Chapter 2

INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP AND ITS INFLUENCE ON ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Leading a school to excellence in its academic programmes is a complex and challenging process (Keefe & Jenkins, 1991: viii). This makes the leadership role of the principal no simple one. As the school’s designated leader, the principal’s leadership, according to Smith and Andrews (1989: viii) is critical to academic success. Smith and Andrews (1989: 01) further point out that the direct responsibility for effective instruction and learning rests in the hands of the school principal. As crucial to effective teaching and learning at school, the principal’s leadership should be such that it creates opportunities conducive to effective teaching and learning (Short, 1998: 70). The importance of the principal’s role at school is further pointed out by Short (1998: 71) when arguing that the principal’s primary task is to focus efforts on what the school wants to achieve, what it wants to be, and what it wants to do for the students academically. Short’s view is supported by DuFour (1999: 15) who asserts that the ultimate test of any principal’s leadership is the results the school can achieve for students.

Dubrin (1995: 04) is of the opinion that effective leadership would involve a close correlation between the institution’s mission, goals and people working in it. This process would entail focusing the attention and energy of people in the institution, their alignment to, as well as their motivation and inspiration for achieving the institution’s mission and goals effectively.
Also supporting effective leadership in an institution is Charlton (1993: 29) who asserts that the difference between the successful institution and the unsuccessful one is due to dynamism and effectiveness of leadership in such institutions. Charlton's view concurs with the assertion by Coleman (1994: 68) that the most important single factor in the success of schools is the quality of leadership of the principals. In the same vein, West-Burnham (2001: 136) maintains that the quality of principalship determines the quality of teaching and in turn the quality of teaching determines the level of pupil achievement at school. Consequently, Garman (1995: 27) argues that the school principal is a critical actor on the school scene, and the effectiveness of instruction and achievement of children can be tied directly to efforts by a strong school principal to lead, manage and supervise teachers and school programmes.

The above introductory discussion of leadership clearly points out the importance of having appropriate and purposeful leadership in an institution that is pursuing a definite mission. The current chapter involves the discussion of instructional leadership as it is the most needed leadership at schools, particularly those aiming at improving the learners' academic performance. The main focus would be on the principal's various efforts to promote effective teaching and learning at schools. Firstly, the nature of the principal's instructional leadership would be examined in order to formulate a working definition of instructional leadership for the current study. The international and the national perspectives on instructional leadership, the models and the characteristics of instructional leadership would also form part of this chapter. Finally, the chapter will conclude with the examination of how instructional leadership influences the learners' academic achievement.

2.2 THE NATURE OF THE PRINCIPAL'S INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP - A WORKING DEFINITION
A brief reference to the meaning of instructional leadership was made in section 1.6.4 of chapter one, however the concept will be defined in greater detail in order to formulate a working definition of instructional leadership for this study in this chapter. Various authors have defined instructional leadership in different ways. The following are views or assertions of some authors from different countries.

In the United States of America, Sheppard (1996: 326) cites De Bevoice who maintains that instructional leadership can be broadly defined as those actions that the principal takes or delegates to others to promote growth in student learning. Those actions may include, amongst other things, arranging for extra classes, organising supervised after school study periods, and other activities related to teaching and learning. Greenfield (1987: 60) agrees with De Bevoice and defines instructional leadership as the actions taken by the principal with the intention of developing a productive and satisfying working environment for teachers and desirable learning conditions for children. Suggested in the above definitions is the principal’s ability to take actions that ensure effective teaching and learning at school.

The assertion by Peterson (1987: 143) is that instructional leadership is a set of behaviours by which the principal facilitates the academic achievement in schools and classrooms. These behaviours include:

# Regularly observing teachers and providing feedback.
# Monitoring student academic progress by reviewing tests results with teachers.
# Promoting staff development by organising staff meetings, workshops, and in-service training for teachers.
# Securing the needed instructional resources for teachers and learners.
# Communicating to teachers their responsibility for student achievement.
# Working with teachers to build a co-ordinated instructional programme at school.
For Bartell (1990: 121) and Keefe and Jenkins (1991: vii), instructional leadership is the principal’s role in providing direction, resources and support to teachers and students for the improvement of teaching and learning in the school. This definition suggests that the principal, in order to be an instructional leader, should be sensitive to the educational needs of teachers and learners so that quality teaching and learning occur at school. The principal provides direction to teachers and learners by formulating school policies and procedures that promote teaching and learning at school, for example, a school policy on supervision of afternoon study at school and a school assessment policy.

The view of Haughey and MacElwain (1992: 103) and Short and Jones (1991: 01) is that instructional leadership is everything by which the principals empower the educators to enhance commitment to student learning, to spend the major part of their school day improving the instructional programmes, and to expand opportunities for teacher growth.

In order to determine the agreement on perceptions of instructional leadership and to have a balanced view on its meaning, it is essential to consider views of authors from other developed countries apart from the United States of America, thus the views of authors in Britain are subsequently given.

In Britain, instructional leadership, sometimes referred to as instructional management, is strongly linked to research on school effectiveness (Hargreaves & Hopkins, 1993: 109). Hargreaves and Hopkins (1993: 109) view instructional management as the principal’s leadership:

- that is curriculum-focused;
- that is concerned with the creation of a supportive climate within the school;
- that sets clear academic goals and high expectations for teachers and students;
• that puts emphasis on monitoring student performance and achievement, and
• that puts emphasis on on-going staff development and in-service training.

In the Netherlands, Creemers (1996: 45) argues that instructional leadership entails the following:
# Frequent and personal monitoring of academic school activities.
# Support for teachers and students.
# Acquisition of needed instructional resources.
# High expenditure of time and energy on school improvement actions.

It seems these authors are in agreement about the direction instructional leadership should take. Amongst other things, they maintain that instructional leadership should be empowering and supportive to staff, lead to the acquisition of needed resources, and above all lead to improved overall learner academic achievement.

Having had a cursive overview of an international perspective on instructional leadership, it would be appropriate also to give attention to the local perspective on instructional leadership. Budhal (2000: 03) in South Africa, defines instructional leadership as the process by which principals in effective schools immerse themselves in the actual teaching and learning programmes of the school in order to identify the instructional and general problems the educators and learners may be experiencing at school. Then on identifying the instructional and general problems of educators and learners, the principal, as an instructional leader, offers guidance and support to solve the experienced problems so that at the end, effective teaching and learning occur at school.

Cawood and Gibbon (1990: 07) view instructional leadership as a process of guiding and encouraging the teachers towards greater professional effectiveness.
For Cawood and Gibbon (1990: 09), and Kruger and Van Schalkwyk (1993: 111) instructional leadership entails:

- staff development;
- class visitation and follow-up discussions;
- viewing the learners' work;
- discussing teaching methods with teachers individually;
- moderation of tests and examinations;
- checking schemes of work and records of work done, and
- discussing with individual learners’ and teachers about academic work.

From the views expressed by different authors in the definitions cited above, both internationally and locally, it can be concluded that instructional leadership entails:

# The promotion of effective teaching and learning as the principal’s central concern.
# The principal’s actions to promote growth in student learning.
# The principal’s actions to develop a productive working environment for teachers.
# The principal’s actions to develop a desirable learning conditions for learners.
# The principal’s role in providing direction, resources and support to teachers and learners.
# The principal’s various ways of facilitating academic achievement in school and classrooms.
# The principal’s ways of empowering educators in order to enhance commitment to student learning.
# The principal’s involvement in the actual teaching and learning programmes.
# The principal’s identification of, and assisting in solving instructional and general problems at school.
For the purpose of this study, instructional leadership is understood to mean the principal’s actions to promote effective teaching and learning at school. The principal’s actions would encompass, amongst other things, the provision of direction, resources and support to teachers and learners by the principal for the improvement of teaching and learning at school. To present a full picture of instructional leadership, models of instructional leadership will be discussed in the subsequent section.

2.3 MODELS OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP

This part of the research reinforces the preceding section on definitions of instructional leadership. The researcher, in this part of the study, attempts to add to the meaning and understanding of instructional leadership by looking at some models of instructional leadership.

A model, according to Cohen and Manion (1995: 16), is a broad framework (guideline) which is used to give a more visual representation of a particular phenomenon. For Mabuza-Suttle (2001: 13) a model is a road map to success in what one wants to achieve. Further on the meaning of a model, Caldwell and Spinks (1993: 45) quote Dye who defines a model as a simplified representation of the real phenomenon. Caldwell and Spinks (1993: 45) further maintain that a model focuses on the significant features and key issues of what that model represents. The phrase “significant features and key issues” suggests a clear link between sections 2.3 and 2.4.

In the current study, models are essential because they contain views of different authors on the basics/tasks of instructional leadership. They also provide guidelines on what one should do when one wants to practise instructional leadership in order to improve the academic performance of learners. Duke (1987: 80) considers the instructional leadership models to be a useful framework for
describing the expected principal behaviours associated with the success of teachers and students at school.

Many authors build models on instructional leadership behaviours that principals display at school towards the achievement of the school’s academic mission (Boyd, 1996: 68; Duke, 1987: 84; Hallinger & Murphy, 1987: 57). Blairs (1992: 31) refers to instructional leadership behaviours as the instructional leadership dimensions.

