



POLYTECHNIC OF NAMIBIA

**An assessment of the role of leadership practices in successful high schools in
Windhoek**

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Leadership and Change Management in the School of Harold Pupkewitz Graduate
Schools of Business at the POLYTECHNIC OF NAMIBIA

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DECLARATION OF ORIGINAL WORK

I declare that this thesis is my own unaided work. Any assistance that I have received has been duly acknowledged in the thesis.

It is submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Leadership and Change Management at the Polytechnic of Namibia. It has not been submitted before for any degree or examination at this or any other Institution of Higher Learning

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this accomplishment to all who in one way or the other promote learning. I still saw it inevitable to dedicate this work to my late maternal grandparents, Mr Ben Ntelamo Tubaluane and Ms Anna Mabuku Muyoba–Ntelamo.

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Abbreviations

ESL: Effective School Leadership

ESLQ: Effective School Leadership Questionnaire

LOLSO: Leadership for Organisational Learning and Student Outcomes

QCA: Qualitative Content Analyser

SPSS: Statistical Package for Social Sciences

ABSTRACT

The researcher in this study assesses the leadership practices of headteachers in successful secondary schools in Windhoek, specifically as it is compared to the annual performance of grade 10 learners at the participating schools. The researcher reveals the relationship between the leadership practices of principals and their ability to be transformational, distributed and instructional in their leadership behaviors.

The researcher further explores the characteristics of effective and successful schools and their significant impact on the performance of grade 10 learners over three years (2010-2012). The participants of the study are one hundred and forty-three (143) senior secondary school teachers drawn from ten successful high schools in Windhoek.

SPSS and QCA are used to analyze data gathered for this academic endeavour. The study confirms that the leadership behaviours of principals in successful Windhoek high schools are compatible with transformational leadership, distributed leadership and instructional leadership theories. Some demographic variables are also studied to determine the impact participants' differences in gender, their professional qualifications and the school to which they belonged, had on the results of the study.

The relationship between the principals' years of professional experience and gender do not account for a significant correlation with the leadership practices principals in the study at hand exercise at their schools. Neither the gender nor the professional experience of principals is considered significant in this study. However, the principals should have been part of the school during the specific years to which the study pays particular attention.

The research recommends that the Education Ministry and boards should establish and implement programmes that help to foster transformational, distributed and instructional leadership skills among school principals. Programmes such as seminars, workshops and updates on school administration would be of great help.

The study also confirms that the participating schools in this research are ‘effective schools’ as their characteristics proved significant correlations with the characteristics of effective schools enshrined in the literature review of this study. The study recommends that principals should be leading professionals focused only on achievement. The performance of schools under their leadership should always be evaluated and activities efficiently organised with clear and fair disciplinary procedures.

Windhoek secondary school principals of underperforming schools are encouraged to utilise transformational, distributed and instructional leadership practices as effective models for ensuring cooperation and constructive partnership, characterised by openness, trust and professionalism.

Finally, the study also endorses that the Ministry of Education should integrate leadership practices of principals and the characteristics of effective high schools with activities of continuous assessment and evaluation of their performance.

Key words

Education, organisational performance, leader, leadership practice, leadership behavior, transformational leadership, distributed leadership, instructional leadership, effective schools and headteachers

1. Background and Statement of the Problem

1.1 Introduction

Almost every single study on school effectiveness has shown both primary and secondary leadership to be key factors (Mortimore, Sammons & Thomas, 1995). Gray (1990), in particular, argued that the importance of the headteacher's leadership was one of the clearest of the messages from school effectiveness research. School leadership in Namibia is usually subjected to critical scrutiny following the failure of many schools to produce satisfactory results in terms of grade 10 learners managing to attain grade 11 entries. Mulford (2008) observed that when we consider school leadership we are actually concerned with leadership practice – with, how it is exercised and transacted.

This study assessed the leadership practices of headteachers in successful High Schools in Windhoek. Andrews, Basom & Basom (2001) defined successful schools as schools that were characterised by a clear sense of purpose, strong instructional leadership, true professionalism among the staff, and ambitious academic programmes.

This study further discussed whether, or not, school leadership was such a decisive factor in the ten best performing government secondary schools in the Windhoek Education Region. Given the multiplicity of definitions of leadership, this paper embraced that of Richard, Gorton, Petra and Snowden (1993) who defined leadership as those activities engaged in by an individual or members of a group which contribute significantly to “...development and maintenance of the role structure and goal direction, necessary for effective group performance” (p.67).

This study specifically paid attention to leadership practices and activities headteacher's employed in government schools and how these leadership activities were related or explained by the effective school leadership theories the theoretical framework espouses. We meant to assess the view that "school principals' practices contributed to school effectiveness and student achievement indirectly through actions they took to influence what happened in the school and in class rooms" (Hallinger, 2003).

1.2 Description of the Background

The political changes the Namibian society went through following the dawn of independence in March of 1990 did not 'touch all the stones' in the Namibian education system. Joubert, Mestry, Mosoge, Naidu, and Ngcobo point out that the pre-democratic hierarchical, top-down and authoritarian structures in the management of schools have changed to suit a more collaborative model that places greater emphasis on the involvement of stakeholders in the management and governance of schools (2008).

Muijs (2011) points out that leadership has long been seen as a key factor in organisational effectiveness, but interest in educational leadership has increased in recent years. This is due to a number of factors often related to political changes in the education system such as, the growth of school-based management in many countries over the past decades which spell out more influence for the school and therefore a greater role for the school manager.

The transition of the Namibian Education System from that of South Africa to the Cambridge Education System is yet to yield satisfactory results to many Namibians. It is, in general, not impressive and the political decisions that oversaw the transition usually suffer relentless criticism from different stakeholders, year in year out. A vicious circle of the

blame game has ensued. This scenario has resulted in teachers and head-teachers refusing to bow to criticism directed towards them by educational (political) leadership, regional administrators and the community at large.

The performance of the head-teachers of different local schools are linked to outcomes in terms of the pass rates of learners who secure grade 11 entries at the end of each academic year. When national examination results are released or announced, the leadership styles of head-teachers come under scrutiny. This owes to the belief that academic outcomes are considered a projection of the effectiveness, or inefficiency, of principals in schools. Mulford (2008) stresses, in the same vein, that school leaders take their roles seriously because they want to make a difference to children's and young persons' lives and learning. He implies that leadership is not an end in itself; rather, it is a means to enable children and young people to learn, achieve and develop.

Teddle, Reynolds & Sammons (2005) state the growth in the importance of head-teachers is a consequence of powers and responsibilities that have been devolved from local or national levels to the schools. The head-teacher, and his individual role, have become very important and have inevitably triggered greater interest in leadership as a key factor in school effectiveness and improvement (Reynolds et al., 2005).

The disparities in school outcomes have resulted in parents opting to take their children to schools that achieve satisfactory results and see them excel in society. It is the high success rate of certain high schools coupled with the high level of criticism suffered by head-teachers of poor performing schools in this country which saw the idea of creating this study reach fruition.

It is the intent of this study to demonstrate that strong and able leadership in public schools could bring about school effectiveness that private companies have so far been boasting about. Murphy, Elliott, Goldring and Porter (2006) observe that interest in transforming the public sector by learning from the business world contribute to this interest, as leadership is seen as one of the key elements that make private institutions more effective than the public sector ones.

Muijs (2011) concurs by stating that there is interest in learning from the private sector where leadership has long been seen as an important element in business performance and is, therefore, a contributing factor in the blossoming of leadership in education. Given the background of below standard performance by Namibian schools, it is the desire of this study to assess how leadership could bring about change in Namibian schools.

The Namibian school leadership has, again and again, been subjected to a great deal of sarcastic and rhetorical censure from government political leaders ‘to either shape up or ship out’. This kind of criticism, in itself, is a background that could motivate researchers to undertake studies of this nature, as regards the inevitability of leadership in schools to try and shape up outcomes through effective leadership practices.

1.3 Problem Statement

Namibia, having just graduated from an education system that is discriminatory in nature (Barends, 2004), still sees disparities in terms of examination results and the trend still seems to favour schools from the former “well-to-do” societies . The Windhoek / Khomas Education Region, for instance sees high profile successful schools enjoy a reputation in the community for academic excellence.

As already mentioned above, the researcher has been employed as a teacher for a period of 10 years and stationed at a High school in Windhoek. It is the very school whose status triggered him into engaging this study. The school is situated in a low socioeconomic area, facing challenging circumstances in terms of poor reputation, declining enrolments and poor student learning outcomes. The reputation of the school continues to decline when compared to high profile schools in Windhoek. It views itself as a refuge for those students that no other school wants (Gurr, Drysdale & Mulford, 2007).

The school is considered by those in the know to be the opposite of what it was in the colonial dispensation of South West Africa, currently Namibia, where it was classified as a “coloured” school. One of the definitions of ‘coloured’ in the Macmillan English Dictionary is that of a term used in South Africa in reference to a person who has one parent or grandparent who is white and one who is not.

The school experiences, in particular, a decline in terms of learners attaining a grade 11 entry, high teacher absenteeism, lack of parental involvement and waywardness of learners. This is the unfortunate situation that befallen the school since the time it opened its doors to students from other cultural and racial backgrounds.

The situation confirms MacBeath’s (2003) observation that pressures from changing government policies and competitive market demands have, over the last few decades, made challenges facing schools complex. He maintains this complexity has led to the identification of leadership as an indispensable coping strategy.

Lee (1991) adds that that many schools today are unable to provide successful educational experiences for all students is an undeniable and unacceptable reality. Improving the capacity of schools to foster successful social and academic development of

all youngsters is an important agenda, one that is complicated by changes in the contexts of schools themselves. Demographic, economic, technological, and social changes in the larger society present challenges for schools that directly impinge on the core task of educating all children (Lee, 1991).

The researcher witnessed the grade 10 pass rate and the commitment of teachers drop down to deplorable levels. The scenario has seen ministerial visitation to the school intensify in recent times and the blame is, on all occasions, directed at the leadership of the school. It is the promise embedded in the literature by scholars such as Barends (2004) that armed the author with the necessary zeal for embarking on this study of assessing the leadership practices school principals in successful schools employ in their schools' day-to-day activities.

Barends (2004) stresses that the principal's high level of guidance, supervision and evaluation of his/her teachers would enable teachers to teach (well) in class, and hence, the learners at the end of the day would acquire the basic competencies. Report (1993b) as cited by Barends (2004) states that the role of the ... school principal has changed a lot and requires high levels of guidance, supervision and evaluation of teachers.

Drysdale & Gurr, Mulford (2007) advise that leadership should focus its considerable energy into attracting, retaining and developing staff, promoting shared leadership and decision-making, developing personal and professional capacity of staff through a focus of improving teaching and learning, and building relationships. It is this last aspect that has a direct impact on students as the principal directly influences their values and beliefs about school, which leads to improved learning outcomes (Drysdale et al., 2007).

The school, furthermore, aspires to see its performance improve to well above state benchmarks. It wishes to be transformed into a school that would be regarded as one of the top performing government schools in the country. It is the desire of the researcher to ascertain how leadership practices can help maintain the reputation of the high profile schools despite opening doors to learners from all different societies in Namibia.

The researcher seeks to establish how school leadership practices in successful state schools are linked to effective school leadership theories advocated by different scholars. The researcher wishes to explain further what school leadership entails and whose decision matters for school effectiveness and management of effective learning and teaching.

With this in view, the researcher would like to investigate through empirical studies carried out by other scholars on leadership, relate their findings to the leadership practices adopted by head-teachers in successful Windhoek high schools. He strives to provide an answer to the question whether leadership really is such a decisive factor in school performance as it is understood to be in private institutions.

1.4 Objectives of this study

Contemporary Literature shows there are many scholars, like Teddlie and Reynolds, who have done research on school leadership as a key factor in school effectiveness and improvement (2005). The results of research endeavours in this area have increased investment in leadership development with moves towards required certification and participation in leadership development or induction programmes for principals (Muijs, 2011).

Other studies from way back in the 1980s, likewise, found leadership to be a key characteristic of effectiveness. Brookover, Beady, Flood, Schweitzer, and Wisenbaker

(1979) report that principals of effective schools are strong leaders, while other researchers in school effectiveness outcomes found relationship between school effectiveness outcomes (usually at the pupil level) and factors such as principals developing a clear shared mission, and developing a focus on learning and teaching in the school.

The objective of this study is “to assess the leadership practices of headteachers in successful state high schools in Windhoek”. This assessment is done in relation to the leadership theories referred to in this study.

1.5 Research Questions

The main research question

1.5.1 Are the leadership practices of principals in successful Windhoek state schools related to effective School Leadership Theories?

Research sub-questions

1.5.1.1) Do effective school leadership theories explain leadership practices in successful state schools in Windhoek?

1.5.1.2) What type of leadership affects educational outcomes?

1.5.1.3) Are the participating schools effective?

1.5.1.4) Do the characteristics of effective schools impact the annual grade 10 performance?

1.6 Assumptions

This research runs on the following assumptions:

1.6.1 School leadership practices in successful high schools are influenced by transformational leadership, distributed leadership and instructional leadership.

1.6.2 The characteristics of effective high schools in Windhoek impact their annual grade 10 performance.

1.7 Limitations

The purpose of this study is to assess the leadership practices of principals in relation to effective school leadership theories enshrined in the literature review of this study. This activity, however, is only limited to high schools, other than primary and junior secondary schools, in Windhoek.

The items of the questionnaire for this explanatory and descriptive academic endeavour are only directed to teachers at the targeted schools. This tacitly rules out the participation of other education stakeholders such as learners, administrators and the community at large.

1.8 Delimitations

As one of the few research activities on the role of leadership on public organisations such as schools, it is likely to encounter limitations. The study focuses on schools and not on institutions accorded the responsibilities of making up policies and this limits its sphere of influence.

The study is only confined to the geographical area of Windhoek and this spells out total loss on the crucial contributions those in other urban centres and even schools in rural Namibia could make. The lack of school head development programmes is a hindrance on its own, as the study strives to knock down old beliefs that all leaders are born not trained.

1.9 Significance of this Study

Studies have been done on the influence of transformational leadership skills on teachers' commitment and effort (Gejisel, Slegers, Leithwood & Janzi, 2003), on the impact of transformational leadership on teachers' commitment to change (Yu, 2002), on the effects of transformational leadership on organisational conditions and student engagement (Leithwood & Janzi, 2000).

Namibia faces an apparent lack of accuracy on the impact of leadership on the effectiveness of schools and outcomes. It is studies of this nature that could expose our academic strategists to the global stance as regards the inevitability of school leadership to school success. The state faces a scarcity of readily available text books and journals that head-teachers, their management team and even administrators, could use to improve on their leadership skills.

A thorough literature review and analysis is therefore necessary to place the role of leadership in schools into proper context. The literature review could prove resourceful, and a forerunner for aspirant leaders at this stage of uncertainty when the nation is struggling with reaching consensus as regard an effective education system.

This study has the potential to trigger the reader's interest into seeing the introduction of leadership development programs embarked upon by the nation. This research could be deemed a warning system to administrators as regards the crucial roles head-teachers should play in schools they lead.

1.10 Timeframe of the Study

This particular research work was scheduled to be completed within a time span of six months. The first three months were spent on the collection and recording of data. The

remainder of the period was utilized on data analysis, presentation and the necessary recommendations and conclusions.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Definition of Leadership Terminologies

Transformational leadership: “transformational” is the adjective of the word ‘transformation’. Hornby (1995) in Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary (fifth edition) defines the word ‘transform’ thus: “to change the appearance or character of something or somebody completely”.

Leadership is a noun deriving from the verb ‘lead’. Hornby (1995) defines ‘lead’ as the ability to influence the actions or opinions of somebody”. Leadership then is becoming a leader or the ability to be a leader (Hornby, 1995). This aligns with Northworse’s (2004) perspective or definition of transformational leadership as a process that brings about changes in individuals, an influence that causes followers to accomplish more than what is expected of them. The term ‘transformational leadership’ then could mean “leaders’ ability to change or transform their followers”.

Leithwood et al., (1999) define ‘transformational leadership’ as the process of bringing about changes in the purposes and resources of both leaders and followers. In the words of Rouche, Baker & Rose (1989), transformational leadership is defined as the leader’s ability to influence employees’ attitudes, values, beliefs and behaviors, by working through them and with them in order to accomplish the organisation’s goals, mission and purpose. Summarising from the above definitions, transformational leadership could be viewed as an interaction between leaders and followers, with a view of fostering attitudes and behaviors that arouse interest of workers and strongly commit them into accomplishing the organisation’s visions, goals and mission.

Leadership development referred to the current orthodoxy that leadership can be learned, and is not just an innate quality of individuals. The underlying view being that everyone has the potential to lead if only they receive the necessary professional development (Muijs, 2011).

2.2 How much does leadership matter?

Muijs (2011) argued that leadership has been the key factor in organisational effectiveness, but interest in educational leadership has increased over recent years. Interest in educational leadership is necessitated by a number of factors often related to political changes to the education system, such as the growth of school-based management in many countries over the past two decades, which has meant more influence for the school and therefore a greater role for the school manager, as powers and responsibilities have been devolved from local or national levels to the school (Muijs, 2011).

There is a plethora of research that indicates the significant effect of school leadership on students' outcomes (Bishop, 2004; Leithwood et al., 2006; Leithwood et al., 2004; Marzano et al., 2005; Mulford, 2003; Mulford and Silins, 2003). Leithwood and Jantzi (2000) agreed and state that effective leaders employ an indirect but powerful influence on school effectiveness and students' achievement.

Caldwell (1998) demonstrated that head-teachers play a strategic and empowering role in linking the structural aspect of reform to teaching learning processes and students' outcomes. Ainley (2005) also noted that principals play a key role in establishing cultures that are professionally stimulating for teachers, which increases their sense of efficacy and beliefs that have the capacity to make a difference to students' learning. Looking into literature the researcher explored, an agreement seemed among researchers that leadership

was one of the significant factors for school effectiveness and successful schools are associated with the activities of effective leadership.

2.2.1 Successful Leadership Practices across Contexts

Leithwood (2005) summarised multiple case studies of successful principal leadership in seven countries and critical information is provided about the contexts in which principals exercise their leadership. Leithwood (ibid) identified that setting directions, developing people and redesigning the organisation were the basics of successful leadership – probably not sufficient for success, but necessary in almost all contexts.

Leithwood and Riehl (2003) observed that despite the importance of leadership for school effectiveness and school improvement, a key question always remained in the mind of researchers about what effective leadership is and what type of leadership contributes more effectively towards school improvement. Bush and Clover (2003), reported that researchers studied the leadership phenomenon from different angles. They present different models and approaches of leadership for school effectiveness and improvement.

In earlier times, the emphasis of school leadership research was focused on the activities of individuals (Bridges, 1982) and successful leadership practices were associated with these individuals (Leithwood, 2005). But with the increase of educational reforms like site-based management, career ladders for teachers and mentor teacher programmes, the focus of school leadership research has changed. Contemporary researchers focus not only on the leadership activities of school heads, but also on the leadership employed by other stakeholders of school community (Weiss and Cambone, 1994).

In view of the above literature, it is evident that effective and successful schools are associated with the activities of effective leadership practices of head-teachers. It is

necessary to identify successful and effective leadership practices of head-teachers in different contexts. The researcher, therefore, intends to identify the leadership practices of head-teachers of successful Windhoek high schools in his attempt to recommend appropriate ‘prescription’ that would address the leadership deficiencies at his school. The primary aim of this study is to contribute to the knowledge and understanding of successful leadership practices in schools through literature review and evidence that is obtained by this study.

Leadership is seen as one of the key elements that made private companies more effective than the public sector is perceived and interest to emulate the private sector has overwhelmed the public sector in recent times (Murphy, Elliot, Goldring, and Porter, 2006). The interest in leadership among policy makers and researchers is backed by a great deal of rhetoric about the importance of leadership in schools (Muijs, 2011). Britain’s Tony Blair, for instance, stated in his speech to the Labor party conference “As new head-teachers, you are the critical agents for change and higher standards school by school. There is literally no more important job in Britain today than yours” (Blair, 1999).

The US President Bush, on the other hand, declared that “if you have got a good principal, an innovative, smart, capable person, who is motivated and dedicated and who believes every child can learn, you will find excellence in that particular school” (Bush, 2003).

Muijs (2011) emphasises that it is due to the significance of leadership that the National College for School Leadership in England was set up by the government in 2001. He adds that this was done not only because government felt leadership development had to be coordinated, but also to a belief that leadership can be learnt, at least to some extent.

All the expenditure begs the question whether school leadership is really such a decisive factor in school performance. The work often cited to this effect is Hallinger and Heck's (2010) review suggesting a link between leadership and school effectiveness albeit one that is mediated by having a shared vision and goals. In most cases, outcomes have, as is common (though not necessarily sufficient) in school effective research, been defined as school learning outcomes, and more specifically in test results.

Brookover, Beady, Flood and Schweitzer (2006), in one of the earlier school effectiveness studies, for example, report that principals of effective schools are strong leaders, while other researchers in school effectiveness have found relationships between school effectiveness outcomes (usually at pupil level) and factors such as principals developing a clear shared mission, and developing a focus on learning and teaching in the school. Cheng (2005), on the other hand, finds modest positive correlations between principal leadership and student attitudes toward school.

Creemers and Kyriakides (2007) argue effective leadership is a factor that helps create the conditions under which teachers can be optimally effective, which in turn would result in higher levels of student performance. D'Agostino (2000), reports that leadership of the principal is the key factor in helping create a strong shared mission and vision in the school, which in turn is related to teacher effectiveness.

Early, Evans, Collarbone, Gold and Halpin (2002) find that the main themes from case studies of ten exceptionally well led UK schools are head-teachers as:

- Problem-solvers and solution-driven;
- Highly visible during the working day having developed strong senior leadership teams;

- Regarding middle managers as ‘the experts’; strongly emphasising continuing professional development;
- Mediators of change, negotiating it effectively, and adapting it to fit existing values and ethos; and,
- Having strong and involved governing bodies, or at least chairs of governing bodies.

Wylie and Mitchell involved with the ongoing research into ten ordinary New Zealand primary schools (2003), as cited in Mulford (2008) stress that while strong leadership is not found to be confined to principals, “Principals have an iron determination as well as being communicators, with a love of their school and its students, and sound educational knowledge. They are also incurable learners. ...they provide good models for their staff and most encourage others in their school to take on leadership roles” (p28).

2.2.2 Ways in which School Leaders Lift Student Outcomes

Silins & Mulford (2002a) identify key relationship among leadership, organisational learning and student outcomes given a range of contexts established through the LOLSO research as indicted in figure 2.

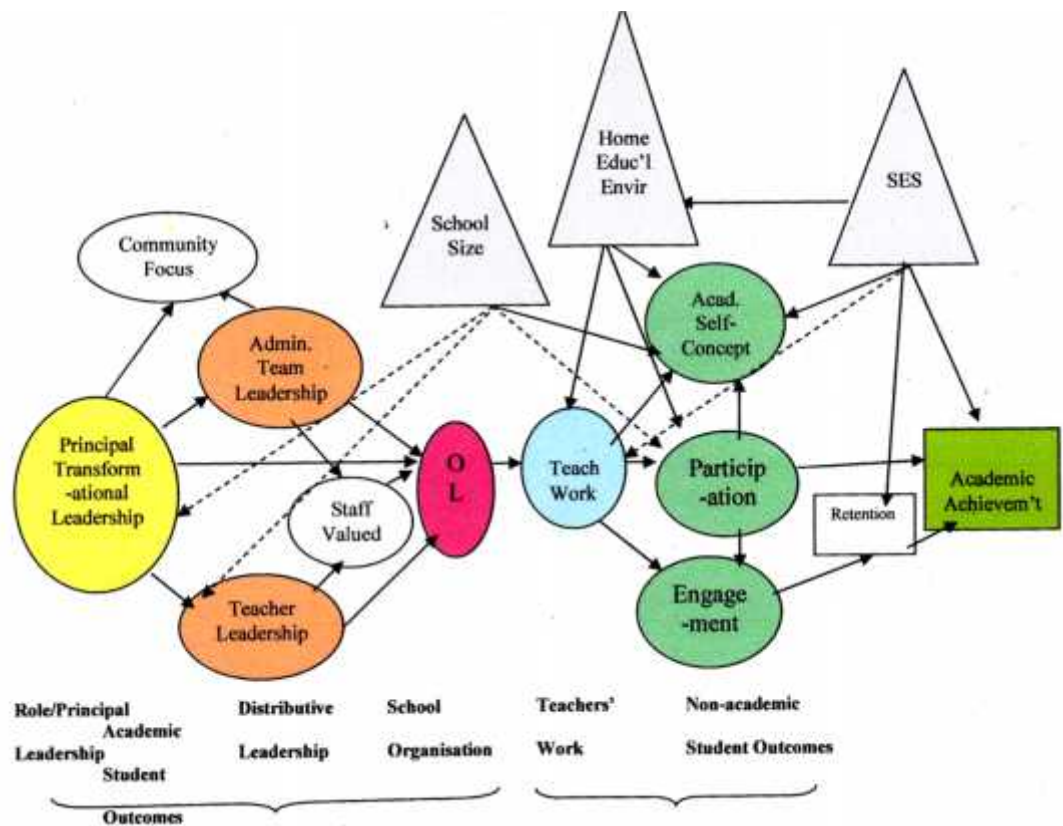


Figure 1: A summary of leadership practices for organisational learning and improved student outcomes (..... =negative relationship and _ =positive relationship)->

Adapted from Mulford (2003)

Mulford (2003) maintains that the LOLSO project demonstrates that the leadership that makes a difference is both position based (principal) and distributive (administrative team and teams), but both are only indirectly related to student outcomes. This result is consistent with other reviews of research in the area, for example Hallinger & Heck (1996), as cited in Mulford (2003); conclude that the relationship between strong leadership and good student results is not a direct one.

Mulford (2003) stresses that good leadership helps foster the kind of school climate in which learning flourishes, rather than directly inspiring students to achieve. He maintains

that organisational learning (OL), or a collective teacher efficacy, is the important intervening variable between leadership and teacher work and then student outcomes. That is leadership contributed to organisational learning, which in turn influences what happens in the core business of the school –teaching and learning.

Mulford (2003) further adds that school leadership influences the way students perceive, teachers organise and conduct their instruction, and educational interactions with, and expectations for, their students. Pupils' positive perceptions of teachers' work directly promote participation in school, academic self-concept and engagement with school.

Heck (2000), in addition, stresses that schools where the headteacher leadership is rated as more supportive and directed towards instructional excellence and school improvement and the climate is seen in positive terms “produced greater-than-expected improvements in student learning over time.” (Pp. 538-539)

2.3 Role of Middle Level Leadership

Bell, Bolamand Cubillo (2003) explain that key mediating factors found in the studies on leadership in schools are the work of teachers, the organisation of the school and relations with parents. Fullan (2001) observes that whilst the quality of teaching most strongly influences levels of pupil motivation and achievement, research demonstrates that the quality of leadership matters in determining the motivation of teachers and the quality of teaching in the classroom.

Hallinger (2008, p.17), on the other hand, claims that empirical data increasingly supports the notion that educational outcomes and school environment are equally strong determinants of principal leadership behaviours as principal leadership behaviours themselves are of educational outcomes. In other words, the leader not only shapes the

organisational culture and environment leading to enhanced outcomes, as is often assumed rather, the leader is her/himself influenced and shaped by the environment in which s/he finds herself/himself.

2.4 The Types of Leadership that Affect Educational Outcomes

Muijs (2011) points out that the leadership literature tends to be quite prescriptive in nature, and factors such as transformational rather than transactional leadership, instrumental rather than administrative leadership and leadership rather than management have all been posited as key elements of organisational effectiveness. The researcher pays particular attention to leadership theories of transformational, instructional and distributed and these are discussed in detail in the following sections:

2.4.1 Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership is the brain child of organisational reform initiatives. Its aim is to cater to both leaders and their followers in order to motivate and inspire workers to perform beyond their normal work level (Martin & Eptropaki, 2001). In his reflection on transformational leadership, Leithwood (2000) gives a nod to Dillar's (1995) and Benn's (1959) conception as that which imbues in leaders the ability to move followers and inspire them to a high level of consciousness.

It is the argument by Martin et al., (2001) that compel Muijs (2011) into describing transformational leadership as leadership that transforms individuals and organisations through an appeal to values and long-term goals. He stresses that a transformational leader manages to reach followers and tap into their intrinsic motivation. This resonates well with the argument of Shamir (1991) cited in Bass (1997) that the follower's sense of self-worth must be addressed to engage and commit the follower.

Burns (1978), as cited in Bass (1997), adds that authentic transformational leaders motivate followers to work for transcendental goals that go beyond immediate self-interests. He emphasised that transformational leaders move followers to transcend their self-interests for the good of the group, organisation or country. Transformational leaders motivate followers and other constituencies to do more than they originally expected to do as they strive for higher order outcomes (Bass, 1997).

Bass (1985) cited in Burns (1997) defines transforming leaders as individuals who motivate followers to extend and develop themselves, and to become more innovative. He extends his idea by stating that followers are motivated to emulate their transformational leader, and they become committed to the organisation as a consequence of belief in the leader and exert extra effort for their leader.

Muijs' (2011) observation above links up well with the observation of Pounder (2008) that the effect of transformational leadership on subordinates centres on three leadership outcomes: (a) the ability of the leader to generate extra effort on the part of those being led; (b) subordinates' perception of leader effectiveness, and, finally (c) their satisfaction with the leader. He stresses that the exercise of transformational leadership generally has a profound and positive effect on those being led and this has important implications for the education of the students.

Carbano, 2005; Michaels & Miethe, 1989; as cited by Pounder (2008) maintain that the positive effect of transformational leadership on subordinates' level of effort is particularly relevant to an educational context given strong evidence linking academic achievement and student effort at both school and higher education level in general. This is an agreement supported by the study carried out by Leithwood et. al (1991) on 47 schools

which demonstrates highly significant relationships between aspects of transformational leadership and teachers' own reports of changes in both attitude toward school improvement and altered school instructional behavior.

Pounder (2008: p3) gives the characteristics of transformational leadership as follows:

Idealised influence

The leader provides vision and a sense of mission, expresses confidence in the vision, instills pride, gains respect and trust, and increases optimism. The leader excites subordinates and inspires their complete faith in him or her. This links up well with the explanation of Bass (1997) that transformational leaders display conviction; emphasize trust; take stands on difficult issues; present their most important values; and emphasise the importance of purpose, commitment, and ethical consequences of decisions. He stresses such leaders are admired as role models generating pride, loyalty, confidence, and alignment around a shared purpose.

Inspirational motivation

The leader acts as a model for subordinates, communicates a vision in an appealing way, and uses symbols to focus efforts. He or she communicates high-performance expectations. This dimension is a measure of the leader's ability to engender confidence in the leader's vision and values. This links to Bass's (1997) explanation that transformational leaders articulate an appealing vision of the future, challenge followers with high standards,

talk optimistically with enthusiasm, and provide encouragement and meaning for what needs to be done.

Individual consideration;

The leader coaches and mentors, provide continuous feedback, and links organisational members' needs to the organisation's mission. Such a leader would give attention to members in danger of being neglected. Individual consideration is a measure of the extent to which the leader cares about the individual follower's concerns and developmental needs. This is a clear match of the observation made by Bass (1997) that transformational leaders deal with others as individuals; consider their individual needs, abilities, and aspirations; listen attentively; further their development; advise; teach; and coach.

Intellectual stimulation

The leader stimulates followers to rethink old ways of doing things and to reassess their old values and beliefs. This dimension is concerned with the degree to which followers are provided with interesting and challenging tasks and encouraged to solve problems in their own way. This observation by Pounder (2008) relates well to that of Bass (1997) that transformational leaders question old assumptions, traditions, and beliefs; stimulate in others new perspectives and ways of doing things; and encourage the expression of ideas and reasons.

