Head Office Senior Managers of the schools and district offices concerned, respectively.

5. The researcher will make every effort obtain the goodwill and cooperation of all the GDE officials, principals, and chairpersons of the SGBs, teachers, and learners involved. Persons who offer their cooperation will not receive additional remuneration from the Department while those that opt not to participate will not be penalised in any way.

6. Research may only be conducted after school hours so that the normal school programme is not interrupted. The Principal (if at a school) and/or Director (if at a district head office) must be consulted about an appropriate time when the researchers may carry out their research at the site that they manage.

7. Research may commence from the second week of February and must be concluded before the beginning of the last quarter of the academic year.

8. Items 6 and 7 will not apply to any research effort being undertaken on behalf of the GDE. Such research will have been commissioned and be paid for by the Gauteng Department of Education.

9. It is the researcher’s responsibility to obtain written parental consent of all learners that are expected to participate in the study.

10. The researcher is responsible for supplying and utilising his own research resources, such as stationery, photocopies, transport, fax and telephones and should not depend on the goodwill of the institutions and/or the officers visited for supplying such resources.

11. The names of the GDE officials, schools, principals, parents, teachers and learners that participate in the study may not appear in the research report without the written consent of each of these individuals and/or organisations.

12. On completion of the study the researcher must supply the Director, Knowledge Management & Research with one Hard Copy bound and an electronic copy of the research.

13. The researcher may be expected to provide short presentations on the purpose, findings and recommendations of his/her research to both GDE officials and the schools concerned.

14. Should the researcher have been involved with research at a school and/or a district head office level, the Director concerned must also be supplied with a brief summary of the purpose, findings and recommendations of the research study.

The Gauteng Department of Education wishes you well in this important undertaking and looks forward to examining the findings of your research study.

Kind regards

Dr. David Makhado

Director: Knowledge Management and Research

Office of the Director: Knowledge Management and Research
8th Floor, 111 Commissioner Street, Johannesburg, 2001
P.O. Box 7712, Johannesburg, 2006 Tel (011) 355 0500
Email: david.makhado@gauteng.gov.za
Website: www.education.gpg.gov.za
APPENDIX C2

RESEARCH APPROVAL LETTER FROM DISTRICT DIRECTOR OF
WEST RAND, KRUGERSDORP

TO: HABIBA SAYED
    P O BOX 6690
    GREENSHILLS
    RANDFONTEIN

FROM: DR P SKOSANA
      DISTRICT DIRECTOR

DATE: 3 JUNE 2012

SUBJECT: PERMISSION TO DO RESEARCH: SELECTED SCHOOLS IN AZAADVILLE

As requested in your e-mail dated 25 May 2012, please be advised that permission is hereby granted for you to do research as per your Research Topic "The Influence of Principal Leadership on School Performance: A Case Study in Selected Gauteng Schools" at selected schools in Azaadville in the Gauteng West District.

Yours faithfully

DR P SKOSANA
DISTRICT DIRECTOR
DATE: 3 JUNE 2012
QUESTIONS ON DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FOR PRINCIPALS, DEPUTY PRINCIPALS, HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS AND TEACHERS

The intention of this questionnaire is to acquire geographical information on the participants, pertinent to the research topic: The influence of principal leadership on school performance: a case study

The information will solely be used for academic research, and will be treated anonymously and privately at all times.

You are requested to answer each question by selecting the most appropriate answer and marking the square provided with an X.

For example, if you are male:

Gender

X Male

Female

The questionnaire is completed anonymously and will take approximately 10 minutes of your time. Thank you for your participation.

Question 1

What is your age?

20 - 25

26 – 30

31 – 35

36 – 40

41 – 45

46 – 50

51 – 55

56 – 60

61 – 65

66 and over

APPENDIX D
Question 2
What is your gender?
☐ Male
☐ Female

Question 3
How many years experience do you have in mainstream education as principal/deputy principal/educator?
☐ 5 or less
☐ 5 - 10
☐ 11 - 15
☐ 16 – 20
☐ 21 – 25
☐ 26 – 30
☐ 31 and more

Question 4
What is the highest academic qualification you hold?
☐ Educational Diploma
☐ Educational Degree
☐ Bed Degree
☐ Hons Degree
☐ Masters Degree
☐ D Degree

Question 5
To which ethnic group do you belong?
☐ African
☐ Indian
☐ White
☐ Coloured

Question 6
Please specify your nationality
☐ South African   ☐ Non South African
APPENDIX E1

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR PRINCIPALS AND DEPUTY PRINCIPALS

Name of the school: ________________________________

Name of the principal/deputy principal: __________________

Principals’ management training, school performance, leadership styles and professional development

**Question 1**
What are your highest academic and professional qualifications?

**Question 2**
Have you ever undertaken a specialised management training course? Elaborate.

**Question 3**
Did you receive any induction management training when being appointed as principal/deputy principal?

**Question 4**
As principal/deputy principal did you receive an opportunity to undertake any management/leadership course?