Different models of instructional leadership are postulated by different authors. In the present study, the instructional leadership models are classified into two broad categories, namely, the instructional leadership models presented by South African authors, such as those of Cawood and Gibbon (1990: 09); Kruger and Badenhorst (1996: 96) and the National Education Department (2000: 10), and the instructional leadership models found in international literature such as those of Duke (1987: 85), Hallinger and Murphy (1987: 57), Kindsvatter, Wilen and Ishler (1988: 19) and Parker and Day (1997: 85).

The following (Figure 2.1) is a modified integrated model of instructional leadership. The model comprises of the instructional leadership tasks as found in the instructional leadership models of Blairs (1992: 30), Duke (1987: 85) and Hallinger and Murphy (1987: 57). Because of the common elements amongst the instructional leadership models of the latterly given authors, the researcher decided to integrate their models into one easy to understand instructional leadership model as illustrated on the following page.
Figure 2.1: A modified integrated international model of instructional leadership

Figure 2.1 shows an integrated model of instructional leadership. The model integrates the tasks that the principal performs during his/her instructional leadership practice. In terms of this model, the principal, through his/her leadership is expected to coordinate everything relating to teaching and learning at school.

The model further reflects that improved learner academic performance is indirectly dependent on effective principal leadership. The principal, through coordinating a number of instructional dimensions, for example, the school’s academic goals, time for instruction, staff development, orderly school environment, and other instructional related activities as given in the model, can directly enhance the teachers’ ability to teach. The capable teachers, according to Duke (1987: 68) are able to plan their lessons effectively, manage their classrooms, assist learners in understanding and mastering the content of their subjects, and determine the learning needs of students in order to provide the needed remedial help. In fact, capable teachers are able to provide effective instruction (teaching) to learners. The effective instruction, beyond doubt, leads to improved learner academic performance.

Given below in table 2.1 are the two models of instructional leadership from the perspective of South African scholars:

**Table 2.1: Models of instructional leadership**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>National Education Department (2000: 10)</th>
<th>Kruger and Badenhorst (1996: 96)</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>➢ Setting up staff development programmes.</td>
<td>➢ Determining school objectives.</td>
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<tr>
<td>➢ Visiting classes and follow-up discussions.</td>
<td>➢ Coordinating school curriculum.</td>
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<tr>
<td>➢ Looking at learners’ work.</td>
<td>➢ Determining didactic direction.</td>
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<tr>
<td>➢ Assisting teachers with lesson planning.</td>
<td>➢ Determining enrichment programmes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ Discussing learners’ academic progress.</td>
<td>➢ Monitoring learners’ academic progress.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ Moderating tests and examinations.</td>
<td>➢ Taking corrective actions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>➢ Inducting new educators at school.</td>
<td>➢ Creating positive school climate.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Sources: Kruger and Badenhorst (1996: 96), and National Education Department (2000: 10)

The models of instructional leadership depicted in Table 2.1 lean more towards the didactical leadership role of the school principal. That is, these models emphasise the principal’s role of monitoring the actual teaching and learning activities in the classroom(s).

With the models of instructional leadership, as illustrated in Figure 2.1 and Table 2.1, an attempt was made to point out the differences and similarities between the models found in the international and South African literature on instructional leadership. In the integrated international model of instructional leadership the focus is on the school as a whole, while in the South African models the focus is on the didactic activities in the classroom(s).

Models are closely related to characteristics of a given phenomenon. The models and the characteristics of a given phenomenon, for example instructional leadership, overlap to a very great extent. Both the models and the characteristics of instructional leadership consist of the many tasks and duties the principal performs as part of instructional leadership practice. Perhaps one can argue that the difference between the models and the characteristics is on the purpose of the models and the characteristics. While characteristics serve the purpose of distinguishing something from the rest of things, Cohen and Manion (1995: 16) state that models are guidelines for better representation of a particular phenomenon.

The following section (section 2.4) presents the characteristics of instructional leadership. Because of the inseparability of the elements of models of instructional leadership from the characteristics thereof, the discussion of elements of models of instructional leadership as well as the characteristics thereof will be given in section 2.4. The elements of both the models and the characteristics of instructional leadership which have high frequency will be
discussed. Though school’s academic goals and mission are incorporated into school’s high academic expectations by some authors in their models of instructional leadership, the school’s academic goals and mission, and the school’s high expectations will be discussed separately in the current study. The intention of distinguishing the school’s academic goals and mission from the school’s high expectations is to avoid confusion and to bring clarity on these two important aspects of instructional leadership.

2.4 CHARACTERISTICS OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP: A HOLISTIC VIEW

A characteristic is a feature by which something can be identified and distinguished from the rest of things. According to authors such as Heck and Maroulides (1993: 21), Hord and Hall (1987: 01) and Peterson (1987: 143) the characteristics of instructional leadership are the behaviours that the principal shows to promote the achievement of the academic mission of the school.

Duke (1987: 75) argues that the leadership behaviours of the principal that are described as instructional leadership behaviours should be those associated with high levels of student academic achievement. Table 2.2 shows the views of nine authors on the characteristics of instructional leadership. The star (★) under the name(s) of the author(s) indicates that the author upholds the behaviour as forming the characteristic of instructional leadership. Table 2.2 contains, as characteristics of instructional leadership, many views of the international and the South African authors on instructional leadership as given in sections 2.2 and 2.3 above.
Table 2.2: Characteristics of instructional leadership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics/Behaviors</th>
<th>Bartell</th>
<th>Duignan and MacPherson</th>
<th>Hargreaves and Hopkins</th>
<th>Kruger</th>
<th>Peterson</th>
<th>Smith and Andrews</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Defining school's academic goals and mission.</td>
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<td>Mobilising resources for the school.</td>
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<td>Protecting the instructional time</td>
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<td>Supporting teachers and students.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Holding high academic expectations for educators and learners.</td>
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<td>Articulating clear visions for the school.</td>
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<td>Monitoring the academic progress.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Practising participative management.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Maintaining positive relationship with the teachers and the learners.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Practising strong and visible leadership.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Stressing commitment amongst the teachers and the learners.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Setting instructional strategies in place at school.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Encouraging continuous teacher development.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Encouraging the maximum use of the time on direct instruction.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Setting the atmosphere of order, discipline and purpose at school.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Curriculum-focused leadership.</td>
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</table>

Table 2.2 above indicates the views of nine authors on what characterises the principal who is an instructional leader at school. There is great agreement on the instructional leadership characteristics amongst these nine authors. However, it must be mentioned that only the elements with high frequency in the models and the characteristics of instructional leadership will be discussed. The seven elements with high frequency in the models and the characteristics of instructional leadership are:

1. Defining the school’s academic goals, mission and policies.
2. Supporting teachers and students.
3. Teacher evaluation and monitoring academic progress.
4. Encouraging continuous teacher development.
5. High academic expectations.
6. Setting the atmosphere of order, discipline and purpose (school ambience).
7. Mobilising resources for the school.

The elements of the models of instructional leadership and the characteristics thereof having high frequency amongst the authors in instructional leadership are described in the following sub-sections.

The other two elements to be discussed from the integrated international model of instructional leadership are quality control and time for instruction (instructional time). The instructional time will be discussed as part of the school’s resources. The instructional time has a direct bearing on the learners’ academic achievement. According to Murphy et al. (1983: 141), principals can have significant positive impact on student academic achievement by protecting instructional time at school.
Quality control will be discussed because quality learner academic achievement is what the society is interested in. Such a view is strongly supported by Jansen (2003: 19) who maintains that the matriculation pass rate should be judged on quality and not on quantity.

Quality control will be discussed as part of the principal’s strategy of encouraging teachers and learners to work towards achieving academic excellence.

2.4.1 Defining the school’s academic goals, mission and policies

According to De Beer, Rossouw, Moolman, Le Roux and Labuschagne (1998: 16), goals are the objectives which the organisation aims to achieve. For Lussier (2000: 123) goals are specific targets or objectives to be accomplished. Both definitions of goals clearly indicate that goals are what the institution or the people working in an institution want to achieve. At schools, therefore, academic goals are what schools or teachers want to achieve through the process of teaching and learning.

Hallinger (1983: 11) recommends that the school’s academic goals should focus on student achievement. For example, teachers can formulate as the school’s academic goal a given percentage (say 80%) to be the targeted school’s overall pass rate for a given year. Besides the school’s overall pass rate, academic goals can be formulated by individual educators for tests in their different subjects. Janson (1996: 84) argues that principals in effective schools motivate teachers and pupils to pursue the academic goals of the school. On the importance of goals, Lussier (2000: 123) maintains that:

- goals are needed to serve as the base for developing plans.
- goals serve as criteria to determine if the end result is achieved.

For Hallinger (1983: 11) school’s academic goals make teachers and students able to align their commitment to the achievement of the school’s academic mission.
The school’s academic mission, according to Smith et al. (2001: 10) means the core business of the school. In other words, the school’s academic mission is the statement clearly defining the purpose for the existence of the school. The school’s academic mission must be clearly understood and supported by the educators, parents and learners if it is to have positive impact on the school’s academic achievement. It is, therefore, very important for the principal to remind educators, learners and parents regularly about the school’s academic mission during meetings. Also supporting the above argument is Dubin (1991: 40) who maintains that great emphasis on the instructional mission of the school gives a sense of purpose to what happens in the school on daily basis.