Furthermore, Pounder (2008) maintains that the benefits of transformational leadership, in addition to the extra-effort outcome, include prima facie relevance to higher education. This observation tallies with that of Coad and Berry (1998), as cited by Pounder (2008), that perceives transformational leadership variables are positively correlated with

participants' learning goal orientation, a concept they define as follows: "Individuals with a learning goal orientation have an intrinsic interest in their work, view themselves as being curious, and choose challenging tasks that provide opportunities for learning" (p.164).

Coad and Berry's (1998) observation resonate well with that of Pounder's (2008) that literature suggests the transformational instructor could foster student's intellectual curiosity, facilitate creativity, and stimulate ethical conduct. Carlson and Perrewe (1995) go as far as stating that "transformational leadership is viewed as the best approach for instilling ethical behavior" (p.5) and these transformational leaders are associated with ethical traits more frequently by their subordinates than the non-transformational leaders (Atwater, Penn and Rucker (1991).

Leithwood, Kenneth and Mary (1992) argue that at the reins of today's new schools should be with not one, but many leaders who believe in creating the conditions that enable staff to find their own direction. Transformational leadership requires school administrators to focus their attention on using facilitative power to make (second order) changes in their schools. Transformational leaders use a radically different form of power that is consensual and facilitative in nature – a form of power manifested through other people, not over other people. Such power arises, for example, when teachers are helped to find greater meaning in their work, to meet higher-level needs through their work and to develop enhanced instructional capacities (Leithwood et. al, 1992).

Roberts (1985), in a like manner provides the focus of facilitative power possessed by transformational leaders by explaining that the collective action that transforming leadership generates, empowers those who participate in the process. He stresses that there is hope, optimism, and energy. In essence, he further argues, transforming leadership is a

leadership that facilitates the redefinition of a people's mission and vision, a renewal of their commitment, and the restructuring of their systems for goal accomplishment.

Leithwood et.al (1992) point out that transformational leadership provides the incentive for people to bring about improvements in their own practices, and this provides the reason as to why Avolio and Bass (1988) refer to it as "value added".

Leithwood et. al (1992) point out that they studied schools initiating reforms of their own choice, as well as schools responding to both district- and state-level initiatives. Their results suggest that transformational school leaders are in more or less continuous pursuit of three fundamental goals: 1) helping staff members develop and maintain a collaborative, professional school culture; they maintain that in collaborative school cultures, staff members often talk, observe, critique, and plan together. Norms of collective responsibility and continuous improvement encourage them to train one another how to teach (Little 1982, Hargreaves 1990).

Leithwood & Janzi (1991) as cited in Leithwood et. al (1992), identify a number of strategies used by school leaders to assist teachers in building and maintaining collaborative professional cultures. These strategies include involving staff members in collaborative goal setting and reducing teachers' isolation by creating time for joint planning. These leaders actively communicate the school's cultural norms, values, and beliefs in their day-to-day interpersonal contacts; and they also share power and responsibility with others through delegation of power to school improvement teams within the school. Ojimofofor (2007) adds that transformational leadership is associated with freedom to think and make suggestions. Principals who listen and, share experiences and ideas are more likely to give teachers the chance to make choices and engage in risk taking (Blasé & Blasé, 2000).

Fostering teacher development;

Leithwood et. al (1991) cite one of their studies that suggest that teachers' motivation for development is enhanced when they adopt a set of internalised goals for professional growth. They stress that this process is facilitated when they become involved in establishing a school mission they feel strongly committed to. School leaders can do their part by helping to ensure that such growth goals are clear, explicit, and ambitious enough to be challenging but not unrealistic (Leithwood et. al, 1991). School leaders could further enhance teachers' development when they give them a role in solving non-routine problems of school improvement within a school culture that values continuous professional growth (Leithwood et. al., 1992).

Help them solve problems together more effectively;

Transformational leadership is valued because it stimulates followers to engage in new activities beyond classrooms and put forth that extra effort (Sergiovanni, 1991). Transformational leaders solve problems in collaboration with teachers during staff meetings by ensuring a broader range of perspectives from which to interpret the problem by actively seeking different interpretations, being explicit about their own interpretations, and placing individual problems in the larger perspective of the whole school and its overall direction (Leithwood and Steinbach 1991).

Leithwood et al (1991) further observe that transformational school leaders also assist group discussions of alternative solutions, ensure open discussion, and avoid commitment to preconceived solutions: they actively listen to different views and clarify and summarise information at key phases during meetings. Such principals avoid narrowly biased perspectives on the problem by keeping the group on task, not imposing their

perspectives, changing their own views when warranted, checking out their own and other's assumptions, and remaining calm and confident. Leithwood et al. (1991), as cited in Leithwood et al (1992), argue these leaders share a genuine belief that their staff members as a group could develop better solutions than the principal could alone.

The study by Ejimofor (2007) on principals' transformational leadership skills, and their teachers' job satisfaction, identify two aspects transformational leadership skills pay particular attention to:

a) Shared decision-making

This empowers teachers to make contributions and recommendations in the direction of learning goals (Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbach, 2002). Some advocates of transformational leadership clamour for higher levels of power and authority for teachers to make decisions and participate in decision-making processes regarding school affairs, as this is a clear sign of maturity and professional development (Leonard & Leonard, 1999).

Zembylass & Papanastasiou (2004) perceive transformational leadership as an effective way of making teachers become more professional, thus improving their performance. It gives a strong support to the Ozaralli's (2003) assertion that transformational school leaders empower teachers to become autonomous, creative and innovative, guiding them to see themselves as efficient and competent to influence their jobs and work place in a more satisfactory and meaningful way. It offers teachers the opportunity to view issues in small groups in order to come up with stronger solutions that gear toward academic achievement (Leithwood et al., 1999).

Bogler and Somech (2005) contend that teacher involvement in decision-making triggers significant commitment that induces them to invest extra efforts in achieving school

goals and objectives. They further stress that principals with transformational leadership skills have the tendency to arouse their teachers' interest in school affairs because they are skilled in involving teachers in decision-making processes. Such involvement could trigger and strengthen teachers' sense of self-efficacy and their belief in their ability to positively impact student performance (Bogler & Somech, 2005).

When teachers' expertise and suggestions are acknowledged and rewarded by co-opting them into decision-making, an associated high level of job satisfaction and morale are noted. Teachers are empowered to translate their visions into reality when they are co-opted into decision-making (Dondero, 1996). This tallies with Ozaralli's (2003) that participation in decision-making depicts recognition of intellectual power, and teachers' intellectual power or ability is acknowledged, they become more participative, creative and satisfactory. In this way, teachers become empowered because they are offered the opportunity to exercise autonomy, responsibility, choice and authority (Blasé & Blasé, 1996). This destabilises the top-down notion of traditional leadership style, and creates a condition that considers leaders and employees as partners and co-workers (Ojimofor, 2007).

b) Professional development

This exposes teachers to new skills, knowledge and techniques to impact classroom instructions that lead to students' academic improvement (Geijsel, Slegers, Leithwood, & Janzi, 2003). Transformational leadership paves way for professional development of teachers and acquisition of the necessary skills to carry out teaching responsibilities effectively (Coad & Berry, 1998). It is perceived as a leadership skill that heightens

awareness of some key issues for leaders and followers in such a way so as to foster workers' interests, concern and commitment to duty (Coad & Berry, 1998).

Marshall and Scott-Ladd (2004) contend that such leadership works together with teachers to provide opportunities for high quality teacher development and skills by making room for workshops, guided study groups and teachers mentoring. Brown, Boyle and Boyle (2002) explain knowledge and skills may include teacher advancement in knowing the subject matter, knowledge of new teaching methods, knowledge of new technology and inventions in the field of education, skills to focus students' attention on classroom tasks and assignments.

Ejimofo (2007) cites Huang's (2001) observation that school principals with transformational leadership behaviours create a supportive environment that fosters teacher-student relationships, teacher morale or teacher efficacy in the classroom. A school environment of this nature could form a strong supportive bond between teachers and their principals and among teachers themselves (Ejimofo, 2007). It is an environment in which everyone is free to express themselves, and learn how to listen and cooperate with one another (Senge, 1990).

Transformational leadership from the point of view of Ozaralli (2003) creates and nourishes organisational vision that infuses cultural changes in cultural values that reflects greater innovations and accomplishments. Principals who are transformational in their leadership styles create environments in which teachers get more involved in creating and enhancing school vision (Ozaralli, 2003). Transformational leaders are geared toward support for teachers' ideas and innovations (Blasé & Blasé, 2000). They single out that

Principal-teacher collaboration associated with reflective behaviours which is a hallmark of transformational leadership.

Transformational leadership is usually juxtaposed to transactional leadership, which is seen as mainly concerned with relationships of exchange where, for example, financial rewards from managers are exchanged for extra employee effort (Muijs (2011)). He further stresses that transformational leadership is concerned with hearts and minds and it is therefore not surprising that this conception has proved popular in education where a strong moral purpose and commitment among both school staff and managers, relative job security and low and government determined pay levels would tend to favour the effectiveness of transformational over more transactional forms of leadership in fostering lasting change.

Ozaralli (2003) adds that transformational school leadership creates a participative environment in which there is a high sense of self-efficacy among teachers that conveys messages of motivation, commitment and achievement. Teachers' efforts are challenged and translated into achievement that enhances teachers' satisfaction. Principals with transformational leadership skills have the ability to create situations that encourage teachers to internalise school goals (Ozaralli, 2003). School principals with transformational leadership skills articulate, inspire and furnish teachers with the vision of the future, and foster commitment of teachers to school affairs (Yu, 2002).

In their study, Silins & Mulford (2002) reveal that teacher job satisfaction is largely dependent on the extent to which principals are skilled in transformational leadership styles. This assertion gains a strong backup from Bogler's (2002) investigations revealing that teachers who perceived their principals as transformational leaders not only had high job satisfaction but also conceptualised teaching as their profession.

Muijs et al. (2006) assert that transformational leadership is likely to lead to a longer term change and more genuine organisational reform by raising followers' levels of consciousness about the importance of the goals they are pursuing as an organization, getting followers to transcend their own self-interest, and moving them to address higher-level needs.

Mulford and Silins (2001), as cited in Mulford (2003), argue that the Leadership for Organisational Learning and Student Outcomes (LOLSO) research (in Australia) demonstrate that the best leadership for organisational learning (and a community focus) is a principal skilled in transformational leadership and administrators (deputy principals, heads of department) and teachers who are actively involved in the core work of the school (distributed leadership). What is shown to be especially important is that staff is actively and collectively participating in the school and that they feel that their contributions are valued.

Mulford (2003) maintains that the transformational school principal is found to focus on:

- *Individual Support*- providing moral support, showing appreciation for the work of individual staff and taking account of their opinions.
- *Culture* – promoting an atmosphere of caring and trust among staff, setting the tone for respectful interaction with students, and demonstrating a willingness to change practices in the light of new undertakings.
- *Structure* – establishing a school structure that promotes participative decision making, supporting delegation and distributive leadership, and encouraging teacher decision-making autonomy.

- *Vision and goals* – working towards whole-staff consensus on school priorities and communicating these to students and staff to establish a strong sense of overall purpose.
- *Performance Expectation* – having high expectations for students and for teachers to be effective and innovative.
- *Intellectual Stimulation* – encouraging staff to reflect on what they are trying to achieve with students and how they are doing it; facilitating opportunities for staff to learn from each other and modeling continual learning in his or her own practice.

Stewart (2006) looks at the arguments put forward by the scholars most associated with transformational leadership:

c) James MacGregor Burns

Burns (1978) advocates that transactional leaders approach followers with the intent to exchange one thing for another, for example, the leaders may reward the hard-working teacher with an increase in budget allowance. On the other hand, “The transforming leader looks for potential motives in followers, seeks to satisfy higher needs, and engages the full person of the follower” (p.4).

The result of this leadership is a mutual relationship that changes followers and leaders into moral agents. The concept of moral leadership is proposed as a means for leaders to take responsibility of their leadership and to aspire towards satisfaction of the needs of the followers (Stewart, 2006). Burns (1978) defines leadership as leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and motivations – that wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations – of both followers and leaders.

Burns (1978) asserts that transformational leadership seeks to raise the level of human conduct and ethical aspirations of both the leader and the led and, thus, it has a transforming effect on both. Transformational leadership encompasses a change to benefit both the relationship and the resources of those involved. The result is the change in the level of commitment and the increased capacity for achieving a mutual purpose. Burns suggests that, “transforming leadership began on people’s terms, driven by their wants and needs, and must culminate in expanding opportunities for happiness” (p. 230). He further suggests that transforming leaders “define public values that embrace the supreme and enduring principles of a people” (p. 29). Moreover, these exceptional and committed leaders possess unique personal values that empower others to transform the organisation.

d) Bernard M. Bass & Bruce J. Avolio

Burns (1998) gives evidence that transformational leadership is particularly powerful and has the foundation to move followers beyond what is expected. He believes that transformational leaders do more than set up exchanges and agreements.

Bass (1998) and his colleagues identify four components of transformational leadership:

Charismatic Leadership or Idealized Influence

Transformational leaders are role models; they are respected and admired by their followers. Followers identify with leaders and they emulate them. Leaders have a clear vision and sense of purpose and they are willing to take risks.

Inspirational Motivation

Transformational leaders behave in ways that motivate others, generate enthusiasm and challenge people. These leaders clearly communicate expectations and they demonstrate a commitment to goals and a shared vision.

Intellectual Stimulation

Transformational leaders actively solicit new ideas and new ways of doing things. They stimulate others to be creative and they never publicly correct or criticise others.

Individualised Consideration

Transformational leaders pay attention to the needs and the potential for developing others. These leaders establish a supportive climate where individual differences are respected. Interaction with followers is encouraged and the leaders are aware of individual concerns (Bass, 1998).

e) Kenneth Leithwood

Stewart (2006) admits that Leithwood and his colleagues have been instrumental in bridging the works of Burns and Bass into the field of educational administration.

Leithwood, Begley and Cousins (1994) define transformational leadership as follows:

The term 'transform' implies major changes in the form, nature, function and/or potential of some phenomenon; applied leadership, it specifies, general ends to be pursued although it is largely mute with respect to means. From this beginning, we consider the central purpose of leadership to be the enhancement of the individual and collective problem-solving capacities of organisational members; such capacities are exercised in the identification of goals to be achieved and practices to be used in the achievement.

Leithwood (1994) identifies seven dimensions used to describe transformational leadership: building school vision and establishing school goals; providing intellectual stimulation; offering individualised support; modeling best practices and important organisational values; demonstrating high performance expectations; creating a productive school culture; and developing structures to foster participation in school decisions. He further adds management dimensions such as staffing, instructional support, monitoring school activities, and community focus.

Stewart (2006) believes that Leithwood's model assumes that the principal shares leadership with teachers and the model is grounded not on controlling or coordinating others but, instead, on providing individual support, intellectual stimulation, and personal vision.

Based on Leithwood's (1994) studies, transformational leaders are in a continuous pursuit of three goals: helping staff members develop and maintain a collaborative, professional school culture; fostering teacher development and helping teachers solve problems together more effectively.

Leithwood et al. (1999), as cited in Stewart (2006), concludes that "transformational leadership practices were helpful in fostering organisational learning; in particular, vision building, individual support, intellectual stimulation, modeling, culture building and holding high performance expectations" (p.37). Furthermore, evidence about the relationship between transformational leadership and organisational improvement and effectiveness are found more than any other effects.

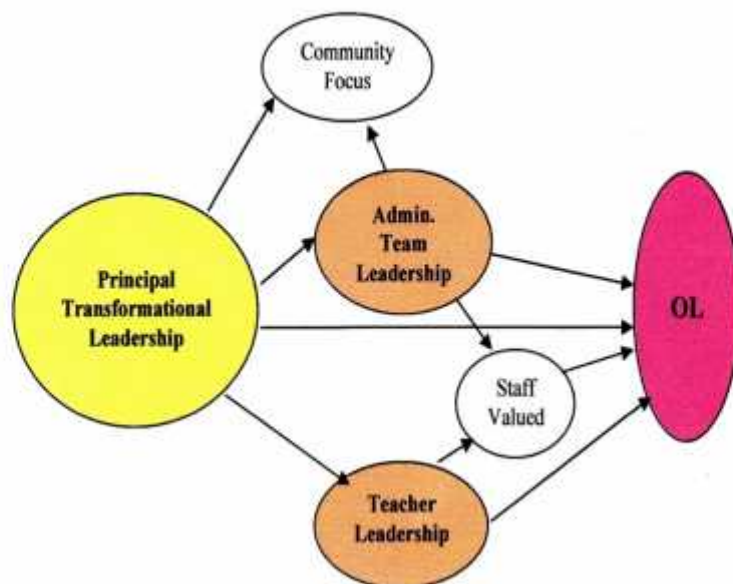


Figure 2: Role and distributive leadership for organisational learning

The wording here is important. It is working towards whole-staff consensus on school vision not arriving with a school vision for others to implement (Mulford, 2008).

Adapted from Mulford (2008)

The transformational principal is inclusive in approach and his leadership behaviour involves keeping the community in focus and valuing the entire staff. The transformational leader leads in conjugation with other members of management (administration team leadership) and leadership is accorded to individual teachers.

2.4.2 Distributive Leadership

Duignan (2003), in a study of leadership in service, organisations advocates the need for an important shift in the meaning, perspective and scope (depth and breadth) of leadership in schools, in order to build organisational cultures that promote, nurture and support shared and distributed leadership.

Duignan & Bezzina (2006) cite a number of influential authors who advocate the need for “shared leadership” (e.g. Lambert 2002) or “distributed leadership” (e.g. Hargreaves and Fink 2004) or “parallel leadership” (e.g. Crowther et al 2002a, 2002b). There seems to be an assumption that because leadership shared or distributed reflects a more democratic and collaborative approach, it is necessarily a “good thing”, and that once we accept this conclusion, such forms of leadership are easily achieved (Duignan et al 2006).

Johnson (1997) advocates that in recent years, individual-focused heroic approach to leadership has been challenged. As an alternative to heroic leadership, he maintains, a post-heroic model that places school leadership “not in the individual agency of one, but in the collaborative efforts of many” (p. 7). The wave of changes resulting from structural, financial, curricular and technological reforms, as well as growing demands for accountability impact powerfully on the working lives of not only head-teachers but teachers, students and all others who are directly or indirectly involved in the continuity and improvement of their schools (MacBeath et al., 2004).

The post-heroic model emphasises human relations-oriented features such as teamwork, participation, empowerment, risk-taking and little control over others. In this context, school leadership “does not command or control, but works together with others, constantly providing relevant information regarding plans and operations” (Eicher, 2003).

Muijs (2011) observes that distributed forms of leadership involve all staff in leading their own organisation. He implies that the practice of leadership is stretched within or across an organisation and that there are high degrees of involvement in the practice of

leadership. “I believe strongly that distributed leadership holds the key to the school’s capacity for meeting its complex challenges” (MacBeath, 2003: p.25).

This is backed up Timperley’s (2005) observation that the idea of leadership as distributed across multiple people and situations which has proven to be a more useful framework for understanding the realities of schools and how they might be improved. This is a more achievable and sustainable conceptualisation of leadership that has been coming increasingly to the fore to replace the model of a ‘single “heroic” leader standing atop a hierarchy, bending the school community to his or her purposes’ (Camburn, Rowan & Taylor, 2003).

This is backed up by the observation that moves away from an emphasis placed on the heroic individual leader (Fullan, 2005; Gronn, 2002) to a distributed leadership perspective (Storey, 2004) which nurtures and sustains school improvement (Harries, 2004) apparent across international literature.

It is an alternative that involves thinking of leadership in terms of activities and interactions that are distributed across multiple people and situations (Camburn et al. 2003) and involves role complementarities and network patterns of control (Smylie and Denny 1990, Heller and Firestone 1995). Distributed leadership is not delegated leadership but a sophisticated web of interrelationships and connections. Further, distributed leadership does not remove the need for strong individuals (Hargreaves in Davies, 2005).

The number of administrative tasks a principal undertakes in today’s world typically leaves insufficient hours in the day to complete the necessary heroic activities and to cope with these more mundane responsibilities (Elmore 2002, Gronn and Rawlings-Sanaei 2003). There is recognition of the changing role of the head-teacher and the pressures involved in

relation to multiple, and often conflicting, expectations and accountabilities which can make 'letting go' of control very difficult for heads (Harries, 2004; MacBeath, 2005). Most problematic is that, when the heroic leader moves on, progress often comes to a standstill and previous practices re-emerge (Copland 2003). Davies (2005) acknowledges that in a complex, fast-paced world, leadership cannot rest on the shoulders of a few.

Distributed leadership views leadership as a set of functions or qualities shared across a much broader segment of the school community that encompasses administrators, teachers, other professionals and community members both internal and external to the school. Such an approach imposes the need for school communities to create and sustain broadly *distributed* leadership systems, processes and capacities (Copland 2003).

Distributed leadership is not the same as dividing task responsibilities among individuals who perform defined and separate organisational roles, but rather it comprises dynamic interactions between multiple leaders and followers. Task responsibilities are distributed across traditionally defined organisational roles. 'Decisions about who leads and who follows are dictated by the task or problem situation, not necessarily by where one sits in the hierarchy' (Copland 2003: p378). Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond (2004) refer to this distribution as being 'stretched over' people in different roles.

Distributing leadership across an increased number of people in an organisation has the potential to build capacity within a school through the development of the intellectual and professional capital of the teachers (Day and Harries 2002). Leadership becomes a collaborative endeavour involving all teachers (Lambert 1998).

In distributed leadership, as Gronn (2002) suggests, it is not only the head-teacher's leadership that counts but also the leadership roles performed by deputy heads, substantive

teachers, support teachers, members of school councils, boards or governing bodies and students. He stresses that leadership is dispersed rather than concentrated and does not necessarily give any particular individual or categories of persons the privilege of providing more leadership than others. Thus, the notion of distribution permeates all aspects of post heroic leadership techniques (Gronn, 2002).

Fletcher and Kaufer (2003) observe that distributed leadership is enacted by people at all levels rather than lie is a set of personal characteristics and attributes located in people at the top. This resonates well with Bennet's, Wise's, Woods' & Harvey's (2003) observation that distributed leadership is not something done by an individual to others, or a set of individual actions through which people contribute to a group activities that work through and within relationships rather than individual action. It emerges from a variety of sources depending on the issue and who has the relevant expertise or creativity (Bennet et al., (2003).

This, however, does not mean that everyone leads simultaneously or that leadership activities have no agreed or common direction. The process of distribution is initiated by the head-teacher who identifies and delegates leadership responsibilities to individual teachers. Such delegations may be driven by the head-teacher's recognition that others have expertise that he/she does not have (MacBeath, 2003). Harries & Spillance (2007) believe that distributed leadership perspective implies that multiple leaders, formally recognised or not, engage in a wide range of leadership activities. In a sense, anyone could be a leader ... It is a process that a lot of staff could demonstrate (MacBeath, 2003).

MacBeath (2003) identifies '*trust*' as a favorable condition for promoting distributing of leadership in school. "There must be trust among teachers, between a teacher

and a teacher, between teachers and head-teacher, between pupils and head-teacher and among pupils. The willingness to share and pursue common goals is also found to be critical to the success of distributed leadership”, (p. 25).

Mutual trust should be at the centre of interactions between and among teachers, head-teachers, pupils and stakeholders of the school (MacBeath, 2003). “The successful implementation of distribution would therefore mean reduction of external pressure on the school. Schools should be given greater autonomy in the determination of where they want to be, how they want to get there and when they wish to get there” (MacBeath, 2003).

In his study of the implementation of distributed leadership in schools, MacBeath (2003) observes that there must be a safe environment where people are secure enough to venture, where they know they would be encouraged. People take risks in an environment where mistakes are not seen as a mark of failure but as a learning opportunity. A teacher is therefore more likely to take up leadership risks with confidence when head-teachers and teachers treat his/her mistakes in a non-judgmental manner and within a supportive atmosphere where there is belief that all individual contributions are valued (MacBeath, 2003).

MacBeath (2003) discovers in his study that pressure from workload is another frustrating factor identified by the head-teachers. “When there is so much pressure on teachers in the school, they would definitely avoid taking leadership responsibilities” observed a secondary head-teacher in MacBeath’s (2003) study.

MacBeath (2003) advises that head-teachers need to internalise the principles underlying the distribution of leadership and be prepared to share their authority with teachers with little control. This means head-teachers have to demonstrate practically that

they respect and value each teacher's leadership potential, appreciate efforts of other teachers to take risk and also see a teacher's mistake as an opportunity for learning (MacBeath, 2003).

Fullan (2005) points out that distributed leadership is educational rather than institutional in its focus and exercise through the liberation of talents within a participatory framework.

Also in the USA, Elmore (2000) details five principles that lay the foundation for a model of distributed leadership focused on large-scale improvement in schools:

- The purpose of leadership is the improvement of instructional practice and performance;
- Instructional improvement requires continuous individual and collective learning;
- Learning requires modeling;
- The roles and activities of leadership flow from the expertise required for learning and improvement, not from the formal dictates of the institution; and
- The exercise of authority requires reciprocity of accountability and capacity.

Maden (2001), as cited in Mulford (2008), on the other hand, cites a UK detailed case study on 11 effective schools in disadvantaged UK areas found that the levers of change and improvement include:

- Distributive leadership ("It is tempting to dwell solely on the head-teacher as a kind of miracle worker, but these heads know that, above all else, securing improvement comes through the hearts and minds of teachers", (p.319) and ... extra mental and emotional

energy seems to be triggered off by a shared sense of achievement, particularly when this is the result of the real efforts of staff and pupils;

- Organisational learning (“It is probable that ‘school capacity’ is the single most important matter in trying to identify how and why some schools maintain and sustain improvement”, (p.320); and,
- Pupil participation and engagement (“Effective headship seems always to include the nurturing of leadership opportunities for teachers, but also ... for pupils”, p. 327).

2.4.3 Instructional Leadership

School administrators play a key role in providing leadership for improvement at their sites. Over the decades one of the ways in which administrators have attempted to provide such leadership has been through shifting their focus from their managerial role to an instructional leadership role. The concept of instructional leadership has become an accepted notion in both our theoretical and practical thinking about strategies to promote school effectiveness and support school improvement (Bossert, Dwyer, Rowan & Lee, 1982; Greenfield, 1987; Smith & Andrews, 1989).

Teddllie and Raynolds (2000), on the other hand, see instructional leadership as being concerned with hands on involvement with teaching and learning processes. The head-teacher acts as the leader in terms of pedagogy and instruction rather than taking a more hands-off role concerned more strongly with administration, and has been described as those actions that a principal takes, or delegates to others, to promote growth in student learning and making instructional quality the top priority of the school and brings that vision to realisation.

Daresh and Ching-Jen (1985) describe instructional leadership as principal behaviours affecting learning and teaching directly and indirectly. An efficient instructional leader, by providing an effective teaching and learning environment (Celik, 2000; Hallinger & Murphy, 1987) would increase the quality of education at schools (Marks & Printy, 2003), move the schools towards the ideal position and increase student achievement (Sezgin, 2002).

It has been characterised by some scholars as a directive and top-down approach to school leadership (Barth, 1990). Hallinger (2005) states that instructional leadership has come into prominence with the increase in the expectations from schools and the efforts to establish a more accountable school system and it has drawn considerable interest of researchers.

Lee (1991) observes that, among other things, providing instructional leadership requires the administrator to be involved with issues of curriculum and classrooms instructional practices. He maintains that the typical ways in which principals enact their instructional leadership roles is by visiting and observing classrooms to carry out instructional supervision.

Hallinger (2003) backs up Lee's (1991) observation above by stating that instructional leaders lead from a combination of expertise and charisma. They are hands-on principals, 'hip-deep' in curriculum and instruction, and unafraid of working with teachers on the improvement of teaching and learning (Cuban, 1984; Hallinger & Murphy, 1986). They are goal-oriented, focusing on the improvement of student academic outcomes (Hallinger, 2003). Lee (1991) stresses that classroom observations are the most direct and legitimate opportunity a principal has to influence positively the instructional practices of

teachers in the school. Instructional leadership emphasises the principal's coordination and control of instruction (Cohen & Miller, 1980).

Conclusions from research on Instructional Leadership indicate that school principals contribute to school effectiveness and student achievement indirectly through actions they take to influence what happens in the school and in classrooms (Hallinger, 2003). The most influential avenue of effects concerns the principal's role in shaping the purposes of the school (Bamburg & Andrews, 1990; Goldring & Pasternak, 1994). The actual role that principals play in mission building is influenced by features of the school context such as socio-economic status and school size (Hallinger & Heck, 2002; Hallinger & Murphy, 1986).

In a study conducted in over 200 schools with over 2,500 teachers, Andrews et al., (1986) and Andrews & Sober (1987) found that high achieving schools are positively correlated with strong instructional leadership. In schools where teachers perceive their principals to be strong instructional leaders, student achievement scores in reading and mathematics exhibit significantly greater gains than in schools operated by principals who are perceived by teachers as average or weak instructional leaders (Andrews et al., 1986, & Andrews et al., 1987).

Andrews (1991) suggests that improvement of instruction can be accomplished through the behaviours attributed to instructional leaders. Harries (1975) defines improvement of instruction through supervision as what school administrators do with adults and things to maintain or change the school operation in ways that directly influence the teaching process employed to promote pupil learning. Hence, supervision is defined here as everything the principal does while interacting with staff.

Andrews (1989) identifies four areas of strategic interaction and these provide a framework for examining the supervisory behavior that enables the principal to go beyond routine management and make a difference in student achievement.

a) Resource Provider

The effective principal has the ability to “Marshall Personnel, district and community resources to achieve the vision and goals of the school” (Smith & Andrews, 1989). In the larger sense, the principal becomes a broker of people with resources that would help them provide instruction. To perform the brokering function, the principal, through classroom visits, needs to identify when teachers are doing the right things and provide opportunities for those teachers to share ideas through staff development activities and other formal and informal professional conversations (Andrews et al., 1991).

As a resource provider, the principal knows the strength and interest of each adult in the school and can assign people roles based on this information. The principal’s genuine concern for the health, welfare, and continued professional and personal growth of each staff member becomes a symbol of persons caring about one another in the school environment. When the principal walks through a classroom, chats with faculty members in the lounge, or arranges for faculty visitations to and from other schools, the principal is engaged in supervision (Andrews et al., 1991).

Sergiovanni (1990), as cited in Andrews et al., (1991), maintains that the effective resource provider, knowing the talents of those supervised, can provide the professional staff with options by the way they are placed in the organisation. The principal also could match each staff member’s needs to staff development opportunities.

By encouraging staff members to analyse their strengths and use those strengths to build satisfaction in their professional role, the principal could create a sense of family and mutual vision. Only when faculty feels secure in their environment would they be willing to take risks or help the resource provider in nurturing creative approaches to change (Johnson & Johnson, 1989; Smith & Andrews, 1989).

b) Instructional Resource

The principal knows the technology of teaching and learning, knows what good instruction entails, and can accurately assess a teacher's effectiveness based on the criteria of good instruction. The principal can help teachers analyse what enhances student success. The principal knows how students learn and what types of interactions will help them to achieve success. The principal not only diagnoses good teaching but also provides the teacher with feedback that enables professional growth.

Other behaviours encouraged by principals who act as instructional resources include using staff meetings as avenues for instructional growth, observing or being sure that all teachers are observed daily, conferencing with teachers about their teaching practice, helping teachers understand and analyse data collected during classroom observations, encouraging peer coaching activities, requiring goal setting activities of all staff members, annually evaluating school progress towards goals, and setting the goals for the upcoming year (Smith & Andrews, 1989).

Minton (1984), as cited in Andrews et al., (1991), in her advanced supervision model, encourages activities such as assessing needs of certain groups or departments to better focus staff development on those group's particular needs. Hunter (1985) emphasises

the importance of using faculty meetings as mini staff development sessions for improving instruction and, ultimately, student achievement.