**Question 5**
What are the qualities of a good and effective school?

**Question 6**
What is a good and effective school? What strategies are you putting in place to make your school an effective one?

**Question 7**
What contributions do the principals/deputy principals make in ensuring a good school?
  7.1 Why?
  7.2 How?

**Question 8**
Factors affecting the school’s performance
  8.1 What are the factors determining performance in the school?
  8.2 Why are the factors mentioned critical in determining performance in the school?
  8.3 What is the role of parents/community in quality school performance?
8.3.1 How do such factors influence performance in the school?

**Question 9**
Schools vision and mission
9.1 Does your school have a vision or mission statement?
9.2 Do you think these are important in influencing performance of the school?
9.2.1 How did you arrive at the vision or mission of the school?
9.2.2 What is the role of the principals/deputy principals in the vision/mission of the school?
9.2.3 How does the vision influence academic performance?

**Question 10**
Leadership style
10.1 What leadership style is used at the school?
10.1.1 Why?
10.1.2 How?

**Question 11**
Do you consult teachers in making decisions?

**Question 12**
What do you think is the relationship between your leadership style and academic performance in the school?

**Question 13**
Could you explain how the management/leadership approach that you have adopted in your school leads to academic excellence?

**Question 14**
What is the procurement and tendering process for the school?
14.1 How do you manage this process?
14.2 Why?
14.3 How does this affect the quality of teaching and learning in the school?

**Question 15**
What explains the decline in performance when a principal/deputy principal is moved or transferred to a good performing school?

**Question 16**
What leadership style is likely to yield the best academic performance?

**Question 17**
What are your management and leadership challenges?
Question 18
Does your school have a school development plan or strategic plan and why?
18.1 What do you plan for and why?
18.2 How do you engage in the planning process and why?
18.3 Who is involved and why?
APPENDIX E2

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR HEADS OF DEPARTMENTS AND TEACHERS

Name of the school: _____________________________

Name of the teacher:____________________________

Dear Respondent, This interview guide is designed to collect data from teachers that will help in a research about, “the relationship between principals’ leadership style and school performance” in this school. You are therefore chosen to be part of this research. Be honest in giving your responses. Even confidentiality will be also assured. Thank you in advance for accepting to be cooperative.

Question 1
How would you describe the climate of your school?

Question 2
How would you describe your school?

Question 3
Is it a performing school?

Question 4
Do you have anything to show that the school is performing well?

Question 5
What is the relationship between the school and the community?

Question 6
How would you describe leadership in the school?

Question 7
Why do you think that this is the best kind of leadership style that should be used?
Question 8
I understand that the school has vision and mission statements. May I kindly know the process of formulation of both the mission and vision statements?

Question 9
Who was involved?

Question 10
Why was this kind of involvement adopted?

Question 11
School development planning and strategic planning are critical to the performance of the school. May I know the following?
12.1 When does the school do its planning?
12.2 What do you plan for?
12.3 Who is involved and why?

Question 12
What do you think is the role of school leadership in the school’s performance?

Question 13
What is the relationship between school leadership and its performance?
INTerview guide for Learners

Name of the school: _______________________________

Name of the learner: ______________________________

Dear Respondent, This interview guide is designed to collect data from learners that will help in research about, “the relationship between principals’ leadership style and school performance” in this school. You are therefore chosen to be part of this research. Be honest in giving your responses. Even confidentiality will be also assured. Thank you in advance for accepting to be cooperative.

Question 1
Does the school administration involve student leaders in management of academic affairs in this school?

Question 5
In your opinion, do you think the type of leadership styles employed influence performance in this school?

Question 6
If so, how do these leadership styles influence performance?

Question 7
With your experience and observation, what methods of leadership does your school administrator use?

Question 8
Are school leaders who exert authority on staff and learners effective in ensuring academic standards?

Question 9
Do teachers participate in decision making with their principal in this school?

Question 10
Does collective involvement of staff and their HoDs in decision-making play a significant role in promoting academic excellence in this school?

Question 11
Would you agree that the principal should delegate authority to his subordinates in order to ensure effective performance in this school?
**Question 12**
How can leadership sharing in the school lead to effective school performance?

**Question 13**
In your opinion, do you think that the most appropriate leadership style depends on a particular environment of the led?

**Question 14**
Describe the kind of leadership method of your principal, deputy principal, Head of Departments and teachers.

**Question 15**
What are the advantage and disadvantages to the school when decisions are left to be made by other stakeholders besides the school principal?
APPENDIX F

CONFIRMATION OF LANGUAGE EDITING

To Whom it May Concern,

This serves to confirm that I have edited the language, spelling, grammar and style of the MEd dissertation by Habiba Sayed: “The Influence of Principal Leadership on School Performance: A Case Study in Selected Gauteng Schools”.

Sincerely Yours,

[Signature]

Donovan C. Huss
Language Editor