For Davidoff and Lazarus (1997: 47) a school’s academic mission statement should be a public statement of commitment of the school to the achievement of objectives embedded in it. This implies that the school’s academic mission consists of measurable, quantifiable and feasible academic objectives the achievement of which simultaneously indicates the achievement of the school’s academic mission as well. For Caldwell and Spinks (1993: 40) the school’s academic mission represents the centrally determined framework of priorities and standards. The implication of the use of the words ‘public’ and ‘centrally’ is that many people are involved in the formulation and achievement of the school’s academic mission. Thus, Parker and Day (1997: 85) maintain that the school’s academic mission, in a way reflects the beliefs, values and aspirations of people associated with the school.

An important role of the principal as an instructional leader is to assist or train educators to incorporate the objective statements of the school’s academic mission into the objectives of their subjects. He/she also has the responsibility of ensuring that the school’s instructional programmes, procedures, budget and monitoring system support the achievement of the school’s academic mission. In other words,
the principal should, at all cost, minimise the factors/activities that take the school away from its academic mission.

For Hargreaves and Hopkins (1993: 32) the main instruments for keeping the school in line with its academic mission are effective policies and procedures. According to Caldwell and Spinks (1993: 38) a policy is a set of guidelines providing a framework for action with which to achieve the objectives of the school. These authors further argue that the policy may reflect the beliefs and values held for achieving the school’s main objectives. For Thompson (1996: 86) a policy is a guideline which supports the organisational (school) efforts to achieve the stated objectives. Thompson further argues that in an organisation, a policy can be formally written down or understood informally. Hunger and Wheelen (1996: 10) argue that a policy becomes a strategy for performance in an organisation.

The schools, like many other organisations, have different policies for different areas of function. Of great importance to the instructional leadership are those school policies which influence the teaching and learning processes which in turn influence learners’ academic achievement. The researcher is of the opinion that, amongst the school policies, the following have a profound influence on the teaching and learning process:

# School composite time-table.
# School assessment policy.
# School promotion policy.
# School quality assurance policy.
# School appraisal and development policy.
# Learners’ code of conduct.
# Educators’ code of conduct.
With the exception of the school’s composite time-table, within each of the school policies, there are rules and regulations which constitute the content of the policy. According to De Beer et al. (1998: 71) rules are express instructions that indicate what one may or may not do. With rules and regulations stated in each school policy, the principal can influence the behaviour and attitude of educators and learners towards their academic responsibilities. A school rule is defined as the statement which directs action or sets the boundaries for behaviour within the classroom(s) (Caldwell & Spinks, 1993: 38; Smith & Laslett, 1993: 17).

According to Donmoyer and Wagstaff (1990: 22) the principal, as an instructional leader, should always ensure that school policies and rules which influence what happens in classrooms exist in school. These authors further argue that school policies and rules assist the school in the following:

- Elimination of the interruption of teaching and learning activities at school, e.g. policy on visitors’ access to learners during school time.
- Protection of and even increasing the instructional time, e.g. having afternoon study time at school.
- Maintenance of discipline at school, e.g. school rules regarding the movement of learners in and out of classrooms during the instructional time.

The view of having school policies and rules with which to influence the teaching and learning activities at school is also supported by Weber (1995: 69) whose assertion is that the principal’s role at school is to set up policies, structures and processes that assist teachers in their teaching activities. Clearly articulated school policies can also be a direct way by which the principal exerts influence upon the wide areas of school’s academic expectations (Murphy et al., 1983: 140).

2.4.2 Supporting teachers and students
There are various ways by which the principal supports teachers and students so that they realise the goal of teaching and learning. According to Duke (1987: 198), strong support the principal can give to teachers and students is the establishment of an atmosphere of orderliness throughout the school so that effective teaching and learning can occur at school. In the same vein, Dubin (1991: 39) maintains that the principal provides support to teachers and students by reducing class disruptions so that teaching and learning can smoothly take place at school. In other words, the principal supports teachers and students by putting in place the conditions that favour and enhance teaching and learning at school.

Foriska (1994: 33) asserts that principals, in effective schools, support teachers and students by providing them with resources needed for teaching and learning. The instructional resources that the principal should pay attention to may include, amongst other things, the textbooks, study guides, syllabuses, previous examination question papers, teachers’ reference books, and sufficient instructional time as well as time-on-task. The instructional time, according to Anderson (1991: 177) is the amount of time teachers spend teaching and providing learning experiences to students, while time-on-task is the time students spend being actively engaged in the learning process by doing the tasks that teachers have assigned to them.

To support teachers through the use of school time, the principal can put in place school policies aimed at eliminating disruptions of the teaching process, while to support student through the use of school time, the principal can design a time-table for supervised after school study periods. After giving support of various kinds to teachers and students, the principal needs to evaluate and monitor the academic progress of both the educators and the learners.

2.4.3 Teacher evaluation and monitoring academic progress
Although the heading refers to teacher evaluation and monitoring academic progress, the concepts as used in the current study refer to the principal’s acts of assessing the academic work done and standards achieved by both the educators and the learners. The concepts evaluation and monitoring are concerned with the same purpose, that is, collecting information in order to make a judgement about how something is done or has been done (Caldwell & Spinks, 1993: 39). Davidoff and Lazarus (1997: 72) clearly state that whichever term we use, we are referring to a process of reviewing what has occurred over a particular period of time.

For Davies and Ellison (2001: 219) teacher evaluation and monitoring concerns “the product of the school” which they define as “pupil achievement”. Duke (1987: 103) maintains that when evaluation and monitoring are used in the context of a school, the terms mean the formal process by which judgements are made about the extent to which the desired pupil outcomes have been achieved.

There are many views on why the principal needs to evaluate or monitor the work of both the educators and the learners. According to Van der Westhuizen (1996: 221) the principal evaluates the work of teachers and learners in order to determine progress made towards the school’s academic goals and to take corrective actions against deviation from the school’s academic goals. For Caldwell and Spinks (1993: 39), the principal evaluates the teaching and learning process in order to determine the extent to which:

- progress towards academic goals has been made;
- academic needs have been satisfied;
- the school’s academic priorities have been met, e.g. completion of syllabus, and
- school’s academic policies have been implemented.
Also arguing in favour of monitoring student progress are Parker and Day (1997: 87) who maintain that regular monitoring informs the principal whether teaching and learning activities at school are focused on achieving the school’s academic mission.

Hawley, Rosenholtz, Goodstein and Hasselbring (1984: 64) are of the opinion that academic monitoring forms the basis for academic decision-making within the school and as such serves as a way of informing all who work within the school about what constitutes an acceptable academic performance.

Hawley et al. (1984: 63) further argue that monitoring should be specific to student achievement, relate to teaching and learning behaviours, and happen on a regular basis. Also favouring the regular monitoring of academic progress are Farris, Carnine and Silbert (1993: 32) whose assertion is that a plan should exist at school for monitoring student performance continuously so that initiating quick action when students are not progressing as they should, could be possible.

According to Van der Westhuizen (1996: 277), monitoring academic progress can be carried out by:

- conducting class visits;
- holding formal and informal interviews with educators;
- holding staff meetings in which academic progress is discussed, and
- compiling mark schedules either out of monthly or quarterly tests.

For Kruger and Badenhorst (1996: 100), monitoring academic progress constitutes an important part of the principal’s task of instructional leadership. It is through following the school’s monitoring system faithfully that the principal may hope to see the achievement of the school’s set academic goals. In other words, the
effective school’s monitoring system becomes part of the school’s strategies by which the school’s academic goals can be achieved.

A characteristic of instructional leadership that is closely connected to teacher evaluation and monitoring of academic progress is continuous teacher development. In fact, teacher evaluation forms the basis for teacher development, often called staff development.

2.4.4 Encouraging continuous teacher development/staff development

According to Wideen and Andrews (1995: 02), staff development is any training activity that helps teachers to improve their teaching skills. Duke (1987: 82) asserts that staff supervision and development entails direct monitoring of instruction by the school principal in order to ensure delivery of quality teaching. Duke (1987: 82) further argues that staff development involves efforts by the school principal to improve the performance of the individual teacher as well as the entire staff. From Duke’s assertion, one can conclude that staff supervision precedes staff development. In other words, before the principal engages himself/herself in staff development, he/she needs to conduct staff supervision. This can be in the form of evaluation and monitoring academic progress (discussed in sub-section 2.4.3 above).

Once the necessary information on academic matters has been collected through evaluation and monitoring, staff development, as an on-going process can take place. Schreuder, Du Toit, Roesch and Shah (1993: 01) refer to staff development as the professional development through which all attempts are made by educational leaders to improve teaching effectiveness of the individual teacher or the entire staff. For the latter authors, staff development has as its purpose either
the correction of professional short-comings or the creation of opportunities for professional growth (enhancing teachers’ skills for better teaching).