Another important activity of the principal as an instructional resource is to assess the school's ability to meet curriculum goals by interpreting information from sources such as standardised or criterion referenced tests. Principals should be prepared to interpret and communicate results for faculty and community and to develop interventions designed to identify strength and minimise weaknesses. As instructional resource, principals see the performance of the school as both a function of good organisational processes and achievement of expected outcomes (Andrews et al., (1991: p. 99).

c) Communicator

In order for teachers to understand the principal's conception of what the right things are, s/he must ensure that those things are clearly communicated to them. A school's vision, sense of mission, and culture are directly related to the beliefs of the principal. The principal must communicate to staff fundamental notions such as: (a) all students can learn and succeed; (b) in schooling, success breeds success; (c) schools can enable students to be successful; and, (d) clearly defined learner outcomes determine instructional programs and decisions (Andrews et al., 1986). This ties up well with Grady's (1990) observation that effective leaders have a strong sense of direction for their organisation and skillfully employ strategies to communicate that direction to both the organisation and community.

The activities of the principal who is an effective communicator include articulating the vision for the school in three different ways – to individuals, to small and/or large groups, and to those affiliated with the school either internally or externally (Andrews et al., (1991). Sergiovanni (1984) describes communication of the vision as “purposing.”

Purposing is a process that emphasises modeling important goals and behaviours in such a manner that it signals to others what is important in the school (Bennis, 1989; Smith & Andrews, 1989).

Smith & Andrews (1989) hold that the abilities to manage conflict resolution, engage in problem solving, and cooperate and share with others become critical attributes of an effective communicator. An effective instructional leader helps teachers do the right things by using structured listening, that is, listening by posing questions that elicit feelings and beliefs, rather than simply accepting at face value what has been said by the teacher (Andrews et al., 1989).

An effective communicator includes speaking and writing clearly and concisely; displaying good organisational skills in written and oral communication; carefully planning staff meetings; publicising and often referring to school goals; giving written recognition of accomplishments to students, staff, and parents; and articulating the mission of the school and their principal's expectations for their performance (Smith & Andrews, 1989).

d) Visible Presence

To be an effective supervisor, the principal must "show up." The principal's presence is felt in every area of the school's activities. Being "in touch" for the effective principal does not mean producing memos or position papers (Smith & Andrews, 1989). As noted by Peters (1987), "You are out of time with the times if you are in the office more than a third of the time" (p. 422).

Face-to-face, informal verbal exchanges are preferred by effective principals as a way to advance the vision, mission, and ultimately the culture of the school. In schools where student achievement is high, principals expect and get staff members to give their

personal time. In schools where student achievement is low, teachers either do not give their personal time or, if they do, they expect payment for their effort. The effective principal's presence is felt throughout the school as the keeper of the vision (Smith & Andrews, 1989). Peters (1987) argues Management by Wondering Around (MBWA) has become almost a cliché in management circles. He explains it succinctly, as the vehicle that "makes possible the teaching of values to every member of the organisation. Listening, facilitating, teaching and reinforcing values, thus MBWA is the technology of leadership" (p. 31).

Andrews et al (1991) agrees by observing that to create a visible presence in day-to-day activities, principals must model behaviours consistent with the school's vision; live and breathe their beliefs in education; organise resources to accomplish building and district goals; informally drop in on classrooms; make staff development activities a priority; and, most of all, help people do the right things and reinforce those activities.

Hallinger (2000) proposes three dimensions of the instructional leadership construct:

a) Defining the school's mission

Two functions are carried out here, and those are framing and communicating the school's goals. These functions concern the principal's role in working with staff to ensure that the school has clear, measurable goals that are focused on the academic progress of its students. It is the principal's responsibility to ensure that these goals are widely known and supported throughout the school community. While this dimension does not assume that the principal defines the school's mission alone, it does assume that the principal's responsibility is to ensure that the school has a clear academic mission and to communicate it to staff (Hallinger, 2003).

In schools where student achievement is high, the principal possesses a vision of what a school can become. The principal has a way of getting people to accept that vision as their own, rather than just paying lip service to a catchy slogan or phrase. People commit to the mission because a trust relationship permeates the interactions of the school. The strong instructional leader gains the mantle of leadership from those who are supervised (Andrews, Basom & Basom, 1991).

b) Managing the instructional program

This dimension focuses on the coordination and control of instruction and curriculum. It incorporates three leadership functions: supervising and evaluating instruction, coordinating the curriculum, monitoring student progress. These functions, more so than the functions in the other dimensions, require the leader to be deeply engaged in the school's instructional development. Hallinger & Murphy (1995) observe that in larger schools, it is clear that the principal cannot be the only person involved in leading the school's instructional programme. Yet this framework assumes that development of the academic core of the school is a key leadership responsibility of the principal.

c) Promoting a positive school learning climate

This includes functions such as protecting instructional time, promoting professional development, maintaining high visibility, providing incentives for teachers and learners. This dimension conforms to the notion that effective schools create an 'academic press' through the development of high standards and expectations and a culture of continuous improvement. It is the responsibility of the instructional leadership to align the school's standards and practices with its mission and to create a climate that supports teaching and learning.

Hallinger's (2003) observation above coincides with Hallinger's & Heck's, (1996a, 1996b) opinion that instructional leadership influences the quality of school outcomes through alignment of school structures (e.g., academic standards, time allocation, and curriculum) with school's mission. It seeks to influence conditions that directly impact the quality of curriculum and instruction delivered to students in classrooms (Cuban, 1988).

Andrews, Basom & Basom (1991) maintained that as an instructional leader, the principal focused less on doing things right and more on "doing right things," the things we know can help improve student achievement.

McWan (2000) identifies seven steps to Effective Instructional Leadership

- Establish clear instructional goals;
- Be there for your staff;
- Create school culture and climate conducive to learning;
- Communicate the vision and mission of your school;
- Set high expectations for your school;
- Develop teacher leaders;
- Maintain positive attitudes towards students, staff, and parents.

2.5 School Leadership and Teacher Satisfaction

Mulford (2008), advocates that leaders' effects tend to be indirect rather than direct because they work with and through their staff, in particular teachers. Teachers have the greatest effect on pupil's learning, followed by leadership.

Mulford (2008) cites a research conducted in the UK's Institute of Public Policy Research (West & Patterson, 1999) which concludes that an employee's satisfaction with their work and a positive view of the organisation, combined with relatively extensive and

sophisticated people-management practices, are the most important predictors of the future productivity of companies. The people-management practices include ones that concentrate on enabling staff to actually enjoy their work rather than feel oppressed by it; ones that encourage questioning and thinking; ones that develop cooperation through investing in social capital and mutual trust within the organisation.

Mulford, furthermore, indicates that the study carried out by Troman (2000) concludes that the intensification of teachers' work makes teachers complicit in eroding positive staff relationships (2008). Mulford (ibid) further observes that changing trust relations in high modernity (including public distrust of expert systems, professionals) are found to be shaping the social relations of low-trust schooling and impacting negatively on teachers' physical and emotional wellbeing and their collegial professional relations.

Mulford, however, maintains that school leaders can be a major influence on such school-level factors as well as help buffer against the excesses of the mounting and sometimes contradictory external pressures (2008). Mulford (ibid) cites the analytical framework for OECD's Attracting, Developing and Retaining Effective Teachers' Project (OECD, 2002) which argues that "A skilled and well-supported leadership team in schools can help foster a sense of ownership and purpose in the way that teachers approach their job...conferring professional autonomy to teachers will enhance the attractiveness of the profession as well as career choice and will improve the quality of the classroom teaching practice," (p. 8).

In contrast, as cited by Mulford (2008), Blasé and Blasé's (2002), study of 50 exemplary teachers in USA and Canada who believed they experienced significant principal mistreatment found that the adverse effects include early and long term psychological and

emotional problems, physical and physiological problems, damaged schools, and ultimately leaving the job. Unfortunately these researchers also found that workplace abusers often target the bold, best and brightest teachers.

2.5.1 Leadership and Teacher Role/Performance

Riley & Louis (2000), as cited in Mulford (2008), observe that in decentralised school settings principals have the autonomy to develop two very different leadership models:

- a more hierarchical and directive model, or
- a more inclusive model which brings teachers in particular, and the local school community into the frame.

Mulford (2008) refers to research on decision making in Australian primary and secondary schools that found that the more positively teachers view the decision making in the school, the higher the degree of influence and control they perceive to be exerted by education staff groups in the school.

Mulford further stresses that the analysis of the data base in the aforesaid Australia research shows that where decision making is perceived by teachers in secondary schools as collegial, cooperative and consultative and providing adequate opportunities for participation it would be more likely to lead to positive student perceptions about their school and teachers as well as perceptions about relationships and their own performance than where decision making is more top-down, executive, or does not foster widespread teacher involvement (2008).

Mulford (2008) maintains that teachers will be attracted to, and stay in the profession if they feel they belong and believe they are contributing to the success of their school and

students. Louis & Kruse (1995), as cited in Mulford (ibid), indicate that school-level leadership has a role to play in the development of a professional community.

Hargreaves (2000), cited in Mulford (2008), stresses that teacher morale, efficacy, conditions of work, and professional autonomy have all been shown to be crucial to the emotional lives of teachers. In the same vein Day et al. (2000), as cited in Mulford (ibid), observes that there is no doubt that teachers themselves prefer principals who are honest, communicative, participatory, collegial informal, supportive and demanding and reasonable in their expectations with a clear vision for the school – principals who work ‘with’ rather than ‘through’.

Day, Harries, Hadfield, Tolley & Beresford (2000) conclude that research findings from diverse countries and different school contexts have revealed the powerful impact of leadership processes related to school effectiveness and improvement. ... Essentially, schools that are effective and have the capacity to improve are led by head-teachers who make a significant impact and measurable contribution to the effectiveness of their staff.

MacBeath (1998) refers to research on school leaders in Denmark, Scotland, England and Australia and identifies a number of characteristics of effective school leaders including “Good leaders are in the thick of things, working alongside their colleagues”, “respecting teachers’ autonomy, protecting them from extraneous demands”, “look ahead, anticipate change and prepare people for it so that it doesn’t surprise or dis-empower them,” (p. 63).

On the other hand, Durland and Teddlie (1996) posit a ‘Centrality-Cohesiveness Model of Differentially Effective Schools’. Differentially effective schools can be distinguished by the cohesiveness of the staff (‘webbed’ versus ‘stringy’) and the centrality

of the leadership within the school. Durland et al (ibid) further observe that ‘well-webbed’ structures and ‘central’ leadership are found to be more effective than those based on cliques, or ‘stringy’ structures, and a perceived lack of leadership.

2.6 Characteristics of High-Performing/Successful High Schools

Researchers have found that high-performing schools do not rely on one single thing to ensure high student performance, but on a number of a combination of common characteristics (Edmonds, 1979; Lezotte, 1991). Bergeson (2007) and Mortimore, Hillman & Sammons (1995) identify a list of characteristics synonymous with high-performing schools.

2.6.1 Clear and Shared Focus (Goals).

Everybody knows where they are going and why. The focus is on achieving a shared vision, and all understand their role in achieving the vision. The focus and vision are developed from common beliefs and values, creating a consistent direction for all involved.

Mortimore (1995) adds by observing that research has shown that schools are more effective when staff build consensus on the aims and values of the school, and where they put this into practice through consistent and collaborative ways of working and of decision-making. Lee, Bryk & Smith (1993) expand by observing that such elements of community as cooperative work, effective communication, and shared goals have been identified as crucial for all types of successful organisations, not only schools.

Mortimore (1995) identifies three elements under shared vision and goals:

2.6.1.1 *Unity of Purpose.*

Most studies of effective organisations emphasise the importance of shared vision in uplifting aspirations and fostering a common purpose. Mortimore (1995) further states that

both school effective research and evaluations of school improvement programs show that consensus on the values and goals of the school is associated with improved educational outcomes. Rutter (1979) on the other hand, stresses that the atmosphere of a school “will be greatly influenced by the degree to which it functions as a coherent whole” and they found that a school wide set of values were conducive to both good morale and effective teaching.

Similarly, Edmonds (1979) emphasises the importance of school-wide policies and agreement amongst teachers in their aims. Unity of purpose, particularly when it is in combination with a positive attitude towards learning and towards the pupils, is a powerful mechanism for effective schooling (California, 1980). Cohen (1983) also highlights the need for clear, public and agreed instructional goals.

In their discussion of Catholic schools’ relatively greater effectiveness in promoting students’ academic and social outcomes in the US context, Leek, Bryk & Smith (1993) draw attention to the importance of strong instructional norms and shared beliefs producing an educational philosophy that is well aligned with social equity aims. In Northern Ireland, Caul (1994) also concludes that more effective schools share common goals including a commitment to quality in all aspects of school life and clear sets of organisational priorities.

2.6.1.2 Consistency of Practice.

Mortimore (1995) stresses that related to the notion of consensus amongst staff is the extent to which teachers follow a consistent approach to their work and adhere to common and agreed approaches to matters such as assessment, and the enforcement of rules and policies regarding rewards and sanctions. He further maintains that in schools where teachers adopt a consistent approach to the use of school curriculum guidelines there is a positive impact on the progress of pupils.

Rutter et. al. (1979) for example, focus in particular on consistent approaches to discipline, and demonstrates that pupils are more likely to maintain principles and guidelines of behaviour when they understand the standards of discipline to be based on general expectations set by the school, rather than the whim of the individual teacher. The authors also points to the importance of teachers acting as positive role models for the pupil, in their relationships with pupils and other staff and in their attitude to the school (Mortimore, 1995). In his study of Welsh schools, Reynolds (1979) also draws attention to the importance of avoiding a rigid and coercive approach to discipline.

2.6.1.3 Collegiality and Collaboration.

Rutter et al (1979) extends his stance on shared vision and goals by observing that collegiality and collaboration are important conditions for unity of purpose. He argues that effective schools tend to have a strong input from staff into the way that school is run. For example, he argues that pupil success is greater in schools with a decision-making process in which all teachers feel that their views are represented and seriously considered.

To some extent, the contribution to achievement comes through a strong sense of community among staff and pupils, fostered through reciprocal relationships of support and respect (Wilson & Corcoran, 1988). It also comes through staff sharing ideas, observing each other and giving feedback, learning from each other, and working together to improve the teaching programme (Mortimore, 1995).

Bergeson (2007) maintains effective schools boasts strong teamwork among teachers across all grades and with other staff. He stresses that everybody is involved and connected to each other, including parents and members of the community, to identify problems and work on solutions. Levine (1985) explains that a high level of collegiality replaces the

prevailing isolation in most effective schools. He opines that teachers view teaching as shared work, and they have a broader understanding of the teaching role. It includes participating in building-level decision making, planning, and assessment of needs (Levine, 1985). He further maintains that learning is not confined to students or beginning teachers; all faculty members are expected and encouraged to experiment, to learn from each other, to evaluate themselves, and to experiment with different methodologies and materials.

2.6.2 High Standards and Expectations for all Students.

Teachers and staff at effective schools believe that all students can learn and meet high standards. While recognising that some students must overcome significant barriers, these obstacles are not seen as insurmountable. Students are offered an ambitious and rigorous course of study.

Mortimore (1995) notes that positive expectations of pupil achievement are one of the most important characteristics of effective schools. He further stresses that evidence suggests that if teachers set high standards for their pupil, let them know that they are expected to meet them, and provide intellectually challenging lessons to correspond to these expectations, then the impact on achievement can be considerable.

2.6.2.1 High Expectations all Round.

Mortimore (1995) maintains that studies and review articles in several countries have shown a strong relationship between high expectations and effective learning. Levine & Lezotte (1990) expands that high expectations have also been described as a crucial characteristic of virtually all unusually effective schools described in case studies.

Mortimore (1995) stresses here that high expectations correspond to a more active role for teachers in helping pupils to learn and a strong sense of efficacy.

Murphy (1989) concurs that high expectations can be operationalised in a context where there is a strong emphasis on academic achievement, where pupils' progress is always monitored, and where there is an orderly environment, conducive to learning. He adds that high expectations are more effective when they are a part of a general culture which places demands on everyone in the school, so that, for example, the head-teacher has high expectations for the performance and commitment of all of the teachers.

2.6.2.2 Communicating Expectations.

Bandura (1992) observes that the attitude of a teacher being communicated to pupils and the consequent effect on their self-esteem act on pupil performance. Mortimore (1995) expands that even if teachers do not believe that success is possible, conveying conviction that achievement can be raised can have a powerful effect. Teachers may need to monitor either or both their beliefs and behavior to make sure to that this takes place (Bandura, 1992). It should also be noted that raising expectations is an incremental process and demonstrated success plays a critical role (Wilson & Corcoran, 1988). Reinforcing this success through praise (positive reinforcement) is a key opportunity for communicating high expectations (Mortimore et al. 1995).

2.6.2.3 Providing Intellectual Challenge.

Mortimore et al. (1995) argues that there seems little doubt that a common cause of under-achievement in pupils is the failure to challenge them. He stresses that the implications of this are that when schools have high expectations of their pupils they attempt, wherever possible, to provide intellectually challenging lessons for all pupils in all classes. This approach has been shown by several studies to be associated with greater effectiveness (Mortimore et al., 1995).

Tizard, Blactford, Burke, Farquhar & Plewis (1988) found out that teachers' expectations of both individual pupils and of classes as a whole has a strong influence on the content of lessons, which to a large extent explains differences in curriculum between classes with similar intakes. These expectations are not just influenced by academic considerations but also by the extent to which a child or class was "a pleasure to teach" (Mortimore, et al., 1995). Mortimore et al., (1988) in their study of the junior years of primary schools conclude that in classes where students are challenged, progress is greatest. They particularly mention the importance of teachers using more higher-order questions and statements and encouraging pupils to use their creative imagination and powers of problem-solving.

2.6.3 Effective School Leadership.

Effective instructional and administrative leadership is required to implement change processes. Effective leaders proactively seek needed help. They nurture an instructional programme and school culture conducive to learning and professional growth. Effective leaders have different styles and roles – teachers and other staff, including those in the district office, often have a leadership role (Bergeson, 2007).

Gray (1990) adds that the importance of the head-teacher's leadership is one of the clearest of the messages from school effectiveness research. He draws attention to the fact that no evidence of effective schools with weak leadership has emerged in reviews of effectiveness research.

Mortimore (1995) upholds that it is also about the role leaders play, their style of management, their relationship to the vision, values and goals of the school, and their approach to change. He further stresses that no simple style of management seems

appropriate for all schools; principals must find the style and structures most suited to their own local situation. Mortimore (1995) identifies three characteristics associated with successful leadership: strength of purpose, involving other staff in decision-making and professional authority.

2.6.3.1 Firm and Purposeful.

Effective leadership is usually firm and purposeful. Mortimore (1995) maintains that most case studies have shown the head-teacher (principal) to be the key agent bringing about change in many of the factors affecting school effectiveness. Sammons & Hillman (1994c) report that in effective schools, heads place a great emphasis on recruitment and also point to the importance of consensus and unity of purpose in the school's senior management team.

Levine & Lezotte, (1990) add that another aspect of firm leadership is brokerage, the ability to mediate or 'buffer' the school from unhelpful change agents, to challenge and even violate externally-set guidelines. They stress that principals should engage efforts to obtain additional resources, for example through grants, or contribution from local business and the community. In the same vein Purkey & Smith (1983), add that improving many of the school effectiveness factors or making fundamental changes may require support from outside agencies, such as local education authorities, universities or consultants, and successful leaders will establish and sustain regular contact with these networks. However, the message from school improvement programmes, synthesised most exhaustively by Fullan (1991), is that effective change comes from within a school.

2.6.3.2 A Participative Approach.

Mortimore (1995) observes that another feature of effective head-teachers is the sharing of leadership responsibilities with other members of the senior management team and the involvement more generally of teachers in decision-making. Mortimore et al. (1988a), in the study of primary schools mention, in particular, the involvement of the deputy head in policy decisions, the involvement of teachers in management and curriculum planning, and consultation with teachers about spending other policy decisions, as all being correlates of school effectiveness. This is tied to another important characteristic of a school: the extent to which its culture is a collaborative one where shared vision and goals are seen (Mortimore (1995). He concurs that in larger primary and secondary schools there may be an even greater need for delegation of responsibilities of leadership.

Smith & Tom (1989) in their study of secondary schools stress the importance of leadership and management by heads of departments, a finding which has been borne out by recent research showing substantial differentials in departmental effectiveness within schools. In case studies in Northern Ireland, Caul (1994) draws attention both to the need for clear leadership and delegated authority. His study notes the importance of good middle managers in the school at head of department level.

In summing up the first two features, Mortimore et al. (1995) point out that effective leadership requires clarity, avoidance of both autocratic and over-democratic ways of working, careful judgment of when to take an autonomous decision and when to involve others, and recognition of the efficacy of the leadership role at different levels of the school. They maintain that such leadership is also important for the development and maintenance of a common school mission and a climate of shared goals.

2.6.3.3 The Leading Professional.

The head-teacher has to be a leading professional and this implies involvement in and knowledge about what goes on in the classroom, including the curriculum, teaching strategies and the monitoring of pupil progress (Rutter et al, 1979). Murphy (1989) adds that in practice this requires the provision of a variety of forms of support to teachers, including both encouragement and practical assistance.

Mortimore et al (1988a) expands by stating it also involves the head projecting a high profile through actions such as frequent movement through the school, visits to the classroom and informal conversation with the staff.

2.6.4 Concentration on Teaching and Learning.

According to Mortimore (1995) although the teaching and learning endeavours are the obvious activities in an effective school, research suggests that schools differ greatly in the extent to which they concentrate on their primary purpose.

Cohen (1983) notes that school effectiveness is clearly dependent upon effective classroom teaching. He stresses that it is clearly vital for schools and teachers to focus on the quality as well as the quantity of teaching and learning which takes place.

2.6.4.1 Maximisation of Learning Time.

Some studies have examined the use of time in schools and a number of measures of learning time have been shown to have positive correlations with pupil outcomes and behavior. The measures include:

- Proportion of the day devoted to academic subjects (Coleman et al, 1981), or to particular academic subjects (Bennett, 1978).
- Proportion of time in lessons devoted to learning (Brookover et al, 1979), or to interaction with pupils (Mortimore et al, 1988a).

- Proportion of teachers' time spent on discussing the content of work with pupils as opposed to routine matters and the maintenance of work activity (Alexander, 1992).
- Teachers' concern with cognitive objectives rather than personal relationships and affective objectives, (Evertson, et al, 1980).
- Punctuality of lessons, (Rutter, 1979).

Levine & Lezotte (1990) demonstrate a clear impact of the maximisation of learning time on effectiveness. Carrol (1989) cautions that time as such is not what counts, but what happens during that time, nonetheless academic learning time and time on task remain powerful predictors of achievement. Mortimore et al, (1995) on the other hand, maintain that the planned and actual curriculum in effective schools is aligned with essential academic learning requirements. He stresses that research-based teaching strategies and materials are used. Staff understands the role of classroom and state assessments, what the assessments measure, and how student work is evaluated (Mortimore et al, 1995).

2.6.4.2 Academic Emphasis.

Mortimore (1995) identifies a number of studies that show effective schools to be characterised by other aspects of academic emphasis such as judged by teachers and pupils through high levels of pupil industry in the classroom through regular setting and marking of homework, with checks by senior staff that this has occurred. Reviews (by the United States Department of Education, 1987) points to the importance of both quantity and quality [appropriateness] of homework set as well as the need for good teacher feedback.

Mortimore (1995) further adds that an important factor influencing academic emphasis concerns teachers' subject knowledge. For example, Bennet, Summers & Askew

(1994) clearly demonstrate that teachers' knowledge of subject content is often limited, particularly in areas such as science. They stress that adequate knowledge of subject is seen as a necessary prerequisite (although not in itself a sufficient condition) for effective teaching and learning. Mortimore (1995), points at academic coverage as also important. For example, Bennet (1992) demonstrates wide variations in curriculum coverage both for pupils within the same class and in different schools.

2.6.5 Purposeful Teaching.

Mortimore et al (1995) maintain that it is clear from the literature that the quality of teaching is at heart of effective schooling. They stress that, of course, this is partly determined by the quality of teachers in the school, and therefore, recruiting and replacing teachers is an important role in effective leadership. They, however, caution that high quality teachers do not always perform to the full potential, and teaching styles and strategies are important factors related to pupil progress. Purposeful teaching has a number of elements:

2.6.5.1 Efficient Organisation.

Several studies have shown the importance of teachers being well-organised and absolutely clear about their objectives. For example, Evertson et al (1980) found positive effects on achievement when teachers feel "efficacy and an internal locus of control", and they organise their classrooms and plan proactively on a daily basis.

Rutter et al (1979) draws attention to the beneficial effects of preparing lessons in advance, and they (1983) later point out that the same more time that teachers spend organising a lesson after it has begun, the more likely it is that they will lose the attention of the class, with the attendant double risk of loss of opportunity to learn and disruptive

behavior. Levine & Lezotte (1990) stresses the importance of appropriate pacing of lessons to make sure that their original objectives are achieved.

2.6.5.2 Clarity of Purpose.

Mortimore (1995) proposes the importance of pupils always being away of the purpose of the content of lessons. He stresses research shows that effective learning occurs where teachers clearly explain the objectives of the lesson at the outset, and refer to these throughout the lesson to maintain focus. These objectives should be related to previous study and to things of personal relevance of the pupils. The information of the lesson should be structured such that it begins with an overview and transitions are signaled. The main ideas of the lesson should be reviewed at the end (Mortimore, 1995).

2.6.5.3 Structured Lessons

A review by Rosenshine & Stevens (1981), highlights the importance of structured teaching and purposefulness in promoting pupil progress. They draw particular attention to effective questioning techniques where questions are structured so as to focus pupils' attention on the key elements of the lesson. Stallings (1975), as cited in Mortimore et al (1995), points out at improvements in pupil outcomes through systematic teaching methods with open-ended questions, pupil answers, followed by teacher feedback. Supporting earlier findings by Galton & Simon (1980), Mortimore et al (1988a) likewise notes positive effects on progress through teachers spending more time asking questions and on work-related communication in their study of junior education. They also found positive outcomes to be associated with efficient organisation of classroom work with plenty for pupils to do, a limited focus to sessions, and a well-defined framework within which a degree of pupil independence and responsibility for managing their own work could be encouraged. They

finally point out that for older groups, greater stress on independence and responsibility is appropriate.

Mortimore (1995) cites a summary of research on effective teachers by Joyce & Showers (1988) that concludes that the more effective teachers:

- Teach the classroom as a whole
- Present information or skills clearly and animatedly
- Keep the teaching sessions task-oriented
- Are non-evaluative and keep instruction relaxed
- Have high expectations for achievement (give more homework, pace lessons faster, create alertness)
- Relate comfortably to students, with the consequence that they have fewer behavior problems.

Scheerens (1992) in his analysis of the international body of effective schools research highlights structured teaching as one of three factors which have been convincingly demonstrated to promote effectiveness. His definition of structured teaching is slightly different from other researchers but it is worth looking at some of the examples of what he means by it:

- Making clear what has to be learnt;
- Splitting teaching material into manageable units for the pupils and offering these in a well-considered sequence;
- Much exercise material in which pupils make use of ‘hunches’ and prompts;
- Regularly testing for progress with immediate feedback of the results.

Scheerens (1992) admits that this exemplification of structured teaching is more applicable to primary schools, in particular in subjects that involve reproducible knowledge. However, he suggests that a modified and less prescriptive form of structured teaching can have a positive effect for the learning of higher cognitive processes and in secondary schools.

2.6.5.4 Adaptive Practice.

Mortimore et al (1995) argues that pupil progress is enhanced when teachers are sensitive to differences in the learning styles of pupils and, where feasible, identify and use appropriate strategies. Armor (1976) in the same vein, stresses that this requires flexibility on the part of the teachers in modifying and adapting their teaching styles.

2.6.6 Frequent Monitoring of Learning and Teaching.

Mortimore et al (1995) are in favor of the motion that well-established mechanisms for monitoring the performance and progress of pupils, classes, the school as a whole, and improvement programmes are important features of many effective schools. He maintains that these procedures contribute to a focus on teaching and learning and often play a part in raising expectations and in positive reinforcement.

(Bergeson, 2007) on the other hand states that a steady cycle of different assessments identify students who need help. More support and instructional time is provided, either during the school day or outside normal school hours. Teaching is adjusted based on frequent monitoring of student progress and needs. Assessment results are used to focus and improve instructional programmes.

Mortimore et al (1995) identify particular benefits from active head-teacher engagement in the monitoring of pupil achievement and progress:

2.6.6.1 Monitoring Pupil Performance.

Researchers in a large British study of primary schools concentrate on a well-established form of monitoring pupil performance. These researchers examine record-keeping by teachers as a form of continual monitoring of the strengths and weaknesses of pupils, combining the results of objective assessments with teachers' judgment of their pupils. In many effective schools these records relate not only to academic abilities but also to personal and social development. The researchers found record keeping an important characteristic of effective schools.

2.6.6.2 Evaluating School Performance.

Scheerens (1992), in a review of school effectiveness research, argues that proper evaluation is an essential prerequisite to effectiveness-enhancing measures at all levels. Evaluating school improvement programmes is particularly important (Scheerens, 1992). For example, Lezotte (1989) emphasises the importance of the use of measures of pupil achievement as the basis for programme evaluation; indeed, this is one of his five factors for school effectiveness.

Mortimore et al (1995) conclude that the feedback and incorporation of monitoring and evaluation information routinely into decision-making procedures in the school ensures that information is used actively. He stresses that such information also needs to be related to staff development.

2.6.7 Pupil Rights and Responsibilities.

A common finding of effective schools research is that there can be quite substantial gains in effectiveness when the self-esteem of pupils is raised, when they have an active role in the life of the school, and when they are given a share of responsibility for their own (Mortimore, 1995).

2.6.7.1 Raising Pupil Self-Esteem.

Levels of self-esteem are significantly affected by treatment by others and are a major factor determining achievement (Helmreich, 1972; Bangura, 1992). They further extend in the case of pupil self-esteem; the attitudes of teachers are expressed in a number of ways: the way they communicate with pupils; the extent to which pupils are accorded respect, and feel they are understood; and the efforts teachers make to respond to the personal needs of individual pupils.

Trisman, Waller & Wilder (1976) found student teacher rapport to have a beneficial influence on outcomes, and a number of other studies have shown positive teacher-pupil relations to be a dimension linked with success (Rutter et al, 1979; Coleman et al, 1982). Mortimore et al (1988) in the same vein found positive effects where teachers communicate enthusiasm to pupils, and where they show interest in children as individuals. They maintain teacher-pupil relationships can be enhanced even out of the classroom. For example, Rutter et al (1979) refer to British studies of secondary schools that found that when they are shared out-of-school activities between teachers, and pupils and where pupils feel able to consult their teachers about personal problems (Rutter et al, 1979), there are positive effects on outcomes.

2.6.6.3 Positions of Responsibility.

Mortimore et al (1995) cite British studies that show positive effects on both pupil behaviour and examination success through giving a high proportion of children positions of responsibility in the school system, thus conveying trust in pupils' abilities and setting standards of mature behavior.

2.6.6.4 Control of Work.

Brookover et al (1979) argues that research shows that pupils respond well when they are given greater control over what happens to them at school, enhancing number outcomes, even at the primary level. A British study of primary schools shows that there are positive effects when pupils are encouraged to manage their work independently of the teacher over short periods of time, such as a lesson or an afternoon (Mortimore et al, 1988).