Sparks (1997: 02) maintains that as staff development is an important element of school effectiveness, school leaders should address it while paying attention to structural issues such as the school curricular. School curricular, according to Creemers (1996: 50), refers to subject offerings, textbooks and other materials used by teachers, provision of resources, identification of needs of educators and learners, and programmes of assessment at school. For Sparks (1997: 02), the structural elements mentioned above supplement staff development in ensuring that effective teaching and learning take place at school.

As methods of staff development, DuFour and Berkey (1995: 02) maintain that principals can have staff meetings in which they allow teachers to talk about teaching and learning, allow teachers to observe one another while teaching, allow teachers to evaluate school instructional programmes and curricular, and encourage peer coaching sessions at school.

As guidelines for effective staff development, Sergiovanni and Starratt (1992: 398) argue for the following:

# A thorough study of the school situation and the proper identification of instructional needs (development needs).

# Active involvement/participation of the staff/teachers in the staff development activities.

# The spirit in which the principal and the teachers working together as professional associates bound together by common purpose must prevail during staff development sessions.

# The emphasis should be on direct improvement of teaching and learning in the classrooms.
2.4.5 Holding high academic expectations for educators and learners

An expectation, according to Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson (2001: 146), is what a person or groups of persons should do in their particular role(s) or how a person or groups of persons should behave in relation to their roles within the organisation. In terms of this perception of expectation, academic expectations for educators and learners at school clearly concern effective teaching and learning respectively. Rossow (1990: 05) maintains that when teachers have high academic expectations for students, students tend to achieve a high level of success, but when teachers have low academic expectations for students, students’ academic achievement declines.

Lezotte (1991: 135) maintains that high academic expectations for educators should entail the following:

# Setting academic performance standards for students, for example, stating the minimum pass percentage per subject at school.
# Believing that all students can learn, though at a different pace, and should be expected to do so.
# Holding students accountable for failure to perform up to the expected academic performance standards.
# Ensuring, by the principal’s monitoring and guidance, that all teachers work towards the achievement of the agreed upon academic standards.

Both Rossow (1990: 06) and Lezotte (1991: 135) point out that the principal, as an instructional leader, should lead the way in fostering high academic expectations for teachers and students. Murphy et al. (1983: 140) assert that the principal can drive educators and students towards the realisation of academic expectations by developing policies in areas of academic concern such as classifying student
performance, student testing and classroom instructional practices. In practice, the principal ensures that high academic expectations are communicated to learners in the way teachers:

- regularly give homework, classroom activities, assignments and tests;
- comment on the academic work of learners;
- require learners to bring books and other needed writing requisites to class, and
- decide and put in place school programmes for increasing student time-on-task, for example, one hour for supervised study at school after the normal school tuition time.

Immediately the tone of high academic expectation is set amongst the teachers and the learners. Thus, it is of utmost importance for the school principal to ensure that the school has positive ambience in which the academic expectations can be realised.

2.4.6 Setting the atmosphere of order, discipline and purpose (school ambience)

The terms ‘ambience’, ‘culture’ and ‘climate’ are often used interchangeably to refer to one thing in an organisation. According to Higgleton, Seaton, Labuschagne and Sanderson (1996: 32), the ambience of a place is its feeling, atmosphere and setting, thus, school ambience is sometimes referred to as “the atmosphere, order, discipline and purpose of the school”. The phrase “atmosphere, order, discipline and purpose” points out the need for a school to have policies and rules which influence the teaching and learning at school (see section 2.4.1). Armstrong (1998: 361), Caldwell and Spinks (1993: 68) and Sterlings and Davidoff (2000: 63) suggests that school ambience develops from the network
of feelings, beliefs, attitudes, assumptions and practices of the people who live and work within that particular school.

Caldwell and Spinks (1993: 68) and Davidoff and Lazarus (1997: 20) further argue that school ambience is reflected in:

- a school’s ordinary day-to-day activities;
- the way in which people relate to one another at school;
- the extent to which teachers and students are motivated;
- the general attitude towards teaching and learning;
- the late or punctual arrival at school by both learners and educators;
- the missing or attendance of classes by both learners and educators;
- the way staff development is accepted and supported by educators, and
- the order and discipline at school.

Perhaps, amongst the methods with which the principal can use to create a positive school ambience, the researcher suggests that the principals should:

- communicate regularly with educators and learners about good teaching and learning practices;
- insist on cleanliness, order and discipline in classrooms and within the school premises;
- encourage educators to increase the level of time-on-task by learners so that loitering by learners is minimized;
- formulate and communicate clear policies, procedures and practices that promote learners’ academic achievement;
- time and again highlight the school’s academic objectives and past achievements during school assemblies;
- encourage parents’ participation and contribution, in various ways, to the creation of positive school life. For instance, parents can contribute to positive school life by purchasing school uniforms for children, and
2.4.7 Mobilising resources for the school

According to De Beer and et al. (1998: 10) resources in any organisation refer to human, financial, physical and information resources. In addition to the said resources, Duke (1987: 205) adds instructional time and teaching and learning materials as resources that the principal, as an instructional leader, must look after. De Beer et al. (1998: 10) and Duke (1987: 205) agree that resources are limited in any institution and must, therefore, be managed properly so that the institution’s objectives can be achieved. This is equally true for the schools. Following is a brief discussion of some of the resources that the principal manages as part of his/her instructional leadership.

2.4.7.1 Management of educators as human resources

Teachers are a school’s most valuable resource, thus considerable time and energy should be devoted to recruiting, selecting and assigning of teachers (Duke, 1987: 205). The recruitment and selection of teachers for vacant posts at school is done by the selection committee which comprises of some members of the school governing body for the school. The important role of the principal during the recruitment and selection processes is to assist the selection committee in identifying the educator(s) who best fit(s) the curriculum needs of the school.

Immediately an educator is appointed by the Department of Education, the principal starts to manage the appointed educator by subjecting him/her to all essential school and teaching processes, namely, assignment of teaching duty load, induction, supervision and monitoring, appraisal and development and other related processes. The principal may delegate some of the teaching
professional processes to the Deputy principal and the relevant Head of Department.

As part of the management of educators, the principal monitors the educators’ punctuality when reporting for duty and honouring teaching periods, the pace at which educators move as they handle their subjects, and the manner and quality of assessment to which educators subject learners.
2.4.7.2 Management of financial resources

According to Mentz and Oosthuizen (1995: 147), management of financial resources means the collection, distribution and use of money for the purpose of providing educational services and producing student achievement. Duke (1987: 212) also maintains that school funds once available should be used to support instructional improvement.

Though schools may have various sources of money, the main sources of money for schools are school fees charged to parents in terms of section 39(1) of the South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996, and the State funds also known as "norms and standards" which are allocated to schools in terms of section 34(1) of the South African Schools Act (Bisschoff, 1997: 124). Then in terms of section 30(1) of the same Act, the school governing body of each school is expected to establish a school financial committee of which the principal is a member who holds the position of Accounting officer.

The principal's position of Accounting officer in the school financial committee illustrates the responsible and accountable role the principal should play in the management of school's financial resources. According to Bisschoff (1997: 66-70), two very important roles of principal in the management of school's financial resources are the drawing up of a financial budget and the monitoring thereof. For Bisschoff (1997: 66-70) the financial budget is the estimation of the expected income and expenditure during a given period, while financial monitoring includes everything done to ensure that spending stays on course. For instance, as part of financial monitoring, the principal can insist on reducing the spending of school money on items not budgeted for.
2.4.7.3 Management of instructional time

The instructional time is defined by Anderson (1991: 177) and Murphy (1992: 19) as the amount of time that teachers spend teaching and providing learning experiences for their students. Murphy (1992: 10) further maintains that instructional time is a direct correlate to student achievement. In other words, instructional time has great impact on student achievement. The instructional time does not include the time spent on discipline and routine clerical tasks. The view of Murphy et al. (1983: 141) is that the principal can manage the school’s instructional time by developing school policies and procedures related to the elimination of the interruption of teaching and learning in classrooms.

Anderson (1991: 178) is of the opinion that protecting instructional time should be a teacher’s classroom management concern in terms of which teachers themselves, through the help of principal, should develop procedures for learners concerning entering and leaving the classrooms, submitting homework, and sharpening pencils. Hallinger (1983: 12) and Hawley et al. (1984: 68) are of the opinion that in a school where the instructional time is protected and the principal encourages teachers to make maximum use of subject allocated time for teaching and engaging students in learning, higher student academic achievement can be realised. Similarly, Duignan and MacPherson (1986: 67) and Hargreaves and Hopkins (1993: 109) stress the importance of maximum use of time for direct instruction.

2.4.7.4 Management of teaching and learning materials

The teaching and learning materials that are common in schools include textbooks, study guides, workbooks (exercise books) and reference books. According to Duke (1987: 209), the principal as instructional leader must see that appropriate teaching and learning materials are available at the time when
needed. Non-availability of teaching and learning materials can cause frustration to educators and learners and impedes progress towards instructional objectives.

To ensure that appropriate teaching and learning materials are selected for the school, the principal can form an instructional material selection committee. Such a committee should consist of educators who are subject heads at school. The main tasks of the instructional material selection committee would be:

• requesting specimen copies of textbooks and study guides from publishers;
• evaluating the usefulness/relevance of the textbooks and study guides, and
• recommending to principal the textbooks and study guides that need to be procured for the school.

In some schools, the instructional material selection committee may assist in the selection of library resources (materials) and instructional equipment such as the television, video recorder and video cassettes. At the school where instructional materials are purchased by parents, it is essential for the principal to supply parents with the list of instructional materials to be purchased in time. If possible, names of bookstores where books can be bought can also be indicated to parents.

As part of the management of teaching and learning materials, it is essential that regular checks, on textbooks and study guides issued to learners, are made so that learners can be made to replace the lost instructional materials in time. Also equally important for the principal is to ensure that all the instructional materials issued to learners are returned to school at the end of the year.

2.4.7.5 Management of information resources

According to Ward and Griffieths (1997: 373), information resources management in any institution means getting the right information to the right people at the
right time. Ward and Griefieth's definition of information resources management presupposes that right and valuable information is properly kept in institutions. On the value and importance of information resources, Ward and Griffieths (1997: 362) maintain that information enables the business (school) to make right decisions, to improve the effectiveness of business (school) processes and outcomes and to take more focused-performance actions.

According to Armstrong (2000: 821), the quality of decisions made and the quality of service provided in the business depend largely on the quality of information available in the business. This is equally true for schools as institutions which are expected to deliver quality teaching service to learners. Armstrong (2000: 823) further argues that information resources may focus on areas such as staff development and training needs, the performance of people in the organization, organizational development, that is, the need to adapt the organization to its future needs, and planning and acquisition of human resources in the organization.

Thus far, the role of the principal has been looked at in terms of its importance in teaching and learning (instructional leadership) at school. The discussion of instructional leadership in the foregoing section was based on the elements of instructional leadership as expressed by authors cited in the definitions, the models, and the characteristics of instructional leadership in the previous sections (see sections 2.2, 2.3 and 2.4). However, the role of the principal at school also embraces the performance of general management functions as these can impact on the practice of instructional leadership. In other words, while the principal is the leader in the teaching and learning practices, he/she is also the manager of the general events, practices and activities that have impact on the school’s academic goals and mission.

Supporting the dual nature of the leaders in institutions is Dubrin (1995: 03) who argues that a leader must also be a manager, just as the manager must also be a
leader. Dubrin further argues that without leading as well as managing, organisations face the threat of extinction. It is, therefore, necessary to discuss, in the following section, the general management functions that the principal performs as part of his/ her position at school because such general management functions influence the success of his/ her instructional leadership role and consequently the academic performance of learners at school.

2.5 THE PRINCIPAL’S INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP WITHIN THE GENERAL MANAGEMENT OF THE SCHOOL

The numerous and inexhaustible tasks/ activities that the principal performs, as part of his/ her instructional leadership role, are directly linked to the general management of the school. It is for that link between the instructional leadership and the general management that Donmoyer and Wagstaff (1990: 20) maintain that the most direct way for the school principal to exercise instructional leadership is through the managerial tasks he/ she engages in at school. Dimmock and O’Donoghue (1997: 17) also favour the viewing of instructional leadership within the broad management of the school because, according to them, all the responsibilities that principals perform, and the skills and behaviours that principals adopt in order to promote effective teaching and learning at schools constitute the tasks of instructional leadership.

In the present section of the study, the focus is on the main general management functions with which the principal creates conditions that facilitate teaching and learning at school. According to Kroon (1996: 07), and Smit and Cronjé (1998: 06), general management consists of four core functions, namely, planning, organising, leading/ activating and controlling, and six additional management functions, namely, communication, motivation, coordination, disciplining, delegation and decision-making. In the current study, conflict management will also be discussed as forming part of additional management functions. Conflict management will be discussed because it is inevitable in any institution.
The core general management functions are the most important steps in the management process. The additional general management functions are usually performed in some combination with the four basic or core management functions.

2.5.1 The core general management functions

2.5.1.1 Planning

According to Davidoff and Lazarus (1997: 71), Kroon (1996: 09) and Smit and Cronje (1998: 06), planning is the process of deciding in advance on everything needed in an organisation or school in order to achieve its mission. These authors also maintain that planning should begin by scanning future circumstances and the formulation of goals (long-term) and objectives (short-term) in every area where performance or results are expected. Then realistic and feasible plans which spell out the activities to be executed and the resources required should be drafted and discussed by all participants in an organisation.

Kroon (1996: 10) further asserts that planning also includes policy formulation and the establishment of programmes, procedures, budgets, standards and rules and regulations. For Preedy (1993: 61), planning is carried out at two levels at school, namely, at the whole school level and at the classroom level. Preedy further argues that joint goal-setting by staff is planning at the whole school level while decisions taken by each educator on the sequence of handling the syllabus topics and the dates of tests would be planning at classroom level. A very important role of the principal is to coordinate the planning at either level of the school so that the school is aligned with its goals and mission.

2.5.1.2 Organizing

The school as an organization has goals to achieve, one of which is effective teaching and learning. To achieve any of the school goals, resources are needed
and duties must be carried out. The process of acquisition of resources and allocation of them and assigning of duties to individual teachers so that school goals can be achieved are defined by Mentz (1996: 119) as organizing. For Kroon (1996: 10) designing clear lines of authority and channels of communication also form part of organizing.

The principal, as an instructional leader, has the important task of organizing resources essential for effective teaching and learning at school (Kruger, 1999: 13; Peterson, 1987: 143; Smith & Andrews, 1989: 09).

### 2.5.1.3 Leading

According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1992: 164), leading at school is influencing educators and learners to move towards the achievement of school goals. The principal is the one who is entrusted with the overarching task of influencing educators and learners to work towards the achievement of school goals, particularly academic goals. In support of Sergiovanni and Starratt, Davidoff and Lazarus (1997: 156) assert that leading the school means giving it a sense of direction so that it moves towards its set goals.

The assertion by Kroon (1996: 10) is that leading is a difficult and demanding task in any organization because people who are led are unique, each person has his/ her own attitude, personality, perception and frame of reference. But, according to Follett cited by Sergiovanni and Starratt (1992: 51), the success of a leader is in making a team that pulls in one direction out of people with different human characteristics. Follett further argues that a leader should be able to organize all the forces that exist within the enterprise (school) and make them serve a common purpose.

The principal, as the school leader, can influence the educators and learners in many ways, for example:

- Talking to them about academic success of known performing schools.
- Inviting motivational speakers to deliver speeches on speech days.
2.5.1.4 Controlling

According to Hunger and Wheelen (1996: 15), controlling is the process by which the execution of plans and objectives in an organization is monitored. The actual performance is compared with the objectives and standards set during the planning process. Thus, Smit and Cronjé (1998: 07) argue that control aims at checking that performance and action conform to plans with which to attain the predetermined goals.

The principal controls the execution of many things at school, but of great importance in this study is his/ her control of academic progress. For monitoring the academic progress, the principal can insist on educators’ giving regular tests, assignments and projects to learners. He or she can also conduct regular class visits to monitor the quality of teaching activities in classrooms. The meetings with educators for reviewing the school’s set academic goals and discussing the learners’ academic progress together with progress made in the syllabus coverage should also be convened regularly.

2.5.2 Additional general management functions

2.5.2.1 Communication

Schreuder et al. (1993: 45) define communication as the transfer of information, thoughts and feelings by any means from one person to another. For Davidoff and
Lazarus (1997: 96) communication is an information flow process which should be kept as open as possible at school. Armstrong (1998: 13) argues that communication in an organization (a school, for example) serves as the mechanism by which its mission, values and objectives are made clearly known to all associated with it. One can also argue that communication is a life-blood in an institution because it is through communication that functions such as motivation, disciplining, problem-solving and conflict handling can be implemented.

2.5.2.2 Delegation

Owing to the fact that it is impossible for a person in a leadership position to do all tasks/ responsibilities expected of him/ her on his/ her own, delegation becomes an indispensable tool of management. For Dimmock and O'Donoghue (1997: 27) delegation is a crucial aspect of quality management. Schreuder et al. (1993: 27) and Kroon (1996: 12) define delegation as the transfer of duties, responsibilities and authority by a person in a senior position to the subordinates. Kroon (1996: 12) further asserts that delegation has to be done to ease the leader’s tasks and to make a more meaningful division and efficient performance of work. Delegation allows the principal to have more time to devote to tasks he/ she considers to be most important for his/ her school. Though the principal may delegate certain tasks he/ she remains fully accountable for the successful performance of the delegated task(s).

2.5.2.3 Co-ordination

Kroon (1996: 12) cites Du Toit and Marx who view coordination as the leader’s purposeful efforts to establish harmony and co-operation wherework is done by different individuals and departments in order to best achieve the stated goals. At school the principal must exercise proper co-ordination because teaching
activities are performed by different individuals (teachers) and as such teaching and learning are carried out in different departments, for example, languages, commerce, science, humanities departments. Kroon (1996: 12) further maintains that co-ordination should be exercised at all stages of planning, organizing, activating and controlling to ensure that the business (school) functions as a unit as much as possible.