2.6.8 Supportive Learning Environment.

Bergeson (2007) sees that an effective school has a safe, civil, healthy and intellectually stimulating learning environment. He emphasises students feel respected and connected with the staff and are engaged in learning. Instruction is personalized and small learning environments increase student contact with teachers (Bergeson, 2007). Mortimore et al (195) believe that the ethos of a school is also determined by the climate in which the pupils work i.e., the learning environment. They cite particular features as an orderly atmosphere and an attractive working environment;

2.6.8.1 An Orderly Atmosphere.

Mortimore et al (1995) observes that successful schools are more likely to be calm rather than chaotic places. He cites studies that have stressed the importance of maintaining a task-oriented, orderly climate in schools (Weber, 1971; Stallings & Hentzel, 1978;

Brookover et al, 1979; Edmonds, 1979, 1981; Rutter et al, 1979). Mortimore et al (1988a) also point to the encouragement of self-control amongst pupils as a source of a positive ethos in the classroom, and the disadvantages of high levels of pupil noise and movement for pupil concentration. They maintain that what the research in general shows is not that schools become more effective as they become more orderly, but rather that an orderly environment is a prerequisite for effective learning to take place.

Creemers (1984) also reports on a Dutch research by Schweitzer (1984) which concluded that an orderly atmosphere aimed at the stimulation of learning was related to students' academic achievement. Mortimore et al (1995) reiterate here that the most effective way of encouraging order and purpose amongst pupils is through reinforcement of good practice of learning and behaviour.

2.6.8.2 An Attractive Working Environment.

School effectiveness research suggests that the physical environment of a school can have an effect on both the attitudes and achievement of pupils (Mortimore, 1995). Rutter et al (1979) argues that keeping a school in a good state of repair and maintenance resulted in higher standards of academic attainment and behavior. Rutter (1983) suggests two explanations for this: attractive and stimulating working conditions tend to improve morale; and neglected buildings tend to encourage vandalism. Mortimore et al (1988a) also point to the importance of creating a pleasant physical environment, including display of children's work.

2.6.9 High Levels of Family and Community Involvement.

Effective schools research generally shows that supportive relations and co-operation between home and schools have positive effects (Mortimore, 1995). Bergeson

(2007) found there is a sense all have a responsibility to educate students, not just teachers and school staff. He stresses that families, businesses, social service agencies, and community colleges/universities all play a vital role in this effort.

2.6.9.1 Parental Involvement.

Mortimore et al's (1988a) junior school study found positive benefits where parents helped in the classroom and with school trips, where there was regular progress meetings, where there is a parents' room and where the head-teacher has an open door policy. Annor et al., (1976) add that parental presence in the school buildings, and participation in committees, events and other activities all had positive effects on achievements.

Mortimore (1993) & Coleman (1994) point out that where teachers and parents have similar objectives and expectations for children, the combined support for the learning process can be a powerful force for improvement. Mortimore et al (1995) expand that parents who are involved may expand pupil's active learning time (e.g. by working with children themselves especially for younger children, or by supervising homework) and, in the case of difficulties arising at school, perhaps in attendance or behavior, being more likely to support the school's requirements and standards. As Macbeth (1994) argues, successful schools are likely to be those which not only involve but support and make demands on parents. He further advocates for the more active role for parents in school self-evaluation and development planning.

Coleman et al., (1994) draw particular attention to the interconnectedness of the affective and cognitive domains in the triad of relationships between teacher, parent and students. They argue it is the relationship between the individual teacher and the parent(s)

that is critical in enlisting the home as ally, or rendering the enemy of the educative (or not) activities of the classroom.

2.6.10 A Learning Organisation.

Mortimore (1995) concurs that effective schools are ‘learning organisations’, with teachers and senior managers continuing to be learners, keeping up to date with their subjects and with advances in understanding about effective practice. We use the term ‘learning organisation’ in a second sense which is that this learning has most effect when it takes place at the school itself or is school-wide, rather than specific to individual teachers. The need to become learning organisations is increasingly important given the pace of societal and educational change, (Hopkins, Ainscow & West, 1994).

Southworth (1994) provides a helpful review of the features of a learning school, which stresses the need for learning at five interrelated levels – children’s, teacher, staff, organisational and leadership learning. Mortimore (1995) adds that almost every research study which looks at the impact of staff development on school effectiveness points to the need for it to be school based. For example, Mortimore et al (1988a) find that in-service training courses only have a positive effect on outcomes when they are attended for a reason. Armor et al (1976) concur that staff development in effective schools is generally at the school site, is focused on providing assistance to improve assistance to improve classroom teaching and the instructional programme, and is ongoing and incremental. Bergeson (2007) believes a strong emphasis is placed on training staff in areas of most need. The feedback from learning and teaching focuses on extensive and ongoing professional development. The support is also aligned with the school or district vision and objectives.

Stedman (1987) stresses the importance of training being tailored to the specific needs of staff and being an integral part of a collaborative educational environment. Purkey & Smith (1983) argue studies have stressed the value of embedding staff development within collegial and collaborative planning, and ensuring that ideas from development activities are routinely shared. Mortimore et al (1995) stresses that the factors identified in this school effectiveness review focus on aspects to do with whole school processes (leadership, decision-making, management, goals and expectations and those to do with, and directly related to, classroom organisation and teaching.

Joyce and Showers' (1988) analysis of ways staff development can foster student achievement concludes that a number of education practices ranging across ways of managing students and learning environments, teaching strategies or models of teaching ... can affect student learning.

2.7 Contextualisation of the Study

This researcher explores the role of leadership practices on school effectiveness and student outcomes in successful state high schools in Windhoek. The teachers, and not principals nor management members, at the concerned (sampled) schools evaluate the leadership practices of their principals in relation to the leadership attributes indicated on the questionnaire. They further relate whether or not such leadership practices impact the annual performance of grade 10 learners.

2.8 Conclusion

The leadership theories that are transformational, instructional, and distributed; the characteristics of effective schools and the related activities this study espouses are used to judge the impact leadership has on the annual performance of grade 10 learners in

successful high schools in Windhoek. The literature review is employed in suggesting new leadership strategies, so as informed by the empirical studies this study focuses on.

2.9 Theoretical Framework

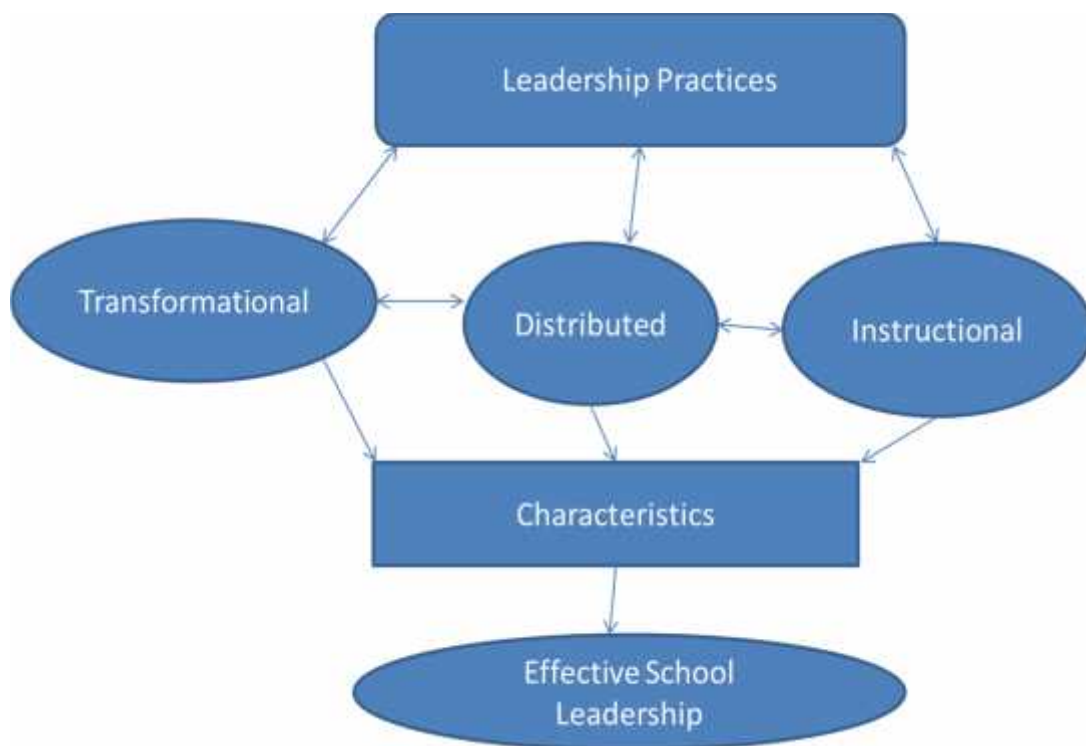


Figure 3: The main variables of the study

The figure above indicates the main variables of this study which are transformational leadership, distributed leadership, instructional leadership and effective school characteristics. The figure also shows that leadership practices are linked or are informed by the three leadership theories mentioned. The leadership theories are reflected in the characteristics synonymous with effective schools. It is through the combination of transformational leadership, distributed leadership, instructional leadership and the characteristics of effective schools that effective school leadership (ESL) is born.

The independent variables of this study are the leadership practices of principals in the successful high schools in Windhoek. The dependent variable is the annual performance of grade 10 learners and the researcher looks at the annual performance grade 10 learners in terms of attaining grade 11 entry. The attributes used to test the leadership practices referred to above are extracted from the literature on the three theories of effective school leadership theories as juxtaposed by the characteristics of effective schools.

The framework of this study, furthermore, addresses the main objective and the sub-questions of the study and comprises of transformational, distributed and instructional leadership theories. These three theories are specifically singled out due to the arguments that were put forward by different scholars in the previous studies that were embarked upon in relation to school leadership and their relevance to the study at hand.

The researcher embraces particularly the leadership activities scholarly contributed by Burns (1978); Bass & Avolio (1998) (transformational leadership); Andrews, Basom & Basom (1991: p. 97); Hallinger & Murphy (1995); Hallinger (2003) and McWan (2000); (instructional leadership) McWan (2000); MacBeath (2003), Fullan (2005, p.6) (Eicher, 2003) & Mulford (2008) (distributed leadership. In like manner, the study still embraces the review of school effectiveness research, especially the summary by different scholars as cited by Mortimore, Hillman & Sammons (1995) and Bergeson (2007).

Organisational leadership has experienced a lot of changes and challenges over the course of time (Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbach, 1999). Verdugo, Greenberg, Henderson, Uribe, Jr. & Schneider (1997) posit that this was mostly triggered by the declaration of “A Nation At Risk” in 1983, coupled with the rate at which the world is technologically changing. Emphasis has shifted from teacher quality, recruitment and retention to school

leadership, learner performance, teacher satisfaction and motivation (Derlin Schneider, 1994; Verdugo, 1997).

Different dimensions of organisational leadership have ensued over the years (Leithwood et al., 1999). Such leadership dimensions are transformational, distributed (participative), instructional, moral, managerial and contingent (Leithwood et al., 1999). Even though these dimensions of organizational leadership might have relationship with learner performance in the school system, the researcher does not intend to co-opt all of them in this study. Only transformational, distributed and instructional leadership skills are studied in relation to the impact of leadership practices on the annual performance of grade 10 learners in successful Windhoek schools.

Transformational leadership is defined by Leithwood et al., (1999) as the type of leadership that is concerned with the development of the leader and the led. A leadership that brings about changes in the resources and purposes of the parties (leaders and the led) involved, promoting the growth of leaders and followers alike (Leithwood et al., 1999).

Transformational leaders emphasise the goals and objectives of the organization and then attract or build up follower commitment (Stone et al., 2004). They have the ability to encourage teachers to internalise school goals (Ozaralli, 2003), which in the words of Marsh et al. (1995), inspire and direct the attention and actions of employees, mobilizing effort and motivation. In the school system, this endeavour becomes a call for creativity, innovation and development of skills. In the words of Carless (1998), transformational leaders create and articulate vision, enhance and encourage individual development, propagate and implement participative decision-making, foster cooperation among employees, give regular feedback and promote trust and friendly environment.

Teddlie & Raynolds (2000) explain instructional leadership as being concerned with hands on involvement with teaching and learning processes, and with the head-teacher acting as the leader in terms of pedagogy and instruction rather than taking a more hands-off role concerned more strongly with administration.

Hallinger (2003) agrees with Teddlie & Raynolds (2000) and observes that instructional leaders lead from a combination of expertise and charisma. “They are hands-on principals, ‘hip-dip’ in curriculum and instruction, and unafraid of working with teachers on the improvement of teaching and learning” (p.83). He further describes it as those actions that a principal takes or delegates to others to promote growth in student learning and making instructional quality the top priority of the school and bring that vision to realisation.

Daresh and Ching-Jen (1985) describe instructional leadership as principal behaviors affecting learning and teaching directly and indirectly. An efficient instructional leader, by providing an effective teaching and learning environment (Celik, 2000; Hallinger & Murphy, 1987) would increase the quality of education at schools (Marks & Printy, 2003), move the schools towards the ideal position and increase student achievement (Sezgin, 2002). Hallinger (2003) expands by stating they are goal oriented, focusing on the improvement of student academic outcomes. Instructional leaders emphasize the principal’s coordination and control of instruction (Cohen & Miller, 1980).

Muijs (2011) explains distributed leadership as forms of leadership that involve all staff in leading their own organization. This implies that the practice of leadership is stretched within or across an organization and that there are high degrees of involvement in

the practice of leadership. “I believe strongly that distributed leadership holds the key to the school’s capacity for meeting its complex challenges” (MacBeath, 2003: p.25).

Copland (2003) adds that distributed leadership views leadership as a set of functions or qualities shared across a much broader segment of the school community that encompasses administrators, teachers and other professionals and community members both internal and external to the school. Such an approach imposes the need for school communities to create and sustain broadly distributed leadership systems, processes and capacities (Copland, 2003).

The researcher still juxtaposes the leadership theories referred to above with the characteristics that different studies have concluded are synonymous with effective schools. The teachers are required to indicate their opinion as to whether or not their schools demonstrate similar qualities, or characteristics, as so brought about by the leadership practices of their principals. The researcher should point out that the characteristics of effective schools are well meshed and through them one can easily see the leadership theories principals at effective schools practice.

Bergeson (2007) and Mortimore, Hillman & Sammons (1995) believe that high-performing schools rely on a combination of common characteristics. They characteristics they single out are such as clear and shared focus, high standards and expectations for all students, effective school leadership, concentration on teaching and learning, purposeful teaching, frequent monitoring of learning and teaching, pupil rights and responsibilities, supportive learning environment, high levels of family and community involvement and that they are learning organizations.

2.10 Summary of Key Variables

The next section indicates the summary of the leadership attributes used to test effective leadership practices by headteachers at effective schools in the Windhoek education region. It still includes the attributes used to test the characteristics of effective schools as a consequence of effective leadership practices. It further serves as the theoretical framework that informs the data the researcher collected from the schools as far as the independent variables are concerned.

Table 2.1 Attributes of Leadership Variables

<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; width: fit-content; margin: 0 auto;"> School Leadership Practices / Attributes </div>		
Transformational	Distributed	Instructional
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Tap into followers' intrinsic motivation; -Provides vision and sense of mission; -Communicates vision in appealing way; -Cares about individual followers' concerns; -Provide interesting and challenging tasks; -Stimulate student ethical conduct; -develop and maintain a collaborative, professional school culture; -Fosters teacher development -solve problems in collaboration with teachers; 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> -Support shared and distributed leadership; -more democratic and collaborative in approach; -Emphasizes human-relations oriented features; -considers stakeholders internal and external to the school; -Task or problem situation dictates who leads; -Creates a safe environment for new ventures; -Shares leadership with little control; -Encourages continuous individual and collective learning; -Identifies and delegates 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Principal acts as leader in terms of pedagogy and instruction; - makes instructional quality top priority of the school; -Provides resources; -Knows technology of teaching and learning; -Hands-on principals; -Provide effective learning and teaching environment; -Coordinates and controls instruction; -matches each staff member's needs to staff development opportunities; -Best communicator; - Visible presence;

2.11 A Summary of the Key Characteristics of Effective Schools

The following table provides a summary of relevant research evidence on those concerned with promoting school effectiveness and improvement, and the process of school self-evaluation and review (Mortimore et al, 1995): These are the characteristics synonymous with effective schools and they are the consequences of the leadership theories of transformational, distributed and instructional.

Table 2.2 Characteristics of Effective School

ELEVEN FACTORS FOR EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS	
1 Professional Development	Firm and purposeful A participative approach The leading professional
2 Shared vision and goals	Unity of purpose Consistency of practice Collegiality and cooperation
3 A learning environment	An orderly atmosphere An attractive working environment
4 Concentration on teaching and learning	Maximisation of learning time Academic emphasis Focus on achievement
5 Purposeful teaching	Efficient organization Clarity of purpose Structured lessons Adaptive practice
6 High expectations	High expectations all round Communicating expectations Providing intellectual challenge
7 Positive reinforcement	Clear and fair discipline Feedback
8 Monitoring progress	Monitoring people performance Evaluating school performance
9 Pupil rights and responsibilities	Raising pupil self-esteem Positions of responsibility Control of work
10 Home-school partnership	Parental involvement in their children's learning
11A learning organisation	School-based staff development

2.12 Conclusion

This chapter reviews the literature that informs and provides design options for this academic endeavour. The research activities reviewed for this study contribute much to the current study. However, there is a gap that a plethora of scholarship activities on school leadership have in most cases been carried out in the Western world, where home and schooling conditions are different from those in Southern Africa in general, and Namibia, in particular.

The few studies that have been carried out in Namibia focus, for example, on Educational Assessment in Namibia and on the relationship between principals' managerial ability and school improvement in Namibia (Shilongo, 2004). Although these studies cover school management, there are none that examine the leadership practices and their interrelationship with effective school leadership in successful schools in Namibia. This is what this study set out to achieve.

3. Research Methodology

3.0 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the research methodology that is followed in carrying out this study. It discusses the research design, the population, and the selection of schools, data collection and instrumentation, ethical considerations and data analysis processes.

3.1 Research Design and Approach.

This study is mainly quantitative. This means that data is collected and subjected to methods of reducing such data to objective, assumptions, or hypotheses-driven analyses that culminates in a factual, replicable research outcome (Nunan, 1992). The selection of this approach is necessitated by the fact that the population of interest is large and geographically scattered.

The researcher, therefore, does not have to gather data from the entire population, an endeavour that is neither necessary nor feasible (Gay et al 2009). He has to however select a representative sample, as the procedure is explained further in this chapter. The desire of the researcher, furthermore, is to select a sample to an extent that the results of this study testing that very sample could be generalisable to the entire population.

The results, however, are only generalisable to high schools in the target education region (Windhoek) and not necessarily to all high schools in Namibia. This owes to the fact that it is very difficult to get information from every high school in Namibia. Even obtaining information from a representative sample of all high schools in Namibia is difficult, time-consuming and more expensive effort.

A more realistic approach is to study the role of principalship activities in high schools in one region. It should be observed that by selecting from a more narrowly defined

population, this researcher saves time and money but also loses the ability to generalize about the target population (Gay et al 2009).

The research questions and hypotheses are still investigated by means of quantitative research methods such as structured items (also called closed-ended items) and free response items (Gay et al 2009). In this study, several factors are investigated and analyzed:

- a) The type of leadership practices head-teachers of successful schools employ.
- b) The meaning of school leadership practices in relation to effective school leadership theories.
- c) The characteristics of high-performing, or effective, schools.

To measure the leadership practices in the Windhoek best performing schools, this study embraces particularly the leadership activities scholarly contributed by Burns (1978); Bass & Avolio (1998) (transformational leadership); Andrews, Basom & Basom (1991); Hallinger & Murphy (1995); Hallinger (2003) and McWan (2000); (instructional leadership) McWan (2000); MacBeath (2003), Fullan (2005) (Eicher, 2003) & Mulford (2008) (distributed leadership). The characteristics of effective schools, on the other hand, are measured based on the work of Bergeson (2007) and Mortimore, Hillman & Sammons (1995).

The focus of this study is to assess the leadership practices of head-teachers in successful Windhoek High schools and their characteristics as juxtaposed with performance outcomes. The researcher believed by carrying out this academic endeavour he would, in a way, play a role to national educational reform. He felt he cannot wait for someone to do it for, to use the words of Normore (2006, p.653), “We are the people we have been waiting for”.

The time had come for the researcher to examine the historical evolution of “grassroots movement school leadership model” and its incarnation in the present time (Normore (2006, p.653). The researcher adopted the leadership types enshrined in the literature review and analysed how it could transform one urban school district.

3.2 The Population

The researcher adopted a research approach that engages teachers at the different selected schools. They are the inevitable participants in this study as they are good key informants (that is, collaborators, or even co-researchers) who contribute immensely to the researcher’s understanding of the role leadership practices play in improving the performance of learners in schools. Not only do teachers attest to the success, or failure, of school leadership practices but they play a vital role in the intent of the researcher to describe a given school context, in relation to the phenomenon under study, in depth.

Gay, Mills and Airasian (2009) point out that sampling in quantitative research is the process of selecting a small number of individuals for a study in such a way that the individuals chosen will be good key informants (i.e. collaborators, co-researchers) who would contribute to the researcher’s understanding of a given phenomenon.

The aforesaid referral to school teachers did not necessarily downplay the role that was played by head-teachers to this study. The principals granted permission to the researcher to carry out such research, even motivating teachers to spare time and entertain the paper and pencil endeavour. They helped facilitate and manage the dissemination of questionnaires to the sample and had them back after three days.

3.3 The Selection of Schools and Selecting a Random Sample

The total number of all high schools in the Windhoek Education District was determined through the Directorate of Education in the Khomas region. The education region comprises of 35 public high schools. Given a pool of these high schools in the Windhoek Education Region, the researcher decided on how many he could reasonably deal with in the study.

The records from the Khomas Educational Directorate assisted the researcher select fifteen of the best performing high schools in accordance with their level of achievement during the 2010 to 2012 academic years. These are schools that boasted a pass rate of more than 80% to 100% in terms of grade 10 learners attaining grade 11 entries. These institutions fit the needs of the researcher as his study set out to assess the role of leadership practices in successful Windhoek high schools. They are institution associated with a very good reputation, the recognized success of head-teachers by peers and evidence of improved students' outcomes over time (Gurr et al., 2005).

The researcher then drew ten high schools from the successful fifteen schools using the random sampling technique. This strategy, to use the words of Gay et al (2009), adds credibility to the study although the initial sample was based to purposive selection.

The researcher enlisted the services of principals in the selection of a representative (random) sample. The snowball sampling is first used where the researcher selects the principal and then uses him to select all staff members who have served under his leadership for three or more years. This procedure resulted in the selection of teachers approximated at more than 30 staff members. The activity coincides well with the observation by Gay et al (2009) that snowball sampling refers to a situation where a researcher selects a few people

that fit his or her needs and then use those participants to identify additional participants, and so on, until the researcher has a sufficient number of participants.

The selection of teachers who had served under the same principal for three or more years meant that they had a better view as regards the leadership practices of the incumbent and their participation is therefore reliable. This endeavor, once again, is meant to ensure consistence with the criterion of selecting participants who are experienced, conversant and informative with the research topic.

The simple random procedure was then applied and that saw a total number of fifteen teachers selected from each school. The name of each individual teacher was written on a separate slip of paper, all slips placed in a container and the container was then shaken. Slips were selected from the container until the desired number of fifteen participants was reached.

The researcher considered the “container-select” procedure convenient in this regard, for it could be carried out within the shortest time possible and therefore the participants’ teaching time could not be compromised. These participants volunteered to take part in the simple random activity and voluntarily agreed to take part in this academic endeavor.

The participants had an equal opportunity to be selected for the representative sample and, for example, the probability of having too many females was the same as the probability of having too many males. The differences that occurred were a result of chance and were not the result of the researcher’s conscious or unconscious bias in the selection (Gay et al., 2009).

The simple random sampling procedure was still favored for it was required for the upcoming statistical analyses. These analyses permitted the researcher to make inferences

about a population based on the behavior of the sample. For if samples are not randomly selected, then a major assumption of many statistical analyses is violated, and the inferences made from the research are suspect, (Gay et al., 2009).

3.4 Instrumentation and Data Collection

The researcher developed an initial rapport before carrying out any research activities at schools. Permission, as is the custom, was sought from the Regional Director and then the management of the identified schools. The questionnaire presented 76 (74 closed-ended and 2 open-ended) items to which the participants responded. Sixty-five of the closed-ended items on the questionnaire had to be answered by choosing the preferred option in the “strongly agree / strongly disagree” continuum. Individual teachers were required to respond to a series of statements by indicating whether he or she strongly agrees (SA), agrees (A), is undecided (U), or neutral (N), disagrees (D), or strongly disagrees (SD).

In the questions of section A, participants had to tick the preferred option in the one, four, and ten option list. The ten option list comprised the names of the Windhoek high schools selected for the research endeavor. Each individual participant had to indicate the name of the school at which they were teaching by putting a tick in the appropriate box. The second and third questions of section 1, required the participants to indicate their gender and the period of time they had been working as teachers.

In the questions of section B, the participants were meant to rate the leadership practices of their head-teachers and the characteristics of their schools on a response scale that followed the “strongly agree / strongly disagree” continuum. The section C questions, on the other hand, comprised of unstructured items where the participants had complete freedom of response where questions were posed and the respondent had to construct an

answer. This endeavour, though kept to a minimum, permitted participants greater depth of response and insight into the reasons for responses.

The aforesaid items, in particular, were used to gather standardised information from a large number of (150) teachers on the leadership practices of principals in the ten best performing schools in Windhoek (Leithwood and Montgomery (1985) and Sullins and Mulford (2002). The paper and pencil methods were seen to be favored by this quantitative researcher (Gay et al., 2009).

3.5 Pilot Study

The researcher piloted the questionnaire by administering it to teachers at his school, which was not part of the main study sample. This exercise was necessitated by the fact that ambiguities in the questionnaire items had to be identified and then disambiguated. The exercise still had to give verification as to whether or not the items would require further explanations when administered to the target sample.

3.6 Scoring and Analysing Procedures

This section deals with the aspects of analysis of data collected for this study. One hundred forty three teachers from the 10 schools in the Windhoek Education region participated. After collecting data, the first step involved converting responses into some numeric system, which was scoring quantitative data or categorical organization, which was coding qualitative data (Gay, 2009). The numeric representation of each participant in terms of the name of the school at which they teach, gender, period of teaching time and their professional qualifications were captured and organised in on an excel spreadsheet.

The responses of each respondent, in terms of the sixty-five closed-ended items, were equally captured on the same excel spread sheet and these data were then imported on

SPSS for analysis. These findings were presented in different forms which included descriptive statistics such as frequencies, mean, standard deviation and percentages. The responses of each respondent, as regards the two open-ended items, were categorically organized and entered on the Qualitative Content Analyser (QCA) software for analysis and tabulation. The aforesaid exercise concurs well with Gay’s et.al (2009) statement that after instruments have been scored, the resulting data are tabulated and entered into a spreadsheet, usually on the computer. The tabulation in this study involved organising the data systematically by individual subject and responded is given a title stretching from S1 (of the first responded) to S2 (of the last respondent).

Table 3.6.1 Questionnaire Items (closed-ended)

Leadership Practices	Items
Transformational	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13
Distributed	14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24
Instructional	25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39
Characteristics – Effective School	40, 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65

The above questionnaire items were coded and the responses were quantified using the 1 to 5 point allocation for each response (see D rnyei, 2007). The 1 to 5 point allocation was used in the following way: ‘Strongly disagree’ =1; ‘Disagree’=2; ‘Undecided or Neutral’=3; ‘Agree’=4; ‘Strongly Agree’=5. It should be noted that favorable responses

received the highest scores and the least favorable responses were awarded the lowest scores.

The questionnaire items 1 to 13 were used to test the transformational practices of school leadership and indicated how teachers viewed their principals transformational. The items 14 to 24 were used to indicate how teachers viewed their principals distributed in their practices. In the same vein, the items 25 to 39 were used to indicate how teachers viewed their principals as instructional leaders. The teachers still had to indicate how they viewed their schools effective and items 40 to 65 were used for such a purpose.

3.7 Statistical Techniques

The study made use of descriptive and inferential statistics to analyse the coded data by using SPSS (for closed-ended items only) Version 21. According to D rnyei (2007), descriptive statistics are used to ‘summarise findings by describing general tendencies in the data and the overall spread of scores’.

Inferential statistics are tests that help to determine whether the observed results in the participants can be generalized to the entire population by examining whether the results are powerful enough (D rnyei (2007)). The notion of significance in statistics is measured by using a probability coefficient, which is symbolized by p and it ranges between 0 and +1 ((D rnyei (2007; Selinger & Shohamy, 1989) and the results are normally ‘expressed in a correlation coefficient’ (Seliger & Shohamy, 1989).

In the social and human sciences, a p of $.05$ is acceptable, which means that there is a 95% probability that the outcomes are not to chance. A significant level of 5% formed the basis for determining whether the hypothesis was supported or not. Thus the p value must be less than or equal to $.05$ for it to be considered statistically significant. The

higher the correlation, the closer the relation between the two variables and the more accurate are predictions based on the relation (Gay et al (2009).

This study sought to assess the role of leadership practices in successful high schools. The researcher used Pearson Product-Moment Correlation (represented by r) (see Field, 2009) to establish the strength of association between principal practices and the overall questionnaire item indicated at the end of each section containing attributes designed to test a given form of leadership. For example, the items 1 to 12 were the measures of transformational leadership and were correlated with the variable of transformational leadership, which sought to determine whether or not teachers viewed their principals as scoring high on transformational leadership practices. A Pearson value between .10 and .29 indicates a weak correlation; between .30 and .49 is a medium correlation; and between .65 and 1.00 means a strong correlation. The researcher dropped all those attributes found not to be highly related to the given (independent) leadership variable from any further examination (Gay et al, 2009).

In order to answer the question what role leadership practices played in learner performance in successful state schools in Windhoek, I ran descriptive statistics. The correlation and significance of the principals' practices in relation to the effective education types of leadership had to be established. As mentioned hereinabove, descriptive statistics were used to analyse the 65 closed-ended items on the questionnaire.

3.8 The Qualitative Content Analysis Techniques

The study made use of the Qualitative Content Analyser (QCA), RELEASE v 4 (Starter Version) Vn 10 Oct 2013; to analyze the data gathered via the two open-ended

items on the questionnaire. This is a simple tool Prof Andy Bytheway designed to analyze qualitative data.

It is the tool that subjects text material such as open-ended interview responses, field notes from observation and audio material, (<http://qualanal.wikispaces.com/Welcome>). The data was extracted from the questionnaires, saved in word and the one hundred and forty three respondents were well represented by a unique numbering system, for instance, S1 for responded number one in that order up to S143 the last respondent (.

The important aspects of the qualitative material were identified and then exported to the Qualitative Content Analyzer (QCA). To export the material to the one ran the QCA, Analysis – Load and Chunk up sources. The material was organised into chunks and then arranged into useable categories in relation to the variables that had to be correlated. Data was systematically extracted from the qualitative material to create evidence about the content that built or supported an argument that would persuade this paper’s readers. To access the chunk one ran the QCA, browsing – chunks or categories.

The results of the QCA analysis were linked to that of the SPSS in data discussions where the researcher married his claim, “effective school leadership theories informs leadership practices in successful high schools”, evidence or data obtained from schools and the results imbedded in the preceding studies carried out in school leadership.

3.9 Order of Presentation

The first part of the presentation of the findings is the demographical information of the teachers who took part in this study. The second part discussed the extent to which teachers at each school viewed their principal as a transformational leader in relation to the key transformational test elements as provided for and enshrined in the theoretical

framework of this academic endeavor. Similarly, the third part talked about the level at which teachers at each individual school considered their principal a distributed leader in his/her school principalship activities.

In the same vein, part four of the presentation of the findings to this study looked at how individual participants at each individual school viewed their head teacher as an instructional leader. Part five, on the other hand, discussed the scores of teachers at each individual school in terms of how the participants (teachers) viewed their school as an effective one. Finally, the last section of the presentation exercise presents the findings of the open ended items as so indicated by the participants at each school.

3.10 Ethical Considerations

Permission to conduct the research was sought from the Office of the Director, Khomas Region, and the response to this request was given in writing. Letters seeking for school permission were made to the school principals and their response simply depended on the approval by the Regional Directorate.