2.5.2.4 Disciplining

Du Toit and Marx as cited by Kroon (1996: 13) define disciplining as shaping the subordinate's behaviour to guide his/her activities in order to ensure the achievement of the stated goals. Kroon (1996: 13) further recommends that disciplining should take place following the laid down rules, privately, consistently and irrespective of position. At school the principal can make use of provisions in all school policies, resolutions and even provincial and national Acts when disciplining educators and learners, particularly when applying negative discipline, that is, correcting a deviant behaviour.

2.5.2.5 Decision-making (problem-solving)

The view of Smit and Cronjé (1998: 140), Schreuder et al. (1993: 70) and Kroon (1996: 11) is that decision-making is a process whereby alternative solutions to a problem are purposefully considered and the best alternative is chosen after considering the consequences, advantages and disadvantages of each alternative. For these authors, before an attempt is made to make a decision or solve a problem, proper assessment of all facts and identification of the real problem must be made, because, as Kroon (1996: 11) argues, a decision taken in an institution means success or failure of that institution. This suggests that careful thought must be given to an alternative before a decision is taken to implement the chosen alternative.
At schools principals encounter numerous problematic situations for which decisions must be taken as they can affect the effectiveness of teaching and learning activities if left unsolved. An example is the teacher who is always late in honouring his/her teaching periods.

2.5.2.6 Conflict management

Conflict occurs when the goals of two or more parties seem to be in opposition (Flanagan & Finger, 1996: 42). For Schreuder et al. (1993: 54) conflict in an organization like school, may arise from conflicting interests or value systems, misunderstandings, incorrect perceptions, ineffective communication and differences of opinion amongst the participants at school. A further argument by Schreuder and associates is that conflict may have constructive or destructive implications for the school, depending on the way in which it is managed. Obviously, a conflict that appears to have destructive implications for the school must be given immediate attention by the principal as it can affect the learners’ academic achievement negatively. An example of a conflict with destructive implications could be the one that is between the educator(s) and the learner(s).

From the foregoing discussion of the principal’s role in the performance of general management functions, one can conclude that general management functions form the pillars for the successful practice of instructional leadership. In other words, neglecting general management functions can negatively affect the principal’s instructional leadership practice at school and subsequently the learners’ academic performance.

The general management function ‘motivation’ is discussed separately in the following section (section 2.6) of the current study. The reason for discussing motivation separately is its importance in the learners’ academic achievement.
2.6 THE INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER AS A MOTIVATOR OF ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

The importance of the principal’s role, as an instructional leader, in motivating educators and learners to work towards the school’s academic performance cannot be overemphasised. According to Schermerhorn (1996: 145), a highly motivated workforce is indispensable if high performance outcomes are to be consistently achieved in organizations. Thus, Musaazi (1993: 44) argues that no school can hope to realise its academic goals fully if pupils and teachers are not sufficiently motivated to work towards such goals. Furthermore, Musaazi (1993: 45) argues that when schools are judged purely by the academic performance of pupils, schools with motivated teams of teachers tend to be academically superior to those with teachers lacking motivation. In a similar way Dubin (1991: 29) maintains that a properly motivated teaching staff means the achievement of instructional goals for students.

The above-given arguments clearly indicate that motivation is an important factor which closely affects the academic achievement of schools.

The important question that remains unanswered concerning motivation is: What, exactly, is motivation and how does the principal of a school, as an instructional leader, motivate teachers and learners to work towards higher academic achievement? Numerous definitions of motivation exist in the management and organizational behaviour literature. Motivation, according to Smit and Cronjé (1998: 306), is an inner state of mind that channels and directs a worker’s behaviour and energy towards the attainment of organizational goals.

For Armstrong (2000: 106) and Schermerhorn, Hunt and Osborn (2000: 102), motivation refers to the forces or factors that account for the direction, level and persistence of a person’s effort expended at work. Armstrong (2000: 106) and
Schermerhorn et al. (2000: 102) further assert that motivation consists of three components, namely:

- **direction** – a person’s choice when presented with a number of possible alternatives;
- **level** – an amount of effort a person puts into his/her work, and
- **persistence** – the length of time a person devotes to his/her work.

It is important, beyond doubt, for the instructional leader to keep in mind the three components of motivation because it is an instructional leader who must set the direction for the school towards the achievement of its academic goals and mission. Also, it is an instructional leader who must suggest and provide to educators and learners the various means and techniques with which to realize higher academic achievement. At the same time, the instructional leader must ensure that time-on-task (engagement time) at school is increased if mastery of academic work by learners is to occur. For the instructional leader at school, motivation should be viewed as all the efforts of getting educators and learners to move in the direction he/she wants them to go in order to achieve the desired academic achievement. In the words of Riches (1994: 225), motivation is all the processes or factors that cause people to act or behave in a certain way in an institution. Armstrong (2000: 107) and Mullins (1999: 407) illustrate the motivation process, in its simplest form, as follows:
In terms of the above motivation process model, motivation is initiated by recognising a need which must be satisfied or an expectation which must be fulfilled. The expectations for educators and learners are effective teaching and learning respectively. The expectations should then be translated into desired goals because goals are measurable. At school, the principal together with educators can decide on the desired school’s overall academic performance for a given year, for example, a 75% pass rate. The desired goals make people in an institution decide on the actions and behaviours by which to achieve the stated desired goals. The actions and behaviours include all the strategies, policies and procedures jointly decided upon by members in an institution. If the stated desired goals are achieved when using the adopted actions and behaviours, such actions and behaviours would be repeated when a similar need or expectation emerges. If, in terms of the adopted actions and behaviours, the
institution fails to achieve its goals, new actions and behaviours ought to be decided upon in an institution (Armstrong, 2000: 107; Mullins, 1999: 407).

The above model of motivation is based on the needs, goals and expectancy theories of motivation. At school the principal, as an instructional leader, has an enormous responsibility of constantly reminding educators and learners about their expectations of teaching and learning respectively if the school is to realise its desired academic achievement.

How does the principal motivate teachers and learners to work towards higher academic achievement? According to Riches (1994: 225), motivation is multifaceted in that it incorporates different variables that get people activated to engage themselves in desired behaviour (direction). Supporting Riches’ view is Mullins (1999: 406) who asserts that people in an institution are motivated by many variables. Like workers in business institutions, educators and learners at schools get motivated through an interplay of various factors. Hawley et al. (1984: 78) maintain that principals need to concentrate on factors that develop the intrinsic motivation of teachers if they are to raise the academic performance of students. Schermerhorn (1996: 145) argues that, as a result of satisfaction, achievement and pride in work, intrinsic motivation develops within a person as he/she performs the task.

Mitchell and Peters (1997: 71) maintain that principals can stimulate intrinsic motivation in teachers by:

- promoting enjoyable working conditions at school;
- developing, in teachers, a strong sense of being academic achievers;
- developing, in teachers, a sense of the need to produce high quality work, and
- developing, in teachers, the feeling of pride in working for a higher performing school.
Jenkins and Behar (sine anno: 344) assert that the principal, as the leader of the school, can motivate teachers when applying the ideas of total quality management (TQM) to his/her school by:

- matching the job to be done with the skills of the teacher;
- modeling what he or she expects of the teachers;
- asking the teachers to evaluate their own work, and
- providing teachers with resources with which to do the job.

Obviously, these will inspire teachers to work hard towards the realisation of the school’s academic goals and mission.

From the above discussion of motivation and how it comes about in a person, it can be concluded that, though the principal has to motivate both the educators and the learners, educators form the primary group of people to whom the principal needs to devote the bulk of his/her motivational efforts. This is based on the assumption that motivated teachers in turn motivate learners towards their school academic work. It can further be concluded that the leader who wants to inspire people in his/her organization to work towards the achievement of his/her organizational goals and mission, must communicate frequently with the people he/she is leading. The principal, as an instructional leader, needs to communicate often with educators on aspects such as:

# The expected quality of teaching and assessing learners.

# The ways and means (strategies) with which teachers can promote the learners’ academic achievement.

# The effective use and maintenance of school’s resources which directly impact on learners’ academic performance, for example, textbooks and study guides.

# The school’s remarkable academic performance in the previous years.

From the assertion by Jenkins and Behar (sine anno: 344), in the above discussion of motivation, that the principal can motivate teachers by modeling what he/she
expects of the teachers, a valid conclusion can be made that the principal must be present and visible to teachers at school most of the time (principal’s visible presence). The visible presence is discussed in the following sub-section of the current study.

2.6.1 Principal’s visible presence

The principal’s visible presence, obviously refers to the fact that the principal must be seen or available at school for most of the school time. Whitaker (1997: 155) qualifies the principal’s visible presence that it does not mean staying in the office, but immersing himself or herself in the teaching and learning activities of the school. In other words, the principal should become an integral part of all daily academic operations at the school.

According to Blase and Blase (1998: 108), principals can demonstrate their visibility by wandering around the school during time when they are not handling lessons in classes. Wandering around can involve informal visits to classes on a regular basis to observe how teaching and learning occurs. The purpose of wandering around, according to Budhal (2000: 26) should be:

- to motivate teachers and learners;
- to monitor instruction;
- to be accessible and provide support, and
- to have knowledge of what is actually going on in the school.