The participants were officially and formally asked to be a part of this study through their principals well in advance of the commencement of the study. The researcher approached the principals during school time and discussed what his request was all about. A single Effective School Leadership Questionnaire instrument was handed over to the principal who then discussed the contents of its items with the teachers under his leadership.

The consent of the participants was telephonically communicated through their principals and the consignment of questionnaires was then handed over to the principal. On the question of anonymity, the researcher guaranteed total confidentiality of information and that the information in the questionnaire would be used only for research purposes. The

researcher finally made commitment to provide all the schools that took part in the study with the hard copy of the printed final version of this study.

3. 11 Reliability and Validity of the Research Data

This study strove to achieve, among other crucial aspects, reliability and validity as discussed below.

3.11.1 Reliability.

Reliability is the extent to which the observable and (or empirical) measures that represent a theoretical concept are accurate and stable over repeated observations (Bless, Higson & Sithole, 2013). In other words, it refers to the consistencies of the results from the measuring procedures (Ross, 2005). The consistencies lead to confirmatory of the study by an independent researcher (Ritchie & Lewis, 2003).

Reliability was determined by SPSS (analysis – scales – reliabilities) and, as advised by Sekaran (2000), in this study, coefficients less than 0.6 are considered poor, coefficients greater than 0.6, but less than 0.8, are considered acceptable and coefficients greater than 0.8 are considered good.

3.11.2 Validity.

Validity refers to whether the instruments measure accurately what they intend to measure (Ross, 2005; Hughes, 2003). Ritchie and Lewis (2003) regard validity as the correctness of the evidence or research findings. The researcher set out to assess the role of leadership practices in successful high school in Windhoek, and this focused on effective school leadership previously studied by other scholars.

The questionnaires comprised of attributes that meant to measure the different variables of the study. The attributes measured whether or not those leadership practices

were transformational, distributed and instructional in nature. The instrument, furthermore, looked at the effects of the leadership practices and tested whether or not they correlated with the characteristics of effective schools as enshrined in the literature review of this study.

Validity still considers data collection procedures (Bless et al, 2013). The principals at the schools accepted a single questionnaire first, went through it with teachers, and then called the researcher to drop the whole consignment of questionnaires. The practice of principals accepting a single questionnaire first allowed time for participants to read through the questions and understood exactly what the instrument really meant to test.

4: Research Results

4.0 Introduction

This chapter presents the statistical analysis of data collected for this study, where 143 teachers from the 10 schools in the Windhoek Education region participated. After collecting data, the first step involved converting responses into some numeric system, which was scoring quantitative data or categorical organisation, which was coding qualitative data. The numeric representation of each participant in terms of the name of the school at which they teach, gender, period of teaching time and their professional qualifications were captured and organised in an excel spreadsheet.

The responses of each respondent, in terms of the sixty-five open-ended items, were equally captured on the same excel spread sheet and these data were then imported on SPSS for analysis. These findings were presented in different forms which included descriptive statistics such as frequencies and percentages.

On the other hand, the responses of each respondent, as regards the two open-ended items, were categorically organised on the Qualitative Content Analyzer (QCA) for analysis and tabulation. The aforesaid exercise concurred well with Gay's et.al (2009) insinuation that after instruments have been scored, the resulting data are tabulated and entered into a spreadsheet, usually on the computer. The tabulation in this study involved organizing the data systematically by individual subject.

The first part of this presentation of the findings was the demographical information of the teachers who took part in this study. The second part discusses the extent to which teachers at each school viewed their principals as transformational leaders in relation to the key transformational test attributes as provided for and enshrined in the theoretical

framework of this academic endeavour. Similarly, the third part talks about the level at which teachers at each individual school considered their principal a distributed leader in his/her school principalship activities in all attempts to promote the pass rate of grade 10 learners attaining a grade 11 entry at his/her school.

In the same vein, part four of this presentation of the findings to this study looked at how individual participants at each individual school viewed their head teacher as an instructional leader. Part five, on the other hand, discusses the scores of teachers at each individual school in terms of how the participants (teachers) viewed their school as an effective one. Finally, the last section of this data presentation exercise presents the findings of the open ended items as so indicated by the participants at each school.

4.1 The Demographics of Participants in the Study

The demographical information of the participants in this study paid particular attention to the names of schools, gender of participants, experience and the professional qualifications of them all.

4.1.1 Gender of Participants.

The researcher administered 150 questionnaires to ten successful high schools in the Windhoek Education Region and 143 (95.3%) questionnaires were returned and 7 (4.6%) of them could not be recovered by the researcher. The data on the scored questionnaires indicated that 143 participants took part in the study and 49 (34.3%) were males while 94 (65.7) were females.

Table 4.1 Gender of Participants

		Frequency	Percent
Valid	Male	49	34.3
	Female	94	65.7
	Total	143	100.0

4.1.2 The Teaching Experience of Participants.

The teaching experience of participants ranged from three to more than fifteen years. Ten (7.0%) of the respondents did not score to indicate the number of years they have been serving as teachers. A total of forty nine (34.5%) participants have been teaching for a period of between 3 and 5 years; and a total of forty five (31.5%) participants have been in the teaching profession for a period of between 6 and 10 years. Twenty three of the participants, furthermore, scored that they have been teaching for a period of between eleven and fifteen years, while 16 (11.2%) of the participants indicated they have been teaching for a longer period of more than fifteen years.

4.1.3 The Professional Qualification of Teachers.

The majority (eighty-five in total, 59.4%) of the participants indicated that they were degree holders followed by 35 (24.5%) of the total participants who had attained post graduate qualifications. On the other hand, the minority participants of twenty three (16.1%) were only diploma holders. Refer to table below:

Table 4.2 Professional Qualifications of Participants

	Frequency	Percent
Diploma Holder	23	16.1
Degree Holder	85	59.4
Post Graduate Degree	35	24.5
Total	143	100.0

4.2 Descriptive Statistics for Leadership Theories

As already stated, the researcher set out to analyse the leadership practices head-teachers in successful Windhoek high schools employ and little is known about what leadership theory principals at these schools value. For this reason, this section gives a number of descriptive statistics for the sampled high schools in Windhoek.

As table 4.3 reveals, the principals of the sampled Windhoek high schools value transformational (4.0016), distributed (4.0019) and instructional (4.0401) leadership practices. Thus principals generally ascribe to effective school leadership theories as so stated by scholars cited in the literature review of the study at hand. Table 4.3 further reveals that the participating schools boast characteristics synonymous with effective schools.

Table 4.3 Descriptive statistics of variables for this study

	N	Mean
Transformational	143	4.0016
Distributed	143	4.0019
Instructional	143	4.0401
Characteristics/Effect	143	3.9180
Valid N	143	

The values for each of the three leadership theories, meshed with their effect, range from 1 (of strongly disagree) to 5 (of strongly agree)

The issues related to school characteristics do not receive particular attention from principals, hence the figures for this orientation are slightly smaller (3.9180) than those of the three leadership theories. This result is due to the fact that school characteristics are depended on school leadership practices and teachers do not necessary take independent notice of them in relation to leadership practices. The result indicates that no large differences were found between schools with regard to the effective school leadership theories, for most of the scores for these orientations are all very close to the mean of four (or agree).

4.3 Participants' Scores on Leadership Practices

This subsection presents the specific leadership practices school teachers believed their principals practised in their attempts to see grade 10 results improve. It still presents the findings as regards to how respondents view leadership as the determining or driving factor behind the success of their schools. Furthermore, it presents how those very participants view their schools as boasting characteristics synonymous or associated with effective schools, whether or not such characteristics contribute to the great performance of

the grade 10 learners. These leadership practices, or attributes, are correlated to the independent variables, or leadership theories, of this study.

4.3.1 Descriptive Statistics analysis.

Table 4.4 Descriptive Statistics for transformational practices

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
B2	143	0	5	4.08
B3	143	0	5	4.15
B4	143	0	5	4.06
B5	143	0	5	3.78
B6	143	0	5	4.06
B7	143	0	5	4.08
B8	143	0	5	3.81
B9	143	2	5	3.99
B11	143	0	5	4.01
B12	143	2	5	3.99
Valid N	143			

The table above indicates the mean scores of each of the attributes used to measure the main variable of transformational leadership. In the context at hand however, the description of the scores follows the following pattern: 5 = highest score, and this means that such an attribute almost defines the leadership behavior of principals and is worth recommending for emulation by the underachieving schools; 4-4.99 = high score, equally referring to a common practice by the principal that is fit for recommendation to the poor performing schools; 3-3.99 = satisfactory; the equally distributed practices that could be recommended to underachievers but simultaneously requires the participating schools to engage revamping activities as far as the given attribute is concerned.

The lower set of scores are exclusively meant for the participating schools themselves; 2-2.99 = low mean score, this is the leadership practice that received a bad

score from the participants and signals areas of improvement for the principals at the participating or effective schools; and 1-1.99 = lowest score, this equally matches the preceding one in that it indicates poor scores by the teachers and cannot even be recommended for emulation by the underachievers.

4.3.2 Principal Practices and Transformational Leadership.

The need to explore the relationship between effective school leadership practices and transformational leadership, as juxtaposed with school effectiveness, has been pursued by many scholars as indicated in the literature review. Table 4.5 below indicates correlations between the effective leadership practices of head-teachers at participating Windhoek high schools and the given independent variable of transformational leadership. These items further indicate how participants at each school view their principal as a transformational leader. The attributes that were found not to be highly related to the independent variable of transformational leadership were dropped from further examination (Gay et al., (2009).

**Table 4.5
Leadership Practices and Transformational Leadership**

	B2	B3	B4	B5	B6	B7	B8	B9	B11	B12
Pearson Correlation	.782**	.740**	.704**	.705**	.666**	.728**	.698**	.692**	.630**	.698**
transformational Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
N	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The results of the bi-variate correlation test in the table above indicate attributes that positively correlate with the transformational leadership variable and are significant for further examination in this study. The first cell demonstrates that correlation between B2, “provision of vision and sense of mission”, and transformational leadership $r = .782$, with a

significance of $p = .05$. The second cell B3, “communicate vision in appealing way”, equally shows a strong significant positive correlation with transformational leadership, $r = .740$ with a significance of $p < .05$. If we read further across the matrix to the third cell, horizontally, we find the correlation between B4, “caring about teachers’ individual concerns”, and transformational leadership, $r = .704$ with a significance of $.000$.

If we carry on reading across the matrix to cell number four, horizontally, we deduce that the correlation between B5, “provision of interesting and challenging tasks”, and transformational leadership, $r = .705$ with a significance of $p < .05$. The information in the matrix still shows that the correlation between transformational leadership and B6, “stimulates student ethical conduct”, $r = .666$ with a significance of $.000$.

There is a strong significant positive correlation between transformational leadership attribute of B7, “develops and maintains a collaborative, professional school culture” and the variable of transformational leadership $r = .728$, with a significance of $p < .05$. The attributes of B8, “He fosters teacher development” and B9, “S/He solves problems in collaboration with teachers” show a significant positive correlation with transformational leadership, $r = .698$ and $.692$ respectively; $p = .05$). The horizontal reading of the matrix still shows that the correlation between transformational leadership and the B11 leadership attribute, “fosters teacher/student relationship” $r = .630$ with a significance of $.000$. A close look at cell 10 reveals that the correlation between B12, “solicits new ideas and creative ways of doing things” and transformational leadership $r = .698$ with a significance of $.000$.

4.3.3 Overall transformational

The following table indicates the overall stance participants have as far as the leadership practices of their principals is concerned in relation to transformational leadership

Table 4.6 Practices with overall transformational

		B13	transformational
B13	Pearson Correlation	1	.740**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	143	143
transformational	Pearson Correlation	.740**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	143	143

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The table above indicates that the school principals of effective secondary schools in Windhoek score high on transformational leadership. The B13 attribute, “overall, my principal scores high on transformational leadership”, shows high and significant correlation with the variable transformational leadership = .740, with a significance of .000.

4.4 Participants Scores on Distributed Leadership

The questionnaire, furthermore, is comprised of another set of closed-ended items meant to indicate how participants at each school viewed their principal as a distributed leader. These items, likewise, were designed to demonstrate whether or not the practices of each individual principal are aligned well with the researcher’s theoretical framework, as far as distributed leadership is concerned.

Table 4.7
Descriptive statistics for distributed practices

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
B14	143	0	5	4.03
B15	143	0	5	3.98
B16	143	2	5	3.97
B17	143	0	5	3.86
B18	143	0	5	3.98
B19	143	2	5	4.08
B20	143	1	5	3.73
B21	143	0	5	4.00
B22	143	0	5	4.11
B23	143	0	5	4.15
Valid N	143			

Key: 5 = highest score – highly commendable to underachievers; 4 – 4.99 = high score – commendable to underachievers; 3 – 3.99 = satisfactory – commendable to both participants and underachievers; 2 – 2.99 = low mean score – area of improvement for participating schools; 1 – 1.99 = lowest score – a serious concern for underachievers.

The table above indicates the mean scores of all the leadership attributes befitting to measure distributed leadership. It is evident that all the scores are skewed towards the value of four (of high score). The B23, “S/He considers pupil participation and engagement”, however, has the highest mean score of 4.15 (of high score). This attribute is followed by B22, “S/He identifies and delegates leadership responsibilities”, with the mean score of 4.11 (of high score).

The next attributes in third and fourth are B19, “S/He creates a safe environment for new ventures”, B14, “My principal support shared and distributed leadership”, and B21, “S/He encourages continuous individual and collective learning”, with the mean scores of 4.08, 4.03 and 4.00 (all of high score) respectively. The remaining attributes occupying the remaining positions are equally not bad, for they are all overtly skewed towards the mean score of four, well above the mean of 3.5 (of satisfactory, and recommendable to both effective and ineffective schools).

The distributed form of school leadership, as singled out by scholars such as Fletcher & Kaufer (2003), is equally seen by this researcher as befitting informant to the data gathered from the schools. Table 4.8 below indicates correlations between the effective leadership practices of head-teachers at participating Windhoek high schools and the given independent variable of distributed leadership.

Table 4.8
Leadership practices and distributed leadership

	B14	B15	B16	B18	B19	B21	B22	B23
Pearson Correlation	.691**	.777**	.709**	.715**	.715**	.680**	.622**	.654**
distributed Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
N	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The results of the bi-variate correlation test in the table above indicate a strong positive correlation between the schools’ leadership attributes and the independent distributed leadership variable. If one looks at the first cell, there is a significant positive correlation between B14, “my principal support shared and distributed leadership”, and distributed form of school leadership = .691, with a significance of $p < .05$. If we read

further to the second and ninth cells, horizontally, the table shows a high significant positive correlation when the attribute B15, “S/He is more democratic and collaborative in approach”, is correlated with distributed leadership where $r = .777$, with a significance of $p < .05$.

The leadership attribute B16, “S/He emphasises human-relations oriented features”, is positively correlated to distributed leadership variable, $r = .709$, with a significance of $p < .05$. The table demonstrates significant positive correlation when the two attributes B18, “S/he lets task or problem situation dictate who leads” and B19, “creates a safe environment for new ventures” are correlated with distributed leadership $r = .715$ and $.715$ respectively, with a significance of $p < .05$.

Despite the high degree of similarity in relation between the two attributes, they are considered significant for further analysis of the study, as their relationship is not a consequence of testing similar items but mere coincidence.

There is significant positive correlation between B21, “S/He encourages continuous individual and collective learning” and distributed leadership = $.680$. There is a further significant positive correlation between distributed leadership and B22, “...identifies and delegates leadership responsibilities” = $.622$, with a significance of $p < .05$.

Finally, the table indicates that the leadership attribute of B23, “considers pupil participation and engagement”, equally shows a pattern of strong positive correlation with distributed leadership, $r = .654$, with a significance of $p < .05$.

4.4.1 Overall distributed

The following table indicates the overall stance participants have as far as the leadership practices of their principals is concerned in relation to distributed leadership.

Table 4.9
Practices with overall distributed

		distributed	B24
distributed	Pearson Correlation	1	.776**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	143	143
B24	Pearson Correlation	.776**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	143	143

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The table above indicates that the school principals of effective secondary schools in Windhoek score high on distributed leadership. The B24 attribute, “overall, my principal scores high on distributed leadership practices”, shows high and significant correlation with the variable distributed leadership = .776, with a significance of .000.

4.5 Participants Scores on Instructional Leadership

The ESLQ instrument, in addition, comprised of an extra set of closed ended items, meant to indicate how participants at each school view their principal as an instructional leader. These items, likewise, serve as those attributes designed to test whether or not the practices of each individual principal are instructional in nature.

Table 4.10
Descriptive Statistics for instructional practices

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
B25	143	0	5	3.97
B26	143	0	5	4.15
B27	143	0	5	3.89
B28	143	0	5	4.08
B29	143	0	5	4.15
B30	143	0	5	4.05
B31	143	0	5	3.99
B32	143	0	5	3.79
B33	143	0	5	4.03
B34	143	2	5	4.23
B35	143	1	5	3.99
B36	143	0	5	3.90
B37	143	0	5	4.24
Valid N	143			

Key: 5 = highest score – highly commendable; 4 – 4.99 = high score – commendable to underachievers; 3 – 3.99 = satisfactory – commendable to both participants and underachievers; 2 – 2.99 = low mean score – area of improvement for participating schools; 1 – 1.99 = lowest score – a serious concern for underachievers.

The table above indicates the mean scores of all the leadership attributes befitting to measure instructional leadership. Once again, it is evident that all the scores are slanted

towards the value of four (of high score). The B34, “S/He maintains a visible presence”, however, has the highest mean score of 4.23 (of high score, which is commendable). This attribute is followed by B29, “S/He is a hands-on principal”, and B26, “S/He makes instructional quality top priority of the school”, both with the mean score of 4.15 (of high score).

The leadership practices occupying the third and fourth positions are B30, “S/He provides effective learning and teaching environment”, B33, “S/He is the best communicator”, with the mean scores of 4.05 and 4.03 respectively. The other attributes are equally skewed towards the value of four, averaging a mean score of above 3.5 (of satisfactory) respectively, and occupy the remaining positions in that descending order. The table clearly indicates agreement by the participating teachers that the leadership practices used to measure instructional leadership are interrelated with the variable.

4.5.1 Leadership practices with instructional leadership.

The instructional form of school leadership is singled out by scholars such as Andrews, Basom & Basom (1991); Hallinger & Murphy (1995); Hallinger (2003) and McWan (2000); as very effective in school leadership and is, therefore, equally seen by this researcher befitting to inform the type of data he had to gather from the participating schools.

Table 4.11 below indicates correlations between the effective leadership practices of head-teachers at participating Windhoek high schools and the given independent variable of instructional leadership.

Table 4.11
Leadership practices and instructional leadership

	B25	B26	B27	B29	B30	B31	B32	B33	B34	B35	B36
Pearson Correlation	.652**	.672**	.610**	.682**	.624**	.604**	.605**	.652**	.722**	.657**	.696**
instructional Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
N	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As we begin reading the matrix of table 4.11, cell number one, we realize that B25, “My principal acts as leader in terms of pedagogy and instruction”, significantly correlates with the independent variable of instructional leadership = .652, with a significance $p < .05$. Further reading of the matrix to the second cell, reveals positive correlation when B26, “S/He makes instructional quality top priority of the school”, is correlated with instructional leadership = .672, with a significance of .000.

The B27 attribute, “S/He provides resources”, is seen to be positively correlated with instructional leadership = .610. Furthermore, the B29 attribute, “S/He is a hands-on principal” shows a positive correlation with the independent variable of instructional leadership, $r = .682$, with a significance of $p < .05$. Cell five in the table above shows positive correlation = .624 when B30, “S/He provides effective learning and teaching environment”, is correlated with instructional leadership.

The table proves in cell six that significant positive correlation exists when attributes B31, “S/He coordinates and controls instruction”, and B32, “S/He matches each staff member’s needs to staff development opportunities”, are correlated with instructional leadership = .604 & .605 respectively, with a significance of $p < .05$. The leadership practice B33, “S/He is the best communicator” shows a significant correlation with instructional leadership = .652, with a significance of $p < .05$.

The table still shows a strong significant positive correlation when B34, “S/he maintains a visible presence” is correlated with the instructional leadership variable = .722, with a significance of $p < .05$. A pattern of significant positive correlation can still be read when we focus on cell ten where B35, “S/He manages instructional program” is correlated with the independent variable of instructional leadership = .657, with a significance of $p < .05$. When the leadership practice B36, “S/He develops teacher leaders”, is correlated with the independent variable of instructional leadership, the two result into a significant positive correlation = .696, with a significance of .000.

4.5.2 Overall instructional

The following table indicates the overall stance participants have as far as the leadership practices of their principals is concerned in relation to instructional leadership.

Table 4.12

Practices with overall instructional

		B38	instructional
B38	Pearson Correlation	1	.680**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	143	143
instructional	Pearson Correlation	.680**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	143	143

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The table above indicates that the school principals of effective secondary schools in Windhoek score high on instructional leadership. The B38 attribute, “overall, my principal scores high on instructional leadership practices”, shows high and significant correlation with the variable distributed leadership = .680, with a significance of .000. The table still indicates that leadership practices of principals have a significant impact on the school’s annual grade 10 performance.

4.6 Participant Scores on the Characteristics of Effective Schools

The characteristics of effective schools against which the effects of leadership practices on the schools in this study are measured, are based on the scholarship activities of Mortimore et al (1995), as indicated in the theoretical framework of the study at hand. The ESLQ instrument, additionally, comprised of a further set of closed-ended items meant to indicate how participants at each school view their school as an effective one.

Table 4.13
Descriptive statistics for effective school characteristics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
B42	143	1	5	4.13
B43	143	0	5	3.87
B44	143	0	5	3.75
B45	143	0	5	3.92
B46	143	0	5	3.98
B47	143	0	5	3.94
B49	143	0	5	4.13
B50	143	0	5	4.02
B51	143	0	5	3.99
B52	143	0	5	4.10
B53	143	0	5	3.79
B54	143	0	5	4.02
B55	143	0	5	4.00
B56	143	0	5	3.96
B57	143	0	5	4.13
B58	143	0	5	3.94
B59	143	0	5	3.50
B60	143	0	5	3.35
B61	143	0	5	3.36
B62	143	0	5	3.99
Valid N	143			

Key: 5 = highest score – highly commendable; 4 – 4.99 = high score – commendable to underachievers; 3 – 3.99 = satisfactory – commendable to both participants and underachievers; 2 – 2.99 = low mean score – area of improvement for participating schools; 1 – 1.99 = lowest score – a serious concern for successful schools.

The table above indicates the mean scores of each of the attributes used to measure the variable ‘characteristics of effective schools’. It is clear from the table that all, but two (B60, “Parents are involved in their children’s school activities”, & B61, “There is trust

among the entire staff”), attributes are satisfactory, either slanted towards the mean value of four (of high score, which carries commendable potency) or equals four.

The table shows that three of the attributes indicate a similar high mean score of 4.13, which is a very good score. The attributes that show highest equal mean score are B42, “my principal is a leading professional”, B49, “It focuses on achievement”, and B57, “The performance of our school is usually evaluated”. The remaining fifteen attributes are clearly skewed towards the value of four (of high score - commendable), well above the mean score of 3.05, which is a satisfactory score and recommendable to both the successful and the underachievers.

4.6.1 Participating school effects with characteristics of effective schools.

The items, likewise, serve as attributes designed to test whether or not the characteristics of each individual participating school positively correlated the characteristics of effective schools enshrined in the literature review of this study. Table 4.14 below indicates correlations between the participating school leadership effectiveness and the characteristics of effective schools. The characteristics synonymous with the Windhoek successful high schools, as so viewed by teachers at the sampled schools, are matched to the characteristics of effective schools as enshrined in the literature review of this study.

Table 4.14
Participating school effects and effective school characteristics

	B42	B43	B44	B45	B46	B47	B49	B50	B51	B52	B53	B54	B55	B56	B57	B58	B59	B60	B61	B62
charact	.607**	.663**	.678**	.689**	.682**	.668**	.711**	.771**	.618**	.701**	.749**	.652**	.666**	.646**	.659**	.631**	.709**	.628**	.765**	.676**
S	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
N	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143	143

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

When we start reading the matrix from the first cell, horizontally, we realize that there is a significant positive correlation between B42, “...principal is a leading professional” and effective school characteristics = .607, with a significance of .000. The second cell, on the other hand, indicates significant positive correlation between B43, “We are a staff that is united in purpose”, and effective school characteristics = .663, with a significance of $p < .05$. The further reading of the matrix, horizontally, indicates that there is positive correlation when B44, “We are consistent in purpose” is correlated with the independent attribute of effective school characteristics = .678, with a significance of .000.

Furthermore, the table indicates significant correlation when the two attributes of B45, “Our school boasts an orderly atmosphere” and B46, “Our working environment is very attractive” are correlated with effective characteristics = .689 & .682 respectively, with a significance of $p < .05$. The two attributes are considered significant for this study as they both measure different aspects of effective school characteristics, and their somewhat similar correlation is by mere coincidence. The matrix of the table, cell six, indicates positive correlation between B47, “Our school maximizes learning time” and the effective school characteristics = .668, with a significance of $p < .05$.

If we read the matrix further, we deduce that cell seven demonstrates significant positive correlation = .711 when B49, “It focuses on achievement” is correlated with effective school characteristics. The eighth cell in the matrix, horizontally, continues with a pattern of strong significant correlation when B50, “Activities are effectively organized” is correlated with the variable effective school characteristics = .771, with a significance of $p < .05$. The matrix still shows a significant correlation of .618 when the B51 attribute, “Lessons are well structured with a clear purpose”, is correlated with the characteristics of effective schools. The table shows a further significant positive correlation = .701, with a significance of $p < .05$, when the effect B52, “Expectations are quite high all round”, is correlated with the characteristics of effective schools.

It can be read from the matrix that B53, “All school activities provide intellectual challenge”, resulted into a strong significant positive correlation = .749, with a significance of $p < .05$, when correlated with the characteristics of effective schools. It is still clear from the table, cell 12 & 13, that there is a significant positive correlation when B54, “Expectations are well communicated”, and B55, “The discipline procedures are clear and fair”, are correlated with the variable of effective school characteristics = .652 & .666 respectively, with a significance of $p < .05$.

The table still avails significant positive correlations when B56, “Our performance is well monitored”, B57, “The performance of our school is usually evaluated”, and B58, “We all aspire to raise pupil self-esteem” are correlated with the variable effective school characteristics = .646, .659 & .631 respectively, with a significance of $p < .05$. The table, in like manner, shows a pattern of strong significant positive correlation when the attributes B59, “Learners are responsible and take control of their work”, and B61, “There is trust

among the entire staff”, are correlated with the variable effective school characteristics = .709; .765 respectively, with a significance of $p < .05$. The B60 effect, “parents are involved in their children’s school activities”, is positively correlated to effective school characteristics = .628, with a significance of .000.

The table still clearly shows that there is a significant positive correlation when attributes B62, “I trust my principal”, is correlated with the independent variable of characteristics of effective schools = .676, with a significance of $p < .05$. The attributes B40, “My principal is firm and purposeful”, (.437), B41, “My principal supports a participative approach”, (.554), B48, “It emphasises academic activities”, (.588), and B63, “Staff development is school-based”, (.591) showed low positive correlation when correlated with the independent attribute of effective school characteristics, with a significance of $p < .05$ and were therefore eliminated from further examination in this study.

4.6.2 Overall effectiveness.

The following table (4.15) indicates the overall stance participants have as far as to how effective their schools are in relation to the characteristics of effective schools. It still indicates their overall stance as regards the impact of their school characteristics on the annual performance of grade 10 learners.

Table 4.15
Overall effectiveness and school characteristics

		characteristics	B64	B65
characteristics	Pearson Correlation	1	.644**	.847**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	143	143	143
B64	Pearson Correlation	.644**	1	.633**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	143	143	143
B65	Pearson Correlation	.847**	.633**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	143	143	143

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The table above indicates that the characteristics of the participating schools have a significant impact on the annual performance of grade 10s. The B64 attribute, “overall, the school’s operating characteristics have a significant effect on the annual grade 10 performance”, shows significant correlation with the variable effective school characteristics = .644, with a significance of .000.

The table still indicates that the participating schools are effective schools. The B65 attribute, “overall, we are a very effective school”, shows high and significant correlation with effective school characteristics, $r = .847$, with a significance of .000.

4.7 Reliability of the Instrument

Cronbach’s alpha coefficients were calculated to estimate the reliability of the instrument (questionnaire) of this study. As Sekaran (2000) advises and as referred to in

section 3.11.1, coefficients less than 0.6 are considered poor, coefficients greater than 0.6, but less than 0.8, are considered acceptable and coefficients greater than 0.8 are considered good.

Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients were calculated to estimate the reliability of the Effective School Leadership Questionnaire (ESLQ) instrument and results are given in table 4.16 below. The average Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the leadership instrument is 0.893, which is good.

The results in table 4.16 below indicate reasonably high alphas and that the factors on the questionnaire are reliable. Therefore, for this research, the Effective School Leadership Questionnaire (ESLQ) instrument is a reliable measure of transformational leadership, distributed leadership, instructional leadership and the characteristics of effective schools.

Table 4.16

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
transformational	11.9948	2.482	.780	.857
distributed	11.9594	2.630	.774	.859
instructional	11.9674	2.641	.842	.838
characteristics	12.1010	2.627	.679	.896

Cronbach's Alpha Reliability Coefficients for Leadership Variables
Summary for scale: Cronbach = .893

4.8 Validity of the Instruments

The researcher is actually sure that the measurement techniques actually measured the things they were supposed to measure, for the results are easy to interpret. The

correlation activities of the data above indicate positive correlations between the leadership attributes and the leadership theories against which they were measured.

As advised by (D rnyei, 2007), the results of this study are generalisable beyond the school that participated in this research. The results are applicable to all the schools in the Windhoek region, let alone the whole country, because the researcher made use of the effective schools in relation to a poor performing school.

4.9 The Open-Ended Items

The last section (Section C) of the questionnaire, as mentioned above, is comprised of two unstructured items where the respondents had complete freedom of response. This endeavour permitted participants a greater depth of response and insight as regards to what other leadership practices and school characteristics they viewed played a greater role in improving the pass rate of their grade 10 learners.

The data was managed on the Qualitative Content Analysis tool, broken into useable chunks and then classified into different categories the researcher felt were of much relevance and could build support towards his study. The analysis of the data indicated that the leadership practices and characteristics teachers viewed played a role in the success of the grade 10 learners at their schools could be classified into four main categories.

These categories entailed the types of school leadership practices and characteristics of effective schools advocated as effective by scholars such as Bass & Avolio (1998) – transformational leadership; Hallinger (2003) and McWan (2000) – instructional leadership; McWan (2000); MacBeath (2003) – distributed leadership; and Mortimore, Hillman & Sammons (1995) and Bergeson (2007) – effective school characteristics.

The Qualitative Content Analyser (Charts and reports, all categories – all sources) indicated that the participants' views as regards the practices and characteristics of their schools embraced those factors enshrined in the literature review (theoretical framework). All the four categories were somewhat represented in the respondents' observations and the results are presented in relation to the order in which they were entered in the (QCA).

4.9.1 Transformational Practices.

The results of the Qualitative Content Analyser (browsing – categories) demonstrated that the respondents viewed transformational leadership practices as enhancement to the grade 10 pass rate. The fact that schools should have a vision of inspiring learners to pay particular attention to their studies and inspire the workforce to get the best out of it could be read from a number of the chunk texts. They emphasised the significance of having clear vision, clear mission, goals and objectives. The findings presented the participants advocating that the shared goal and focus should be clear to every member of the school for the sake of creating a uniform sense of direction. Everyone should know the role they are to play in all attempts to attain a shared vision.

“We have a vision of inspiring learners to do their best, strength to do what is a necessary, even giving afternoon class, holiday classes” [S1].