As the principal remains present, visible and wandering around the school, his/ her presence is felt by educators and learners in every area of the school’s activities. At the same time he/ she unconsciously performs one of the very important tasks of the instructional leader, namely, the quality control because his/ her presence stimulates, in each and every educator, the concerted effort to deliver quality teaching to learners. The detailed discussion of quality control is given in the following sub-section of the study.
2.6.2 Quality control

Quality, according to Armstrong (1998: 113), Nieman (2001: 156) and Oakland (1996: 04), is the level of excellence which is in terms of agreed standards and reflects achievable objectives based on the values of those who set the standards. According to Mitra (1998: 118), Oakland (1996: 13) and Duke (1987: 219), quality control is the actions, activities and techniques employed to achieve and maintain quality of the product, process or service. Sallis (1994: 26) and Oakland (1996: 13) argue that quality control has as its aim the inspection and monitoring of the product, process or service, and elimination of factors causing unsatisfactory performance at some stages in the process of making the product so that at the end the customer requirements are satisfied. At school, the principal’s visible presence, through wandering about in the school premises can be one of the methods of monitoring the teaching process so as to identify and eliminate any factors that might militate against the delivery of quality teaching services.

Armstrong (1998: 113) argues that quality is achieved through people. That is, it is the commitment, effort and dedication that people give to their work that lead to quality product or service. Mitra (1998: 663), arguing in support of Armstrong’s view on how quality is achieved, maintains that quality control in education requires the principal to be involved in the transformation of human qualities such as competency, values and convictions, and behavioural characteristics of teachers and learners. Thus, instructional leadership dimensions such as staff development, high academic expectations and formation of an academic network require constant attention of a principal whom we can describe as an instructional leader. The behavioural characteristics of teachers and learners over which the principal needs to exercise control, because such behavioural characteristics impact on the quality of teaching service, may include:

- the subject planning and lesson preparation by educators;
- the timely completion of syllabuses;
• absenteeism and late coming to school;
• punctuality in honouring of teaching periods;
• the regular evaluation of learners’ academic progress through tests, assignments, homeworks and projects, and
• the maintenance of sound human relations amongst all stakeholders at school.

At the early stages of the quality control process, it may not be easy to see how quality control leads to intrinsic motivation. It is only after educators have produced quality academic results at school, academic results worthy of praise by parents and Department of Education officials that educators, when taking pride in the quality of the school’s academic results, feel further motivated to produce the same or even better school’s academic results subsequently.

Another way of motivating educators, which at the same time promotes quality academic results for schools that are performing poorly academically, is forming the school’s academic network. The school’s academic network is discussed in the following sub-section.

### 2.6.3 Forming academic networks

According to McBride (1989: 128), an academic network is the co-operation between/amongst neighbouring schools for academic purposes. For the purpose of the improvement of academic achievement through academic networks, it is essential that the low academic performing school forms networks with high academic achieving schools. Hunger and Wheelen (1996: 242) argue that forming a network between/amongst institutions is most useful when an institution’s performance is unstable and is likely to remain so, unless strong intervention is applied. As the advantages of forming academic networks, one can argue that schools can:
• share instructional resources;
• assist one another to formulate teaching strategies for academic success;
• assist one another to formulate realistic and feasible academic performance goals;
• assist one another in designing an effective academic monitoring system, and
• make regular contact which enables the low academic performing school to emulate policies and procedures of the high academic performing school.

Murgatroyd and Gray (1994: 93) assent that academic networks, that is, the building of relationships for sharing information, resources and support, can extend beyond the school level to a wider educational community which may involve the Subject Advisors, Circuit and District Managers. The Subject Advisors, in particular, provide valuable assistance to schools, such as:

# The supply of study guides which assist in simplifying the subject matter for both educators and learners.

# The supply of previous external examination question papers and memoranda which enable educators to set tests of acceptable standard, thus properly preparing learners for final examinations.

# The supply of syllabuses, subject policies and other guidelines that educators may be in need of.

# The supply of reference textbooks which educators may use to supplement the textbooks that learners have at schools. This enriches the knowledge and information that educators impart to learners.

The Circuit and District Managers can assist schools in many ways, for instance, by being part of school’s staff appraisal, development and problem-solving processes. Also by maintaining close contact with schools and sharing management information and skills with principals, the Circuit and the District
Managers can indirectly contribute to the creation of a positive environment at schools. In this way the Circuit and the District Managers indirectly contribute to the schools’ academic success.

In 2002, the KwaZulu-Natal Department of Education introduced a form of an academic network called the ‘schools’ clusters’ (KwaZulu-Natal Education Department, 2002: 06). In terms of the schools’ clusters, educators teaching the same subject, but in different schools that are more or less located in the same geographical area, are expected to meet, at least, once a quarter. The educators are expected to:

- bring with them test question papers and memoranda;
- bring with them some samples of learners’ exercise books;
- share skills of handling their subjects, and
- expose one another to the available sources of information, for example, study guides, in their subjects.

The educator whose school academic work is discovered to have shortcomings during the initial schools’ cluster meeting usually tries by all means to have his/her school academic work improved and updated during the subsequent schools’ cluster meetings. The schools’ clusters, therefore, motivate educators to keep their school academic work up to expectations. The principal’s role, in this instance, is to motivate educators to attend the schools’ cluster meetings. The school’s clusters, beyond any doubt, are an academic network that incorporates in it some form of peer coaching, standardization of teaching services in schools, and revival of teaching professional ethics and professionalism in educators. Professional ethics and professionalism are discussed in the following sub-section of the study.

2.6.4 Developing professional ethics and professionalism in educators
In the view of Eksteen, Miller, Ledwaba and Eksteen (1999: 169) and Malgee and Mayhew (1999: 76), professional ethics is defined as the body of social rules related to the work of a particular group of people, for example, nurses, lawyers, accountants, and other professional people. In other words, professional ethics provide guidelines on the behaviour expected in people of a particular profession, for example, the standards and obligations that must be observed or adhered to when carrying out the tasks and responsibilities associated with a given profession. For Musaazi (1993: 265) professional ethics is a code of moral behaviour which is designed to inspire a quality of behaviour that reflects the honour and dignity of the profession.

According to Bondesio, Beckmann, Oosthuizen, Prinsloo and Van Wyk (1995: 153) the principal, as the professional leader, has the responsibility of developing professionalism in educators in his/her school. Professionalism, according to Higgleton et al. (1996: 766), means the person’s skill, care, experience and knowledge that he/she shows when doing something pertaining to his/her profession. Armstrong (1998: 97) also supports Higgleton et al. (1996: 766) when he defines professionalism as the practice of specific skills based on a defined body of knowledge in accordance with recognized standards of behaviour. In the teaching profession, Bondesio et al. (1995: 155) maintain that professionalism means that the teacher will at all times display only the best intention towards the students, other members of the profession, community and the profession in general. Thus, Armstrong (1998: 96) and Musaazi (1993: 263) maintain that teachers as professionals must see themselves as working for the good of society.

Armstrong (1998: 96), Bondesio et al. (1995: 143) and Musaazi (1993: 263) agree that the cornerstones of teacher’s professionalism are:

# Professional skills and knowledge acquired through training and education.
# Professional task performance.
Professional attitude and conduct.

Professional control by a recognized professional body, for example, the South African Council of Educators (SACE) in South Africa.

The principal, as the professional leader, can develop professionalism in educators in various ways. Musaazi (1993: 264-266) argues that the principal can:

- set a positive example to teachers in teaching-related activities;
- engage teachers in ongoing professional development through seminars and workshops;
- make public acknowledgment of good work done by teachers;
- from time to time, remind teachers that by their conduct they influence the attitudes of the students and the public towards the teaching profession and education in general;
- encourage team-teaching so that sound human relations are promoted at school; and
- ensure that all teachers at school are in possession of the teachers’ code of conduct document.

The assertion by Bondesio et al. (1995: 155) is that the principal can develop professionalism in educators by:

- encouraging teachers to continue improving their qualifications through self-study so that they remain abreast of the latest developments in their subjects and education in general;
- reminding teachers, from time to time, to guard against negative statements about colleagues in public; and
- emphasizing to teachers the importance of other partners in education, namely, education department officials, teacher unions, the private sector and parents.

From the above discussion of motivation and the different ways which the principal can incorporate it into his or her practice of instructional leadership in
order to develop the long-term motivation of educators, one can conclude that to make the school achieve its academic mission is a complicated and very demanding task. As such, it calls for the carrying out of numerous responsibilities, expectations and obligations associated with the principalship position at school.

Also as part of the multi-faceted tasks of running the school effectively, the principal is often involved in the role of serving as a linkage agent between the school and the various partners in education, namely, the parents and the state. The role of the principal as a linkage agent is explored in the following section of the study.

2.7 THE DUAL ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL AS A LINKAGE AGENT

As a linkage agent, Caldwell and Spinks (1993: 130) argue that the principal should strive for partnership or participation in education by various stakeholders in education. Caldwell and Spinks (1993: 30) further maintain that participation in education implies that stakeholders play a stronger role in education. For Wolfendale (1992: 14) partnership or participation in education means a working relationship between the school and the stakeholders. Wolfendale (1992: 14) further asserts that partnership in education, as a working relationship between the school and the stakeholders such as the parents, education department and many more, should be characterized by:

- a shared sense of purpose;
- mutual respect of one another;
- willingness to negotiate with one another, and
- sharing of information, responsibility, skills, decision-making and accountability.