“In general it is a good school with vision and mission” [S15]

“An inspirational principal who can get the best out of his workforce and who can help us to work towards a common goal” [S19].

“A clear mission, clear goals and objectives, a vision for the school” [S105].

“School has a clear and shared focus: everyone knows where they are going and why. The focus is on achieving a shared vision and their role in achieving that vision” [S79].

The forty-first chunk texts on transformational leadership alluded to the significance of having an inspirational leader as one of the reasons their grade ten learners have been doing quite well the previous three years (2010 – 2012). A leader who has the ability to communicate the vision, initiate, be dependable and enthusiastic is a leader referred to by many respondents. They still referred to their leader as a focused and motivating principal.

“Integrity, ability to communicate, initiative, dependability and enthusiasm” [S85].

“A focused and motivating principal”! [S112]

The respondents still narrated their principals had a sense of purpose, justice, temperance, respect, empowerment, courage and deep commitment. They still referred to them as principals who have the ability to compel and marshal teachers into working very hard. In short, they argued their principals had the ability to motivate parental involvement, employee involvement and even involvement of all institution workers into being part of the team.

“Ability to motivate parental involvement, employee involvement; all institution workers are part of the team” [S48].

“A sense of purpose, justice, temperance, respect, empowerment, courage and deep commitment” [S104]

“Ability to motivate parental involvement, employee involvement; all institution workers are part of the team” [S48].

The respondents saw their leaders as effective for every teacher and other staff members felt involved in implementing or instilling effective leadership roles in order to create a learning and professional culture at school. They praised their leaders as flexible and allowed teachers to use whatever creativity they felt would help to “transfer” knowledge.

“Effective leadership at school: every teacher and other staff feel involved in implementing / instilling effective leadership roles in order to create a learning and professional culture at school” [S79].

“Flexibility – teachers are allowed to use whatever creativity will help to transfer knowledge” [S22].

The respondents, furthermore, referred to their principals as leaders who have high expectations for students and staff. They boasted these principals allowed both learners and teachers to unfold their full potential and use mistakes as stepping stones from which they can learn and improve. They still described them as principals who allowed for new avenues to be investigated and implemented for better effectiveness.

“New avenues for better effectiveness are investigated / implemented” [S103].

“High expectations for students and staff across the entire school, promoting open communication and collaboration among all staff” [S105].

“Learners and teachers allowed to unfold their full potential i.e. mistakes seen as stepping stones to learn from and improve” [S114].

The Qualitative Data Analyser indicated that the participants acknowledged their principals took recognition of work performance carried out by individual teachers and learners. These principals could set up their own standards and expectations for all teachers:

- teachers believing that every learner can and has the ability to learn in order to meet high standards, thus learners should recognize that they can overcome barriers/obstacles. The QCA indicates that the respondents were impressed with the fact that the principal allowed teachers and learners ownership over the events in their classes and this made them feel responsibility leads to success.

“Setting own standards and expectations for all teachers: - teachers believing that every learner can and has the ability to learn in order to meet high standards, thus learners should recognise that they can overcome barriers/obstacles” [S79].

“Ownership – the principal gives teachers ownership over their classes and that responsibility is essential for learners to perform well, as well as the teachers” [S110].

4.9.2 Distributed Leadership.

The application of the Qualitative Content Analyser (browser – chunks - distributed) revealed teachers viewed the leadership practices of their principals as also distributed in nature. The open ended items gave them an opportunity to freely express themselves in terms of how they viewed the role played by such practices on the performance of the grade 10 learners. The analysis revealed principals cared about the individual needs of both teachers and learners and even encouraged developing themselves.

“The leader encourages continuous individual and collective learning, learners are encouraged to participate and engage in activities (learning); learners are expected to perform higher” [S53].

The analyser revealed that the respondents were happy with how the management of the school worked with learners. They argued the principal's way of doing things; especially handling learners, teaching staff and members of management was very much conducive to high performance. The principal would not dictate to them but rather treated them professionally and respectfully, though he commanded respect [S25].

The data reveals that teachers felt their results were satisfactory as the principal shared the load of management with other members of the school.

“She delegates some tasks to ordinary teachers” [S2].

In all attempts to empower everybody at the school the principals allow for departmental workshops. It is during these workshops Heads of Departments and teachers belonging to the same department would help each other. It is believed, as the analysis showed, that these departmental workshops have played a significant role in the performance of the grade 10 learners. The data shows there is good interaction between management and the entire staff, a staff that is driven by a common goal.

“Departmental workshops within the school – HODs share with their departments ways which can help them to improve education for learners” [S22].

“Yes, good interaction between the management and the entire staff in general. Teamwork and common goals are the powerful tools which drive us to better results” [S34].

The data shows that some principals at the schools that took part in this study, allowed teachers to take up leadership roles and exercise responsibility over tasks or classes they were to take care of. The data shows every member took up leadership roles to see through the activities they were accorded and this had proven to be behind the smooth

running of the school. It is demonstrated that responsibilities were shared, and this meant learning from each other, and account had to be given by the ones in charge of a given activity. There was willingness to take up responsibilities with mental toughness, with peer and family respect [157].

“Everyone acts a leader in his/her position and most of us take responsibility for our activities that we are responsible for and that helps everything to run smoothly” [S17].

“Sharing responsibilities, taking ownership of responsibilities, being accountable for one’s responsibility and learning from others” [S20].

The data demonstrates that well-organised structures of the schools made it easy for every teacher to take up responsibilities. It enabled everybody to work efficiently and effectively; and the main keys being responsibility and delegation [77]. In the same vein, the data indicate there is a strong sense of shared leadership and everybody has a share to take care of in the management of the school, with the main intent of delivering service to the people.

Decisions were made, as indicated by the “We” in S105, by all members of the teaching staff and those were stood by and pursued right away. Subjects were split up among teachers, other than one teacher per subject, and teachers shared the load and the challenges encountered in delivering such a subject, and the control rendered by teachers over the delivery of subject knowledge spelt out less work for members of management.

“A sense of strong and shared leadership, i.e. strong administration, people oriented, organised, visible and ready to

serve all stakeholders, thus in the end all work together towards achieving the goals of the school” [S79].

“Decision determines future: We made decisions and stand behind them and that leads us to a better success” [S105].

“All subjects are split up amongst 2 - 4 teachers who check up on each other and help each other – more control less work for management” [S109].

In a nutshell, the data on the distributed form of leadership indicated that the entire staff at a given school felt they were not left out in the day to day administrative activities of the school.

“Everybody feels involved in school affairs” [S2].

4.9.3 Instructional Leadership.

The application of the Qualitative Content Analyser (browser – chunks - distributed) revealed that the some participants felt their principals practiced instructional leadership in their administrative endeavors of their schools. The open ended items still gave them an opportunity to freely express themselves as regards their views as to whether or not principals pursued instructional leadership practices that impacted the performance of the grade 10 learners.

The data analysis showed that principals at some of the effective schools that took part in this study had proven to be the masters of pedagogy and, therefore, emphasized on quality teaching. The participants observed their principals were highly qualified and only admitted best learners. These principals, as the chunk of text shows, were able to provide resources for their schools and the teaching staff.

“Highly qualified principal, availability of resources, only the best students from primary schools, quality for admission in grade 8; Technology” [S57].

“He makes instructional quality top priority of the school” [S116].

“He knows the technology of teaching and learning and he provides effective learning and teaching environment” [S130].

The participants referred to the availability of resources as their principals’ strength that deserved recognition and even cited a library that was full of study materials and resources such as smart boards [248, 212]. The data still shows teachers boasted the availability of overhead projectors, a variety of software teachers could use for effective teaching and learning, and the availability of highly qualified teachers. Not only did these principal only provide effective resources but they also provided effective learning and teaching, [72]. The data analysis still indicated that the availability of these resources and the interrelationship that exists with other schools were the factors driving the pass rate even higher.

“Conducive environment and teaching and learning materials are the contributing factors towards our success. Interrelationship with other schools, private sectors etc are additional factors towards our success” [S34].

“Availability of resources and highly qualified personnel” [S51].

“Provides effective learning as well as provide resources” [S41].

“The school now has overhead projectors and soft wares that teachers can use to make teaching and learning effective” [S74].

The data showed the learners and teachers were task-oriented and result-driven. The principal leads by example and portrays good leadership to the entire staff, which greatly benefitted the school [S115].

“Our staff and learners are task oriented” [S83].

The data also revealed that not only were these principals result-driven, but they still developed positive attitudes towards learners and teachers to boost interest at work place [S44]. The data analysis shows the principals planned ahead and always set the tone for the school day.

“She plans ahead and set tone for the school” [S2].

Further, the analysis showed principals possessed instructional qualities by paying particular attention to the needs of individual teachers. The participants indicated pleasure with the fact that their principals could not embarrass individual teachers in front of the entire staff.

“The principal does not embarrass teachers in front of the entire staff” [S12].

The needs of each teacher were considered in the developmental concerns of the entire staff. The strength of each was recognised and bolstered in alignment with the different interests of learners.

“Matching each staff members need to staff development opportunities” [S100].

“Individuals’ strength are recognised and enhanced to be conveyed to learners, thus wide spectrum of opportunities allowed” [S114].

The principals provide the necessary support to teachers and others in the organization for succession purposes. They arrange workshops to empower teachers and in a way boost school performance.

“Developing people: providing teachers and others in the organization (school) with the necessary support and training to succeed” [S79].

“The workshops that we attend every term help contribute to our school’s high performance” [S78].

The data indicated even learners in the Learners’ Representative Councils (LRC) were sent out to workshops to acquire the necessary skills. Teachers undertook annual team-building workshops to enhance their leadership skills. The ambition principals instilled in those teachers is that of delivering for the Namibian children.

“L.R.C is sent to workshops to gain skills and knowledge how to perform their duties” [S70].

“Conduct leadership workshops annually for team building” [S58].

“Our motto is delivering, deliver for a Namibian child” [S50].

The data further indicated the principals directed the activities, emphasised class time spent on teaching; and they respected diversity. The principals were able to communicate effectively to all staff, for leadership communication can either harm or build.

“Good communication; how a leader communicates either builds or harms the employees” [S76].

“Respect for diversity; classroom time on learning, teacher directed” [S76].

The data in the chunk of texts below showed the principals had a vision to see to it that every child can learn; they proved to be very good communicators and listeners, proactive and risk takers. They used technology to enhance effective communication with the masses.

“Vision; believing that school is for students’ learning; valuing human resources, communicator and listener, proactive and risk taker” [S104].

“Mass SMS communication system available to school and parents” [S109].

The analysis demonstrated the ability of the leaders at those schools to effectively communicate with different sectors of the community has seen these schools cement fruitful relationships with corporate organisations and even secure sponsorships of different types with these indispensable financial institutions.

“Relationship with the private sector – this has seen these institutions sponsor our school” [S55].

“Relate well with corporate organizations, ability to secure sponsorship from the private sector” [S47].

The data analysed revealed that principals in those effective schools were able to coordinate and control all the activities of their schools. Those principals were able to spell out ministerial policies to all teachers and the feelings of resentment by other members of the staff could not deter them. The data indicates principals frequently monitored the teaching and learning activities of the school.

“The principal can give clear rules to teachers per ministry’s instruction even though some teachers are not willing to adhere to rules; she is trying her level best” [S74].

“Regular monitoring of teaching and learning: giving support and periods for instruction; adjust teaching time based on regular monitoring of learners’ progress and needs”, [S79].

“He coordinates and controls instruction” [S116].

“Well coordinated and controlled instructions” [S112].

It was through the analysis of the same data where it was gathered that those instructional principals had managed to provide effective learning, an endeavour concomitant to an environment conducive for nothing else but learning itself. The data, the chunk of text below, showed that those principals managed to lure highly qualified teachers and those were the teachers who harboured the desire to test of the leadership practices successful schools followed.

The leadership still proved instructional skills by managing to expose learners, through the Life Skills subject, to different programmes such as “Star School” and those were meant to equip them with different skills that would see them face social challenges they encounter in life.

“The principal provides effective learning and an environment conducive for teaching” [S132].

“Availability of good teachers and the clear and healthy working environment; the excess to life skills and star for life programs that guide most of the learners in the best future being” [S60].

The instructional practices of those school masters saw them take part even in extra mural activities themselves and this, in itself, proved a huge boost to the desires of learners in also taking part in extra-mural activities. They are the best exemplary of all at their schools, even leading the way during extra classes and study sessions in the afternoons. The data still revealed, via chunk S68 below, the perseverance and consistence of the principals, in engaging the grade 10s in the afternoons, has seen those learners excel.

“Leader lead by example e.g. they are involved in extra classes as well as study sessions of learners” [S62].

“Our principal’s perseverance and consistence motivates the grade 10s to excel and the engagement of the grade 10s in the afternoon classes” [S68].

“Principal is very engaged in all school activities” [S3].

The Qualitative Content Analyser concluded the analysis of the Instructional Leadership practices by indicating that there was a conviction among teachers at the effective schools that the leadership practices of their principals had an impact on the performance of the grade 10 learners.

“Overall, my principal’s leadership practices have a significant impact on the school’s annual grade 10 performance” [S143].

4.9.4 The Characteristics of Effective Schools.

Scholars such as Mortimore et al (1995) carried out a plethora of research activities to determine the characteristics, or attributes, synonymous with effective schools. This researcher, in like manner, saw it fit to determine the characteristics that were associated with the effective Windhoek High Schools that took part in this study. It was also the desire

of the researcher to test whether or not such characteristics defining those effective schools had a significant impact on the performance of the grade 10 learners. This endeavor gave the researcher an opportunity to test the literature with the evident characteristics synonymous with the effective schools in the Windhoek Education Region.

The data presented that those schools boasted the presence of a very strict headmaster. It still showed that they were schools where learners were even compelled to attend school even during holidays or attend to extra classes [18]. The data indicated effective schools had a clear discipline structure - where learners were punished in different ways and those included 'debits', suspension and expulsion or even doing community service. The data showed all offences were dealt with right away.

“Strict school principal” [S123].

“Discipline structure – learners are punished in different ways; including different debits, suspension, expulsion etc. and all offences are handled immediately” [S1].

“Community service for problem learners” [S113].

The data analysed indicated the head-teachers ensured order and discipline [S27], principals were always punctual at work [S13] and always ready for school [S2]. It still demonstrated that the characteristics of some of those effective schools boasted principals who harbored the desire to make their schools the best in Namibia. The data indicated those were principals who aligned extra-mural activities with the 'philosophy' of the school.

“Co-curricular program – extra-curricular activities (athletic, soccer, rugby, etc.) are encouraged and contributed to the educational philosophy and objectives of the school” [S1].

The principals applied the rules strictly and late coming and absenteeism had been overcome [S74]. The principals managed the schools so well and organised them in such a way that the target of being top achievers was met [S94]. The data analysed showed the way the school is managed and activities are arranged contributed to the high performance of such schools [S90]. The data confirmed the principals at some of the effective schools were leading professionals [S116] and very firm in their leadership style [S124]. The principals were firm and purposeful and they maximized learning time [S130], principals who trusted their teachers [S103], provided resources such as smart boards to improve teaching [S110] and acknowledged the inputs and efforts by their individual teachers [S103].

“Our leader aims to make our school the best ever in Namibia, likewise the teachers too” [S50].

“Our school is well managed organised specifically to meet our target of being top achievers in all our results” [S94].

The data analysed still demonstrated that principals communicated all expectations quite well and there was consistence in terms of how the schools following their activities [S132]. The expectations are placed on each teacher and those have yielded results [S28].

“Expectations are well communicated and our practices are consistent” [S132].

“The expectations placed on each teacher to deliver and bring positive results through many positive re-enforcement have contributed to the betterment in performances of the school” [S28].

The data analysis showed the schools boasted the presence of highly committed and experienced teachers [S112, S27]; always punctual [S134] and have the desire to succeed [S95]. The respondents still spoke about teachers being self-motivated and always wanted to help learners achieve marks [S139]. Some of these schools, the data presented, offered rewards to teachers for performance [S128] and hardworking [S141]. The data still had it those schools had highly qualified teachers [S54] and have seen teamwork help them succeed, for teachers relied on each other and worked as a team. The data analysis still showed that community members played in finding solutions to problems the schools encountered. Teachers do not compete against each other but only against other schools.

“It’s actually teamwork that contributed to our school’s high performance whereby each teacher rely on the other one and work together as a team” [S91].

“High level of communication and teamwork: teachers are involved and connected to each other, parents and the community at large work together by identifying problems and work solutions” [S79].

“We compete against other schools not each other internally and work as dependents not individual teachers” [S109].

The data had it that the character of effective schools was such that teachers had enough time to prepare for their lessons, for they were not loaded with a lot of other activities [S108]. Those were schools, the data analysis indicated, where the high motivation levels of teachers and their hardworking attitudes helped learners for the better. Those were teachers who trusted each other [S39]. Learners were ready to support the initiatives by the school in its attempts to see the performance improve.

“The high motivation level of the teachers and the hardworking attitudes help the learners for the best; the willingness of most of the learners to follow the setup programs for marks improvement and hardworking” [S60].

The data analysis proved that more than 50% of the learners at effective schools were talented and highly gifted, [S2], learners who thoroughly revised their notice for examination purposes [S77]. The data showed learners worked hard because they were encouraged to perform towards excellence [S90]. Those were the learners who arrived early for classes [S13] and were always ready for school [S42]. The Learners’ Representative Council did its job in being an exemplary to fellow learners [S123]. The data analysed indicated those learners at effective schools were rated in accordance to their levels of individual performance. Some of those schools boasted high levels of learner retention [S56].

“Our learners are rated in accordance with their individual performance, for example 10A, position 1, position 2, position 3...” [S2].

“Learners arrive early for classes” [S13].

The data indicated some of those schools had well-structured programmes that governed their activities. The programmes of those schools emphasized academic activities [S112]. Those schools focused on achievement [S89]. The test results are done well in advance during vacations and made available at the beginning of every school term.

“Focuses on achievement, learners are responsible and they take control of their work, parents are involved in their children’s school work” [S53].

“Strong emphasis on academic performance” [S11].

“Test schedules are drawn up during vacations and made available 1st day of school for the whole term to inform parents, teachers, etc” [S109].

“If the organizational structure of a school is in order it enables everybody to work efficiently and effectively – main keys: responsibility, delegation” [S44].

The data analysed indicated the performance of some of those effective schools were usually evaluated [S143] and were well monitored [S112]. The question papers were well moderated and 100% according to the syllabus and the assessment programmes included multiple measures. The data indicated some of those schools presented aspects that addressed the whole being of each and every child, not only academics. Some of the schools practiced specialised services such as counseling designed to address the education challenges.

The data further indicated the characteristics of these schools further included instructional practices such as the provision of extra classes after school, effective teaching aid; smart boards that leads to adaptive reasoning, engagement (tasks), and exploratory talk and productive disposition [S45].

“I believe that our school presents the opportunity of various aspects of life and that helps the child’s whole-self to be developed; So not only academics, but also the creation of sufficient human beings” [S17].

“Special services like school-based counseling are designed to enhance the education that strives to meet the cognitive, social and emotional needs of learners” [S1].

The data also indicated that some of such schools boasted a friendly learning and teaching environment that encouraged learners how to take ownership of their education. It was an environment where the entire staff of teachers, learners and institution workers felt like residents [S32]. Classes were well renovated and repainted boosting the learning environment [S62] and teaching and learning takes place in a neat environment. The environment is safe for all and there is zero room for substance abuse.

“Opportunity provided during the school day, for high academic standard mastery; safe environment with zero tolerance for drugs and guns” [S76].

“A friendly environment, emphasizing on discipline, teaching learners to take ownership of their education and being accountable thereof, involvement of parents greatly” [S20].

“Creating safe environment for new ventures” [S100].

The data analysis still showed that parents enjoyed taking their children to some of those schools because they present an environment conducive for effective teaching and learning. The buildings were well looked after, with gardens that enhance pride towards school and work [S114]. The schools were quite inviting [S126].

“The working environment is awesome” [S86].

“Our learning environment is attractive indeed”, [S87].

“The school environment, which includes the classroom, is very conducive for successive learning to take place” [S90].

The Qualitative Content Analyser (browser – chunk – characteristics) revealed that some of the participant schools boasted a vibrant school board. The school board saw

parental involvement soar; parents taking part in fundraising activities, extra-mural activities, and social responsibilities. The data showed parents are involved in the school activities of their children [S118]. There was cooperation among teachers, parents/guardians and learners [S140]. The data indicated the interaction between the stakeholders has seen performance soar.

“Active school board” [S54].

“School board; extra-mural activities; social responsibility; fundraising activities” [S57].

“The input of parents and the entire community acts as a leadership factor [S72].

“I think it is the interaction of learners and teacher in classrooms and on a social platform at sports field and of social events of school” [S97].

The data analysis still presented that some of the characteristics of effective schools is that of aspiring to preserve their culture and reputation. The schools would want to preserve the culture of teamwork [S63]. The culture of offering remedial or compensatory classes could be deduced from the data. Learners are motivated in different ways such as prize giving ceremonies meant for them to excel [S126]. The data demonstrated that the culture of maintaining a clean environment has seen parents flocking to these schools for their children’s enrolment.

“Most parents want their learners to attend school at our school because it is situated in an environment conducive for work; learning and teachings are very effective” [S78].

The data analysed indicated that some of the schools had a culture of learning and it was the accolade teachers and learners were well motivated to keep. They intended to

uphold the standard of being a top achiever school. Those schools maintained a good image by performing extremely well in both internal and external examinations [S115]. They had an academic history to keep [S124]. The data here referred to that culture of excellence in academics and sports [S25].

Some of these schools, the data indicated, had maintained a high level of performance over the years [S106]; and learners were always ready for school and were well motivated to take part in extra-mural activities [S107]. The data presented effective schools boasted an awesome set up and their good names played a tremendous role in promoting performance [S131]. Some respondents indicated former white schools were associated with high performance. The data still had it that, learners at effective schools always want to follow the good academic performance of their predecessor who also performed tremendously.

“The school has a culture of learning and both teachers and learners are well motivated and are well destined to keep and uphold the standard of being a top achiever school” [S94].

“The set up and good name of the school contributed tremendously” [S131].

“Previous white schools associated with high performance” [S139].

“The culture of the school, known for excellence in academics and sports” [S25].

The data further indicted effective schools only admitted the best performing learners from primary schools [S49], and this owed to the fact that every learner wanted to attend those schools.

“Due to high performance of the past every learner likes to attend school at Dobra” [S35].

“Based on the outskirts of the capital, with the hostel run privately, every parent like to enroll their learners at St. Joseph’s R. C. School” [S33].

The data indicated the fact that the leadership of the effective schools continued to keep the pride of those schools, despite the downfalls, contributed a lot. The change in the school environment for the sake of keeping and maintaining the same pride also contributed.

“The pride of the school that the leader continues to uphold regardless of the many downfalls, also contributes a lot. The change in the school environment has also contributed” [S28].

5. Discussions Summary

5.0 Introduction

Chapter 5 reviews the purpose of the study. It discusses the research findings presented in section four. It highlights some similarities with results of previous findings noted in the literature review and deals with the interpretation and implications of significant research findings. It deals with the research questions, keeping readers well-informed of the events in the field of leadership in institutions of education (secondary schools), especially as it pertains to relationship between leadership practices in successful high schools and effective school leadership theories, as juxtaposed with the impact leadership has on the annual performance of grade 10 learners.

The chapter also points to the implications regarding the characteristics of successful Windhoek high schools and their significant relationship with the characteristics of effective schools as enshrined in the literature review of this study. This chapter proposes

some measures that may help boost effective school leadership, and even refers to the different types of school leadership that could lead to learner performance. In light of the above, this chapter is therefore divided into discussions and summary.

5.1 Reliability of the Findings

The researcher sees it appropriate to discuss the reliability findings of this research before engaging the research findings as compared to particular literature review and previous research.

The researcher found that the average Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for the ESLQ instrument is .893, which is good. The results demonstrate reasonably high alphas therefore, for the purposes of this study, the ESLQ instrument is a reliable measure of transformational leadership, distributed leadership, instructional leadership and the characteristics of effective schools.

This result demonstrates the average Cronbach alpha that is somewhat consistent with research conducted by Ackerman et al (2000) in South Africa that yielded Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients of 0.944, 0.736 and 0.803 for transformational leadership, distributed leadership and instructional leadership respectively.

5.2 Summary and Discussions

This study assessed the leadership practices in successful high schools in Windhoek and expounds what school leadership entails for school effectiveness and management of effective learning and teaching. It reveals the types of leadership practices that effective school leadership employ to significantly influence on learner performance. One hundred and forty-three teachers, based at ten secondary schools in the Windhoek Education Region, took part in the study. The researcher used the SPSS and the Qualitative Content Analyser to

analyse the data gathered for this study and these tools helped answer the following questions:

5.2.1 Are the leadership practices of principals in successful Windhoek state schools related to effective School Leadership Theories?

Results of this study reveal that the leadership of principals in successful Windhoek High Schools is explained by the effective school leadership theories of transformational leadership, distributed leadership and instructional leadership. Table 4.3, for instance, shows a pattern of high mean scores of 4 (of agree), (4.0016, transformational, 4.0019, distributed leadership and 4.0401, instructional leadership), indicating how well the key variables were scored by the participating teachers.

Given the known fact that the annual performance of grade 10 learners in the participating schools was very good in the academic years, the study focuses on, it is easy to think the leadership practices have an impact on the high performance shown by these 'high-status' schools. However, the researcher sees it befitting to link or prove linkage between the practices of principals in these prestigious schools and the effective leadership theories enshrined in this study. The next section, therefore, engages the activity of testing the interrelationship between the practices, or leadership attributes, and the effective school leadership styles embedded in the study at hand.

It is the researcher's desire to prove whether or not the leadership theories have indeed created the conditions synonymous with these schools under study and, therefore, the characteristics of the effective schools are correlated to the independent variable 'characteristics of effective schools' to determine their degree of relationship and whether or not such characteristics have had an impact on the annual performance of grade 10 learners.

This is meant to confirm the study of Creemers and Kyriakids (2007), which concluded that effective school leadership is a factor that helps create the conditions under which teachers can be optimally effective, which in turn would result in higher levels of student performance.

The overall measures of the key variables, on the other hand, revealed agreement that the principals in the successful schools scored high on each of them. The transformational leadership theory resulted into a significant correlation result of .740, distributed leadership theory with .776 and instructional leadership theory, with .680, and all with a significance of .000, (Tables 4.6, 4.9, and 4.12).

5.2.2 What type of leadership practices do head teachers of successful high schools employ?

This question was designed to determine the type of leadership practices principals embark upon in their day to day school leadership behaviors. These practices are looked at in relation to whether or not they are consistent with leadership theories of transformational, distributed and instructional. Leadership attributes are revealed and these are meant to test the availability of any of the theories mentioned above in the practices of principals, as compared to their effects on school performance.

5.2.2.1 Transformational Leadership.

Transformational leadership is the brain child of organisational reform initiatives. Its aim is to cater to both the leaders and their followers, in order to motivate and inspire workers to perform beyond their normal work level (Martin & Epitropaki, 2001).

The findings in table 4.3 and table 4.4 indicate that the attributes seen fit to measure transformational leadership resulted into the mean scores that amount to a value of 4 (of

agree, on correlations; of high score on mean value scoring). This implies that there is agreement as to whether or not principals at participating schools employ leadership behaviors that are compatible with transformational leadership in their day to day leadership behaviors. However, the table (4.4) shows that there are disparities in terms of the frequency/ intensity at which teachers felt each attribute received coverage in the principals' leadership behaviors. This can be interpreted from the fact that attributes do not have a very similar mean score, for others seem to surpass others by a point or so.

Furthermore, the findings to the study, table 4.5, reveal the leadership attributes meant to test transformational leadership indicate a strong significant positive correlation with this leadership theory. This implies that principals at such schools employ transformational leadership practices in their leadership behaviors. In other words, the teachers at participating schools view their principals as being transformational in their leadership behaviors.

The leadership attributes and their level of correlation with transformational leadership, as juxtaposed with their implications, and scored by the participating teachers are discussed next. It is important, though, to note that each attribute has been condensed into a phrase, which serves as a title.

a) Motivation and extra-mural activities

The Qualitative Content Analyser reveals that teachers are motivated to an extent that they even willingly take part in extra-mural activities and even endeavor to conduct afternoon, or holiday, classes [1]. The practice of working even after normal working hours is consistent with what Burns (1978) advocates when he states that transformational leaders move followers to transcend their self-interests for the good of the group, organisation or

country. The practices of compelling teachers to take part in extra-mural activities and extra classes was transformational in nature as it was consistent with Bass (1997) who argues that transformational leaders motivate followers and other constituencies to do more than they originally expected to do as they strive for higher order outcomes.

a) Inspirational Leadership

The Qualitative Content Analyser (QCA) still reveals that teachers alluded to the significance of having an inspirational leader as one of the reasons their grade 10 learners did quite well in the previous three years (2010-2012). The leader is referred to as focused and motivating [48]. Table 4.4 shows that principals appeal to all their teachers by the way they communicate their vision (B3). This attribute strongly correlate transformational leadership = .740, with a significance of $p < .05$. This attribute still shows a mean score of 4.15, which is the highest score of all attributes used to measure transformational leadership (table 4.4). This attribute received a high frequency score, as scored by the participating teachers. This strong relationship demonstrates that principals at participating schools appeal to the staff through their leadership behaviors.

‘Appealing’ means teachers are motivated to emulate their leader, become committed to the organisation as a consequence of belief in the leader and would therefore exert extra effort for the leader. The result concurs with that of Pounder (2008), which concludes that an inspirational leader acts as a model to subordinates and communicates a vision in an appealing way. These leaders do not just communicate expectations but they also demonstrate a commitment to goals and a shared vision. This conclusion is still supported by the study carried out by Leithwood (1991) on forty-seven schools which demonstrated highly significant relationships between aspects of transformational leadership

and teachers' own reports of changes in both attitude toward school improvement and altered school instructional behavior.

b) Creativity and Innovation

The data showed the principals solicit for new ideas and creative ways of doing things, B12, table 4.5. The attribute scooped a mean value of 3.99, which is a satisfactory score, though overtly skewed towards the mean value of four (of a high score and recommendable to underperformers). Allowing teachers the leeway of exercising innovation is compatible with the findings of Burns (1997), which propounds that transformational leaders motivate followers to extend themselves, to develop themselves, and to become more innovative. The results still re-echo those of Burns (1998) that indicate that transformational leaders actively solicit new ideas and new ways of doing things. They stimulate others to be creative and never publicly correct or criticise others (Bass, 1998).

It is quite clear that the results of the analysed data still link up well with those of Pounder (2008), as cited in Muijs (2011), which concludes that the effect of transformational leadership on subordinates centered on three leadership outcomes: (a) the ability of the leader to generate extra effort on the part of those being led, (b) subordinates' perception of leader effectiveness, and (c) their satisfaction with the leader. The leaders stimulate followers to rethink old ways of doing things and to reassess their old values and beliefs (Pounder, 2008).

c) Provision of Vision and Sense of Mission

There is a highly significant correlation between the variable transformational leadership with the teachers' own reports that their principals made sure that a vision and a sense of mission were provided (B2), $r = .782$, with a significance of $p < .05$. This attribute

scooped a mean score of 4.08 (of high score), which is a good score, implying that the attribute was scored well by the participating teachers.

The preceding result received extra emphasis from QCA, “A clear mission, clear goals and objectives, a vision for the school”, [S105]. “School has a clear and shared focus: everyone knows where they are going and why. The focus is on achieving a shared vision and their role in achieving that vision”, [S79]. This resonates well with Pounder’s (2008) conclusion that a transformational leader harbors an idealized influence; the leader provides vision and a sense of mission, expresses confidence in the vision, instills pride, gains respect and trust, and increases optimism.

d) Teachers’ Individual Concerns

The findings indicated strong positive correlation between transformational leadership and the teachers’ view that their principals cared about their (individual) concerns (B4), $r = .704$, with a significance of $p < .05$. This attribute meant a lot to the participating teachers as it scooped the mean value of 4.06 (of high score), which is a very good score and recommendable to underachievers.