Barnard (1996: 424) refers to stakeholders in education with which the principal should serve as the linkage agent as the link structures. Barnard identifies a
number of link structures of which parents and the state are considered to be the most important link structures in this study and, therefore, discussed subsequently.

2.7.1 The principal as linkage agent between the school and the parents

The assertion by Findley and Findley (1992: 102) is that, as the linkage agent between the school and the parents, the principal must be well attuned to the aspirations, desires and visions of parents concerning the education of their children. Also stressing the link between the school and the parents is Green (1991: 19) who argues that by promoting the participation of parents in school matters and activities, the principal is, in fact, allowing parents to use the school to pass on to children values and attitudes they (parents) uphold as essential in life, particularly in the community served by the school.

According to Barnard (1996: 425), linking the school with the parents must be seen by principals as an important management task because it activates parents to be partners with the school. For Hughes, Wikely and Nash (1994: 07), a parent is a partner of the school when he/she is involved with the school, shares and even helps to shape the aims of the school, and is committed to putting these aims into practice.

In addition to the mechanism provided in section 16 of South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996 (KwaZulu-Natal Education Department, 1996: 14), namely, the school governing body through which parents participate in school matters, the principal can link the school with the parents in many different ways. The principal can, according to Green (1991: 30):

- encourage parents to visit the school so that they meet the teachers of their children;
- organize school functions in which parents fully participate;
- encourage the formation of a parent-teacher association;
• write circular letters to parents; and
• distribute the school newsletter(s) to parents.

Also by serving as a link between the parents and school, Weber (1995: 69) asserts that the principal is able to channel the remarks he/she hears from parents back to teachers. At the same time the principal channels the teachers’ feelings and comments about the learners’ academic performance and behaviour to parents. For Long (1993: 03) a viable link between the school and the parents serves to integrate the children’s experiences at home and school.

2.7.2 The principal as linkage agent between the school and the state

The Department of Education as the representative of the state on all education matters communicates everything about education policy to schools through principals of schools. The same applies when the educators wish to make a submission to the Department of Education, the submission is made through the principal.

As the link between the school and the Education Department, the principal does not only distribute information and circular letters to educators and learners, he/she also discusses with educators and learners and implements the contents of circular letters from the Department of Education. Also other state departments reach schools through principals. For instance, under the conditions created by the current high crime rate and the high incidence of HIV/AIDS cases in South African society, the Department of Safety and Security as well as the Health Department may reach educators and learners in order to provide information concerning crime and HIV/AIDS respectively through the principals.

2.7.3 The principal as linkage agent between the state and the parents
The principal can be perceived as standing between the state and the parents. The parents, on one hand, have great interest in schools because schools provide education to their children. On the other hand, the state makes a number of provisions that directly affect the children’s education. Amongst the provisions made by the state in order to influence the children’s education, one can mention the Acts, for example, South African Schools Act No. 84 of 1996, and the state subsidies that are allocated to all schools in order for schools to buy various educational requisites. Then the principal, in each and every school has a very important role to play in that he/she must:

- educate the parents on the contents of the Acts affecting the education of children;
- inform the parents about the role parents are expected to play in the education of their children in terms of the legislation;
- inform the parents about the changes made in the educational Acts, and
- inform the parents about the resources supplied by the state to school, for example, stationary, textbooks and the state subsidy.

Depending on the need, the principal may also organise meetings for parents to meet the officials from the Department of Education such as the Superintendents of Education (School Inspectors) and the District Manager.

Throughout the previous sections of the study, the various roles of the principal making up the components or dimensions of instructional leadership have been explored, but specific attention has not been given to the link or relationship between instructional leadership and the learners’ academic achievement. In the following section, the researcher explores the estimated impact of the principal’s instructional leadership on the learners’ academic achievement.
2.8 THE ESTIMATED IMPACT OF THE PRINCIPAL’S INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP PRACTICE ON LEARNERS’ ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

In the present section, the researcher presents the views on the effect of practice or the neglect of instructional leadership on the learners’ academic achievement at school. The researcher also outlines the reasons for the neglect of instructional leadership by some principals in schools.

2.8.1 Establishing a correlation between the practice of instructional leadership and the learners’ academic achievement

The research findings of many researchers indicate that the practice of instructional leadership can positively influence the learners’ academic achievement. Boyd (1996: 66), Dubin (1991: 38), Heck (1990: 66) and Heck and Marcoulides (1993: 25) maintain that the effective practice of instructional leadership results in higher learners’ academic achievement. Boyd (1996: 66) cites Faison (1982), Smith and Andrews (1989), Campbell et al. (1990), and Carter and Klotz (1990) whose research findings are that high academic achieving schools depend most on capable instructional leadership from principals.

Heck and Marcoulides (1993: 26) specifically state that the difference in the performance of instructional leadership tasks is, to a large extent, responsible for the difference between the high and the low academic achieving schools when all other things are equal.

According to Cheng (1994: 311-314), Donmoyer and Wagstaff (1990: 22), Heck (1992: 22) and Leitner (1994: 220-222), the relationship between the principal’s instructional leadership and the learners’ academic achievement is indirect. In other words, by carrying out the various instructional leadership tasks, the principal positively and indirectly influences the learners’ academic achievement.
The indirect influence of the principal’s instructional leadership on learners’ academic achievement is illustrated in Figure 2.3.
According to Leitner (1994: 221), the principal needs to concentrate on shaping the attitude and behaviour of teachers towards the school’s academic work. Leitner (1994: 222) further asserts that the principal can positively influence the attitude and behaviour of teachers by clearly defining rules, roles and structures which must be observed and followed when doing the school work. Also supporting Leitner is Cheng (1994: 311-314) who maintains that the principal should influence the teachers by exposing them to values and beliefs that develop in them an improved working morale. Cheng further argues that a higher morale results in stronger teachers’ commitment to achieving the school’s academic goals. Then obviously, the stronger teachers’ commitment to achieving the school’s academic goals positively affects the learners’ academic achievement. From the arguments put forward by Cheng (1994: 311-314) and Leitner (1994: 221), it can be clearly concluded that the relationship between the principal’s instructional leadership and the learners’ academic achievement is indirect.

2.8.2 Reasons for the neglect of instructional leadership

In section 2.8.1 above, many authors were cited as arguing that the practice of instructional leadership by principals impacts positively on the learners’ academic achievement. Then obviously, the neglect of instructional leadership negatively impacts on the learners’ academic achievement. One can argue that in a school where the principal neglects the instructional leadership tasks, the school
has nothing to keep it moving in the direction of achieving its academic mission, which is the academic achievement of learners.

According to Budhal (2000: 44), principals fail to practise instructional leadership because of the following reasons:

- Lack of understanding of the meaning and importance of instructional leadership.
- Lack of training on instructional leadership prior to appointment as principals.
- Appointment of incompetent and inexperienced classroom educators into principalship posts without going through the ranks of Head of Department and Deputy Principalship.
- Principals have very little time to observe and assist educators with curricular problems and needs because they (principals) have to take on an extra teaching load.
- Principals spend more time on administrative duties at the expense of instructional leadership activities.

Also giving reasons for the neglect of instructional leadership at some schools is Whitaker (1997: 155) who argues that many principals get caught up in day-to-day office operations, discipline issues, administrative paperwork, and telephone conversations and then end up failing to realize that the main school business is not found in the office, but in the classrooms. For Dubin (1991: 44) instructional leadership activities suffer at some schools because principals fail to make instruction a top priority throughout the school.

It can also be argued that the principals who report for duties at school late and leave earlier than the stipulated school time contribute significantly to the neglect of instructional leadership activities at their schools. Reporting for school duties late and leaving earlier than stipulated school time leaves the school principal with insufficient time to perform instructional leadership activities. Budhal (2000:
45) argues, most of the instructional leadership activities need to be performed during school hours when educators and learners are present at school.

2.9 CONCLUSION

The present chapter involved a literature study focusing on the principal’s instructional leadership and its impact on learners’ academic achievement. From the literature study, it became evident that instructional leadership practice involves a complex web of activities and behaviours which can be perceived as characteristics and tasks of instructional leadership. It also became evident that instructional leadership is essential for any school in order to achieve the main purpose of the school’s existence. The models of instructional leadership found in the school effectiveness literature can be used as guidelines by principals who want to practise sound instructional leadership in their schools.

The assertion by many authors is that the practice of instructional leadership at schools is strongly related to improved learner academic achievement (Boyd 1996: 66; Dubin, 1991: 38; Heck, 1990: 04; Heck & Marcoulides, 1993: 25). There is also agreement amongst many authors that, through the practice of instructional leadership, the principal indirectly influences the learners’ academic achievement, (Cheng, 1994: 311-314; Donmoyer & Wagstaff, 1990: 22; Heck, 1992: 22; Leitner, 1994: 220-222).

The following chapter deals with the research design and methods that were used for the empirical investigation.