This is a clear match to Pounder’s (2008) findings that individual considerations are a measure of the extent to which the leader cares about the individual follower’s concerns and developmental needs. This is also a correlation between the observation made by Bass (1997) that transformational leaders deal with others as individuals; consider their individual needs, abilities, and aspirations; listen attentively; further their development; advise; teach; and coach. These leaders establish a supportive climate where individual differences are respected, interaction with followers is encouraged and the leaders are aware of individual concerns (Bass, 1998).

e) Provision of Challenging and Interesting Challenges

The data demonstrated a correlation between the views of teachers as far as the principals' ability to provide challenging and interesting tasks (B5) with transformational leadership are concerned, ($r = .705$, with a significance of $.000$). In like manner, the attribute received a mean score of 3.78, which is a satisfactory result implying an area of improvement by the participating schools and for emulation by the underperforming ones, table 4.4.

This could still represent an area where principal should improve, for it was a mere satisfactory score by the participating teachers. The Qualitative Content Analyser, on the other hand, had it that, "Flexibility – teachers are allowed to use whatever creativity will help to transfer knowledge", [S22]. This result tallies with that of Coad and Barry (1998), as cited by Pounder (2008), that transformational leaders are individuals with a learning goal orientation and have an intrinsic interest in their work, view themselves as being curious, and choose challenging tasks that provide opportunities. The principal believes in creating conditions that enable staffs to find their own directions (Leithwood, Kenneth and Mary, 1992).

f) Stimulation of Student's Ethical Conduct

The data revealed positive correlation between the principal's ability to stimulate student ethical conduct (B6) and transformational leadership practices, $r = .666$; $p < .000$, table 4.5. This attribute further scooped a mean score of 4.06 (of high score), which is a very good score by the participants. This result sinks well with that of Pounder (2008) that transformational instructor could foster student's intellectual curiosity, facilitate creativity, and stimulate ethical conduct.

It still perfectly matches the findings of Carlson and Perrewé (1995) that goes as far as stating that transformational leadership is viewed as the best approach for instilling ethical behavior and those transformational leaders are associated with ethical traits more frequently by their subordinates than the non-transformational leaders.

g) Collaborative and professional school culture

There is strong correlation in terms of how teachers view their principals as individuals who develop and maintain a collaborative and professional school culture (B7) and ...transformational leadership = .728, with a significance of .000. The attribute was also scored well by teachers resulting into a mean score of 4.08 (of high score), table 4.4. The preceding endeavour was repeated by the Qualitative Content Analyser, “Effective leadership at school: every teacher and other staff feel involved in implementing / instilling effective leadership roles in order to create a learning and professional culture at school”, [S79].

This is a complete match with the results arrived at by Leithwood et al (1992) that transformational leaders help staff members develop and maintain a collaborative, professional school culture; and they further state that in collaborative school cultures, staff members often talk, observe, critique, and plan together. Norms of collective responsibility and continuous improvement encourage them to teach one another how to teach (Little, 1982, Hargreaves 1990).

h) Problem Solving

The data further revealed strong correlation between the practices of head-teachers in collaborating with teachers when solving problems (B9) and transformational leadership, $r = .692$; $p < .05$, table 4.5. The attribute secured a mean score of 3.99, which is a satisfactory

score overtly skewed towards the high score of 4, well above 3.5. This is a complete match with the results by Sergiovanni (1991) that concluded that transformational leadership is valued because it stimulates followers to engage in new activities beyond the classrooms and put forth that extra effort.

The results further marry with the findings of Leithwood and Steinbach which see that transformational leaders solved problems in collaboration with teachers during staff meetings by ensuring a broader range of perspective from which to interpret the problem by actively seeking different interpretations, being explicit about their own interpretations, and placing individual problems in the larger perspective of the whole school and its overall direction (Leithwood and Steinbach, 1991).

The results are further consistent with those of Leithwood et al, (1991) that transformational school leaders assist group discussions of alternative solutions, ensure open discussion, and avoid commitment to preconceived solutions. Transformational principals (ibid) avoid narrowly biased perspectives on the problem by keeping the group on task, not imposing their perspectives, changing their own views when warranted, checking out their own and others' assumptions, and remaining calm and confident.

Involving teachers in decision making still tallies with Ozaralli (2003) that participation in decision-making depicts recognition of intellectual power, and teachers' intellectual power or ability is acknowledged, they become more participative, creative and satisfactory. Blasé & Blasé (1996) demonstrates agreement with the above finding when he states that when teachers are involved in decision-making, they become empowered because they are offered the opportunity to exercise autonomy, responsibility, choice and authority.

i) Foster Teacher/Student relationship

The school principals foster teacher/student relationship (B11) and still this demonstrated significant interaction with transformational leadership, $r = .630$; $p < .000$. The B11 attribute further scooped a mean score of 4.01 (of high score), which is a very good score by the participating teachers. This result tallies with that of Ejimofor's (2007) findings that school principals with transformational leadership behaviors create a supportive environment that fosters teacher-student relationships, teacher morale or teacher efficacy in the classroom.

j) High transformational

Finally, the data in table 4.6 indicated that there was strong significant correlation between whether or not principals scored high on transformational leadership practices and transformational leadership, $r = .740$, with a significance of .000. This main variable equally scooped a mean score of 4.0016 (of agree), which is a good score. This result demonstrates that the participating teachers overwhelmingly concurred the practices of the principals were transformational in nature.

5.2.2.2 Distributed Leadership.

The test of the attributes used to measure distributed leadership indicates mean score that are either high (4, recommendable) or are overtly skewed towards the value of four, Table 4.7. This indicates agreement towards the fact that head-teachers at participating schools practice distributed leadership, as so indicated by the scores carried out by teachers who took part in the study.

The use of this theory leads to effective school performance, as so indicated by Elmore (2000) that the model of distributed leadership focuses on large scale improvement

in schools. It is therefore safe to point out that this leadership theory has also played a significant impact on the annual performance of learners at these schools.

The attributes used to measure distributed leadership showed strong significant correlation with the variable that indicated the views of teachers in relation to whether or not their principals practiced distributed leadership, B24. The correlations further proved that the attributes used to measure the key variable 'distributed leadership' were appropriate for the endeavour, and 'uni-dimensionality' was strictly avoided.

The principal supported a shared and distributed leadership and that proved to be positively correlated with the principal practiced or scored high on distributed leadership, $r = .691$; $p < .05$, table 4.8. The attributes used to measure distributed leadership are further discussed below and still a title has been formulated from each attribute to head the discussion.

a) Upholding Distributed Leadership

The result of this study, as far as principals upholding distributed leadership is concerned (B14), proved consistence with the Duignan's and Bezzina's (2006) study which advocates the need for distributed leadership. The attribute still secured a mean score of 4.03 (of high score), which is a very good score by the participating teachers. The principals in the Windhoek High Schools are not all by themselves in dreaming for distributed leadership in schools. Duignan (2003) demonstrates similar zeal in his study of leadership in service organizations. He advocates the need for an important shift in the meaning, perspective and scope (depth and breadth) of leadership in schools, in order to build organisational cultures that promote, nurture and support shared and distributed leadership.

The practices of principals to distribute leadership are to involve all staff in leading their organizations. An observation from the open-ended items in support involves all in leadership activities, “She delegates some tasks to ordinary teachers”, [S2]. This resonates well with Muijs (2011) who concluded that distributed leadership stretches leadership practices within or across an organization and sees high degrees of involvement in the practice of leadership. It is distributed leadership that holds the key to the school’s capacity for meeting its complex challenges (MacBeath, 2003).

The distributed practices by principals in this study espoused Timperely’s (2005) conclusion that the idea of leadership as distributed across multiple people and situations has proven to be a more useful framework for understanding the realities of schools and how they might be improved.

b) Democratic and Collaborative Approach

It was clear from the data that there was strong significant correlation when the evidence that principals are more democratic and collaborative in approach (B15) was correlated with distributed leadership, $r = .777$; $p < .05$. This attribute further scooped a mean score of 3.98 (of satisfactory), a score overtly skewed towards 4 (a high score). The citation from the QCA analysis still emphasizes the democratic and collaborative nature of leadership in schools, “Everybody feels involved in school affairs”, [S2]. This is a complete match with Duignan et al’s (2006) conclusion that...distributed leadership reflects a more democratic and collaborative approach, it is necessarily a “good thing”, and that once we accept this conclusion such forms of leadership are easily achieved.

Distributed leadership has the potential to build capacity as an increased number of people would go through the development of the intellectual and professional capital of the

teachers (Day & Harries, 2002). Leadership becomes a collaborative endeavour, involving all teachers (Lambert, 1998).

c) Human-relations Oriented Features

The fact that principals emphasised human-relations oriented features (B16) in their practices significantly correlates with distributed leadership, $r = .709$; $p < .05$. The attribute obtained a mean score of 3.97, which is a satisfactory score that is overtly skewed towards the mean score of four, a high score that is highly recommendable for emulation, Table 4.7.

A similar aspect clearly read from the QCA analysis, “A sense of strong and shared leadership, i.e. strong administration, people oriented, organised, visible and ready to serve all stakeholders, thus in the end all work together towards achieving the goals of the school”, [S79]. This result is consistent with the findings of Eicher (2003) which concludes that distributed (post-heroic model) leadership emphasize human relations-oriented features such as teamwork, participation, empowerment, risk-taking and little control over others.

d) Skills Dictate Leadership Roles

It is clear from the correlation table (4.8) that principals allow situations to dictate who takes up leadership roles in a given activity (B18). This attribute obtained a mean score almost similar to the preceding one, 3.98, a satisfactory score and its implications are such that the participating schools are called to improve while the underperforming schools are to emulate the leadership behavior. However, it still represents areas of improvement for the head-teachers at the schools for it to rise to the mean score above 4.00.

The principal looks at the skills of the teachers before selecting a teacher to take the lead in seeing through the administrative activity. There was a strong significant positive

correlation when the above was correlated with distributed leadership practices, $r = .715$; $p < .05$.

This finding is compatible with that of Copland's (2003) that "decisions about who leads and who follows are directed by the task or problem situation, not necessarily by where one sits in the hierarchy". Such delegations may be driven by the head-teacher's recognition that others have expertise that he/she does not have (MacBeath, 2003).

e) Safe Environment

The data indicates that teachers view their principals as leaders who create a safe environment for new ventures (B19) and this practice positively correlated with distributed leadership, $r = .715$; $p < .05$, table 4.6. The attribute further saw a high mean score of 4.08 (of high recommendable score), which is a good score. This implies the teachers felt safe working at their working environments, as so made possible by the head-teachers. These results are compatible with the findings of Macbeath (2003) that concludes that there has to be a safe environment where people are secured enough to venture, where they know they would be encouraged.

MacBeath (2003) reveals in his study that a safe environment in the school context refers to an environment where mistakes are not seen as a mark of failure but as a learning opportunity. It is an environment where a teacher could take up leadership risks with confidence, an environment where head-teachers and teachers treat his/her mistakes in a non-judgmental manner and within a supportive atmosphere ... where there is knowledge that all individual contributions are valued (MacBeath, 2003).

f) Continuous Individual and Collective Learning

The other leadership practice/attribute that showed strong correlation with distributed leadership is that of encouraging continuous individual and collective learning (B21), $r = .680$; $p < .05$. The high correlation could be linked to the high mean score of 4.00 the attribute scooped (table 4.7). The correlation is valid for this study in the sense that it is consistent with the findings of Elmore (2000) which details that distributed leadership includes instructional improvement that requires continuous individual and collective learning.

g) Delegation

The leadership practice of identifying and delegating leadership responsibilities (B22) positively correlated with distributed leadership practices, $r = .622$; $p < .05$, as so viewed by the teachers who took part in the study. The attribute was scored well by participants obtaining a high mean score of 4.11, which is a good score. This result is compatible with MacBeath's (2003) study which concludes the distribution aspect does not mean that everyone leads simultaneously or that leadership activities have no agreed or common direction.

It rather means that the process of distribution is initiated by the headteacher who identifies and delegates leadership responsibilities to individual teachers (Macbeath, 2003). Such delegation could be driven by the head-teacher's recognition that others have the expertise that he/she does not have (Macbeath, *ibid*).

h) Pupil Participation

The principals, as the data revealed, consider pupil participation and engagement (B23) in leadership practices and this leadership attribute showed a strong significant

correlation with distributed leadership, .654; $p < .05$. This attribute scooped the highest mean score, when compared to other attributes, 4.15, which is a good and highly commendable score, table 4.7. This result tallies with that of Gronn (2002) which suggests that it is not only the head-teacher's leadership that counts but also the leadership roles performed by deputy heads, substantive teachers, support teachers, members of the school councils, boards or governing bodies and students.

The results still concurs well with Mulford's (2008) citing of a UK detailed case on 11 effective schools. The study reveals that effective headship seems to include the nurturing of leadership opportunities for teachers, but also for learners.

i) High on distributed

Finally the table (4.9) reveals that there was strong significant correlation when the teachers' views about whether or not their teacher scored high on distributed leadership, $r = .776$, with a significance of .000. This demonstrates that principals at such schools practiced distributed leadership. Similarly, the main attribute was scored well by teachers, averaging a mean score of 4.0019 (of agree, Table 4.3), which is a good score.

5.2.2.3 Instructional Leadership.

School administrators play a key role in providing leadership for improvement at their sites. One of the ways in which administrators over the decades have attempted to provide such leadership has been through shifting their focus from their managerial role to an instructional leadership role (Bossert et al (1982). The researcher still set out to test whether or not the practices of principals in best performing schools are instructional in nature.

The leadership practices meant to measure instructional leadership, on the other hand, resulted in mean scores that were either high or highly skewed towards the mean value four (of agree, table 4.5). This showed that there is agreement that the leadership practices of principals in successful schools also comprises of practices that are instructional in nature.

The correlations as far as each of the leadership attributes versus the variable of instructional leadership is concerned are discussed below:

a) Leader in Pedagogy

The data indicates that the principals in successful schools acted as leaders in terms of pedagogy and instruction (B25) and this leadership practice proved to be strongly and significantly correlated with instructional leadership = .652, with a significance of .000, table 4.11. The attribute came up with a mean score of 3.97, which is a satisfactory score as it is overtly skewed towards the good mean score of 4 (table 4.10).

A similar sentiment could be deduced from a QCA analysis, “He knows the technology of teaching and learning and he provides effective learning and teaching environment”, [S130]. This result tallies with that of Smith & Andrews (1989) that concludes that an instructional school leader knows the technology of teaching and learning, knows what good instruction entails, and could accurately assess a teacher’s effectiveness based on the criterion of good instruction.

The above conclusion entails that those principals could provide instructional assistance to their teachers as they know how students learn and what type of interactions would help them achieve. The result by Smith & Andrews (1989) still confirm instructional

the demonstration of knowledge for the technology of teaching by principals (B28), a practice that significantly correlate with instructional leadership.

b) Instructional Quality Top Priority

The teachers view their principals as leaders who made instructional quality top priority of the school (B26) and this proved to be highly correlated with instructional leadership, $r = .672$; $p < .05$. This attribute further received good scores from the participating teachers, scooping a mean score of 4.15 (of high commendable score).

A situation identical to the observation on the open-ended items, “He makes instructional quality top priority of the school”, [S116]. The results match those of Tedllie and Raynolds (2000), which found that instructional leadership practices refers to those actions that a principal takes, or delegates to others, to promote growth in student learning and makes instructional quality top priority of the school and brings that vision to realisation. Cuban (1988) expands the above findings by stating that instructional leaders seeks to influence conditions that directly impact the quality of curriculum and instruction delivered to students in classrooms.

c) Resource Provider

The data still reveals that principals in high performing schools provide resources to their schools to support instruction (B27) and this practice was positively correlated with instructional leadership = .610, with a significance of .000, table 4.11. On the other hand, this attribute received a mean score of 3.89, a satisfactory score which is skewed towards the mean score of four, which is a good score.

The provision of resources was also referred to in the QCA analysis, “Provides effective learning as well as provide resources”, [S41]. “The school now has overhead

projectors and softwares that teachers can use to make teaching and learning effective”, [S74]. The results are found to align with those of Smith & Andrews (1989), which show that effective instructional principals have the ability to marshal personnel, district and community resources to achieve the vision and goals of the schools. The results are still supported by Sergiovanni (1990) as cited in Andrews et al. (1991) who adds that the effective resource provider, knowing the talents of those supervised, could provide the professional staff with options by the way they are placed in the organization.

d) Hands-on Principal

The data still provides an answer, as far as effective type of school leadership is concerned, by indicating that principals in high schools that took part in the study are hands-on principals (B29). This practice demonstrated significant positive correlation with instructional leadership, $r = .682$; $p < .05$. This attribute received a high mean score of 4.15 (of high score), which is a very good and commendable score.

The principals' involvement could be deduced from the following observations, as so extracted via the QCA analysis: “Leader lead by example e.g. they are involved in extra classes as well as study sessions of learners”, [S62]. “Principal is very engaged in all school activities”, [S3]. “Our principal's perseverance and consistence motivates the grade 10s to excel and the engagement of the grade 10s in the afternoon classes”, [S68].

The results match those of Teddlie and Reynolds (2000), which concluded instructional leadership as being concerned with hands on involvement with teaching and learning processes, and with the head-teacher acting as a leader in terms of pedagogy and instruction rather than taking a more hands-off role concerned more strongly with administration. The results, on the other hand, match those of Lee (1991), which concluded

that instructional leadership requires administrators to be involved with issues of curriculum and classrooms instructional practices.

e) Effective Teaching and Learning Environment

The SPSS analysis of the data showed that the principals at the targeted schools provided effective learning and teaching environments (B30) and this positively correlated instructional leadership, $r = .624$; $p < .05$, table 4.11. The attribute also received a high and commendable mean score of 4.05, showing that principals do well in their ability to create effective teaching and learning environment.

The QCA analysis also indicated, “The principal provides effective learning and an environment conducive for teaching”, [S132]. “Availability of good teachers and the clear and healthy working environment; the excess to life skills and star for life programmes that guide most of the learners in the best future being”, [S60].

The results reflect those of Daresh and Ching-jen (1985) which concludes that an effective and efficient leader, by providing an effective teaching and learning environment would increase the quality of education at schools, move the schools towards the ideal position and increase student achievement (Sezgin, 2002). This finding could still be married to that of Johnson et al (1989) & Smith et al (1989) which concluded that only when faculty felt secure in their environment will they be willing to take risks or help the resource provider in nurturing creative approaches to change.

f) Instruction Coordinated and Controlled

The data revealed that principals coordinates and controls instruction (B31) and this positively correlated with instructional leadership, $r = .604$; $p < .05$. The mean score to this attribute is 3.99, a satisfactory score that is overtly skewed towards the high mean score of

four. However, it still indicates an opportunity for improvement on the side of the principal. This is aligned with the findings of Hallinger & Murphy (1995) that concluded an effective instructional leader coordinates and controls instruction and curriculum. This aspect incorporates supervising instruction, coordinating the curriculum, and monitoring student progress (Johnson & Johnson, 1989).

g) Staff Development Match Staff Needs

The data showed that principals match each staff member's needs to staff development opportunities (B32) and this proved positive interrelation with instructional leadership = .605, table 4.11. This attribute saw a somewhat satisfactory mean score of 3.79, also skewed towards the mean score of 4, which is a good score. The result at hand matches that of Minton (1984), as cited in Andrews et al (1991), which concluded that instructional leaders encouraged activities such as assessing needs of certain groups or departments to better focus staff development on those group's particular needs. An instructional leader can match each staff member's needs to staff development opportunities (Sergiovanni, 1990).

h) Best Communicator

The researcher could deduce from the data that principals at effective schools are the best communicators (B33) and this particular practice was strongly and significantly correlated to instructional leadership, as far as the teachers' views were concerned = .652, with a significance of .000. It, at the same time, obtained a mean score of 4.03 (of high score), which is a good commendable score. This result ties well with the results of Grady's (1986), which resulted in that effective instructional leaders have a strong sense of direction

for their organization and skillfully employ strategies to communicate that direction to both the organisation and community.

Andrews et al (1986) extend the importance of principal's ability to communicate by emphasising that the principal must communicate to staff fundamental notions such as; (a) all students can learn and succeed; (b) in schooling, success breeds success; (c) schools can enable students to be successful; that clearly defined learner outcomes determine instructional programs and decisions.

The result still matches that of Smith & Andrews' (1989) conclusion that sees an instructional leader as an effective communicator, one able to speak and write clearly and concisely; displaying good organisational skills in written and oral communication; carefully planning staff meetings; publicizing and often referring to school goals; giving written recognition of accomplishments to students, staff, and parents; and articulating the mission of the school and their principal's expectations for their performance.

i) Visible Presence

The participants indicated that their principals maintain a visible presence (B34) and this meant a strong significant positive correlation with instructional leadership, $r = .722$; $p < .05$, table 4.11. The attribute scooped the highest mean score of 4.23, which is a very good and highly commendable score in relation to mean scores by other attributes. This implies satisfaction on the side of teachers as regards the visibility of the principal at the school. It indicates, in other words, that instructional principals are always around on the school premises and are visible to the entire staff and learners.

This result reflects that of Smith & Andrews (1989), which concluded that to be an effective supervisor, the principal has to "show up". This implies that the principal's

presence is felt in every area of the school's activities. Smith & Andrews (1989) even suggest principals engaged Management by Wondering Around (MWA). Being "in touch" for the effective principal does not mean producing memos or position papers (Smith & Andrews, 1989). Peters (1987) elaborates by noting that a principal is out of time with times if s/he is in the office more than a third of the time.

j) Teacher Leaders

The teachers, as the data indicates, feel that their principals develop teacher leaders (B36) and this leadership practice indicated a significant positive correlation with instructional leadership, $r = .696$; with a significance of $.000$. It should be noted this attribute scooped a mean score of 3.90, a satisfactory score that is highly skewed towards the mean score of 4. This result matches that of Andrews et al (1991), which concluded that an instructional leader's genuine concern for the health, welfare, and continued professional and personal growth of each staff member becomes a symbol of persons caring about one another in the school environment.

The principal, through class visits, needs to identify when teachers are doing the right things and provide opportunities for those teachers to share ideas through staff development activities and other formal and informal professional conversation (Andrews et al., 1991).

k) Instructional Leadership Qualities

The data on instructional leadership further indicates that teachers feel their principals score high on instructional leadership practices = 680, with a significance of $.000$.

This result indicates that principals at effective schools practice instructional leadership. This observation is further supported by the fact that it was scored well by teachers, averaging a mean score of 4.0401, which is a very good score.

1) Overall score on instructional leadership

Table 4.12 indicates that the school principals of effective secondary schools in Windhoek score high on instructional leadership. The B38 attribute, “overall, my principal scores high on instructional leadership practices”, shows high and significant correlation with the variable distributed leadership = .680, with a significance of .000. This result, as already mentioned above, is supported by how well it was scored by the participating teachers, averaging a mean score of 4.0401 (of agree). This result is consistent with the study of Hallinger (2003), which concluded that instructional leadership influence the quality of school outcomes through the alignment of school structures (e.g., academic standards, time allocation, curriculum) with the school’s mission.

The significance of instructional leadership is further expanded by Cuban (1988) who observes that instructional leadership seeks to influence conditions that directly impact the quality of curriculum and instruction delivered to students in classrooms. Its impact is further stretched by the study of Andrews, Basom & Basom (1991), which maintains that as an instructional leader, the principal focuses less on “doing things right” and more on “doing right things”, the things we know can help improve student achievement.

5.3.3 Are the participating schools effective?

In trying to determine whether or not the high schools that took part in this research are indeed effective or high performing, characteristics of effective school attributes were extracted to measure school effectiveness. This endeavour gave the researcher an

opportunity to test whether the effectiveness of the participating schools correlate the characteristics of effective schools as enshrined in the literature of the study at hand.

Some of the attributes used to measure the characteristics of schools indicated the mean value of 4 (of high score) with other attributes showing the mean value of satisfactory, though overtly skewed towards the mean value of 4), table 4.13. The overall mean value of the attributes used as a measure of the characteristics of effective schools averaged a mean value of 3.9180, table 4.3) which is overtly skewed towards the mean value of 4 (of agree). This means that the scores on the attributes that measured the variable of effective school characteristics were evenly distributed. It indicates that there are areas where principals of effective schools themselves have an opportunity to improve and those that are scored well by teachers to credit the principal.

Researchers such as, Mortimore et al (1995) and Edmonds (1979, Lezotte (1991) found that high-performing schools do not rely on a single ‘thing’ to ensure high student performance but on a number of a combination of common characteristics.

The attributes still determined the consequences of the leadership practices on the characteristics of the participating Windhoek schools.

The teachers were given an opportunity to express their views as to whether or not their schools were effective in relation to the attributes or characteristics of effective schools, table 4.14. Once again, each attribute forms part of the title that heads the direction of discussion.

a) Leading Professional

There was a significant positive correlation between whether or not principals at the participating schools are ‘leading professionals’ (B42) and effective schools, $r = .605$, with

significant coefficient of $p < .05$, table 4.14. This result is further supported by how well it was scored by the participating teachers, averaging a mean score of 4.13 (of high score), which is a highly commendable score, as the mean value of the attribute is far above the value of the scale mean ($M_{scale} = 3$).

These results spell out a complete match with those of Rutter et al (1979), which concluded that the headteacher has to be a leading professional. This implies principals are involved in and have the knowledge about what goes on in the classroom, including the curriculum, teaching strategies and the monitoring of pupil progress (Rutter, *ibid*).

b) United in Purpose

There was strong significant correlation between B43, “we are a staff that is united in purpose” and effective school characteristics = .663, with a significance of .000. It should be noted this attribute scooped a mean score of 3.87, a satisfactory score that is skewed towards the mean score of 4 (table 4.13). These results resonate the findings by Rutter (1979), which add that the atmosphere of a school would be greatly influenced by the degree to which it functions as a coherent whole and still expands that a school wide set of values are conducive to both good morale and effective teaching.

The results, on the other hand, still match those of Mortimore (1995) which stress most studies for effective organizations emphasised the importance of a shared vision in uplifting aspirations and fostering a common purpose. He further states that both school effective research and evaluations of school improvement programs show that consensus on the values and goals of the school is associated with improved educational outcomes.

c) Consistent in Practice

The data showed teachers view their schools are consistent in their practices (B44) and this indicates strong significant correlation with effective school characteristics = .678, $p < .05$, table 4.14. This attribute saw a somewhat satisfactory mean score of 3.75, a satisfactory score skewed towards the mean score of 4, which is a highly commendable score.

The results shows consistency with the findings by Mortimore (1995), which stress that related to the notion of consensus amongst staff is the extent to which teachers follow a consistent approach to their work and adhere to common and agreed approaches to matters such as assessment, and the enforcement of rules and policies regarding rewards and sanctions. He further maintains that in schools where teachers adopt a consistent approach to the use of school curriculum guidelines there is a positive impact on the progress of pupils.

d) Orderly Atmosphere

The data demonstrated a strong significant correlation when B45, “Our school boasts an orderly environment”, was correlated with effective school characteristics = .689, with a significance of .000. This attribute further saw a somewhat satisfactory mean score of 3.92, a score highly skewed towards the mean score of 4, which is a high and commendable score. These results reflects the conclusion of Mortimore’s et al (1988a) which also points to the encouragement of self-control amongst pupils as a source of a positive ethos in the classroom, and the disadvantages of high levels of pupil noise and movement for pupil concentration. They maintain that what the research in general shows is not that schools become more effective as they become more orderly, but rather that an orderly environment is a prerequisite for effective learning to take place.

The results are still consistent with those of Mortimore et al (1995) which conclude that successful schools are more likely to be calm rather than chaotic places. He cites studies that stress the importance of maintaining a task-oriented, orderly climate in schools (Weber, 1971; Stallings & Hentzel, 1978; Brookover et al, 1979; Edmonds, 1979, 1981; Rutter et al, 1979).

e) Attractive Working Environment

The data still revealed strong significant correlation when B46, “our working environment is very attractive”, was correlated with effective school characteristics = .682, with a significance of .000. The mean score to this attribute is 3.98, a satisfactory score overtly skewed towards the mean score of four. The score equally indicates an opportunity for improvement on the side of the principal.

A similar sentiment on an attractive working environment could be easily extracted from the open-ended items, “A friendly environment, emphasising discipline, teaching learners to take ownership of their education and being accountable thereof, involvement of parents greatly”, [S20]. “The working environment is awesome”, [S86]. “Our learning environment is attractive indeed”, [S87]. “The school environment, which includes the classroom, is very conducive for successive learning to take place” [S90].

The findings, furthermore, are consistent with the findings of Mortimore (1995), which conclude that school effectiveness research suggests that the physical environment of a school has an effect on both the attitudes and achievement of pupils. In the same vein, Rutter et al (1979) points out that keeping a school in a good state of repair and maintenance results in higher standards of academic attainment and behavior. He (Rutter, *ibid*) goes on to suggest two explanations for this: attractive and stimulating working conditions tend to

improve morale; and neglected buildings tend to encourage vandalism. Mortimore et al (1988a) also point to the importance of creating a pleasant physical environment, including the display of children's work.

f) Maximized Learning Time

There was a significant positive correlation when the participating teachers expressed their views that their schools maximised learning time (B47) and this correlated with effective school characteristics = .668, with a significance of .000. The mean score to this attribute is 3.94, which is overtly skewed towards the mean score of 4, a good score and therefore, rendered satisfactory. The result matches that of some studies that examined the use of time in schools and a number of measures of learning time have shown to have positive correlations with pupil outcomes and behavior. The measures include:

Proportion of the day devoted to academic subjects (Coleman et al, 1981), or to particular academic subjects (Bennett, 1978).

Proportion of time in lessons devoted to learning (Brookover et al, 1979), or to interaction with pupils (Mortimore et al, 1988a).

Proportion of teachers' time spent on discussing the content of work with pupils as opposed to routine matters and the maintenance of work activity (Alexander, 1992).

g) Efficient Organisation

There is positive correlation when the attribute that schools' activities are efficiently organized (B50) is correlated with effective school characteristics = .771, with a significance of .000. This result is further supported by how well it was scored by the participating teachers, averaging a mean score of 4.02, which is a high commendable good

score. The results are a complete match to the findings by several studies that show the importance of teachers being well-organised and absolutely clear about their objectives. For example, Evertson et al (1980) found positive effects on achievement when teachers feel “efficacy and an internal locus of control”, and they organise their classrooms and plan proactively on a daily basis.

The result still matches the findings by Rosenshine’s & Stevens’ (1981) review that highlights the importance of structured teaching and purposefulness in promoting pupil progress. They drew particular attention to effective questioning techniques where questions are structured so as to focus pupils’ attention on the key elements of the lesson. Supporting earlier findings by Galton & Simon (1980), Mortimore et al (1988a) likewise note positive effects on progress through teachers spending more time asking questions and on work-related communication in their study of junior education.

They also found positive outcomes to be associated with efficient organisation of classroom work with plenty for pupils to do, a limited focus to sessions, and a well-defined framework within which a degree of pupil independence and responsibility for managing their own work could be encouraged. They finally stress that for older groups, greater stress on independence and responsibility is appropriate.

h) Structured Lessons

The table (4.14) indicates strong correlation when B51, “lessons are well-structured with a clear purpose”, is correlated with effective school characteristics = .618, with a significance of .000. The mean score to this attribute is 3.99, which is rendered satisfactory by the fact that it is overtly skewed towards the mean score of 4, a high score. The result is compatible with the findings of Rutter et al (1979) that draw attention to the beneficial

effects of preparing lessons in advance, and later point out that the same more time that teachers spent organizing a lesson after it had begun, the more likely it is that they would lose the attention of the class, with the attendant double risk of loss of opportunity to learn and disruptive behavior.

Levine & Lezotte (1990) stress, on the other hand, the importance of appropriate pacing of lessons to make sure that their original objectives are achieved. Stallings (1975), as cited in Mortimore et al (1995), points at preparation that would see improvements in pupil outcomes through systematic teaching methods with open-ended questions, pupil answers, followed by teacher feedback.

i) High Expectations

The data indicated strong significant correlation when B52, “Expectations are quite high all round” was correlated with effective school characteristics = .701, with a significance of .000. This result is further supported by how well it was scored by the participating teachers, averaging a mean score of 4.10, which is a very good commendable score (table 4.13). The results are compatible with those of Mortimore (1995) who believe that teachers and staff at effective schools believe that all students could learn and meet high standards. While recognizing that some students had to overcome significant barriers, these obstacles are not seen as insurmountable. Students are offered an ambitious and rigorous course of study (Mortimore, 1995).

The result still sits well with the findings of Mortimore (1995) who notes that positive expectations of pupil achievement are one of the most important characteristics of effective schools. He further stresses that evidence suggests that if teachers set high standards for their pupil, let them know that they are expected to meet them, and provide

intellectually challenging lessons to correspond to these expectations, then the impact on achievement can be considerable. The results are further consistent with those of Mortimore (1995), which maintain that studies and review articles in several countries show a strong relationship between high expectations and effective learning.

Furthermore, the findings are consistent with Levine's & Lezotte's (1990) conclusion that high expectations has also been described as a crucial characteristic of virtually all unusually effective schools described in case studies. In the same vein, Mortimore (1995) stresses that high expectations correspond to a more active role for teachers in helping pupils to learn and a strong sense of efficacy.

j) Challenging Activities

The results showed significant positive correlation when the practices of providing intellectually challenging school activities (B53) was correlated with effective school characteristics = .749, with a significance of .000, (table 4.14). The mean score to this attribute is 3.79, which is overtly skewed towards the mean score of 4, and therefore rendered satisfactory status.

The results are compatible with the results of the studies on characteristics of effective schools carried out by many researchers. For example, Mortimore's et al. (1995) point out that there seems little doubt that a common cause of under-achievement in pupils is the failure to challenge them. He stresses that the implications of this are that when schools has high expectations of their pupils they attempt, wherever possible, to provide intellectually challenging lessons for all pupils in all classes. This approach has been shown by several studies to be associated with greater effectiveness (Mortimore et al., 1995).

k) Communicated Expectations

There is agreement that communicating the expectations to all learners (B54) is a characteristic associated with the most effective schools, $r = .652$; $p < .05$. This result is further supported by how well it was scored by the participating teachers, averaging a mean score of 4.02, which is a good score of a highly commendable status. This result is a complete reflection of the results by Bandura (1992), which observes that the attitude of the teacher being communicated to pupils and the consequent effect on their self-esteem which in turn impacts on pupil performance. The results are equally compatible to Mortimore's (1995) expansion that even if teachers do not believe that success is possible, conveying conviction that achievement can be raised can have a powerful effect. Teachers may need to monitor either or both their beliefs and behaviour to make sure that this takes place (Bandura, 1992).

Wilson & Corcoran (1988) note that raising expectations is an incremental process and demonstrated success plays a critical role (Wilson & Corcoran, 1988). Reinforcing this success through praise (positive reinforcement) is a key opportunity for communicating high expectations (Mortimore et al. 1995).

1) Fair Discipline Procedures

There is a high degree of relationship between clear and fair disciplinary procedures (B55), $r = .666$; $p < .05$) with characteristics of effective schools. This result is further supported by how well it was scored by the participating teachers, averaging a mean score of 4.00 (of high score), which is a good commendable score (table 4.13). This result is a definite replica of that of Rutter et al (1979) who focuses, in particular, on consistent approaches to discipline, and demonstrates that pupils are more likely to maintain principles

and guidelines of behavior when they understand the standards of discipline to be based on general expectations set by the school, rather than the whim of the individual teacher.

Authors also point to the importance of teachers acting as positive role models for the pupil in their relationships with pupils and other staff and in their attitude to the school (Mortimore, 1995). In his study of Welsh schools, Reynolds (1979) also draws attention to the importance of avoiding a rigid and coercive approach to discipline.

m) Monitoring Performance

The data indicates significant positive correlation when the attribute of “monitoring performance” (B56) is correlated with characteristics effective schools, = .646; $p < .05$. The mean score to this attribute is 3.96, a satisfactory score, which is overtly skewed towards the mean score of 4, a good score. The results are consistent with those of Mortimore (1995), who cites researchers in a large British study of primary schools that concentrates on a well-established form of monitoring pupil performance.

Those researchers examine record-keeping by teachers as a form of continual monitoring of the strengths and weaknesses of pupils, combining the results of objective assessments with teachers’ judgment of their pupils. In many effective schools, these records related not only to academic abilities but also to personal and social development. The researchers found record keeping an important characteristic of effective schools.

n) Evaluating Performance

The B57 attribute, “the performance of our school is usually evaluated”, equally shows a pattern of strong significant correlation with characteristics of effective schools = .659, with a significance of .000. This appropriate measure of effective school characteristics reveals that these high schools’ performance is usually evaluated. The result

is further supported by how well it was scored by the participating teachers, averaging a mean score of 4.13, which is a very good score of high commendable status.

The result significantly correlates with the findings of Scheerens (1992), in a review of school effectiveness research, which argues that proper evaluation is an essential prerequisite to effectiveness-enhancing measures at all levels. Evaluating school improvement programmes are particularly important (Scheerens, 1992). For example, Lezotte (1989) emphasizes the importance of the use of measures of pupil achievement as the basis for programme evaluation; indeed, this is one of his five factors for school effectiveness.

The results are still compatible with Mortimore's et al (1995), which concludes that the feedback and incorporation of monitoring and evaluation information routinely into decision-making procedures in the school ensures that information is used actively. He stresses that such information also needs to be related to staff development.

o) Pupil Self-Esteem

The data indicates that principals aspired to raise pupil self-esteem (B58) and this significantly correlated with the characteristics of effective school = .631, with a significance of .00. The mean score to this attribute is a satisfactory 3.94, which is overtly skewed towards the mean score of 4, a good score. The results are a reflection of those reached by (Helmreich, 1972; Bangura, 1992) that levels of self-esteem are significantly affected by treatment by others and are a major factor determining achievement.

They further elaborate in case of pupil self-esteem; the attitudes of teachers are expressed in a number of ways: the way that they communicate with pupils; the extent to which pupils are accorded respect, and feel they are understood; and the efforts teachers

make to respond to the personal needs of individual pupils. The results are equally consistent with those of Trisman's et al (1976) that argue student teacher rapport has a beneficial influence on outcomes, and a number of other studies show positive teacher-pupil relations to be a dimension linked with success (Rutter et al, 1979; Coleman et al, 1982).

The results also link up with Mortimore's et al (1988), which find positive effects where teachers communicate enthusiasm to pupils, and where they show interest in children as individuals. They maintain teacher-pupil relationships could be enhanced even out of the classroom. For example, Rutter et al (1979) refers to British studies of secondary schools that found that when they are shared out-of-school activities between teachers, and pupils and where pupils feel able to consult their teachers about personal problems there are positive effects on outcomes (Rutter et al, 1979).

p) Learners Taking up Responsibility

There is high significant correlation when B59, "learners are responsible and take control of their work", is correlated with effective school characteristics = .709, with a significance of .000. The mean score to this attribute is a satisfactory 3.50, which is overtly skewed towards the mean score of 4, a good score. This result proves a match with the findings of Mortimore et al (1995), which cites British studies that show positive effects on both pupil behavior and examination success through giving a high proportion of children positions of responsibility in the school system, thus conveying trust in pupils' abilities and setting standards of mature behavior.

q) Parental Involvement

The data shows that principals at successful schools managed to rally parents behind the school activities of their school-going-children (B60) and this practice significantly

correlates with the characteristics of effective schools = .628; .000. The mean score to this attribute is 3.35, which is a satisfactory score with some commendable status to the poor performing schools. This suggests a few opportunities to improve for the headmaster. The QCA analysis reveals similar results, “High level of communication and teamwork: teachers are involved and connected to each other, parents and the community at large work together by identifying problems and work solutions”, [S79].

This practice is a complete reflection of the results of Mortimore et al’s (1988a), which cites the junior school study that found positive benefits where parents help in the classroom and with school trips, where there is regular progress meetings, where there is a parents’ room and where the head-teacher has an open door policy. In the same vein, the results match those of Annor et al., (1976), which adds that parental presence in the school buildings and participation in committees, events and other activities all have a positive effect on achievements.

The results further match the findings of Mortimore (1993) & Coleman (1994), which points out that where teachers and parents have similar objectives and expectations for children, the combined support for the learning process could be a powerful force for improvement.

The results also elaborate Mortimore’s et al (1995) conclusion that parents who are involved may expand pupil’s active learning time (e.g. by working with children themselves especially for younger children, or by supervising homework) and, in the case of difficulties arising at school, perhaps in attendance or behavior, being more likely to support the school’s requirements and standards. As Macbeth (1994) argue, successful schools are likely to be those which not only involve but support and make demands on parents.

The results can still be aligned with Coleman's et al., (1994), conclusion that draws particular attention to the interconnectedness of the affective and cognitive domains in the triad of relationships between teacher, parent and students. They argue that it is the relationship between the individual teacher and the parent(s) which is critical in enlisting the home as ally, or rendering the enemy of the educative (or not) activities of the classroom.

r) Trust

The data indicate that teachers at the participating schools trust each other (B61). This scenario significantly and positively correlated with the characteristics of effective schools .765, with a significance of .000. Furthermore, the mean score to this attribute is 3.36; a satisfactory score with commendable status. The neutral mean value of the attribute implies the participants' scores were well distributed where other scores were below the scale mean (Mscale =3, neutral) and others were above it.

The correlation result, however, is consistent with MacBeath (2003) who identifies 'trust' as a favorable condition for promoting distributing of leadership in school. "There must be trust among teachers, between a teacher and a teacher, between teachers and head-teacher, between pupils and head-teacher and among pupils", (p. 25). It further tallies with MacBeath's (2003) observation that mutual trust should be at the centre of interactions between and among teachers, head-teachers, pupils and stakeholders of the school.

5.3.4 Do the characteristics of effective schools impact annual grade 10 performances?

Table 4.15 indicates that the characteristics of the participating schools have a significant impact on the annual performance of grade 10s. The B64 attribute, "overall, the school's operating characteristics have a significant effect on the annual grade 10

performance”, shows significant correlation with the variable “effective school characteristics” = .644, with a significance of .000. The result demonstrates the attributes used to measure effective school characteristics were the right ones. This result confirms that the characteristics of effective schools are “red flags” signaling successful performance by a given effective school. It confirms that effective leadership practices are inseparable from the apparent characteristics that define what goes on in a given effective schools. The table also indicates that the schools that participated in this study are indeed effective schools. The B65 attribute, “overall, we are a very effective school”, shows high and significant correlation with the variable “effective school characteristics”, $r = .847$, with a significance of .000.

This result demonstrates inseparable relationship between the leadership of Windhoek successful high schools and the different characteristics the teachers feel are behind their success story. This interrelationship resonates well with Edmonds (1979) & Lezotte (1991) who argue that high performing schools do not rely on a single thing to ensure high student performance but on a number of a combination of common characteristics.

6: Summary of Findings, Conclusions and Recommendations

6.0 Introduction

Chapter 6 is the final section of this study. It gives a succinct review of the objective or main findings of the study. It discusses in particular the main objective of the research. It highlights some similarities with results of previous findings noted in the literature review and deals with the interpretation and implications of significant research findings. It concludes the study, keeping readers well-informed of the events in the field of leadership in institutions of education (secondary schools), especially as it pertains to relationship between leadership practices in successful high schools and the performance of grade 10 learners.

This chapter proposes some measures that may help boost effective school leadership, and even refers to the different types of school leadership theories that could lead to learner performance. It recommends the areas of improvement for the effective schools in relation to the scores made by the teachers who took part in the study. The scores are still used to make suggestions of improvements for the underperforming schools. In light of the above, this chapter is therefore divided into the overall role of leadership, impact of leadership on performance, conclusions, and recommendations (for further research).

6.1 The Overall Role of Leadership Theories

Section 1.4 of this study indicates that the main objective of this study was “to assess the leadership practices of head-teachers in successful state high schools in Windhoek”. The school leadership was analysed in relation to the three recommended effective school

leadership theories as so proven to be by a plethora of scholarships referred to in this study. The data show that there is a significant relationship between the leadership practices principals at the participating schools and the leadership theories of transformational, distributed and instructional leadership.

The data demonstrate strong significant correlation between principal practices and transformational leadership (table 4.6) ($r = .740$, with a significance of $.000$). It is even further supported by the mean score 4.0016 this variable scooped, indicating that it was scored well by the participating teachers. This explains that the participating schools agree with the assumption that transformational leadership is practiced by head-teachers of the Windhoek Education Region's effective state high schools.

The use of transformational leadership practices in a school set up is supported by Carbnaro, 2005; Michaels & Miethe, 1989; as cited by Pounder (2008), who maintain that the positive effect of transformational leadership on subordinates' level of effort is particularly relevant to an educational context given strong evidence linking academic achievement and student effort at both school and higher education level in general.

This is an agreement supported by the study carried out by Leithwood et al., (1991) on 47 schools which demonstrates highly significant relationships between aspects of transformational leadership and teachers' own reports of changes in both attitude toward school improvement and altered school instructional behavior. Pounder (2008) expatiates by observing that the exercise of transformational leadership generally has a profound and positive effect on those being led and this has important implications for the education of the students.

The data, in like manner, confirms that principals at participating schools share leadership practices with other members of the staff. This could be deduced from the strong significant correlation between B24, “overall, my principal scores high on distributed leadership”, and the variable of “distributed leadership” = .776, with a significance of .000. The result is further strengthened by how well this attribute was scored by teachers, averaging a mean score of 4.0019 (of agree). This signifies confirmation that teachers agree that their principals’ leadership practices are distributed in nature. Additionally it confirms distributed leadership to be one of the leadership theories treasured in the practices of principals at the participating schools.

The results resonate well with Johnson’s (1997) argument that the distribution of leadership responsibilities is an alternative to heroic leadership. He maintains a post-heroic model that places school leadership “not in the individual agency of one, but in the collaborative efforts of many” (p. 7). The theory is further endorsed by MacBeath et al., (2004) who argue that the wave of changes resulting from structural, financial, curricular and technological reforms as well as growing demand for accountability impact powerfully on the working lives of not only head-teachers but teachers, students and all others who are directly or indirectly involved in the continuity and improvement of the school.

Instructional leadership is one of the theories the researcher set out to assess or measure in the leadership practices of principals at the participating schools. The results equally demonstrate a pattern of strong significant relationship between principal practices and instructional leadership, $r = .680$, with a significance of .000 (table 4.12). The variable further scooped a satisfactory mean value of 4.0401 (of agree), which is a good score. This result demonstrates how well transformational leadership was scored by the participating

teachers and, again, that the attributes used to measure instructional leadership show that the practices of principals at participating schools are instructional in nature.

The results still follow the argument by Andrews et al., (1986) and Andrews & Sober (1987) in a study conducted in over 200 schools with over 2,500 teachers, which concluded that high achieving schools are positively correlated with strong instructional leadership. In schools where teachers perceive their principals to be strong instructional leaders, student achievement scores exhibit significantly greater gains than in schools operated by principals who are perceived by teachers as average or weak instructional leaders (Andrews et al., 1986, & Andrews et al., 1987).

The result correlate with (Hallinger, 2003) who concludes Instructional leadership indicates that school principals contribute to school effectiveness and student achievement indirectly through actions they take to influence what happens in the school and in classrooms.

6.2 Conclusions of the Findings

The main objective of this study was to assess the leadership practices of headteachers in successful high schools in Windhoek. The assessment was done in relation to the effective school leadership theories of transformational, distributed and instructional leadership as juxtaposed with the characteristics of effective schools. The study recommends the findings for under-achieving high schools in Windhoek, or the entire nation, to emulate.

The findings of this study spell out different implications for the leadership and administrative skills of headteachers in Windhoek secondary schools. It proves that effective school leadership theories 'guide and enlighten' the day to day leadership practices of

principals in the Windhoek successful schools. It equally demonstrates that the characteristics of effective schools have an impact on the annual performance of grade 10 learners attaining grade eleven entries.

The study shows that the principals at the ten best performing Windhoek High Schools pursue leadership practices a plethora of scholarship proved to be interrelated or compatible with the different types of effective school leadership theories (transformational, distributed and instructional). It is proven in this study that the leadership theories are concomitant with each other and all could be deduced from the practices of all the principals at the participating schools.

The transformational leadership attributes saw practices such as ‘communicating a vision in an appealing way’ receive the high mean score, which is highly recommendable. This indicates that principals at effective schools do a commendable job when it gets to rallying the entire staff towards the attainment of the school vision. Other ‘high mean score’ practices that proved worth modeling by underperforming schools are: providing vision and sense of mission; develop and maintain a collaborative and professional school culture; caring about teachers’ individual concerns; and fostering student/teacher relationship.

Certain transformational leadership practices scooped ‘satisfactory mean scores’ and could be emulated by poor performing schools and be reviewed by the participating schools for improvement purposes, such as, provision of interesting and challenging tasks, fostering teacher development programme (in-service one) that is school-based, solving problems in collaboration with teachers, and finally, soliciting new ideas and creative ways of doing things.

The tests of distributive leadership revealed that principals at better performing schools consider ‘pupil participation and engagement’ in leadership roles, a highly recommendable attribute. Furthermore, the other ‘high mean score’ distributive practices that are worth emulating by underperforming schools are: identifying and delegating leadership responsibilities; creating a safe environment for new ventures; support a shared and distributed leadership; and encouraging continuous individual and collective learning. In like manner, certain attributes were evenly scored and are available for emulation by mediocre schools and for review by the Windhoek effective schools themselves: being more democratic and collaborative in approach, emphasise human-relations oriented features, let situation dictate who leads or, more simply, allow teachers to take up leadership roles in relation to their expertise.

Principals in effective schools embrace instructional leadership activities and the practice they observe most is to see to it that they ‘maintain a visible presence around the school’. In addition to the above attribute, other ‘high mean score’ instructional practices that were scored well by participants are: making instructional quality top priority of the school; be a hands-on principal, which is being ‘hip-deep in curriculum; provide effective learning and teaching environment; and be the best communicator to all stakeholders.

Furthermore, other instructional practices received ‘satisfactory scores’ from the participating teachers and are worth reviewing by both the underperforming and the schools that participated in this study: coordinate and control instruction, develop teacher leaders, act as a leader in terms of pedagogy and manage instructional program.

The ‘high mean score’ characteristics of these effective schools that stood out in this study are: principal being leading professionals and focusing only on achievement, the usual

evaluation of school performance, high and well communicated expectations all round, efficiently organized activities, and the clear and fair discipline procedures.

On the other hand, the characteristics of effective schools that received ‘satisfactory scores’ and worth emulating by poor performers and for review by the participating schools themselves are: a staff that is united in purpose, being consistent in practice, creation of an orderly atmosphere, formation of a very attractive working environment, maximise learning time, well-structured lessons with a clear purpose, school activities that provide intellectual challenge, school performance is well monitored, school that aspires to raise pupil self-esteem, responsible learners that take up control of their own work, parents are involved in their children’s school activities, trust among the entire staff and, finally, the school staff trusts its principal.

We stress that there could be additional reasons behind the success of the effective Windhoek high schools that took part in this study. However, this study had to make conclusions only limited to its main objective: “to assess the leadership practices in successful state high schools in Windhoek”. This exercise was limited to the effective school leadership theories (ESLT) enshrined in the literature of this study. Furthermore, the study was carried out with the existing knowledge that the participating schools’ annual grade 10 performance was very good.

6.3 Recommendations

From the accomplishments and results of this study the following recommendations were made:

a) Effective school leadership theories significantly inform or explain effective schools’ leadership practices and principals play a key role in establishing cultures that are

professionally stimulating for teachers, which increase their sense of efficacy and beliefs that have the capacity to make a difference in student learning. The Windhoek, or Khomas, Education Directorate should therefore emphasise transformational, distributed and instructional leadership skills. The directorate, through the Ministry of Education, and other education boards or councils in the region, should therefore establish and implement programmes that would help to develop the principals' skills in the leadership theories referred to hereinabove. Such programmes could include seminars, workshops and updates on school administration.

b) The Windhoek secondary school principals in underperforming schools in particular, should be encouraged to model transformational, distributed and instructional leadership practices as effective media for ensuring corporation and constructive partnership, characterised by openness, trust and professionalism. It is highly recommended they communicate the visions of their schools in an appealing way, maintain a visible presence (commonly known as managing by wondering around (MBWA)), make instructional quality top priority of the school, be hands-on principals, consider pupil participation and engagement; and create a safe environment for new ventures. This could help to enhance teachers' galvanisation towards embracing their profession with greater zeal, as well as fostering student academic progress and imbue in parents the desire for involvement in the day to day management and leadership of schools. Not only could this impact on the performance of teachers but also could have a significant impact on student commitment, which would in turn enhance student achievement.

c) Finally, the Ministry of Education in Namibia should integrate the leadership practices of principals and the characteristics of effective high schools with the activities of

continuous assessment and evaluation of their performance. This would help maintain the culture of excellence in these schools and keep them at par with the organisational changes concomitant with societal changes; even becoming learning organizations.

6.4 Recommendations for Further Research

In as much as this study may be highly instrumental to the development and maintenance of school leadership in the Windhoek secondary school system and beyond, it does not explore completely all areas of study that might also contribute immensely to the development of educational leadership in secondary schools nationwide. We therefore suggest that further investigations be carried out in similar or in different contexts.

The areas suggested for further inquiry are stated as follows:

a) While the researcher studied the leadership practices of secondary school principals, with the help of teachers, without having to pay attention to principal practices in the junior secondary schools and those in primary schools, it is suggested that further studies be done that make no such distinction, to determine how principals' leadership practices are significantly related to effective school leadership theories, as juxtaposed by their impact on the annual performance of learners in all grade level.

b) The data indicated an insignificant low correlation when the attribute 'tapping into intrinsic motivation was correlated with the main variable 'transformational leadership'. Despite the satisfactory mean score, this attribute proved an inappropriate measure of transformational leadership and could therefore not be considered for further examination in this research study. Another attribute that proved an insignificant measure of transformational leadership was the need for a principal to have high expectations for both teachers and learners. Different contexts, therefore, could be used to carry out research to

determine how tapping into teachers' intrinsic motivation and harboring high expectations for learners and teachers, as juxtaposed with transformational leadership, could impact school effectiveness.

c) Furthermore, both the attributes of considering stakeholders internal and external to the school and that of sharing leadership with little control showed insignificant correlations with independent variable "distributed leadership". The two attributes were, in like manner, considered insignificant to the progress of the study at hand, for the low correlations rendered them wrong measures of distributed leadership. A study could still be carried out to determine how the leadership behavior of valuing stakeholders internal and external to the school and that of sharing leadership with little control, as juxtaposed with school effectiveness, could correlate and appropriately measure 'distributed leadership'.

d) In like manner, the attributes of knowing the technology of teaching and learning and that of maintaining a positive attitude towards parents, teachers and learners, showed low correlations with the independent variable "instructional leadership". Similarly, their low relationship to the key variable rendered them insignificant for any further examination in the study. It is important to know how significant it is for an instructional principal to know the technology of teaching and learning, and how crucial it is for a principal to maintain a positive attitude towards parents, teachers and learners to school performance. Therefore, further research, in similar or different contexts, could be carried out to determine their significant relationship with instructional leadership behaviors.

e) Scholarly investigations that focus on how the attributes of 'a firm and purposeful principal', 'a principal who supports a participative approach', 'a school that emphasises academic activities', and 'a school where staff development is school-based',

relate to the characteristics of effective schools, are suggested to be carried out in the same or similar settings. These attributes were rendered futile by their low interrelationship with the key attribute 'effective school characteristics'. The suggested study might help to fine-tune the ability of principals to remain firm and purposeful in their leadership behaviors and even work their ability to initiate staff development and encourage participation by teachers and all other education stakeholders with a view to improving academic achievement of students.

f) Samples for this study were drawn from public school settings, so it is recommended that similar study be done in private school settings to determine the impact of leadership practices on the annual performance of learners in Windhoek private schools. This could help to clarify the difference between public and private schools.

6.5 Limitations

This study might be affected by the following limitations:

a) This study did not investigate other aspects of transformational leadership, distributed leadership, instructional leadership skills as well as other characteristics of effective schools. Practices such as the provision of incentives for teachers to attempt improvements in their own practices (transformational), parallel leadership (distributive), addressing teachers' health and welfare (instructional); and the effective school characteristic of implementing and managing change processes. All these school leadership aspects and characteristics might also have considerable impact on the annual performance of grade 10 learners. It should also be noted that extrinsic variables that might affect teachers' performance such as teacher pay and teacher promotion were not investigated.

b) This study was done in a small geographic scope and this might affect generalization. Further research might therefore be needed in a wider scope (e.g. state or national level). Data collection occurred just in the aftermath of an illegal teachers' strike due to elongated salary negotiations. Because of this, some participants might have filled out the questionnaire overzealously, as it gave them that rare chance to get back to their principals and that might have affected their genuine evaluation of the leadership behaviors of their principals.

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8. APPENDIX

THE EFFECTIVE SCHOOL LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE (ESLQ) INSTRUMENT

AN ASSESSMENT OF LEADERSHIP PRACTICES IN SUCCESSFUL HIGH SCHOOLS IN WINDHOEK

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Ethics Statement

Thank you for taking part in this academic endeavor. It is the researcher's promise that while carrying out this research, he will observe the highest possible ethical standards. He will maintain the highest integrity at all times regarding data gathering. The information in this questionnaire will be treated with confidentiality and the respondents' responses will be used only for research purposes.

SECTION A: For Statistical Purposes Only

Instructions:

For this section, please tick ()

1. The appropriate response.
2. Tick only one in each case.
3. Section B and C will have their own instructions

1. Name of School

Academia Senior Secondary School	1	
Concordia College	2	
Delta Secondary School	3	
Hage G. Geingob High School	4	

Hochland High School	5	
Immanuel Shifidi Secondary School	6	
Jan Möhr Senior Secondary School	7	
St Joseph's R. C. School Döbra	8	
Windhoek High School	9	
Windhoek Technical High School	10	

2. Gender

Male/Female	M	F
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3. For how long have you been teaching at this school?

3 – 5 years	
6 – 10 years	
11 – 15 years	
More than 15 years	

4. Which of the following most closely describes your highest professional qualification?

No formal qualification	
Diploma holder	
Degree holder	
Post graduate degree	

SECTION B

For each of the statements below, please indicate the extent of your agreement or disagreement by placing a tick in the appropriate box.

The response scale is as follows:

1. **Strongly disagree**
2. **Disagree**
3. **Undecided or Neutral**
4. **Agree**
5. **Strongly Agree**

STATEMENTS					
CATEGORY: TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP PRACTICES	SCALE				

1. My principal taps into my intrinsic motivation	1	2	3	4	5
2. My principal provides vision and a sense of mission	1	2	3	4	5
3. S/He communicates vision in an appealing way	1	2	3	4	5
4. S/He cares about teachers' individual concerns	1	2	3	4	5
5. S/He provides interesting and challenging tasks	1	2	3	4	5
6. S/He stimulates student ethical conduct	1	2	3	4	5
7. S/He develops and maintains a collaborative, professional school culture	1	2	3	4	5
8. S/He fosters teacher development (School based in-service programs)	1	2	3	4	5
9. S/He solves problems in collaboration with teachers	1	2	3	4	5
10. S/He has high expectations for teachers and learners	1	2	3	4	5

11. S/He fosters teacher/student relationship	1	2	3	4	5
12. S/He solicits new ideas and creative ways of doing things	1	2	3	4	5
13. Overall, my principal scores high on transformational leadership practices	1	2	3	4	5

CATEGORY: DISTRIBUTED LEADERSHIP PRACTICES	SCALE				
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14. My principal Support shared and distributed leadership	1	2	3	4	5
15. S/He is More democratic and collaborative in approach	1	2	3	4	5
16. S/He emphasizes human-relations oriented features	1	2	3	4	5
17. S/He considers stakeholders internal and external to the school	1	2	3	4	5
18. S/He lets task or problem situation dictate who leads (Teachers take up leadership roles in relation to their skills)	1	2	3	4	5
19. S/He creates a safe environment for new ventures	1	2	3	4	5
20. S/He shares leadership with little control	1	2	3	4	5
21.S/He encourages continuous individual and collective learning	1	2	3	4	5
22. S/He identifies and delegates leadership responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
23. S/He considers pupil participation and engagement	1	2	3	4	5
24. Overall, my principal scores high on distributed leadership practices	1	2	3	4	5

CATEGORY: INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP PRACTICES	SCALE				
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25. My principal acts as leader in terms of pedagogy and instruction	1	2	3	4	5
26. S/He makes instructional quality top priority of the school	1	2	3	4	5
27. S/He provides resources	1	2	3	4	5
28. S/He knows the technology of teaching and learning	1	2	3	4	5
29. S/He is a hands-on principal (takes part in school activities)	1	2	3	4	5
30. S/He provides effective learning and teaching environment	1	2	3	4	5
31. S/He coordinates and controls instruction	1	2	3	4	5
32.S/He matches each staff member's needs to staff development opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
33. S/He is the best communicator (information gets to all stakeholders)	1	2	3	4	5
34. S/He maintains a visible presence (always visible to staff and learners)	1	2	3	4	5
35. S/He manages instructional program	1	2	3	4	5
36. S/He develops teacher leaders	1	2	3	4	5
37. S/He maintains positive attitude towards parents, teachers and learners	1	2	3	4	5
38. Overall, my principal scores high on instructional leadership practices	1	2	3	4	5
39. Overall, my principal's instructional leadership practices have a significant impact on the school's annual grade 10 performance	1	2	3	4	5

CATEGORY: CHARACTERISTICS OF EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS	SCALE				
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40. My principal is firm and purposeful	1	2	3	4	5
41. My principal supports a participative approach	1	2	3	4	5
42. My principal is a leading professional	1	2	3	4	5

43. We are a staff that is united in purpose	1	2	3	4	5
44. We are consistent in practice	1	2	3	4	5
45. Our school boasts an orderly atmosphere	1	2	3	4	5
46. Our working environment is very attractive	1	2	3	4	5
47. Our school maximizes learning time	1	2	3	4	5
48. It emphasizes academic activities	1	2	3	4	5
49. It focuses on achievement	1	2	3	4	5
50. Activities are efficiently organized	1	2	3	4	5
51. Lessons are well structured with a clear purpose	1	2	3	4	5
52. Expectations are quite high all round	1	2	3	4	5
53. All school activities provide intellectual challenge	1	2	3	4	5
54. Expectations are well communicated	1	2	3	4	5
55. The discipline procedures are clear and fair	1	2	3	4	5
56. Our performance is well monitored	1	2	3	4	5
57. The performance of our school is usually evaluated	1	2	3	4	5
58. We all aspire to raise pupil self-esteem	1	2	3	4	5
59. Learners are responsible and take control of their work	1	2	3	4	5
60. Parents are involved in their children's school activities	1	2	3	4	5
61. There is trust among the entire staff	1	2	3	4	5
62. I trust my principal	1	2	3	4	5
63. Staff development is school-based (in-service training)	1	2	3	4	5
64. Overall, the school's operating characteristics have a significant effect on the annual grade 10 pass rates	1	2	3	4	5

65. Overall, we are a very effective school	1	2	3	4	5
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SECTION C

In your opinion, are there other leadership factors and/or school characteristics, which may have contributed to your school's high performance in the last 3 years?

LEADERSHIP FACTORS:

SCHOOL CHARACTERISTICS:

