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**IMPLEMENTATION OF SCHOOL- BASED ASSESSMENT IN HIGH SCHOOLS,
MPUMALANGA PROVINCE, SOUTH AFRICA: IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING
AND LEARNING.**

BY


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**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE
DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY IN EDUCATION AT THE UNIVERSITY
OF FORT HARE**

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JANUARY

2019

DECLARATION

I solemnly declare that to the best of my knowledge this thesis, entitled **“Implementation of school-based assessment in high schools, in Mpumalanga province, South Africa: implications for teaching and learning”** is a product of my own original work. I hereby affirm that it has not been submitted to any other institution of higher learning for the awarding of any degree or qualification. Where published and unpublished works of other scholars have been used, all efforts have been made to acknowledge the sources, both in the text and in the list of references.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of any education system is to deliver a quality educational product. Various forms of assessment are used to ensure the suitability of the product and inform decisions. In South Africa, School-Based Assessment(SBA) is one of the tools used to assess the content competences, skills, values and attitudes; to provide learners, parents and teachers with results that are a meaningful indication of what the learners know, understand and can do at the time of assessment (DBE, 2012). Surprisingly, on a yearly basis, Umalusi reports reveal that SBA marks are rejected resulting in the learners being resulted on mostly the year end examination. The purpose of this study was to examine the implementation of SBA with a view to unearth the factors contributing to the perennial rejection of SBA marks, resulting in learners from some schools being unfairly assessed. To explore the research problem, a mixed methods study, employing a concurrent triangulation design, was employed. Total Quality Management theory was the theoretical framework anchoring this study. Sub research questions to interrogate the research problem focused on examining the roles of the teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of SBA; assessing the structures in place to support the implementation of SBA; examining how teachers, learners and parents play complementary roles in the implementation of SBA; and identifying strategies to enhance the implementation of SBA in South African (SA) high schools. Data were collected using Questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussions with purposively selected samples of teachers, learners and SGB chairpersons from high schools in White River Circuit in Mpumalanga Province in South Africa. The use of mixed methods produced quantitative and qualitative data which were independently analysed and merged during interpretation. Findings revealed that: participants and respondents confirmed the various roles of SBA in teaching and learning; structures were in place to support the implementation of SBA in high schools; complementarity of roles were sporadic in the implementation of SBA in high schools; and various strategies were employed to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools. Implications for teaching and learning focused on realigning the implementation processes in the production of a quality educational product, and maximising its benefits to teachers, learners and parents.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to my lovely wife Isabel Laiza. She was my pillar of strength on the entire journey. She constantly and persistently checked on my progress which was the motivation which kept me going. I also would like to dedicate this thesis to my late father Tandai Senior Chipfiko, and my late sister Maita Chipfiko.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisors, Professor Cosmas Maphosa and Professor Emmauel.O Adu, for the support and guidance in the writing of this thesis. Their professionalism and promptness in giving feedback was unprecedented.

Second, I am deeply indebted to Dr James Zenda and Dr Khetiwe Zenda for the motivation which started the journey. They consistently and persistently lifted me up when I was down and they always reminded me that it is doable.

I also would like to thank my mother Winnie Chipfiko, the Chipfiko family and the Mtewa family for their support on this journey.

Many thanks also go to Makhosini Arnold Miya and Nelly M. Khumalo at Jacob Mdluli Secondary, for their unwavering support and Gilbert Ntokozo Khumalo for translating my Questionnaire for learners from English into SiSwati

My sincere thanks also go to the Mpumalanga Department of Education for the permission to conduct the study, schools where the data were collected, participants and respondents, for their time.



I also would like to thank the Govan Mbeki Research and Development Centre for the financial assistance and all who assisted me directly or indirectly on this journey.

Last but not the least; I would like to thank God the Almighty for the life blessings which allowed me to travel this journey.

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

APP - Annual Performance Plan

CA - Continuous Assessment

CAPS - Curriculum Assessment Policy

CI - Curriculum Implementer

DBE - Department of Basic Education

DCSF - Department for Children Schools and Families

DoE - Department of Education

FA - Formative Assessment

FAL - First Additional Language

FE- Final Examination



FET- Further Education and Training

FGD - Focus Group Discussions

GET - General Education and Training

HKEAA - The Hong Kong Examination and Assessment Authority

HL - Home Language

HoD- Head of Department

IBM - International Business Machine

ISO - International Organisation for Standardisation

MDG - Millennium Development Goals

MGE - Ministry of General Education

MMR - Mixed Methods Research

NEA - National Education Association

NPA - National Protocol for Assessment

NPPPP- National Policy Pertaining to the Programme and Promotion

NSC- National Senior Certificate

OBE - Outcome Based Education

PDSA - Plan Do Study and Adopt

PED - Provincial Education Department

PISA - Programme in International Student Assessment

PTU - Professional Teachers Union

QA -Quality Assurance

QC - Quality Control

QCAA - Queensland Curriculum and Assessment Authority



QFD - Quality Function Development

QUAL – Qualitative

QUAN – Quantitative

RCL - Representative Council of learners

REDC - Research and Enterprise Development Centre

SA - South Africa

SA- SAMS - South African Schools and Administration System

SASA - South African Schools Act

SBA - School-Based Assessment

SGB - School Governing Body

SPSS - Statistical Package for Social Science

STATS SA - Statistics South Africa

TQM - Total Quality Management

UNESCO -United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation



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CHAPTER ONE

RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The preamble to the South African Constitution (Act No 108 of 1996) identifies the aim to improve the quality of life for all citizens and free the potential of each person (DBE, 2011). This is in tandem with the preamble to the South Africa Schools Act (SASA) No. 83, (1996:5) which states that, “this country requires a new national system of education which will provide an education of progressively high quality for all learners, and in so doing, lay a strong foundation for development of all people's talents and capabilities.” The SA Constitution and SASA are the pillars on which the South African education system has been built and the curriculum crafted. The curriculum is the vehicle which will deliver the quality enshrined in the Constitution and South African Schools Act. It was for this reason that the SA Basic Education curriculum has undergone three reviews in 17 years, the latest of these reforms being the Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS). To maintain its focus on quality, CAPS was designed to address curriculum coverage and pacing problems that were prevalent in low performing schools, so that teachers in need of support will receive much clearer guidance on what to teach and how (DBE, 2013). The integrity of any educational system is measured through the quality of its assessment. To deliver a quality educational product, there is need for a quality compliant assessment model.

To fulfil the quality mandate raised in the Constitution and SASA, assessments in SA follow a two pronged assessment model, which is School-based assessment (SBA) and External examinations. School-based assessment is also known as Assessment for learning, or Continuous Assessment, or Classroom Assessment by different authors in different parts of the world (Afemikhe & Omo- Egbekuse, 2010; Annie, 2011; Awofala & Babajide, 2013; Bello & Tijani, 2010; Daugherty, 2011 Kapambwe, 2010 and Ogunleye & Omolayo, 2016). School-based assessment entails the implementation of internally and externally generated assessments. This is by no

means a new assessment tool, because SBA has been widely accepted and comprehensively implemented in countries such as Australia, New Zealand, England, Scotland and Canada (Barley, 2013). In South Africa, SBA involves assessments by teachers and contribute 25% of the learner's mark at the end of the year, at grades 10, 11 and 12 in some subjects; and in other subjects like Life Orientation, SBA constitutes 100% of the assessment (DBE, 2012). Studies have shown that, if properly implemented, SBA enables teachers and education managers to effectively monitor learners' progress, thereby providing the basis for improving the quality of teaching and learning in classrooms (DBE, 2014).

Recent studies in SA and in other parts of the world raise a number of issues with SBA, which could hinder the fulfilment of the quality mandate envisaged in the South African Constitution and in SASA. Statistics South Africa (2015) reports that; SA has achieved the Millennium Development Goal (MDG) of universal basic education but the quality was still a concern. A global challenge militating against the quality goal for SBA is teacher workload. In South Africa, Reyneke, Meyer and Nel (2010) assert that, from teachers' perspective, it is humanly impossible to do all the marking within certain timeframes for timely and constructive feedback to be given to enhance learning. In its country report on the General Education Quality Assessment, DBE (2013) reports that SBA was extremely weak. In Asia, Kennedy (2013) states that; one reason limiting school-based assessment was the public's ostensible lack of trust in teachers. The Ministerial Task Team Report on the National Senior Certificate observed that the dual role of SBA as both a learning and teaching technique and as promotion/certification measure was creating problems among teachers, learners and parents in South Africa (DBE, 2014). Tong and Adamson (2015) observe that students did not appreciate SBA and were unable to capitalise on feedback and recommend a dialogue model that allows students to participate in debate about improving learning. In the *2015 NSC Examination Technical Report* in South Africa, DBE (2015) reports that there are still areas that require support and intervention to improve the quality and standard of SBA because some assessment tasks are still of very poor quality, and there is little evidence of monitoring and support of schools to improve the quality of pre- and post- moderation of tasks at school level.

The DBE, in the *2016 NSC Examination Report*, identifies quality of assessment tasks and lack of dedicated support at district level across a number of provinces, as persistent concerns (DBE, 2016).

The report states that, during the Minister's 2016 *lekgota*, pertinent macro issues that underpin the implementation of SBA in SA were raised, such as:

concern that the current design, and implementation of SBA within the current FET assessment framework has deviated from the initial policy intention for the purpose of SBA, the need for a regulatory framework that governs the school-based assessment and examinations that are conducted at school level, and instructional leadership gaps (capacity of Provincial SBA Coordinators, Subject Advisors, HODS, teachers to administer SBA), that hamper the effective implementation of SBA at all levels of the system (DBE 2016:17).

The report also states that the national SBA policy was to be finalised in 2016. The absence of an SBA national policy could be one of the reasons among others, why the implementation of SBA was not sailing smoothly in schools.

This chapter laid the background to the study from European, American, Asian, Australian, North African, Central African, Southern African and South African perspectives, problematise the SBA implementation issue, and breaks down the problem into researchable questions. The purpose of the study was outlined and research objectives derived from the research questions to fulfil the purpose of the study. The beneficiaries of the study are identified under the significance to the study. The methodology used provided solutions to the research questions identified. The study was delimited and key terms contextually defined.

1.2 BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

School-based assessment is an on-going diagnostic classroom based process that uses a variety of assessment tools to measure learner performance (DBE, 2011; Kapambwe, 2010). SBA therefore, enables students to identify and improve their areas of weakness and helps teachers to adjust their teaching strategies accordingly. Research studies have shown that the issue of SBA implementation was problematic in many countries, and widely researched. Scholars presented numerous papers on the subject in an effort to resolve some of SBA chronic issues.

However, these issues persist to negatively impact on the value of SBA, not only in South Africa, but the world over (Bell & Cowie, 2001; Brown, 2011; Daugherty, 2011; Mansor et al. Leng, Raof, & Yusoff, 2013; Owolabi, Aletan, & Mayowa, 2010; Taras, 2012). Some of the concerns raised by researchers on SBA are issues around its implementation, which are like a chronic disease whose search for a cure has to continue. The search for solutions calls for more research, especially on issues around the views of teachers, parents and learners on the implementation process. Most studies identify heavy teacher workload as one of the major challenge to the successful implementation of SBA in South Africa and other countries. The questions to be asked then are; why is this problem a global one, when education systems worldwide are quite varied? Why SBA implementation issues continue to exist despite the wide ranging recommendations given in research studies. This study was motivated by these questions and made a contribution towards an understanding of the school-based assessment landscape.

Internationally in the European zone, Wales made some changes to their schools assessment policies in 2004. These changes saw the introduction of assessment for learning as a central element in curriculum assessment, as well as cluster group moderation to back assessment by teachers (Darling-Hammond, & Pecheone, 2010; Daugherty, 2011). These changes marked the beginning of the implementation of a sustainable teacher assessment programme, despite their challenges. Estyn (2010) in Daugherty (2011) states that, school inspectorate in Wales reports that implementation is still pitchy. Daugherty (2011) advocates effective structures to provide an infrastructure that supports the implementation of the assessment system.

SBA has been in operation in Scotland for many years and applies a model of internal and external moderation (Grima, 2003). A structure that was established was the Scottish Qualifications Authority which sets standards for internal moderation by teachers and external moderators. Wright (2001) in Grima (2003), states that SQA issues documents to both schools and moderators that sets out how moderation operates. To ensure that the implementation of SBA operates smoothly, two moderation approaches are used, that is central moderation and visiting moderation (Grima, 2003). Green (2014) raises a number of concerns in the implementation of SBA in England, among which are unreliability of teacher marking, potential

plagiarism, inappropriate levels of assistance from others, and heavy students' workload.

In Spain, Martinez, Gracia-Gracia, Perdomo and Villamide-Daiz (2009) confirm the success of school-based assessment saying it enables students to understand areas they are having difficulty to understand. Findings from their research show that the percentage of passing students increased from 55.5% to 85, 3% when school-based assessment was applied.

New Zealand has one of the most carefully planned implementation model in which schools have to be responsible for the quality of their assessment decisions. The uniqueness of this system is that the New Zealand Qualification Authority, a national body, dealing directly with schools. According to Brown (2011), it develops a computer-assisted and school controlled test system for the production of tasks and processing of students' results. Lenox (2001), in Grima (2003), notes that schools are expected to have clearly laid out assessment policies. In addition to the policies, school assessment activities are checked by a national network of moderators which is composed of practising teachers.  The moderators provide feedback to school principals on the performance of learners in each subject area. In the return flow of information schools report back on measures taken to address challenges identified.

In Australia, public examinations were abolished and replaced by suitably moderated school-based assessments. In the state of Queensland, the Queensland Studies Authority oversees the implementation of assessment programmes. This is done through the development of subject syllabus framework and supervision of the moderation processes (Allen, 2012; Grima, 2003). Maxwell (2003), in Grima (2003), states that there is a unique system that is characterised by a partnership between schools and the central agency to make sure that qualifications issued are credible and of high quality. On the same note, schools and teachers should develop high quality assessment procedures and practices. However, some concerns have been identified such as tension, which always arises when there are issues of mistrust between the partners and the excessive workload for teachers (Allen, 2012).

The United States of America (USA) has seen many states implementing SBA as a supplement or complement to the National and State Standardised Tests (Darling-Hammond & Wentworth, 2010; Hamp-Lyons, 2012; Popham, 2006). SBA was

implemented in the USA as a response to The *No Child Left Behind* policy (Flaitz, 2011 in Annie, 2011). A number of issues have also been raised on the implementation of SBA in the USA. Studies report that, while much of the machinery employed to reform schools was driven by the engine of assessments challenges were experienced which lead to policy reviews and changes. However, challenges are still being experienced in SBA implementation a decade after a *Nation at Risk* (Della-Piana, 2008). One of the issues among many is ethical assessment. A Biology teacher in the Midwest USA was forced to resign after taking a decision which split the community of failing a student caught cheating on a class project (Carroll 2002, in Green, Johnson, Kim, & Pope, 2006).

The Asia Pacific region saw SBA being adopted in many countries as a measure to reduce examination pressure (UNESCO, 2013). In Hong Kong studies show that from 2012, SBA was incorporated in 12 subjects, and is administered in schools as part of the learning and teaching process. Implementation is currently in progress, review researches and public consultations are simultaneously ongoing, and adjustments are made during the implementation process. The Hong Kong Examination and Assessment Authority (HKEAA) have produced an implementation timetable stretching from 2012 to 2019 (Barley, 2013). Research studies reveal that Key Learning Coordinators and Subject panel heads have been appointed to ensure effective implementation of SBA. As a reaction to the introduction of SBA, the Hong Kong Professional Teachers' Union (2013), in Barley (2013), identifies heavy workload as a challenge for both teachers and students.

In Singapore, the year 2003 marked an important milestone for the Singapore National Examination history, with the implementation of the first full SBA to the Singapore Cambridge General Certificate in Education Advanced level project work. This confirms that the Ministry of education has gained more confidence in course work and school-based assessments (Chong, 2009). Singapore's policy on assessment for learning encouraged teachers to come up with different forms of SBA to strengthen the validity of public examinations to support teaching and learning. However, a study by Kong and Luke (2009), in UNESCO (2013), points out that teachers were pressured to teach to the test thus, the classroom assessment tasks and assignments were not intellectually demanding. This became a challenge since they were supposed to prepare students for public examinations. In the same

vein, Chong (2009) reports that; teachers in their zeal to help their students may end up doing much of the thinking for their students. It can be concluded that, the perception of teachers, students and parents on SBA is that it is highly subjective and less reliable when compared with external examinations (Chong, 2009).

The Ministry of Education in Malaysia introduced SBA and implemented it in 2001 in stages, in line with the standards-based primary school curriculum as part of the Malaysian educational reform. Mansor et al. (2013:1) assert that;

SBA is referred to as Pentaksiran Berasaskan Sekolah, a reengineering process of the educational assessment in accordance to the National Key Result Area agenda. The implementation paves the way to a meaningful assessment characterised by its authenticity and robustness.

The approach involved giving teachers greater responsibility to design quality assessments that align with students' learning outcomes. One of the benefits of this system was that, it relieved student pressure while at the same time allowing teacher initiative in assessing learners (Mansor et al. 2013). A new system was implemented in Malaysian high schools at the end of 2010 to replace the centralised examination with decentralised system of SBA (Majid, 2011). Studies identified a number of implementation issues in the SBA system such, as lack of skilled human resource, inadequate materials resources, and poor moderation methods. As a measure to counter the effects of these issues, an outreach programme inviting parents so that they can have a better understanding of SBA and support its implementation was conducted (Mansor et al, 2013; Naire, Setia, Zaitolakma, Zahri, Luqman, Vadeveloo & CheNghah, 2014).

Fiji introduced SBA based on the recommendation of the Fijian Education Commission Report 2000, in which Assessment for Learning was incorporated as the assessment strategy. In the Ministry of Education, internal assessments (SBA) were pilot tested in 2003 and operationalised in January 2007 (Narayan, 2004). However, SBA was subjected to a great deal of abuse and misrepresentation by teachers because most of them appeared not to understand the rationale for SBA in the school system (Narayan, 2004). The Asia-Pacific region saw a lot of research on School-Based Assessment in the 21st century than anywhere else in the world. However, very few of these studies have looked at the views of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of SBA. This study covered the gap by focusing

on views of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of school-based assessment.

On the African continent, several, if not all countries, have conducted educational reforms particularly at the dawn of democracy. In most of the countries, the reforms included the infusion of SBA as an assessment tool in the educational systems. In Nigeria, the Federal Ministry of Education places emphasis on the implementation of SBA at all levels of the educational systems. This is provided for by a National Policy on Education, as a way of improving the evaluation process (Okafor, 2001 in Bandele & Ayodele, 2015). School-Based Assessment is generally seen as synonymous with Continuous Assessment (CA) and they are used interchangeably (Afemikhe & Omo-Egbekuse, 2010; Bello & Tijani, 2010; Lukman & Uwudiegwu, 2012; Ogunleye & Omolayo, 2016). However, some scholars argue that SBA is a new dimension to Continuous Assessment (CA), and is considered to be wider than CA, with CA being part of it (Awofale & Babajide, 2013). The rationale for SBA is that it is a formative tool that gives good, valid and reliable results for certification (Afemikhe & Omo-Egbekuse, 2010; Awofale & Babajide, 2013). In their research finding, Bello and Tijani (2010) confirm the view that, assessment is incomplete without any input from the classroom teachers who are the drivers of learning activities. Owolabi et al. (2010: 153) confirm the need for SBA by stating that;

Teachers in schools continue to assess students on a day to day basis but the fruits of their hard labour are easily swallowed by the national examinations which are prepared by an external body.

To facilitate the implementation of SBA, different state governments produced implementation guides which had stipulations on when SBA tests are to be administered in addition to an end of year examination (Afemikhe & Omo-Egbekuse, 2010). Recommendations were made for the establishment of Item Banks for SBA tasks, as well as the Assessment Committees in every school (Afemikhe & Omo-Egbekuse, 2010; Bandele & Ayodele, 2015). While acknowledgement of the need for School-Based Assessment was unanimous, its implementation was plagued by a lot of challenges. Ogunneye (1992) in Bandele and Ayodele (2015) noted that teachers lacked the understanding needed in conducting SBA tasks and the commitment for implementing it. The same teachers, according to Bello and Tijani (2010), perceived SBA as an additional responsibility which was aggravated by large class size. Those

who attempted to implement SBA lacked the necessary skills to develop and validate SBA tasks (Awofala & Babajide, 2013; Awolabi et al. 2010; Ogunleye et al, 2016). Some studies identify teacher training as lacking in assessment techniques which negatively affected the implementation of SBA (Awofala & Babajide, 2013; Luckman & Uwuadiegwu, 2012). Afemikhe and Omo-Egbekuse (2010) observe that the Item Banks for SBA tasks were not available, and the assessment committees did not exist. The standard of implementation was not uniform because schools did not have a federally agreed implementation guide and the comparing of scores of learners from different schools was problematic (Afemikhe & Omo-Egbekuse, 2010; Bello & Tijani, 2010; Ogunnleye et al. 2016). Society lacked confidence in teacher assessments, which resulted in a huge public outcry about the quality of school products (Ogunnleye et al. 2016; Owolabi et al. 2010). “One ugly trend is a situation where tests were not administered but scores awarded because the policy states that there must be two tests in a term” (Ogunnleye et al. 2016;4).

In Tanzania, continuous assessment which had School-Based Assessment as a component was included in the National Examination system in 1979. Benchmarking visits were made to counties that had implemented the system, such as Cuba and China (Ndalichako, 2014). In countries that had implemented SBA, a number of concerns were raised such as inflated scores by teachers, and a heavy teacher workload (Ndalichako, 2014; Tilya, 2013). The proliferation of private secondary schools, whose lifeline heavily depends on student results and increased number of secondary schools in the 2000s, created huge challenges for continuous assessment. This resulted in the death of the SBA component. What remained was continuous assessment comprising externally prepared tasks. The removal of SBA from the continuous assessment did not mean the end of educational problems in Tanzania. The results for Certificate of Secondary Education Examination declined between the years 2003 and 2013 (Ndalichako, 2014). The downward trend of results sparked a serious finger pointing war. Teachers were blamed for not teaching effectively, students were blamed for not being serious, and parents were blamed for not following-up on what their children were doing at school. To salvage the situation, the *Big Result Now* initiative was launched and implemented, whose thrust was on frequent testing of students to prepare them for final examinations (Ndalichako, 2015). Maybe what was needed was to bring back SBA and work in

synergy with the stakeholders identified in the blame war, that is; parents, teachers and learners.

In Zambia, The Ministry of General Education (MGE)'s latest educational policy reform, dubbed *Educating our Future* in Kapambwe, (2010) advocates for the use of School-Based Assessment, also known as Continuous Assessment (CA), implementation schedule stretched from 2005 to 2009 in primary schools. The final SBA mark at grade 7 is made up of SBA marks for grades 5, 6 and 7 contributing 33.3% each, and giving an SBA combined weighting of 50%. The grade 7 Final Examination (FE) mark has a weighting of 50%. The combined SBA and FE mark make up the final mark for selection to grade 8 and for certification (Kapambwe, 2010; Mutanekelwa & Mweemba, 2006). The implementers used the Phasing strategy in which pilot implementation in high schools started in 2009 after the development of materials like Teachers guides, Manuals, Assessment schemes and Exemplar tasks. Administrators and teachers were trained to ensure smooth implementation of the programme. Site visits were made to other sub-region countries such as Malawi, Namibia and Tanzania to see how they had walked the journey (Kapambwe, 2010; Mutanekelwa & Mweemba, 2006; Ministry of General Education, 2015). Checks and balances were ensured through monitoring visits and formative evaluation studies. Like in other developed or developing countries, challenges were experienced. The challenges stemmed from large class size since the teachers had to mark and keep records, which brought a higher teacher workload. Teachers mourned the time spent on SBA tasks and noted that they would likely not finish the syllabus. SBA did not bring the value which MGE (2015) identified as a tool for assisting learners to become competent. Other challenges were lack of resources; material, human and financial (Kapambwe, 2010; Mutanekelwa & Mweemba, 2006).

South Africa's implementation of SBA stretches from the pre-democracy era through to the post democracy era. The post-democracy era has seen the curricula undergo three reviews in the years 1997, 2000 and 2007 (DBE, 2011). The reviews have maintained SBA as a component of the assessments despite calls from some circles for its removal due to its lack of validity and reliability. The latest review in 2012 saw the two National Curriculum Statements for Grades R-9 and Grades 10-12 combined into a single document known as National Curriculum Statement (NCS) Grades R-

12. The single document (NCS Grades R-12) represents a consolidated policy statement for teaching and learning in South African Schools. The policies in the amalgamated document consist of: a) Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) for all approved subjects; b) National Policy Pertaining to the Programme and Promotion requirements of NCS grades R-12 (NPPPP) and c) National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12 (NPA) (DBE, 2011). The key features of the policies were: 1) greater emphasis on classroom based assessment, 2) need for teachers and schools to apply a greater range of assessment methods, 3) more structured type of assessment (How and What), 4) providing a reporting and interpretation framework (Tshwane University of Technology, 2012). The reporting and interpretation framework is implemented through the South African Schools and Administration system (SA-SAMS), which is an electronically integrated application designed to assist schools with their management, administrative and governance needs (DBE, 2012). The new policies provide a measurement driven dispensation on the South African educational terrain. In her speech at the announcement of NSC Examination results for the Matric class of 2015, Minister of Basic Education, Motshekga, acknowledges that these assessments have placed the basic education sector as a custodian of high educational standards (DBE, 2015).

The following table, Table 1.1 shows the implementation of SBA in the different school phases.

Table1.1: Implementation of SBA in different school phases

Phase	School-Based Assessment %	End-of-year examination %
Foundation Phase	100	0
Intermediate Phase	75	25
Senior Phase	40	60
Further Education and Training Phase	25	75

Source: DBE (2011: 5).

Ramalepe (2015) applauds the introduction of SBA in SA and notes that the move to introduce SBA policy was motivated by its widely documented benefits in

international literature. Cohen (2009) observes that it allows for more representative assessment of learners' achievement, which year-end examinations alone cannot assess.

Implementation of SBA in SA high school is in progress and moderation of SBA entailed the moderation of assessment tasks designed by the teacher and those developed by the district or the provincial head office, and the moderation of the marking of the learner evidence (DBE, 2015). South Africa needs to be applauded for championing a successful SBA model as authorities have accepted the criticisms, and built on them to improve its implementation. According to the DBE (2017) in its report entitled: *Select Committee on Education and Recreation 2016 Evidence Based Report and Reflection on the 2016 NSC Examination Results, the comparative analysis between SBA and Exam results marks 2015 and 2016* reflects a national drop of 0.4% of rejected marks, which shows an improvement in the quality of national assessments in school. However, SBA marks are still being rejected after statistical moderation by Umalusi two decades after democracy. The department was working on the finalisation of the National SBA policy in 2016, and there were improvements in the implementation of SBA in 2016 at grade 12. However, more still needs to be done in terms of quality and standard in grades 10 and 11.

Reyneke et al. (2010) lament that, in 2008 thousands of learners taking SA's first ever National Senior Certificate Examination could not be resulted because of failure to report SBA tasks. Only 62.5% of the candidates who had been prepared for the final examination through the process of SBA passed. Van der berg and Sherpard (2010) argue that SBA provides feedback on learner performance that affects examination preparation and effort. Weak assessment in schools due to lack of understanding on the part of the teacher means that learners are getting wrong signals that may have a negative impact on the performance in final examination and future career choices (Kuze & Shumba, 2011; Mkwanzani, 2014; Rayneke et al. 2010, Xule, 2013). The McKinsey Report (2007), in Van der berg et al. (2011), reports that low teacher effort is often considered one of the most serious problems in South Africa. Reyneke (2016) observes that submissions by Teacher Unions and quality assurance bodies such as Umalusi to the 2013 Ministerial task team suggest that teachers' inadequate professional knowledge is a major cause of the ineffective

implementation of SBA, both as a learning and teaching tool, and as an element in the final NSC mark. National Senior Certificate is the barometer for the health of the education system. However, SBA is perceived by many in the educational community as having a negative impact on the quality of the NSC qualification with the SBA mark seen as questionable (DBE, 2014). Oberholzer (2010) concurs and states that one of the major concerns of education in South Africa is the subject base of teachers which has a knock on effect on their ability to teach and assess effectively.

The absence of a national policy to regulate the implementation of SBA in schools was raised in numerous studies, as a result the implementation varied from province to province. Another universal challenge raised was heavy teacher workload which was compounded by large class sizes. Table 1. 2 below shows the number of tasks across subjects offered at year 12.

Table 1.2: Number of Formal Recorded Assessment Tasks for Grade 12

SUBJECTS		TERM 1	TERM 2	TERM 3	TERM 4	TOTAL
Language 1: Home Language		5	5*	4*		14
Language 2: Choice of HL or FAL	HL	5	5*	4*		14
	FAL	5	5*	4*		14
Life Orientation		1	2*	2*		5
Mathematics or Mathematical Literacy		3	2*	2*		7
Subject choice 1		2	2*	(2*) 3*		(6#) 7
Subject choice 2		2	2*	(2*) 3*		(6#) 7
Subject choice 3		2	2*	(2*) 3*		(6#) 7

Source: Oberholzer (2010: 5)

**One of these tasks in Term 2 and /or Term 3 must be an examination*

the number of internal tasks per subject differs from 6 to 7 as specified in Section 3 of the Subject Assessment Guidelines.

Table 1.2 gives a total of 61 formal tasks to be completed in 3 terms (162 days). These tasks exclude daily class works, home works and monthly class tests to be administered in the 162 days, by the same teacher to the same learners. The load has resulted in SBA losing its developmental role as teachers regard it as an 'add on' activity. Sometimes, teachers fail to give feedback to learners because of the pressure to finish the syllabus (Maile, 2013; Mkwanaenzi, 2014; Oberholzer, 2010; Parbhoo, 2011; Polia, 2009; Reyneke, 2016; Singh, 2004). In schools, teachers were teaching and assessing to train learners for the final examination at the expense of enhancing teaching and learning. This results in mark inflation because teachers want the learners to pass examinations (Reyneke, 2016). A critical view of these issues clearly shows that the implementation machinery cannot operate smoothly to fulfil the quality mandate. This study sought to unearth the reasons why schools continue to grapple with these same issues despite recommendations in a plethora of reports and research studies. The central feature of this study was to understand these issues from the perspective of teachers, learners and parents since they are located at the end of the implementation spectrum. The expectation was that, their views would provide the solutions needed to remove the impediments to the fulfilment of the quality mandate, a gap that needs to be urgently addressed in South Africa.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Over the years, Umalusi annual reports have revealed weak correlation between final examination and raw SBA mark (DBE, 2014). In July 2015, an Audit of the SBA systems was conducted in 18 districts and 180 schools, and 83 moderators were contracted. Findings from the audit were that:

Over dependence on common tasks produced by districts/provinces stifles professional development of teachers in the areas of developing quality assessments which is integral to successful learning and teaching: SBA is still dominated by tests and examinations and does not emphasize the alternative forms of assessment; Some assessment tasks are still very poor quality although some improvements were observed in some PEDs: There was no evidence of the pre-moderation of tasks set by the district or province, hence errors on marking guidelines were not identified and corrected and this impacts on the validity of assessment tasks, and Constructive feedback from district moderation to teachers requires strengthening (DBE, 2015: 36).

The same report states that the audit of SBA systems reveals that recommendations from previous year's moderations were slowly being implemented and there was a notable improvement in the compliance with policy documents. However, there are areas that require further support and intervention to improve the quality and standard of SBA. Some of the areas are: first, failure by schools to produce own tasks which stifles professional develop of teachers; second, failure by schools to use alternative forms of assessment in tests and examinations; third, failure to implement feedback given to teachers from district moderations (DBE, 2015). In its report on Quality Assurance of the 2015 National Senior Certificate (NSC) Examinations and Assessment of the Department of Basic Education (DBE), Umalusi (2015) raises a number of serious concerns such as; failure in some subjects to address content as required by CAPS, schools struggling with the formulation of marking guidelines, too many teachers not being conversant with CAPS requirements for their subjects, and lack of feedback to learners. These issues compromise the quality of the SBA mark which results in rejection during statistical moderation. The rejection rate, according to the Provincial Comparative Analysis - 2016 (SBA and Examination),  has slightly improved as shown in Table 1.3 below. However, despite the drop in the national percentage in the rejection rate, it is still worrisome in some provinces, including Mpumalanga.

Table 1.3: Provincial Comparative Analysis - 2016 (SBA and Examination)

PROVINCE	ALL	REJECTED	%REJECTED	>15%	%>15%	<5%	%<5%
Eastern Cape	10942	420	3.8	1457	13.3	5297	48.4
Free States	4190	63	1.5	181	4.3	2654	63.3
Gauteng	12510	104	0.8	682	5.5	8613	68.8
KwaZulu-Natal	19325	540	2.8	2581	13.4	9500	49.2
Limpopo	14818	913	6.2	1845	12.5	6804	45.9
Mpumalanga	6799	209	3.1	712	10.5	3523	51.8
Northern Cape	1602	34	2.1	171	10.7	886	55.3
North West	4481	163	3.6	315	7.0	2594	57.9
Western Cape	6042	28	0.5	228	3.8	3933	65.1
NATIONAL	80690	2474	3.1	8172	10.1	43804	54.3


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Source: DBE (2017:108)

The bottom five provinces were; Limpopo (6.2%); Eastern Cape (3.8%); North West (3.6%); Mpumalanga (3.1) and KwaZulu- Natal (2.8%). These statistics concurred with the study by Van der Berg and Shepherd (2010), and report by Van der Berg (2009), which identify Mpumalanga and KwaZulu-Natal as having the largest number of schools that assessed unreliably. It is against this background that this study searched for solutions to the SBA implementation challenges in Mpumalanga province.

Literature has shown that, not much has been done in terms of research on SBA in Mpumalanga province. Currently, there is one study on Teachers' use of formative assessment by Mkwanzani (2014) known to the researcher that was conducted in the primary sector in Mpumalanga province. This means that there was no research known to the researcher that has been done in Mpumalanga in high schools on SBA. This study comes handy to the Provincial Department of Education in particular and

the South African education system generally, by bringing an understanding to the challenges on the implementation of SBA in high schools. In the Ministerial Task Team Report, DBE (2014) recommends more action-oriented research in regions and subjects, which show greater tendency to inflate SBA marks. Most studies conducted in South Africa on SBA have focused on administrators and teachers. Kerr-Phillips (2007), in an article on SBA, entitled; “A perspective from the Independent Examinations Board of SA”, recommends research on the success of the SBA model in the eyes of teachers, learners and parents. Research has also showed that the quality and standard of implementation of SBA in grades 10 and 11 still has serious issues. This study therefore, sought to close this identified gap since it focused on grade 11 teachers and learners and examined the implementation of School-Based Assessment in high schools in Mpumalanga province, and its implications for teaching and learning.

1.4 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study was to examine the implementation of School-Based Assessment in SA schools. Teachers, learners and parents' views on the role of School-Based Assessment were examined. The study ascertained how the experiences of teachers, learners and parents could assist in improving the implementation of School-Based Assessment to enhance teaching and learning. This was corroborated by the view that there was need to convince students, parents, teachers, policy makers and consumers of graduates of various educational levels that SBA has a role to play in influencing the quality of education imparted in schools (Muchera, 2003). The study also sought to develop a framework for enhanced implementation of School-Based Assessment in South Africa?

1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This study sought to:

1. examine teachers, learners and parent's views of the role of School-Based Assessment in the teaching and learning process,
2. assess the systems in place to support the implementation of School-Based Assessment in SA schools,

3. examine how teachers, parents and learners play complementary roles in the implementation of School-Based Assessment in SA schools, and
4. identify strategies to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment in schools.

1.6 Main Research Question

How is School-Based Assessment implemented in high schools in Mpumalanga province of South Africa?

1.6.1 Sub-Research Questions

The study was unpacked by responding to the following questions:

1. What are the views of teachers, parents and learners of the role of School-Based Assessment in the learning and teaching process?
2. What structures are in place to support the implementation of SBA in schools?
3. How do teachers, parents and learners play complementary roles in the implementation of School-Based Assessment in schools?
4. What strategies can be used to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment in schools?



1.7 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

The researcher's interest in the topic was motivated by experiences as an educator of the ever increasing teacher outcry in the distribution, quality and moderation of tasks of SBA task in high schools. The study thus sought to make a contribution in the redefining of the existing policies on SBA and the development of new policies which would assist in making new teachers better understand the role of SBA in schools. Policies need to be developed on in-service teacher training for teachers already in the system. School administrators were assisted on how to provide support systems in the implementation of SBA in schools to enhance the teaching

and learning process. The roles of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of SBA were defined to bring out their complementarities. Teachers, including the researcher know how to effectively use the assessment tool, and parents and learners understand how it assists the learning process. Theories were analysed in the development of a new assessment framework that can be applied in the implementation of SBA in schools. Mpumalanga province was identified in studies as one of the provinces with problematic SBA marks (DBE, 2015; Van der berg & Sherpard, 2010). The study was conducted in Mpumalanga, to provide contextualised answers to the problem. The study drew information from high schools, which was a departure from most of the studies in the Sub Saharan Africa and South Africa which were mostly conducted in primary schools.

1.8 RESEARCH METHODOLOGIES

This study was premised on the pragmatic philosophical paradigm. Pragmatism believes in what works best to address the research problem at hand (Wahyuni, 2012). Challenges in the implementation of SBA were not attributable to a single reality, thus; the blended nature of pragmatism best addressed the question. Morgan (2007) asserts that a pragmatic approach advocates shared meanings and joint action, that is to what extent two people are satisfied that they understand each other and to what extent they can demonstrate the extent of that shared meaning. This made pragmatism suitable for this study, as the implementation of SBA required teachers, parents and learners to understand each other during the implementation process. Implementation of SBA was a practical problem in the South African education system and the entire world, with evidence from literature review identifying teacher load and large classes as universal problems. The magnitude of the problem required a pragmatic approach due to the approach's power of complementarities, as the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problem and complex phenomena than use of either approach alone (Creswell & Plano Clark 2007 in Azorin & Cameron, 2010).

This study applied the mixed methods approach because of the adoption of the pragmatic philosophical worldview. A mixed method opens the door to multiple

methods, different worldviews, and different assumptions, as well as different forms of data collection and analysis for the researcher (Creswell, 2013). Johnson and Owuegbuzie (2004) define mixed methods research as the class of research where the researcher combines qualitative and quantitative techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study.

School-Based Assessment as an educational reform has dominated the educational research arena in the past decade and continues to call for more research work. This makes SBA a complex issue requiring deep understanding of how it influences the teaching and learning process. Viewing the problem with both qualitative and quantitative methodologies assisted in the search for solutions to the complex problem. Mixed methods allowed the use of qualitative and quantitative methodologies thereby, allowing the validation of data from teachers with data from learners and parents.

Qualitative and quantitative data were mixed using concurrent design, also known as concurrent triangulation in this study. Dezin (1978), in Bentahar and Cameron (2015), say that triangulation is the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomena, and allows the researcher to corroborate and to support the results relative to the same phenomena with different methods, to ensure internal and external validity. Triangulation was applied to data collected using the descriptive and interpretive case study techniques. Case study facilitates the investigation of real life contemporary phenomena in its natural context (Wahyuni, 2012). The descriptive component provided quantitative data and the interpretive component provided qualitative data. The data were collected at the same time during the study and then integrated during the interpretation of the overall results. Qualitative and quantitative data from teachers were validated with data from learners, and data from learners were validated with data from parents in this study.

The population for this study was all the secondary schools in White river circuit, in the Ehlanzeni region of Mpumalanga Province. In the schools, the targeted population was grade 11 teachers and learners. School Governing Body (SBG) chairpersons were included to add the valuable voice of the parent to the equation. Grade 11 was selected for being the central grade in the Further Education and Training (FET) phase. White river circuit has 12 secondary schools, categorised as 7

public and 5 private. Total population for grade 11 teachers was 141, and comprised 51 males and 90 females. The population for grade 11 learners was 656 (boys 265 and 391 girls). A sample was drawn from the population using different sampling techniques.

Quantitative sampling and quantitative sampling techniques were applied in this study since it was premised in the pragmatic paradigm (Palinkas et al. 2013). The sample size for this study was 140 respondents for the quantitative sample and 88 participants for the qualitative sample.

Data were collected using closed-ended (structured) and open-ended (unstructured) Questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussions. Questionnaire and interview questions were a blend of closed and open ended questions, thus making them semi- structured and aligning well with mixed methods research study.

Questionnaires and interview items were pilot tested in other circuits. The instruments were also presented to experts in the field of research for expert opinion. These processes ensured that the instruments were valid and reliable.

Shenton (2004) identifies four criteria of research trustworthiness. These are credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability. In this study, for data trustworthiness, the researcher ensured honesty in the informants for the data to be accurate and truthful. Member checks by participants were carried out on the data. Checks relating to accuracy of data took place during the data collection and at the end of data collection (Loh, 2013; Shenton, 2004). The reporting and capturing of data were done accurately to ensure that the data were trustworthy. Varied data collection instruments were used (Questionnaire, interview and focus group discussion) to collect data from different sources (teachers, learners and parents) to ensure data trustworthiness. Data from interviews were captured verbatim by tape recording which eliminated distortions in analysis, as tapes could be replayed.

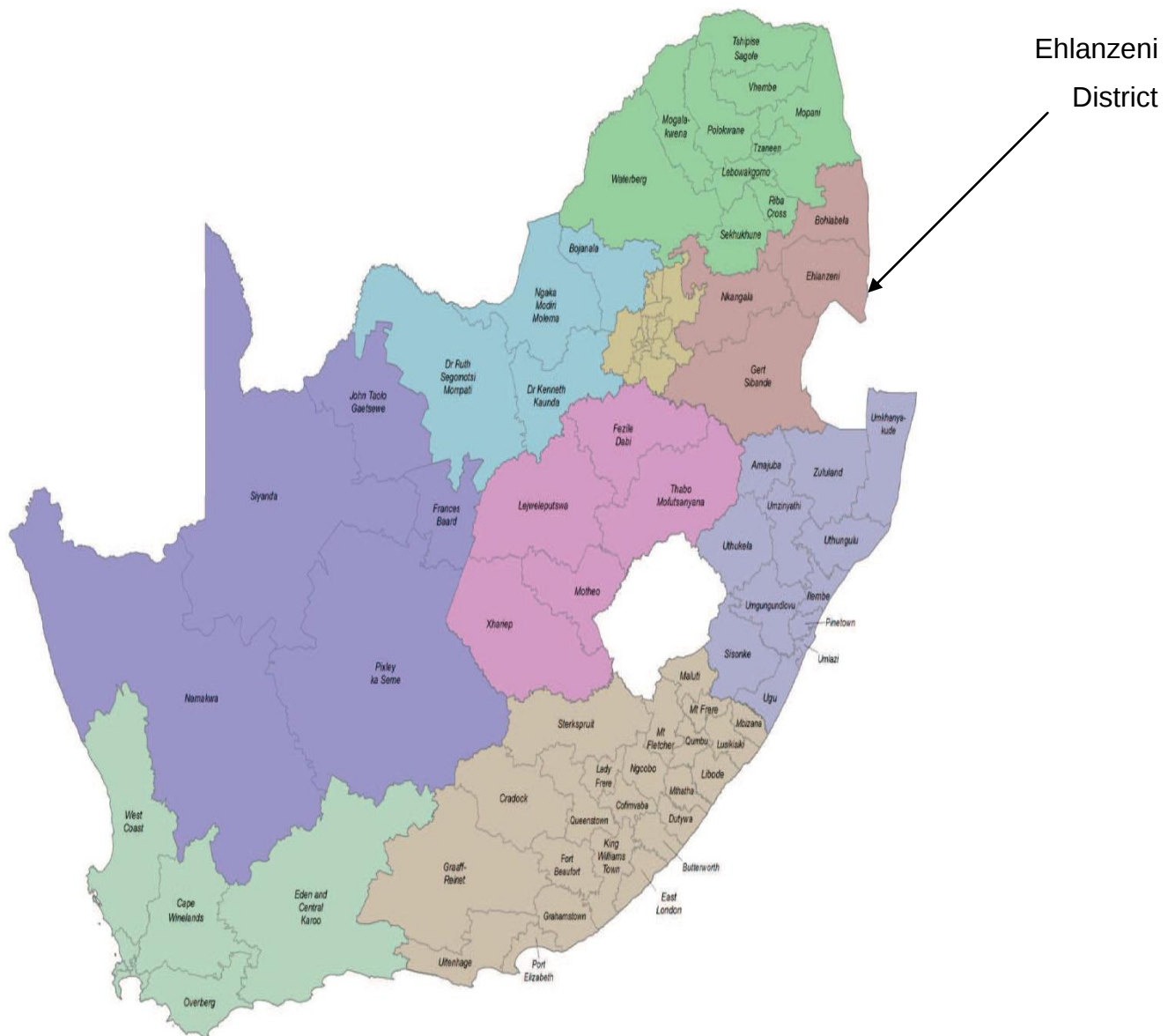
Parallel mixed data analyses of qualitative and quantitative data were done concurrently in this study. Quantitative data from Questionnaires were analysed with descriptive statistics such as percentages, mean, standard deviation (Singh, 2006). Descriptive statistics was used to summarise and compare the data. Frequency tables, graphs and charts were used to present quantitative data. Inferential statistics

was used to compare means of variables (Salkind, 2011). In this study chi-square was used to compare the mean of the responses of teachers and learners on the complementarity of their roles in the implementation of SBA in high schools. Computer software programme SPSS version 2.1 was applied in the statistical analysis of data.

Qualitative data were generated from the open-ended questions in the Questionnaire, FDGs and interviews. Interview data were coded during transcription. After collection qualitative data were reduced through thematic analysis. Data were organised into themes based on emerging patterns from the research questions. Qualitative and quantitative data were combined and compared during interpretation.

1.9 DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

This study focused on the implementation of School-Based Assessment in high schools. Theoretically, the study was limited to the use of Total Quality Management theory informing the study. Respondents and participants were grade 11 teachers, learners and SGB chairpersons from the purposively selected high schools in White River circuit in the year twenty-seventeen. The methodological boundary was limited to mixed methods in which quantitative and qualitative data were collected and mixed using the triangulation design. The aim was to develop a framework to enhance the implementation of SBA to facilitate teaching and learning. The geographical research site was confined to White River Circuit, one of the 16 circuits in Ehlanzeni district in Mpumalanga province. Figure 1.1 below shows the location of the research site within Mpumalanga province in South Africa.



Source: DBE (2013: 1)

Figure 1.1: Map of South Africa, the location of Ehlanzeni district in Mpumalanga province.

1.10 DEFINITION OF KEY TERMS

Key terms are defined in the context of this study.

1.10.1 Implementation is a set of activities designed to put into practice an activity or program of known dimension (Fixsen, Naoom, Blase, Friedman, & Wallace, 2005). Rampa (2005) defines implementation as the physical reflection of the formulated strategy. In this study, implementation is the process of putting the

policies on School-Based Assessment into practice. It is the role of teachers, learners and parents to implement educational policies.

1.10.2 School-Based Assessment, also known as Formative Assessment or Internal assessment, is conducted as the teaching process takes place and is used to influence or inform learning by providing continuous feedback and information during the instructional process (Polia, 2009). In this study, SBA is the advancing of the practice of assessing learners' mastery via the completion of tasks in which the learners apply knowledge, skills, attitudes and beliefs acquired in the instructional process. It involved teachers administering formal and informal tasks to ensure effective teaching and learning in the classroom.

1.10.3 High school is a learning organisation purposefully established to offer education and can be private or public high school. The South Schools Act (1996) defines a High school as a registered institution of learning offering tuition to learners in grades 8 to grade 12.

1.10.4 Educator/Teacher is any person who teaches, educates or trains another person at any public or private school (South African School Act, 1996). In this study, an educator is an individual who is suitably qualified to deliver curriculum instruction to learners in the classroom in a high school in the research site.

1.10.5 Learner according to the South African Schools Act (1996) is any person receiving education or is obliged to receive education. In this study, a learner is defined as any individual who is legally registered in a formal high school, private or public in the research site.

1.10.6 Parent is a person legally entitled to custody of a learner (South African Schools Act (1996). In this study, a parent is any individual whose child is attending a private or public high school in the research site.

1.11 CHAPTER OUTLINE

1.11.1 Chapter one outlined the introduction to the study by critically looking at the issue under study. The issue was then dissected in the background to the study by presenting the European, American, Asian, Australian, North African, Central

African, Southern Africa and South African perspectives. The chapter then stated the problem, research questions, research objectives, purpose and significance of the study. The location of the study was given under delimitation and a synopsis of the research methodology was laid out and key operational terms contextualised to enhance understandability of the study.

1.11.2 Chapter two identified the theoretical framework which shaped and give direction to this study. Total Quality Management Theory (TQM) informed the study. Literature review followed sub-headings derived from the research questions to clearly bring out the SBA implementation issues, align and refine the instruments to be used in the collection of data, and provide answers to the research question.

1.11.3 Chapter three outlined the research methodology used in unearthing answers to the research questions.

1.11.4 Chapter four give the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the data collected from participants and respondents.

1.11.5 Chapter five summarised findings, concluded the study and give recommendations for further studies.



1.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter one gave an overview of the study by outlining the rationale for the study. The provision of quality education as enshrined in the Constitution of SA and SASA justified the enquiry. The implementation of SBA from a world, regional and South African context was discussed in an effort to bring the study into context. Significance of the study to the researcher and the education systems were outlined. Delimitations were provided to give boundaries to the study. Operational definitions of key terms were contextualised in the study. The researcher provided a synopsis of the five chapters which constitute the study. The next chapter focused on the review of related literature and the theoretical framework which laid the foundation for the study.

CHAPTER TWO

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter one gave the rationale and background to the study in order to clarify the issue under study. The problem was stated and broken down into research questions. Research objectives were derived from the research questions to operationalise the study. The purpose and significance of study were outlined. Methodologies for the collection of relevant data were identified. The study was delimited geographically and conceptually, and key terms were defined to ensure understandability of the study.

Chapter two identified the theoretical framework and the theory which informed the study. The theoretical framework shapes the inquiry since it is a central piece in the research puzzle (Ennis, 1999 in Ngulube, Mathipa & Gumbo, 2015). Literature was reviewed under sub-headings derived from the research questions, to identify knowledge gaps that needed to be filled by this study.

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Theoretical framework is made up of two pieces namely; theory and framework. Bradbury-Jones, Taylor and Herber (2014:136) define theory as “a symbolic depiction of aspects of reality that are discovered or invented for describing, explaining, predicting, or prescribing responses, events, situations, conditions, or relationships.” Ohioze (2017) asserts that theory explains how concepts of focus are linked together to aid predictions. Silverman (2000) in Ngulube et al. (2015: 45) views a theory as “a set of concepts used to define and /or explain some phenomena.” Casanave and Li (2015:106) see a theory as “consisting of sets of related concepts that make clear of how concepts are related.” They go on to state that, a useful theory is one that tells an enlightening story about some phenomena.

The definitions are in agreement in that a theory assists researchers to explain phenomena. On the purpose of a theory, Ngulube et al. (2015) asserts that a theory assists in interpreting and understanding events in the world. Vithal, Jansen and Jansen (2013), in Ngulube et al. (2015:52), identify questions which are addressed by a theory as:

Where is the research coming from?

How valid is the theory's proposition in the problem being investigated, or which theory is more robust than the other in explaining the phenomena under investigation?

How can a theory's proposition be utilised in the design and conduct of a study?

The second piece framework is derived from frame. Casanave and Li (2015:107) define a frame as “an abstract idea that encircles a study the way a frame encircles a picture and provides a space in which it is situated.” They go on to state that a framework is a system, and framing consists of situating a study, thereby providing the scaffold and structure of the study. A theoretical framework is therefore, derived from a theory and framework (Ohioze, 2017).



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2.2.1 Theoretical Framework and its importance in research

Studies have shown that there is no one agreed perspective on the use of a theoretical framework in a research study. Those who believe in a theoretical framework cannot imagine what to do in conducting a research without guidance from a theoretical framework. According to Anafara (2008), the term theoretical framework does not have a clear and consistent definition. Hence, there are as many definitions as there are authors who try to define the term. Anafara (2008: 3) defines theoretical framework as “any empirical or quasi-empirical theory of social and/or psychological processes, at a variety of levels (e.g., grand, mid- range, and explanatory), that can be applied to the understanding of phenomena.” The definition has been criticised for lack of depth on certain aspects, such as paradigms of social research and methodological issues (Anafara, 2008). Fransman (2014) aligns to Anafaras’ definition and says a theoretical framework constitutes the theory on which a study is based and frames a study in the same way a portrait frames a picture within. Borgatti (1996), in Ohioze (2017), defines a theoretical framework as a collection of interrelated concepts, like a theory but not necessarily so well worked

out. It guides your research, determining what things you will measure, and what statistical relationship you will look for. Theoretical framework is also viewed as the structure that holds the theory of a research study according to The University of Southern California (2012), in Ohioze (2017). It introduces and describes the theory which explains why the research was conducted. Ennis (1999), in Ohioze (2017), sees a theoretical framework as a structure that identifies and describes the major elements, variables and constructs that organise one's scholarship.

Bak (2004), in Ngulube et al. (2015), says a theoretical framework is vital for guiding research, for ensuring coherence, and establishing the boundaries of the project. Schurink (2009), in Ngulube et al. (2015), states that the theoretical framework of an empirical study refers to the system of concepts, assumptions, beliefs and theories that informs the research. Vithal et al. (2013), in Ngulube et al. (2015), describe a theoretical framework as a well-developed, coherent explanation for an event. These definitions show the nature of theoretical frameworks and their usefulness when investigating the social world. Ngulube et al. (2015) and Khan (2010), in Ocholla and Le Roux (2011), state that; the theoretical framework of a study is the structure that holds and supports the theory of a research work. It serves as the lens that a researcher uses to examine a particular aspect in a subject or field. Put differently, it elucidates or explains the rationale, justification or basis of the study. Sinclair (2007) gives a simplified version by stating that, a theoretical framework can be thought of as a map or travel plan. Muhumuza, Sanders and Balkwill (2013) define a theoretical framework as a visual or written product, either graphically or in narrative form; the main things to be studied; the key factors, concepts, variables and the presumed relationship between them. In this study, the author borrowed from the definitions and defined a theoretical framework as a guide that directs and supports a research by informing the researcher what to do, when to do it , how to do it, where to do it, and why doing it during the research process, to make phenomena understandable.

The definitions are varied but all define one and the same concept. Bryman (2012), in Ngulube et al. (2015), sums up the definitions by stating that, a theoretical framework assists a researcher and shapes any inquiry in many ways. First, theoretical framework serves as a basis for a research plan and situates the researcher within a scholarly discourse and links the study to the broader body of literature. Second, theoretical framework provides a frame within which a problem

under investigation can be understood. Third, theoretical framework shapes the research questions and helps to focus the study and allows the researcher to narrow the project down to a manageable size. Fourth, theoretical framework offers a plan for data collection and operates as a tool to interpret research findings. Fifth, theoretical framework provides a vehicle for generalisations to other contexts.

Theoretical framework provides a road map for the study, and guides and informs the whole research process. Anafara (2008) states that the theoretical framework frames every aspect of the study; from the questions asked, to the sample selected, to the analysis derived. This allows the researcher to situate the research and knowledge contributions in a scholarly conversation.

2.2.1.1 Conceptual Framework of the study

Successful implementation of SBA is hinged on the interaction between and among several parties and factors (Nair et al. 2014). The framework below shows the variables involved in the implementation of SBA in South African school which provided a guide to my study.

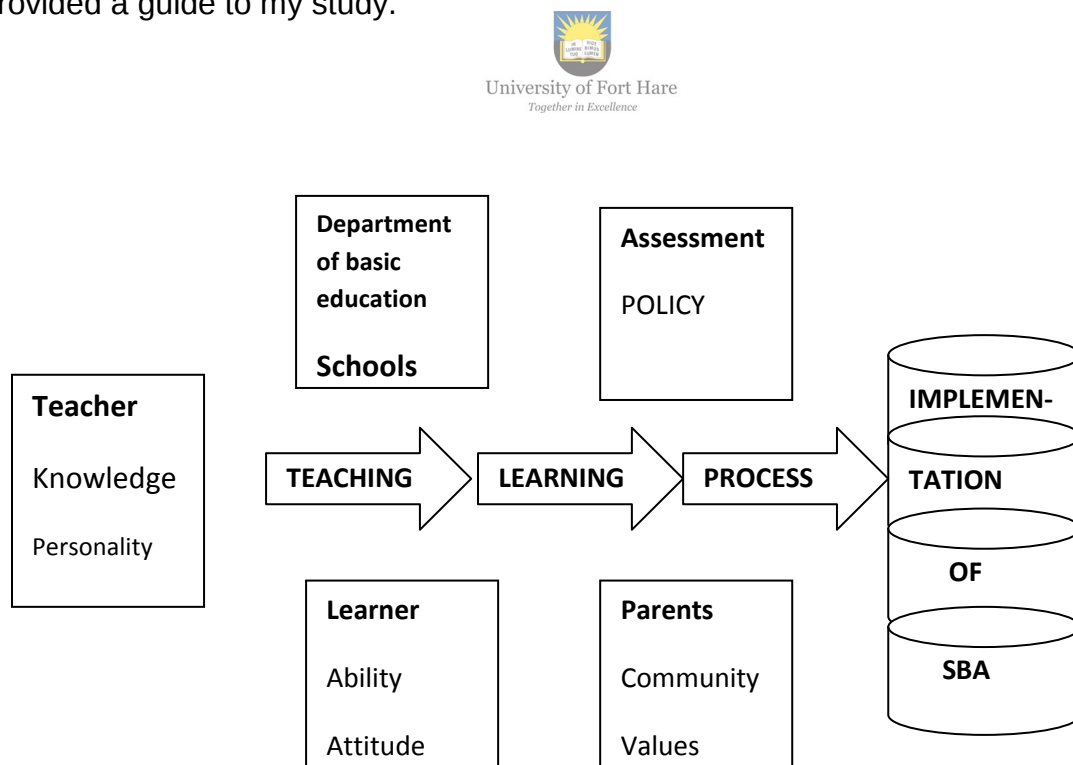


Figure 2.1 Implementation of SBAs in South African Schools: Adopted from Nair et al (2014:187)

Figure 2.1 shows the components which are involved in the implementation of SBA. This study was delimited to the interaction of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of SBA in high schools. The purpose of the study was to unpack the challenges to effective implementation of SBA. The researcher's conviction was that focus should be on grassroots if the case for effective implementation of SBA was to be brought to finality. The school provides the environment in which the implementation of SBA takes place. SBA is a form of assessment which is conducted during teaching and learning, and involves teachers, learners and parents. Total Quality Management is a theory that has been applied in different sectors; education included, and involves processes.

2.2.2 Total Quality Management

This study was informed by the Total Quality Management theory, popularly known as TQM. Farooq, Akhtar, Ullah and Memon (2007) describe TQM as the modern management paradigm. The proponents of TQM are *William Edward Deming*, *Philip B. Crosby* and *Joseph Moses Juran* (Farooq et al. 2007; Luburić, 2013; Pineda, 2013; Rampa, 2005). Historically, TQM started in industry after the Second World War in America, then in Japan because Americans did not embrace it, and back to America after seeing its success in Japan (Farooq et al. 2007). Currently, TQM has spread to all the economic and social sectors. TQM is one of the foundations of modern management and has been widely accepted as a viable operating philosophy in all economic sectors (Pineda, 2013). The application of TQM in education gives better results in the process of education as it is a good technique of management used and known for giving excellent results in other industrial and business organisations (Akhtar, 1998 in Farooq et al. 2007).

An understanding of the concept of Quality was important as a point of departure to the understanding of TQM. The introduction to the study highlighted the need for a quality compliant assessment model to deliver a quality educational product. It was in line with this thinking that influenced the selection TQM as the theory to inform the study. Arcarco (2012), in Pineda (2013), asserts that quality is the single most important issue in education, business, and government. Chauhan and Sharma (2015) concur by stating that the changing patterns of educational delivery have made the concept of quality an inherent component of the educational process for its

success. The term quality comes from a Latin word "qualitas", which means characteristics, feature, trait (Raković (2006) in Luburić, 2013). Henri Fayol (2006), a French scientist, cited in Luburić (2013), indicates that quality is ensured with the control from the raw material at the beginning to finished goods at the end of the production cycle. Juran and Gryna (1999), in Luburić (2013), define quality as customer satisfaction. The three American TQM gurus in Luburić (2013) give three different definitions of quality. Juran thinks quality is fitness for purpose. Deming believes that quality should be aimed at the needs of the customer, present and future. Crosby states that quality is conformance to requirements. Kelly (1997) in Luburić (2013) believes that, there is not only one definition of quality, the reason being that quality is basically only the perception of quality so whatever a user considers quality actually is quality. Haughn (2014) views quality as exceeding expectation. Wani and Menraj (2014) define quality as a degree of excellence. They went on to state that it is a peculiar and essential characteristic that makes something unique and the best of its kind. Quality can be summed up as a process of ensuring that a product or service is fit for purpose and it has utility to the user. Knowles (2011) sums up Quality by stating that, quality is defined by the customer, and as such will change overtime, can be addressed by the whole organisation, and is associated with creating customer value.

Quality in education is seen through quality schools, quality teachers, quality resources (financial and material), quality programmes, quality assessments and producing quality results. The implications are that quality needs to be imbedded in every facet of the school system. In School-Based Assessment, quality tasks must be administered and quality programmes must be designed to prepare quality learners thereby enhancing teaching and learning.

After the acceptance of quality as the guiding principle, quality control (QC) and quality assurance (QA) are needed as anchors to the processes. Quality control is the operating condition needed to produce a quality product or service (Farooq, 2007). Juran (1992), in ALNabhani (2007; 51), suggests that, "quality control is a managerial process during which one can evaluate actual performance, compare actual performance to the intended quality goals, and take action to remove the difference."

After quality control, comes Quality Assurance (QA) which is the process of ensuring that there is consistent quality in the organisation, this is done through the *zero defect paradigm* Crosby (1979) in Farooq et al (2007). ALNabhani (2007) coins TQM Figure 2.2 shows TQM as a continuum.



Figure 2.2 as a continuum; Source; adapted from ALNabhani (2007: 80)

Farooq et al. (2007) define Total Quality Management (TQM) as an art of organising the whole to achieve excellence. Robbins and Mary (2009), in Pineda (2013), see TQM as a philosophy that is driven by the constant attainment of client satisfaction through the continuous improvement of all organisational processes. Luburić (2013) looks at TQM as a managerial philosophy and a mode of running a business in order to achieve success. Viewed from an educational perspective, Atieh (2008), in Supramono and Larasati (2014:78), states that “TQM is a quality-based performance set for the first time to produce qualified educational product and fulfil the community needs.” Rampa (2005:74) asserts that “TQM is a philosophy according to which leaders create organisational culture that help achieve the goal of creating the highest possible quality product and service.” He goes on to state that it should be

seen as *kaizen*, a Japanese concept which means that all teams in schools are dedicated to continuous improvement, in a race without a finish. Wani and Mehraj (2014:71) define TQM as “a management philosophy that builds a customer- driven learning organisation, dedicated to total customer satisfaction through continuous improvement in the effectiveness and efficiency of organisation and its processes.” Chauhan and Sharma (2015) view TQM as systems of continuous improvement employing a participative management. The definitions view TQM as an art centred on the needs of customers’ performance process and philosophy. As an art or performance, TQM is what is done by participants or how participants in the organisation seek to achieve success. The systemic view is that organisations are made up of parts which are interrelated and function as one, to achieve success. The philosophical perspective is a way of doing things in the organisation to achieve the desired result. The central idea in the definitions is that TQM assists management to achieve the desired result of an organisation. In an educational context, Atieh (2008), in Supramono and Larasati (2014: 78), explains that “TQM is a quality based performance set for the first time to produce qualified educational product and fulfil community needs.”



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Pineda (2013) identifies assumptions underlying the TQM philosophy as derived from the work of TQM gurus namely; Deming, Jura and Ishikawa. The assumptions are that quality is less costly than poor workmanship, and employees will naturally try to improve quality as long as they have appropriate support. Serious quality improvement requires cross-functional effort in the organisation. Quality improvement requires strong commitment of top management.

2.2.2.1 Principles of Total Quality Management

International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO) (2015:3) define Quality Management principles as “a set of fundamental beliefs, norms, rules and values that are accepted as true and can be used as a basis for quality management ..” Organisations use these principles as a foundation to guide their performance improvement. It is performance which distinguishes a successful organisation from a failing organisation. TQM gurus identify a number of principles which can be applied by organisations as a basis for Total Quality Management. The principles are also called core values, components, pillars, characteristics, tenets dimensions and

cornerstones of TQM. Literature identifies varying number of principles. However, this study considers only four principles, namely; Customer focus, Systems approach, Process approach, and Continuous improvement. Yarahmadi and Magd (2016) opine that organisations select and implement the principles according to their environment.

2.2.2.2 Customer focus

Linda (1998), in Yarahmadi and Majd (2016: 4), defines Customer focus as; “an organisation understands of customer’s attitudes, knowledge, and actions that serve to align products and services with the customer's definition of quality.” From an industrial perspective, a customer is a consumer of a finished product of an organisation or company. There are basically two types of customers; internal and external. The employee is the internal customer and they make the product. Organisations need to motivate the employees to focus on customer satisfaction (Islam & Haque, 2012). The buyer of the organisation's products is the external customer. They give utility to the products of an organisation, hence the saying that, customer is the reason why we are in business. Islam and Haque (2012: 132) assert that, “a perfectly produced product has little value if it not what the customer wants.” The success of an organisation thus, depends on its ability to meet the needs of its customers, which is the quality of its product. ISO (2015: 4) states that, “every aspect of customer interaction provides an opportunity to create more value to the customer for the success of the organisation.” Quality is therefore, customer driven through the ability of an organisation to accurately identify customer needs. Luburić (2014) concurs by stating that organisations depend on the users of their products and need to understand their current and future needs, meet their demands and exceed their expectations. Juran (1995) in Farooq et al. (2007) identify the concept of quality trilogy that is; quality planning, quality improvement and quality control. Under quality planning management has to identify the customer. The product to be produced should be able to respond to the needs of the customer, and quality improvement optimises the process which produces the product. Quality control is the development of the process that can produce the product under the given operating conditions. NajaJabadi, Sadeghi and Habibzadeh (2008) identify Quality Function Development (QFD) as a tool that can be used in the identification and prioritisation of customer demands, and then aligns organisation products and services to meet

these priorities. QFD was developed by Yoji Akao and Mizuno Shigheru (Diamandescu, 2016; Najafabadi et al. 2008). There are four phases of QFD as shown in Figure 2, 3 below.

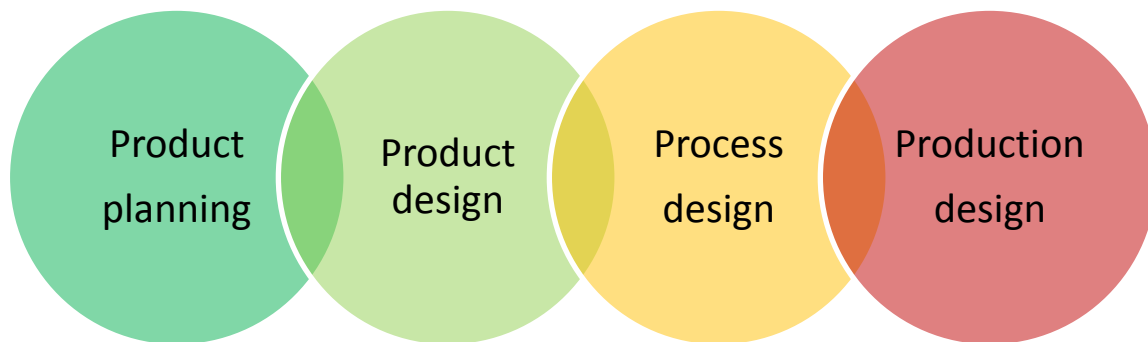


Figure 2.3 Phases of Quality Function Development; Source; Author: (2017).



The planning phase involves transmission of customer needs into product characteristics. Product design lays the optimal way of design, which exceeds objective ideals. At the process design, production functions and procedures for process control and development are recognised. The Production design outlines the production instructions (Najafabadi et al. 2008). The implementation of QFD involves four steps. Step one, market analysis to understand customer requirements and expectations. Step two, identifies the competitors' ability to satisfy customers' expectations. Step three recognises the success factors of the organisation's product. Step four transfer success factors into product and process characteristics in line with design, improvement and production. The purpose is to ensure that TQM efforts are customer focused and aligned (Diamandescu, 2016; Najafabadi et al. 2008). ISO (2015: 4) identifies key benefits of customer focus to a business. First, customer focus increases customer value and customer satisfaction. Second, customer focus improves customer loyalty and enhances repeat business. Third, customer focus enhances reputation of the organisation and expands customer base. Fourth, customer focus increase revenue and market share for the business.

In an educational set up, there are both internal and external customers involved in the complex service system known as a school (Haughn, 2014). Students are internal as well as external customers (ALNabhani, 2007). They are internal in that they determine what happens in the school, and it is their effort which defines the success of a school. Haughn (2014) concurs by stating that students are what makes school unique, and continual collection of information is required to achieve optimal results (student learning). Students are also external customers in that they demand the products of the school. Parents of the students are external customers as well, since they entrust their money and children to the care of the school (Bongstingl, 1996 in Rampa, 2005), Deming (1986), in Haughn (2014), asserts that schools do not make products, and students are not raw materials. Students are customers because schools exist to satisfy the needs of students by providing an educational product in the same-way a business exists to satisfy the needs of their customers by providing a material product or service. Tjiptono and Diana (2001), in Supramono and Larasati (2014), give five things to focus on customers as; giving tangible proof, providing reliability, being responsive, presenting assurance, and showing empathy. Arcaro (2005), in  Supramono and Larasati (2014), confirms that internal customers in an educational context are students, parents and teachers. The quality of education is measured through satisfying the agreed learners' needs and expectations. This can be achieved through the essential ingredients of TQM such as integrity, honesty, trust and openness (Wani & Mehraj, 2014). Pineda (2013) opines that in a school setting, students and their parents should attain satisfaction from educational services.

This study views SBA as one of the educational activities that should focus on satisfying the needs of the learner. In SBA, the idea is to make sure that a learner is not assessed by one examination, but rather through a series of examinations. TQM thus, ensures that SBA activities are customer focused. This is achieved by ensuring that teachers, learners and parents understand their roles in SBA. The implications are that teachers, learners and parents are clients in the SBA activities and these clients have important roles to play for the success of SBA. In the classroom, student and teacher teams work together in the development of students' capabilities, interests and character. The student is the teacher's customer as the recipient of educational services provided for the student's growth and improvement. The

teacher and the school are suppliers of learning tools, environment and systems to the student who is the school's first customer (Pineda, 2013; Fitzgerald, 2004 in Farooq et al. 2007).

2.2.2.3 Process Approach

The second principle of TQM is process approach. It deals with how organisations function. Process approach has been given different names by various authors. Some of the names are; Focus on processes, Process focused, Process improvement, Improvement of processes, and Process management. Diamandescu (2016) and Luburić (2014) view a process from an industrial perspective, as a set of activities that are related and interact to transform inputs into outputs. Inputs and outputs in industry are physical materials. Diamandescu (2016: 675) defines the process approach as, “applying a system of processes within an organisation, including identification and interaction between them and their management.”

Organisations function as processes to achieve their desired result. It is imperative that these processes are clearly defined, and the necessary resources are provided. Luburić (2014) states that a desired result is achieved most effectively when resources and related activities are managed as a process. Deming (1980), in Mclean (2005), observes that emphasis should be on process rather than results. Hansson (2003) asserts that process derives result. Quality must be involved in all the process phases, according to Deming (1993) in Mustafa (2015). Rampa (2005) states that, quality stems from attention to process in an organisation. Deming (1996), in Luburić (2014), argues that, 85% of quality related problems in organisations are a result of processes not individual error. Farooq et al. (2007) say that it is the managers not the workers, who are responsible for 85% of the defects in products or services, and people work in the system, and management creates the system. The implications from these statements are that, management needs to focus more on the way things are organised (processes) and quality needs to be imbedded in the processes.

Diamandescu (2016) gives some advantages derived from this principle. First, process approach defines systematic activities necessary to obtain the desired result and formalisation of the main processes. Second, process approach sets clear and quantifiable responsibilities for the process management and identifies processes

that interface with functions of the organisation that will be tracked constantly. Third process approach analyses and measures key process capabilities. Fourth, process approach identifies interfaces between key activities and the other organisation's functions. Fifth, process approach enables organisations to focus on factors that can lead to improving the organisation's activities (resources, methods and materials). Sixth, process approach enables risk assessment, consequences and processes impact on all stakeholders.

From an education perspective, the process approach means that school leaders must focus on establishing the context in which students can best achieve their potential (Pineda, 2013). Teachers as leaders, need to identify and remove parts of the classroom system that demotivate students (Haughn, 2014). Education leaders must create total quality school environments which focus more on the processes rather than the results. This entails redefining the role, purpose and responsibility of schools, so that in the end, better results in all fields of the educational process are obtained (Mehrotra, 2005) in Farooq et al. 2007). Quality must be infused in all facets of the education processes including assessments. Salami and Akpobire (2013) state that, quality comes from the system. Rampa (2005) concurs by stating that quality stems from attention to the process, and fixing the system and process rather than the role players. Bonstingl (2001), in Pineda (2013: 37), sums up the significance of processes from an education perspective by stating that, “educational leaders who create total quality school environments know that improving test scores and assessment symbols is less important than the progress inherent in the learning process of students, teachers, administrators and all school stakeholders.”

The process approach informs this study in identifying the structures in place to support the implementation of SBA in schools. SBA is an educational activity which is viewed as a process with inputs and outputs. Teachers, learners, management, policies, acts and guidelines are some of the inputs which support the implementation of SBA. A quality educational product for the learner is the desired output from the process. Stringfield (2001), in Pineda (2013), observes that there are support networks and systems for developing effective education, both within and outside the school. SBA, as a key component of the teaching and learning process,

must be well supported in terms of structures. These structures must be established at all levels of the system; that is national, regional, district, cluster and school

2.2.2.4 Systems Approach

Luburić (2013) views Systems approach to management from an industrial perspective as identifying, understanding and managing all interrelated processes with a view to attaining the anticipated objectives of an organisation. The argument is that organisations are made of units, which must work together to achieve the goals of the organisation. The goal of any organisation is to produce quality products which will satisfy the needs of the customer. Diamandescu (2016) explains that all departments of one company are in one way or another, customer or supplier to one another, and are the customer and external supplier to the company.

The interlinking of components of an organisation forms the systemic nature of the processes, which need to be managed so that the purpose of the organisation is achieved. Mclean (2005) asserts that  change in one component of the system always results in changes in other components; and change in one component cannot be sustained without supporting changes in other components of the system. The idea is that organisations need to accept and accommodate change within their systems if quality products are to be produced. Pineda (2013) concurs by stating that the systemic approach is an integration of multiple cross-functional workflows throughout an organisation. The workflow needs to be well managed to ensure efficiency and effectiveness in the production of quality products.

Diamandescu (2016) identifies benefits of the organisation of the systems approach. First, the systems approach ensures better achievement of objectives pursued by integration and alignment of processes. Second, systems approach provides confidence to the stakeholders on the existence, effectiveness and consistency of the organisation, since their contribution is valued in every facet of the organisation. Third, systems approach enables better understanding the interdependencies between processes within the organisation. Fourth, systems approach results in the achievement of a better understanding of roles and responsibilities within the organisation.

In an educational organisation, the system is made up of patterns of expectations, activities, perceptions, resource allocations, power structures, values and the traditional school culture (Pineda, 2013). Wani and Mehraj (2014) state that, systems approach in education comprises inputs, processes and outputs; all encompassed in an arbitrary boundary and the environment. The components of the school system are complex because they are made up of soft skills such as expectations, perceptions, activities, power structures, values and culture; and are difficult to manage. They are difficult to manage because it is not easy to quantify them as inputs and outputs in a system (Gupta & Gupta, 2013).

However, Salami and Akpobire (2013) posit that in educational institutions, the purpose of the system must be clear and shared by all relevant stakeholders including teachers and parents. Rampa (2005) similarly state that, school systems must create a climate in which educators and learners are empowered to continuously evaluate and improve their own productivity and services. Supramono and Larasati (2005) suggest total involvement as a strategy to deal with the complex school system by inviting teachers and learners to give ideas, opinions and suggestions to the school. However, individual teachers and learners are less to blame for failure than the system (Pineda, 2013).

The systems approach informs this study by identifying the interlinking components in the school-based system and how they interconnect in facilitating the implementation of SBA. Schools need to manage the interconnection of the SBA components for SBA to enhance teaching and learning. Literature identifies teachers, learners and parents as some of the key stakeholders in the SBA system. Diamadescu (2016) describes the interconnectedness as the relationship between a customer and a supplier. The argument is that, the relationship between customer and supplier has mutual benefits in any system. In an SBA system, teachers and learners must have a customer and supplier relationship for effective implementation of SBA in schools. Teachers and parents must have a good supplier customer relationship so that they can complement each other in the implementation of School-Based Assessment.

2.2.2.5 Continuous improvement

The fourth TQM tenet is continuous improvement. Viewing it from an industrial angle, Diamandescu (2016) explains continuous improvement as a process that involves all staff at all levels in all activities to improve the organisation's distinctive capabilities. The key word is 'improve', which is to bring change to the way things are done in the organisation. ISO9001 (2015) asserts that, improvement is essential for an organisation to maintain current levels of performance, to react to changes in its internal and external conditions, and to create new opportunities. Success in an organisation is the ability to react to changes and create new opportunities. Continuous improvement allows an organisation to react to changes which will bring new opportunities.

Process improvement is done through training of production workers and adopting new technologies (Islam & Harque, 2012). Organisations are able to create and maintain quality by improving their distinctive capabilities, creating new opportunities and adapting to new technologies in response to feedback. Through continuous improvement, organisations are able to improve the products and services offered to customers and satisfy customer needs. Chauhan and Sharma (2015) sum up Continuous improvement as reaching the stage of zero defects. Several authors identify Deming's PDSA cycle as a model for continuous improvement. P is plan for the change aimed at improvement, D is for do/ carryout the change, S is for study/ examine the results, and A is for adopt the change if result is positive or abandon it if result is negative, and run through cycle again (Diamandescu, 2016; Hansson, 2003; ISO9001, 2015; Luburić, 2013).

In education, "continuous improvement is the development of a never ending improvement culture through the collaborative efforts of members of the educational organisation" (Farooq et al. 2007: 9). Teachers and learners need to continuously work together in the educational processes to improve teaching and learning. Haughn (2014) asserts that improvement of processes is better allocation of human effort and continuous gathering of information efficiently and effectively is required to achieve optimal student learning. School programmes are improved with input from both teachers and learners. Teachers attend training and workshops to keep themselves updated with changes in the system. Wani and Mehraj (2014) concur

and state that, there is need to focus on promoting a quality culture which enables individual actors to continuously improve their educational practices. This is done when teachers focus on establishing the context in which students can best achieve their potential through the continuous improvement of teachers' and learners' work together (Pineda, 2013). Rampa (2005: 54) adds that "schools need to add value to learning experiences with regular team discussion and analysis of every significant process and method that affect the outcomes and results." Continuous improvement is therefore, a comprehensive strategy in education, which allows teachers and learners to create and maintain quality.

In this study, continuous improvement means schools must develop strategies to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment. Some of the major issues in the implementation of SBA identified in numerous studies were lack of understanding of the system and heavy teacher workload to mention a few. These challenges emanate from the absence of continuous improvement in the school systems. Continuous improvement involves holding regular workshops and training for teachers, to make sure that they understand the SBA processes. Once they have understood the SBA processes, they will no longer regard SBA as an extra workload.



Educators must examine the wide range of effects that the externally imposed assessment has on learners' capabilities to grow and to assess the quality of their own work, as well as the work of others (Pineda, 2013). Parents and learners must be included in the development of SBA programmes to ensure that there are no longer obstacles in the implementation. Regular consultative meetings must be held with parents, particularly on SBA issues.

2.3 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Assessment is a vital cog in the teaching and learning process, and studies have given several related definitions of Assessment. Tilya (2013) defines assessment as the process of collecting information about student learning and performance to improve education. Masters (2013) conceptualises assessment as the process of establishing where students are in their long term learning, and what progress they are making over time, usually in terms of their developing knowledge, skills and

understandings. Queensland Curriculum and Assessment Authority (2014) define assessment as the purposeful, systematic and ongoing collection of information about student learning. Huba and Freed (2000), in Ndalichako (2015), state that assessment involves the process of gathering, interpreting and recording information related to student progress in learning, and the effectiveness of the teaching strategies. The key feature in the definitions is that, assessment is a process. Teachers, learners and parents should provide the inputs to the process, do the mixing of the inputs in the processing, and use the output from the process. Inputs in the process should be information collected by, and from, teachers, learners and parents; and must be used to enhance teaching and learning.

Masters (2013:6) asserts that,

“Information about where students are in their learning can be used in different ways, including to identify starting points for teaching, to diagnose errors and misunderstandings, to monitor trends in average achievement levels over time, to select students into courses, to evaluate the effectiveness of teaching interventions, and to benchmark achievement levels against international standards.”

Darling-Hammond and Pecheone (2010) concur and opine that assessment must support ongoing improvements in instruction and learning, and must be educative for all members of the educational enterprise, that is teachers, students and parents. Darling-Hammond and Wentworth (2010), in UNESCO (2014:14), identify the world's high performing education systems in countries such as Australia, Finland, Hong Kong, Singapore, Sweden and the United Kingdom, as having assessment systems which:

“aligned curriculum expectations, subject and performance criteria, and desired learning outcomes; providing feedback to students, teachers and schools about what has been learnt and feed forward information that can shape future learning, as well as guiding college-- and career- related decision making; engage both teachers and students in the assessment process.....”

Studies identify different types of, and approaches, classifications, fields and purposes in assessment. These are Formative Assessment (FA), Summative Assessment, Diagnostic, Screening and Large-scale surveys (Masters, 2013). This study focuses on formative and summative purposes of assessment. Jorgensen and Zucker (2008) define Formative Assessment as assessment that is administered

periodically during instruction, to monitor student progress. Trumbull and Lash (2013) assert that, FA helps form or shape a student's learning process and it depends on the instructional situation and the students. The focus of FA according to the definitions is to assist teachers, learners and parents in the learning process. "The learner is given feedback which is used to improve future performance" (Tilya, 2013). The teacher gets information to use as feedback and to modify the teaching activities. The purpose of any modifications to instruction is to enhance student learning. Trumbull and Lash (2013: 1), states that

"formative assessment as a process is intended to yield information about student learning- information that teachers can use to shape instruction to meet students' needs and that students can use to better understand and advance their learning."

Formative Assessment is actually infused in the teacher's instruction, which means that there is no single prescribed instance of formative assessment because any instructional activity that allows teachers to uncover the way a learner thinks about what is being thought can be used to improve learners' learning, and serve a formative purpose. Parents use the feedback to support the learner during the learning process, as well as provide feedback to the teachers on changes in learner behaviour, which are needed to enhance teaching and learning process. Hong Kong Examination and Assessment Authority (HKEAA) (2012: 23) state that,

" Formative assessment shapes the decisions about what to do next, by helping the teacher to select what to teach the next lesson, or even the next moment in the lesson and by helping the student understand what they have learnt and what they need to learn next."

Taras (2012: 2) in concurrence states that, "the value of FA is linked to it being provided in good time for learners to adopt their thinking and work." Northern Illinois University (2017: 2) identifies the types of FA assessments as,

"observations during in-class activities; homework exercises as a review of exams and class discussion; question and answer sessions, both formal planned and informal spontaneous; in-class activities where students informally presents their results; students feedback collected by periodically answering specific questions about the instruction and their self-evaluation of performance and progress."

Taras (2012;2) defines Summative Assessment as "a summation of a unit, course or programme of learning which is seen to take place towards the end, and which is

normally graded and part of an accredited unit.” In Tanzania, Summative Assessment is used to make decisions for grading or to determine readiness for progression to the next grade in schools (Tilya, 2013). Jorgensen and Zucker (2008) assert that, Summative Assessment is administered after a teacher has completed instruction in a subject area, to determine what a student knows and can do. Northern Illinois University (2017: 3) opines that, “Summative Assessment takes place after the learning has been completed and provides information and feedback that sums up the teaching and learning process.” Hong Kong Assessment and Authority (HKEAA) (2012) states that, Summative Assessment has been used to grade and/ rank students, and can be used formatively to provide feedback to improve learning and teaching. The key feature of Summative Assessment is that it is given at the end and is judgemental in nature. Summative Assessment is therefore, used by teachers, learners and parents to give a judging value. The teachers use Summative Assessment to judge learners’ level of proficiency. The learner can judge level of understanding of the content covered in a course or unit. The parent will use Summative Assessment to judge the work of the teacher and the learner in the teaching and learning process. The parent can also use Summative Assessment results to review effort given to the learner, whether it needs to be improved or maintained. Northern Illinois University (2017) gives the types of Summative Assessment as examinations, term papers, projects, portfolios, student evaluation of course, and instructor self-evaluation.

Tilya (2013) notes that assessment in schools, is supposed to be both formative and summative. Surgenor (2010) argues that the main difference between formative or summative assessment is the purpose for conducting the assessment. To fulfil the formative and summative purposes, varying assessment methods can be used, namely; school-based versus external, tests versus assessments, and authentic versus devised method (Masters, 2013). This study focuses on Summative Assessment takes place after the learning has been completed and provides information and feedback that sums up the teaching as an assessment method conducted with a view to enhancing the teaching and learning process.

The rationale for SBA is clearly shown in the quote from Hemming, by the Queensland Curriculum & Assessment Authority (QCAA) (2014: i).

It cannot be over emphasised that the mode of assessment dictates the nature of educational experience and the quality of the relationship between teacher and pupils. Assessment is not something separate – a tool by which education may be evaluated. It acts upon the educational system so as to shape it in accordance with what the assessment demands. You cannot have, at one and the same time, education for personal growth and a totally impersonal assessment system. Assessment should be a bond between teachers and learners taught, not something which threatens and antagonises.

To humanise assessment, then, we have to make of schooling a more co-operative enterprise between teachers and pupils, and an opportunity to develop the wide range of human competences, leading up to informative profiles. This should be the pattern of things for the immediate future; it is the way to shade the dreary, and often unjust, grading techniques of traditional education.

The two quotes are basically raising issues which are in support of School-Based Assessment. It is for this reason that, Australia has been identified as one of the countries in the world with a high performing education system (UNESCO, 2014). Queensland, one of the territories in Australia, entirely relies on SBA, and does not have high-stakes public exams. This has resulted in the development of an assessment system which, according to  QCAA (2014: 4), “builds teacher professionalism, caters to the range of students’ learning styles, prepares students for situations they will face in further education and work, encourages students’ higher- order thinking skills, and is fair and reliable.”

Another SBA success story is Hong Kong where SBA has been part of the public examination system since 1978. Hong Kong Examination Assessment Authority (HKEAA) (2012: 1) asserts that, “SBA is an assessment which is embedded in the teaching and learning process.” Key characteristics which distinguish it from other forms of assessment thus;

It involves the teacher from the beginning to the end: from planning the assessment programme, to identifying and /or developing appropriate assessment tasks, right through to making assessment judgements; it allows the collection of a number of samples of student performance over a period of time; it can be adopted and modified by the teacher to match the teaching and learning goals of the particular class and students being assessed; it is carried out in ordinary classrooms not in special examination hall; it is conducted by the student’s own teacher, not a stranger; it involves students more actively in the assessment process, especially if self and/or peer assessment is used in conjunction with teacher assessment; it allows teacher to give immediate and constructive feedback to students; it stimulates continuous evaluation and

adjustment of the teaching and learning programme; it complements other forms of assessment, including external examinations.

In South Africa, Ramalepe (2015) opines that the move to introduce SBA policy was motivated by its documented benefits internationally. DBE, in Ramalepe (2015) gives the merits of SBA in teaching and learning as; developing knowledge, skills and values; promoting frequent classroom interactions; motivating and encouraging learners; allowing constant assessment of learners' strengths and weaknesses; and informing remedial programmes.

These characteristics and merits highlight the significance of SBA as a member of the current regime of assessments that have been adopted by many countries, including South Africa. In the same vein, a number of issues in the implementation of SBA in high schools in South Africa have been raised. These are the gaps and cracks filled by this study.

In an effort to reduce examination pressure and enhance the authenticity of public examinations, SBA is increasingly being adopted in many countries (UNESCO, 2013). Studies have identified a number of benefits of SBA as opposed to external examinations. Hong Kong Examination and Assessment Authority (2012) give a number of benefits of SBA. First is enhancing the scope of assessments by extending the range and diversity of assessment collection opportunities, task types and assessors. This is not possible with external examinations which have one exam per year. Second, validity is improved through assessing factors that cannot be included in public examination settings. Kennedy (2013) concurs by stating that, the rationale for SBA is often linked to validity, and more valid assessments should increase both the fairness of the testing process and public confidence in that process. Third, reliability is improved by having more than one assessment by a teacher who is familiar with the student. This gives multiple opportunities for assessor reflection/ review of the tasks. However, Harlen (2004) in Johnson and Burdett (2008) cautions that evaluating one assessment method in terms of another, that is, evaluating SBA in terms of its reliability with timed written examinations, can be problematic, as that overlooks the essential and important differences that might exist between them.

Fourth, fairness is achieved by following guidelines, processes, outcomes and standards which are commonly agreed. However, Kennedy (2013) argues that, when it comes to SBA, it is difficult to distinguish between its educational purposes and its instrumental purposes. Fifth, SBA enables learners to receive constructive feedback immediately after the assessment is finished, hence improving learning. Spiller (2009) suggests that feedback be given as soon as possible after the completion of the learning task. Johnson and Burdett (2008) acknowledge the importance of feedback by stating that feedback on performance helps the learners to improve their learning and guides their future learning.

Sixth, SBA provides positive wash back/ beneficial influence on teaching and learning. The argument is that, ongoing assessment encourages students to work consistently and provides important data for evaluation of teaching and assessment practices in general. Green (2014) concurs by stating that, in some subjects, there are elements of learning that cannot be assessed validly through written examinations and therefore, some form of SBA is the only way to ensure that these learning objectives receive the focus they merit. Seventh, SBA empowers teachers and learners by involving them in the assessment processes in totality. There is collaboration and sharing of expertise within and across schools, thus, providing teachers with external advice.

Eighth, SBA provides professional development to the teacher, by building their assessment skills and giving feedback on how to improve their teaching. Queensland Curriculum and Assessment Authority (2014) asserts that teachers can use a variety of assessment techniques such as group work, oral presentations, practical responses, assignments and supervised examinations; to provide for different learning styles. They go on to add that, this improves teachers' knowledge of assessment and assessment practices, thus; improving their own teaching. Green (2014) opines that some important skills such as creativity, communication, independent learning and teamwork are difficult to assess, whereas they are key to students' future success in their education and in the world of work.

Despite the overwhelming support SBA had received from different parts of the world as an assessment tool, several challenges were experienced. First, SBA has been blamed for lack of assessment reliability, which is the degree to which an

assessment process can ensure consistent results (Hong Kong Examination & Assessment Authority, 2012). The argument is that, the classroom environment is created by the teacher, it varies from teacher to teacher, and it is the one that determines the level of learning which is to take place. With the diverse levels of learning in the classroom, it will be difficult to trust the results. Opposs (2016: 56) remarks that “SBA does not always assess the aspects of a subject that it is designed to assess, it can divert time from teaching and learning and be arduous to organise and deliver, and too often it is delivered inconsistently.” Allen (2012) concurs and states that there are concerns that teachers at other schools are manipulating the system in their attempts to be on the side of the student and on the side of the interests of the system. The second challenge is plagiarism which affects the trust in the authenticity of the student’s work. The availability of the internet has made plagiarism more rampant and difficult to detect. Barley (2013) states that it is tempting for students to copy work off the internet in order to save time amidst a tight schedule. Pressure to pass from both parents and teachers also leaves learners with few options and forces them to copy. Opposs (2016) observes concerns that plagiarism, excessive input from teachers,  and parental support were distorting SBA marks and adversely affecting learning.

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The third challenge is heavy workload of both teachers and learners (Johnson & Burdett (2008). Studies from different parts of the world have identified heavy workload as a universal problem. Samsudin et al. (2014: 26) report that, “a survey in Malaysia found that teachers worked for an average of 57 hours a week and workload increased as they had to conduct the assessment process from the beginning.” They also lamented the large number of students in one class contributing to the difficulty of assessing each learner. Jaba (2013) concurs and states that teachers are burdened with consuming tasks of processing marks of hundreds of students. In a qualitative investigation, Nair et al. (2014) revealed that among the main problems faced by teachers were time constraints due to many additional duties under SBA.

The fourth challenge of SBA is lack of impartiality in assessments. This arise where teachers try to unfairly assist learners by exercising unreasonable leniency when grading, to help learners to gain entry into favoured schools, universities, colleges or help win scholarships which may be limited in number (Nair et al. 2014). Johnson

and Burdett (2008) echo the same sentiments that SBA has always been accused of bias because of the close relationship between teacher and student, and the potential vested interest in improving the results. They state that even in Sweden, recent reports have highlighted increased concerns about grade inflation where teacher performance is linked to student performance. Opposs (2016: 60) concurs and states that, “teachers are put in a difficult position when their assessments are used to judge their performance and that of their school and students.” He argues that it also creates unfairness between schools because of different interpretations of the amount of assistance teachers can provide to students, different degrees to which teaching focuses on specific assessments, and different marking expectations being applied to students’ work. Green (2014) adds that consistency between schools was considered a problem due to differences in the type and amount of help that students received, and the ways in which the controls were interpreted.

Ramalepe (2015) sums up the challenges affecting the implementation of SBA in SA schools as: large class size, learner absenteeism, inadequate monitoring and giving feedback, insufficient supply of teaching and learning resources, poor teacher networking; unbearable administrative workload, lack of skills on test construction, and illiteracy levels of parents. These challenges have a cumulative negative bearing on the implementation of SBA in South Africa. The current study was on the views of teachers, learners and parents on the implementation of SBA with a view to enhancing teaching and learning. Studies identified teachers, learners and parents as key players in the implementation of School Based Assessment. It was imperative to look at the views of these key stakeholders in the implementation of School Based Assessment.

2.3.1 Views of teachers, learners and parents on the roles of school-based assessment in the teaching and learning process

School Based Assessment, as an educational reform, has been widely embraced in many educational systems such as those of Malaysia, Hong Kong, USA, UK, Finland, Sweden, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Korea, Japan, Ghana, Nigeria, Tanzania, Zambia and South Africa, among others. In Malaysia, the Minister of Education in 2012 stresses that SBA would provide opportunities for learners to improve their overall self-potential and become more creative and innovative with

continuous assistance from teachers (Jaba, 2013). Effective implementation of SBA positions the teacher at the centre of the whole process and requires teachers' contribution of effort, involvement and overall professionalisation (Samsudin et al. 2014). Nair et al. (2014) argue that, by changing the assessment system that places less emphasis on centralised, summative exam, it will somewhat change the approach to teaching and the manner in which learning transpires, and identify teachers, learners and parents as key stakeholders in the implementation of SBA. In South Africa, the introduction of DBE's (2012a) *Curriculum and Assessment policy Statement* (CAPS) points to the need for research on assessment practices in the schooling system, since the ushering of CAPS means a shift to a new assessment dispensation, it is imperative to establish how teachers are taking the shift to the new practices as envisaged by CAPS (Maile, 2013). It is with this understanding that the current study sought to examine the views of teachers, learners and parents in an effort to uncover impediments to the implementation of SBA in South African schools. This is a departure from the bulk of studies which have focused on teachers (Annie, 2011; Majid, 2011; Mpapalika, 2013 Narayan, 2014; Ndalichako, 2015).



2.3.1.1 Views of teachers on the roles of school-based assessment

The teacher is the most critical implementer of SBA who needs to have skills and knowledge to assess students (Nair et al. 2014). The views of the teacher on the role of SBA are critical for a better understanding of the implications of SBA on teaching and learning. Study findings on the perception of teachers on SBA have been dominated by negative views, and very few positive views have been reported. The current study focuses on both views in an effort to unpack the critical role of the teacher in the implementation of SBA to enhance teaching and learning. Findings from a study by Ndalichako (2015) indicate that generally, teachers have favourable perception of SBA. Teachers were found to have a positive attitude on the use of student portfolios (Tangdhanakanond & Wangwanich, 2012). Mansor et al. (2013) state that the views of the teachers were that the implementation of SBA encouraged personal progress, helped to develop positive attitudes, enhanced collaborative skills, and promoted creative teaching and learning activities. Mwebaza (2010) states that teachers strongly agreed that SBA strategies improved the teaching and

learning process, and helped them assess their own performance and effectiveness of their teaching, and to identify weak students. Darling–Hammond and Wentworth (2010) confirm the teachers' view that SBA, which typically involves student activities such as making oral presentations, developing portfolio of work, undertaking fieldwork, carrying out an investigation, doing practical laboratory work or completing a design project; helped students to acquire important skills, knowledge and work habits that could not readily be assessed or promoted through paper and pencil testing. Maile (2013) supports these views by stating that, in recent years, SBA has been entrenched in the teaching and learning process, and it is in the current curriculum architecture, that SBA is part and parcel of teaching and learning.

On the contrary, Chong (2009) observes that teachers have the perception that SBA is more subjective compared to traditional timed pencil and paper external examinations. This is substantiated by Nair et al. (2014) who argue that teachers are unable to separate personal and professional judgements; and tend to be more lenient and considerate instead of judging based on students' actual ability. In South Africa, an ethnographic case study by Vandeyer and Killen (2007) observed that some teachers did not approve of the view that SBA supports learning. In Byabato and Kismo (2014), teachers reported lack of orientation and monitoring, and SBA tended to be unreliable and inconsistent. Research identifies a number of concerns around teacher's views of the role of SBA. Green et al. (2006) report that teachers often include dimensions such as neatness or classroom participation that are not directly related to learning goals. Other studies state that, for many teachers, *assessment* simply means giving students test and assigning them grades. Some teachers cry foul on being left out in policy formulation as this impedes the effective implementation of the policy in schools, and teachers reported that they teach to complete the syllabus and anything beyond that is useless to them (Gobena, 2013; Mwebaza, 2010; Nyambe - Nyambe, 2015).

The view that SBA constitute a needless workload is held by teachers internationally (Barely, 2013; Chong, 2009; Jaba, 2013; Mishra & Mallik, 2014; Narayan, 2014). Other studies have brought a new dimension of workload being linked to school location and gender (Samsudin et al. 2014). The continued existence of heavy

teacher workload created a research gap for this study. The issue of workload and gender was a new phenomenon which was a topic for another study.

Another view is that the teacher faces difficulties in evaluating weak students and those who are always absent from school (Kapambwe, 2010; Ramalepe, 2015; Samsudin et al. 2014). Teachers also view SBA as time consuming and requiring much paper work (Lumandi, 2013; Mishra & Mallik, 2014). This calls for a paradigm shift in teachers' attitude because the aspects which teachers are raising to be time consuming are the basic co-business in the teaching and learning process.

Indications from literature suggest that teachers in SA view curriculum policy changes with a negative attitude (Ramalepe, 2015). Maile (2013) reports that teachers have lost track of what is expected of them as a result of the many policy changes that they have experienced in recent years in South African. For example, with regards to changes in assessment teachers did not know the differences between CAPS, NCS and OBE. Teachers indicated that they were not clear on what is required of them in the designing of SBA assessment tasks and the judgement of assessment evidence presented by learners (Kuze & Shumba, 2011; Maile, 2013; Mkwanzanji, 2014; Lumadi, 2013; Polia, 2009; and Xule, 2013).

Reyneke (2016) reports that teacher's inadequate professional knowledge is a major cause of the ineffective implementation of SBA. Davidson (2007), in Annie (2011), note that some local teachers lack experience, expertise and confidence in implementing SBA on the grounds that it is a relatively new concept. Maile (2013) confirms the teachers' views that they lacked capacity to manage SBA, and had no confidence in their work. Teachers argued that there were no funds and a supportive environment for smooth implementation of SBA (Mishra & Mallik, 2014). The teachers' negative attitude, inadequate professional knowledge and lack of capacity were issues in the implementation of SBA which created a gap in understanding what was happening, which this study sought to plug.

Teachers view teamwork and collaboration on SBA as needing improvement. Teachers are concerned about teamwork and level of collaboration being very low because they are too occupied with their myriad duties and tasks, such that they are unable to hold beneficial discussions among themselves (Nair et al. 2014). Teachers viewed SBA as a means of preparing learners to succeed in national examinations

rather than as a means of enhancing teaching and learning (Ndalichako, 2014). These issues were the lacuna on the implementation of School-Based Assessment which was filled by this study.

2.3.1.2 Views of learners on the roles of School-Based Assessment

Current research literature on SBA positions the teacher at apex of the implementation pyramid (Jaba, 2013; Mansor et al, 2013; Nair et al. 2014; Ndalichako, 2015 & Samsudin et al. 2014). The researcher does not subscribe to this school of thought because according to the Total Quality Management theory, teachers and learners are viewed as equal players in the process. Learners as recipients of educational products are as important as the teacher, the transmitter of the educational product. The value of student voices in contributing to school improvement initiatives has been increasingly recognised in developed countries in recent years (Tong & Adamson, 2015). South Africa recognises the voice of learners through the establishment of the Representative Council of Learners (RCL), as enshrined in the South Africa Schools Act (84 of 1996). Lodge (2005), in Tong and Adamson (2015), asserts that students make a valuable contribution to school improvement as key participants in the learning process. Literature in South Africa shows that, there is lack of studies on views of learners. The limited literature on views of learners creates a fertile ground for this study. Annie (2011) asserts that studies of students' perspective of assessment and their reactions are remarkably lacking, especially in the primary and secondary school context. In the few studies, learner views are dominated by negative opinions on the implementation of SBA.

On the positive side, Tong and Adamson (2015) state that students are somewhat appreciative of their teacher's understanding of SBA and selection of appropriate tasks and prepare themselves well for examinations and are motivated by SBA. In the same vein, students praise their teachers for guiding them properly to understand what SBA requires and for designing activities that closely aligned to formal assessment tasks. Forgarty (1998) and Hedge (2010) in Nair et al. (2014) say with SBA students would have ample opportunities to become engaged in the learning process. Among the characteristics of SBA, are students being able to integrate their intelligence quotient, emotional quotient, spiritual quotient and

physical strength in their learning process directly. This allows setting of the learning targets and relating of the skills, knowledge and ideas learnt with real life situations. In Mishra and Mallik (2014), students appreciated the value of SBA and stated that;

We enjoy examinations. Unit test makes us confident for next other important examinations. We feel happy when teachers thank us or recognise us in classroom in presence of our classmates. We feel happy when teachers appreciate us in the classroom.

Students and other stakeholders should be convinced that when SBA is at its best, it can be motivating and productive to students, helping them to know how well they are doing and what else they need to do (Gobena, 2013).

The picture is somewhat different on the negative side, as students perceive the potential of harm of student-teacher relationship and teacher-student trust because of assessments that the student perceive as unfair or unfounded (Green et al. 2006). This may develop into a negative attitude towards education by the learner (Ramalepe, 2015). Tong and Adamson (2015), in their study, report that students seem to be sceptical about the capacity of SBA performing the functions ascribed to it, such as advancing their learning. In the findings, over 80% of the students remarked negatively about SBA results in one round of assessment being able to predict their performance in future rounds of SBA. Around 64% of students agreed that SBA has little impact on their learning. Some students rejected the learning oriented priorities of SBA because their personal conception of assessment prioritised accountability purposes (Annie, 2011). Tong and Adamson (2015) argue that students tend to have a negative impression of SBA. In their study, over 70% of the students were not convinced that SBA provided them with a more enjoyable and less stressful assessment experience. Students had multifaceted conceptions of assessment and approached assessment situations with their own purpose and intentions. In addition, students' perceptions and reactions to assessment were not necessarily in line with those of their teachers or schools. Annie, (2011) argues that, student experiences of teacher actions are not always as teachers intend. Some students have a difficulty in understanding assessment tasks (Narayan, 2014). Mishra and Mallik (2014) concur with students' view that they did not enjoy examinations since teachers did not teach properly what to write in the examination. The current study sought to interrogate the issues of divergent expectations and

negative attitudes reported by learners, during the focus group discussions with learners.

Narayan (2014) observes that most students faced problems when the assessment task required research work. Most students did not have access to internet facilities at home or in the school, and they had to pay for internet facilities at the internet shop. In the end, some students were unable to cope with the academic work. This is attributed to lack of resources in schools (Reyneke et al, 2010). In Mishra and Mallik (2014), students argue that parents do not know about their performance in school because teachers do not discuss it with parents. Teachers never discuss learner progress or show learner progress cards to the parents. Teachers do not want to personally meet with their parents and discuss learner progress and problems. Teachers should consider parents' opinion while evaluating learners' behaviour, attitude, personality and other social personal qualities, because parents give actual data about the child. The issues of lack of resources raised are not in tandem with the Total Quality Management, which advocates the involvement of all stakeholders.



Umalusi (2015) identifies lack of feedback to learners as one of the critical factors hindering effective implementation of SBA in South African Schools. Majid (2011) argues that feedback needs to be taken into consideration, and relevant modification effected to suit the students' learning experiences. Tong and Adamson (2015) reveal that students expressed reservations about the value of SBA as a mode of assessment. They were unable to benefit from the feedback they were receiving from teachers. Annie (2011) states learners' view that teachers appreciate that providing and responding to feedback is a complex social act that requires sensitivity to the individual needs of the students. SBA and its feedback are a complex socially constructed phenomenon. Added to this, teachers' behaviour affects the way students perceive assessment feedback. SBA can be threatened if the learning conditions are not supportive. Some teachers' actions may require only subtle modifications to become more sensitive to, and productive for, the emotional, social, and intellectual impact of classroom assessment.

Learners also grapple with heavy workload in the implementation of SBA in high schools. Hong Kong Professional Teachers Union (TPU) in Barley (2013), reports

that heavy workload brought upon by SBA is overwhelming for both teachers and learners. Green (2014) asserts that heavy workload issues for students continued to be a problem in the implementation of SBA in the United Kingdom. Tong and Adamson (2015) state that interviewees in a focus group discussion shared the view that extra classes, in the form of presentations in SBA, sometimes after school, resulted in resentment of SBA. Learners are stressed because they would have had a much work to do and they would not be able to devote much time to SBA. In South Africa, Polia (2009) observes increased workload for learners who are required to satisfy the SBA requirements for all seven subjects in the case of National School Certificate (NSC). Oberholzer (2010) reports that overload on students in respect of the number and type of tasks required for SBA is of great concern in South Africa, with students in year 12 required to do 61 tasks in three terms. The tasks include projects, oral presentations, demonstrations, performances, tests, examinations and practical demonstrations (DBE, 2011). Review of the Implementation of the National Curriculum Statement (2009), in Oberholzer (2010:5), gives a synopsis of the findings of the curriculum review process on the issue of overload on teachers and students as;



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In terms of the usefulness and quality of assessment methods, parents and teachers widely cited the unnecessarily complex and unhelpful assessment demands on themselves and their children/ students, such as portfolios, research tasks and projects. Apart from the generally superficial nature and lack of educational rigour of these tasks, the review team was concerned that they do not offer equal opportunities for learning across communities. Rural and economically disadvantaged students do not have access to appropriate resources, nor do their parents understand the complexity of assessments such as research projects, resulting in futile activities.

One of Mishra and Mallik (2014) findings on the perceptions of learners was that;

...we are from poor family and we try to do our best in curricular subjects. Instead of giving rewards, prizes, encouragement, if the school could provide some amount of money, it will be helpful and real inspiration for our future study.

Issues of learner workload, feedback to learners, and resources for learners permeate through SBA discourse across the globe. The current study unpacked these issues through interacting with learners in the focus group discussion and parents in interviews during data collection.

2.3.1.3 Views of parents on the roles of School- Based Assessment

Parents are one of the critical stakeholders in the educational process, and deserve to be a major participant who is consulted in times of a crisis in the education of their children, and not a spectator. Participation of parents in the education of their children is critical, hence a multitude of studies, public debate and policy formulation from different corners of the world on parental involvement (Department for children, schools and families (DCSF, 2008; Emerson, Fear, Fox, & Sanders, 2012; Kimu, 2012; Mafa & Makuba, 2013; McNeal, 2014; O’Hehir & Savelsberg, 2014; National Education Association (NEA), 2008). In the United States of America, parental involvement was a major cornerstone of President Obama’s “Race to the Top” educational initiative. Parental involvement was the cornerstone of former President Bush’s No Child Left Behind initiative, was the cornerstone of former President Clinton’s 1996 Elementary and Secondary Act, was the cornerstone of former President Reagan’s Goals 2000: Educate America Act, and is being touted as a key element of school reform and is actively promoted in national programs and initiatives (McNeal, 2014). In the United Kingdom, The Schools White Paper and The Field Review on Poverty and Life Chances, reinforce the need to involve parents in education, and to create a good home learning environment. In Canada, many provinces have established policies and guidelines that support parental involvement in education (Emerson, Fear, Fox, & Sanders, 2012).

Empirical studies underpin the value of parental involvement in public debate and policy shifts. The policy agenda in many countries has now shifted, with parents and educators being asked to work more closely together. This has seen the emergence of terms such as partnership and engagement in the education vernacular; a trend that is not limited to the domain of education, but can be seen across a number of public policy areas (O’Hehir & Savelsberg, 2014). Parents are important because they decide how, and to what extent, they can be involved in their children’s education in a number of ways that are affected by their own view of their role as a parent, how equipped they feel they are to provide support to their children, and the opportunities for involvement that both the school and their children present to them (O’Hehir & Savelsberg, 2014). Research suggests that parents do not need to invest

a significant amount of time or attain specific knowledge to support their children's learning. Improved educational outcomes can result from genuine interest and active engagement by parents (Emerson, Fear, Fox, & Sanders, 2012). Achievement in learning is more likely to be fostered when both parents and schools work together to facilitate a supportive learning environment in both home and school. There is a strong consensus, supported by much evidence dating from over 40 years, that positive parental engagement can, and does, significantly influence student academic attainment (Emerson, Fear, Fox, & Sanders, 2012). Parental involvement was therefore critical in handling SBA implementation. .

In South Africa, involvement of parents was part of the democratisation of the educational processes as enshrined in the preamble to the South African Schools Act (SASA) (84 of 1996) which aims to; "Uphold the right of all learners, parents and educators, and promote their acceptance of responsibility for the organisation, governance and funding of schools....."

The crux of the matter, according to the National Education Association (NEA) (2008), is that education is a core value of any democratic society, and it is in everyone's interest to insure that all children receive quality education. The democratic process, as well as the economy, depends on an educated citizenry and skilled workforce. Research unequivocally affirms the positive and long lasting effects of parent, family and community involvement in student learning (DCSF, 2008; NEA, 2008). Most children have two main educators in their lives, parents and teachers (DCSF, 2008). Lemmer and Squelch (1994) in Ramalepe (2014) define parental involvement as the participation of parents in a wide range of school-based and home-based activities to improve their children's education. It includes all the support given to schools which can take the form of cooperation, participation and partnership (Ramalepe, 2014). Emerson, Fear, Fox and Sanders (2012) assert that parental involvement involves a complex array of behaviours, attitudes and activities that occur both within the school setting and the home. O'Hehir and Savelsberg (2014) note that parental involvement refers to the actions and behaviours that parent undertake with the purpose of supporting their children's schooling. Research shows that parent-school partnerships improve schools, strengthen families, and build community support, and increase student achievement and success (NEA,

2008). Cheng et al. (2010) echo the same view and state that research has demonstrated that parents' involvement plays a beneficial role in children's school progress and development. Recent studies on parental involvement in Kenya (Kimu, 2012), in South Africa (Ramalepe, 2015), and in Zimbabwe (Mafa & Makuba, 2013), confirm the importance of parental involvement in teaching and learning. Literature known to the researcher on views of parents on SBA is very thin (Cheng, Andrew and Yu, 2010; Mishra & Mallik, 2014). Cheng et al. (2010) report in their study on impact and consequence of SBA that it is one of the few that have provided linked results from two major stakeholders; students and parents on the impact of School-Based Assessment. Currently, no study known to the researcher has been done on the views of parents, teachers and learners on SBA in Mpumalanga province of South Africa. This study seeks to fill this gap.

Research findings on the views of parents on the role of SBA raise mixed views. Parents' view is that South African schools require an educational assessment framework that empowers parents with information on their children's performance (Van der Berg, Taylor, Gustafsson, Spaul & Armstrong, 2011). This supports findings in research literature that parents play a beneficial role in their children's education. This was a result of informing parents about the assessment innovation in order to enhance the success of the implementation and eventually support teaching and learning (Cheng et al, 2010).

On the centrally other studies state that, parents do not give suggestions to teachers because teachers have better knowledge about evaluation system (Mishra & Mallik, 2014). The other view is that parents cannot help their children prepare for examinations because they are illiterate. They cannot directly help their children in their study, and due to lack of time, they cannot help their children prepare for examination; due to poverty they cannot send their children for private tuition (Mishra & Mallik, 2014; Ramalepe, 2015). Some parents are not able to fully support their children, and internal assessment task requirements have become a burden to parents (Narayan, 2014). From their study on the views of parents in India, on parental involvement in the implementation of SBA, Mishra and Mallik's (2014) findings present a gloomy picture that: parents are unaware of SBA system (90%), parents are not informed about child's progress (80%), parents are not shown children's report cards (88%), teachers do not discuss with parents the progress of

children (100%), parents do not discuss oral examinations with children (80%), parents do not discuss written examinations with children (68%), and parents do not discuss with children the evaluation of participation in co-curricular activities (90%). These findings are in contrast with the observation by Noorazam (2011) in Nair et al. (2014) that many parents are now educated and should be able to guide their children at home. These statistics show lack of parental involvement in the education of the children. In contrast findings in Hong Kong by Cheng et al. (2010:28) revealed that:

Parents' level of education and the time they spend with their children (not the type of housing they live in) play a significant role in their support for children in SBA. What parents know about the school innovation, in this case, SBA, contributes to their support for their children in schools. When parents perceive that SBA could motivate their children to learn, they would give more support to their children in doing SBA. Parents' perception of the effects of SBA on students' motivation to learn have a significant and direct relationship to their children's perceived impact of SBA on their motivation to learn. In addition, parents' perceptions about SBA are directly and significantly related to their children's perceptions about SBA.

The views of parents point to the need for communicating what happens in school to parents so that they can best support their children. Thompson, Benz, and Agiesta (2013) argue that parents represent an important perspective that policy makers need to understand in the design, articulation, and implementation of quality focused education initiatives. Nair et al. (2014) assert that SBAs enable parents to get involved in the education of their children, and make parents and teachers partners in the education of their children. Cheng et al (2010) sums it up by stating that, parents' knowledge about SBA, and perceptions about SBA are also associated with the amount of support parents provided for their children in relation to SBA. Parental involvement anchors Total Quality Management theory by recognising the significance of parents in the educational process. Parents' views seem to be the missing link in the implementation of SBA in South African schools. The focus of this study was to fill the gap on understanding the role of parental involvement in the implementation of SBA and the enhancement of teaching and learning.

In Singapore, Chong (2009) reports that parents have the perception that SBA is more subjective compared to traditional timed, pencil and paper external examinations and, as such, are perceived to be less reliable. In Zimbabwe, Kurebwa

and Nyaruwata (2013) observe that parents consider end of term test as important to the learning of their children. In Tanzania, Byabato and Kismo, (2014) conclude that parental involvement/participation in the implementation of SBA was minimal. In South Africa, Ramalepe and Zengele (2014) findings were that parental involvement was not satisfactory in schools. The findings on views of parents highlight issues related to the implementation of SBA from different corners of the world. This study filled this gap by interviewing parents (SGB chairpersons) to better the understanding of the implementation of SBA to enhance teaching and learning.

2.3.2 Supportive Structures in the implementation of School-Based Assessment in schools

Implementation structures are administrative entities which guide implementers. Implementation needs to be supported by the necessary structures for it to be effective. Studies the world over have acknowledged implementation as one of the major challenges affecting SBA as an educational policy reform (Bello & Tijani, 2010; Ramalepe & Zengele, 2014; Majid, 2011; Narayan, 2014; Reyneke et al. 2010). Implementation requires a solid support structure for it to be successful. A number of countries, particularly developed countries in the Euro-Zone have reported success in the implementation of SBA.



In the United Kingdom, the nature of the tasks and the administration has changed over the last two decades to include more school-based tasks and projects. The tests and tasks are marked by teachers and moderated within the school by the external moderators. The Assessing Pupils' Progress (APP) program is a new structured approach to teacher assessment, which equips teachers to make judgements on pupils' progress. It helps teachers to fine-tune their understanding of learner needs and tailor their planning and teaching accordingly, by enabling them to: use diagnostic information about pupils' strengths and weaknesses to improve teaching, learning and pupils' progress; make reliable judgements related to national standards drawing on a wide range of evidence; and track pupils' progress (Darling-Hammond & Wentworth, 2010). In Wales, cluster group moderation was introduced since 2005, and assessment by teachers is backed by cluster group moderation. Schools inspectorate has been established in schools as structures to support teacher judgements (Daugherty, 2011)

In Sweden, teachers design School-Based Assessment based on the nationally determined syllabi which determine the content of coursework students complete in their class (Darling-Hammond & Wentworth, 2010). In Australia, each state has its own curriculum and assessment programme; local School-Based Assessment is a well-developed part of the system. In Queensland, one of the Australian states, all assessment is School-Based. Teachers develop, administer, and score the assessments in relation to the national curriculum guidelines, and state syllabi (developed by teachers) panel that includes teachers from other schools and one professor from the tertiary education system moderate the assessments. To create the standards used throughout the provinces, the central authority gathers groups of teachers and subject experts to write standards that specify different levels of achievement and describe the characteristics of student work at each level. In Victoria, a mixed system of centralised and decentralised assessment combines these kinds of School-Based Assessment practices with a set of state exams guided by the Victoria Essential Learning Standards (Darling- Hammond & Wentworth, 2010).



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In Hong Kong, an online bank of assessment tasks was developed to enable schools to assess their students and receive feedback on their performance on their own timeframes. Barley (2013) reveals that support measures were provided for teachers in the implementation of SBA, whereby working group and coordinators were designated to help teachers coordinate their subjects, and measures were employed to ensure fairness, objectivity and consistency in grading SBA work. Annie (2011) identifies feedback as a tool for facilitating student progress in learning. Hattie and Timperley (2007) note that feedback comprises information provided by an agent (teacher, peer, book, parent, self, experience) regarding one's performance or understanding. Feedback facilitates student learning, which is the main purpose of SBA in schools. Findings from this study provided guidelines for the development of policies to support the implementation of SBA in high schools to enhance teaching and learning.

From other corners of the globe apart from Africa, support structures were developed such as the online SBA management system (online reporting system) (Samsudin et al. 2014). Support services and online monitoring helped to improve understanding about SBA. Majid (2011) reports that guidelines and objectives were provided by the

Ministry of education in Malaysia to facilitate the implementation of SBA. Green et al. (2006) identify support for teachers embedded in everyday details of their ongoing activities, as an effective way for influencing belief and practice of teachers. Narayan (2014) reports that subject meetings, departmental meetings, school-based and district-based workshops and discussions during staff meetings were used to support teachers.

Other studies did not report that much success in terms of support structures in the implementation of SBA. There were no adequate funds and supporting environments for smooth implementation of SBA (Mishra & Mallick, 2014). Kennedy (2013) notes that SBA is often at-risk, not because it is a poor assessment process, but the conditions in which it is implemented are not always conducive. Baniya (2012) argues that true commitment to student learning is a paradigm shift, which requires programs, courses and assessment procedures to be consistent with improving learning. Interviewing learners in the current study was meant to reveal the necessary support needed by students in the implementation of School-Based Assessment to enhance teaching and learning.



On the African continent, Bandele and Ayodele (2015) report that a number of assessment committees were set up in schools in Nigeria. The mandate of the committees was to coordinate the implementation of SBA in their respective schools. In Zambia, Ministry of Education developed procedures that enable teachers to standardise their assessment methods and tasks. Materials such as Teachers' guides manuals, Assessment Schemes, and Exemplar Tasks were developed with input from teachers. District officials were supposed to monitor and support teachers (Kapambwe, 2010; Mutanekelwa & Mweemba, 2006). However, Bichi and Musa (2015) and Reyneke et al. (2010) lament the lack of support during the implementation process in most of the African countries, in the form of lack of resources and support materials.

In South Africa, The South African Schools Act (84 of 1996), as a policy support structure, identifies five levels in school governance, namely; National level, Provincial level, District level, Circuit level and School level. This study focused on the functions of these levels in an effort to establish how best they can facilitate effective implementation of SBA in South African schools. Literature from studies

and reports in South Africa highlighted the importance of these structures. Maile (2013) argues that curriculum debates have been vibrant, with many scholars criticising the government on technical language of the curriculum, challenges of implementation, resourcing schools, training teachers on curriculum, and the mundane activities of the assessment with very little attention paid to School-Based Assessment. The argument is that more needs to be done in terms of ensuring that the support structures are functional and effective. The argument opens a research gap which calls for a better understanding by the Department of Education on how to handle SBA in South African schools. One of the conspicuous failures of DoE was the unavailability of a National policy on the moderation of SBA (Polia, 2009). Reyneke et al. (2010) argues that, the problem with SBA lies with its implementation of policy and lack of support during implementation. However, finalisation of the National SBA Policy was expected in 2016. The unavailability of a National Policy on the implementation of SBA contributed to implementation issues which necessitated this study.

2.3.2.1 Implementation structures at national level



At national level is the legislative framework which is composed of the policies upon which SBA is founded (Eastern Cape Department of Education (2016). The policy structures are:

- National Education Policy Act, 1996 (Act No. 27 of 1996)
- The South African Schools Act, (Act No 84 of 1996) as amended.
- National Policy pertaining to the Programme and Promotion Requirements of the National Curriculum Statement: Grades R-12.
- The General and Further Education and Training Quality Assurance Act, 2001 (Act No 58 of 2001)
- Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (Grades 10-12)
- National Protocol for Assessment (Grades R 12)

Administrative structure established by government to support policy implementation at National level is the Department of Education (DoE). On SBA, DoE draft policy relating to curriculum and assessment supports Provincial Education Departments (PEDs) in the implementation of policy, monitors and evaluates PEDs to ensure

policy compliance. In addition, it establishes the Council (Umalusi) for quality checks on external assessments and SBA (Polia, 2009). Umalusi has established special committees to deal with standardisation, and provides a framework for quality assurance and monitoring standards of learning achievement. The mandate for Umalusi includes:

- assurance of quality of assessments at exit points;
- performance of external moderation of assessment of all assessment bodies and education institutions; and
- adjusting raw marks during standardisation process.

According to Maile (2013), the DBE came up with Annual Performance Plan (APP) as a structure to support the implementation of SBA, with the fundamental foci being learners, teachers, schools and the quality of learning in schools. On the APP in education, ministers are put under pressure for quality services. The pressure is cascaded to provinces, which also passes the pressure to districts, which in turn, directs it to the school (Maile, 2013). However, according to the Ministerial Task Team Report on NSC (2014), Umalusi reports reveal a weak correlation between final examination marks and raw marks. In addition, Umalusi repeatedly reports problems in the application of SBA related to widespread tendencies of schools designing assessment tasks with a low cognitive demand and conducting poor moderation of assessments. Umalusi Report (2015) also observes failure by schools to address content as required by CAPS, with many teachers not being conversant with CAPS requirements for their subjects. Task quality is then compromised because tasks are poorly constructed. For internal moderation (school level), it was difficult to discern the level of moderation. The current study examined these issues from the point of view of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of SBA.

2.3.2.2 Implementation structures at provincial level

The second level structure is Provincial Education Departments (PEDs). Polia (2009) asserts that PEDs take full responsibility for the implementation of SBA at school level. They establish sub-structures, which are regional, district or circuit offices; to

assist in the implementation function. They support schools through the development of guidelines that are specific to the province via regional/ district/ circuit offices. Some of the current Assessment Guidelines, Circulars and Instructions for some of the PEDs are;

- Gauteng Province Department of Education: Assessment Guideline No3 of 2014;
- KwaZulu - Natal Provincial Department of Education: Guidelines for School - based Assessment Moderation;
- Mpumalanga Province Department of Education: Circular No 1 of 2013;
- Eastern Cape Provincial Department of Education: Assessment Instruction number 28 of 2015;
- Eastern Cape Provincial Department of Education: Assessment Instruction number 18 of 2016

The Eastern Cape Provincial Department of Education (2016) Assessment Instruction number 18 of 2016 appears to be a water tight PED policy document. Some of the succinct features of the document are given below.



The purpose of the Assessment Instruction includes:

- An outline of the duties and responsibilities of all stakeholders in the implementation of SBA.
- A management plan with important dates for the implementation of SBA at school, district and provincial level.
- Provision of clear-cut directions to ensure the maintenance and improvement of the quality of SBA.

The background to the Assessment Instruction clearly states that:

- Evidence of learners' work is a COMPULSORY requirement for ALL subjects.
- Learners/ Parents must be informed at the beginning of the year that SBA is a compulsory component of their promotional mark therefore, must be fully complied with and given the support and attention it deserves.

The instructions and information is explicitly clear, based on the dictates of the legislative structures such as CAPS documents. The question then was; where did

things go wrong for the same province to take last position in the 2017 NSC Matric results? Secondly, why was the implementation of SBA still a challenge despite the availability of guidelines and circulars? These questions created a gap for research.

2.3.2.3 Implementation structures at district level

After the provincial structure are the district structures. At district level, a district coordinator is appointed to take responsibility for SBA implementation in the schools in the district. The duties of district coordinator include:

- distribution of policy and guidelines from PED,
- mediation and advocacy of policy,
- monitoring and implementation of SBA to insure policy compliance,
- moderation of SBA marks, and
- collection of SBA marks from schools.

District coordinators work with subject advisors who are expected to visit schools on a regular basis and undertake moderation of SBA on an ongoing basis (Polia, 2009). Maile (2013) argues that Districts are new structures implemented after 1994. Their roles are not yet clarified; they are understaffed and lack the required skills and competences to deal with major challenges facing the schools. DBE (2016) (NSC examination Report) reports that, structures exist at district level for discussions and meetings on assessment. However, the quality of assessment tasks and lack of dedicated support at district and school levels across a number of provinces remains a concern for DBE. Subject advisors do not have adequate competence for providing support to teachers.

2.3.2.4 Implementation structures at circuit level

After the District is the Circuit Level. At this level, circuit managers oversee policy implementation in schools. The circuit office ratifies the appointment of cluster leaders from schools. Responsibilities of clusters are;

- setting of standards for SBA,
- setting of common assessment tasks,
- sharing of good practice, and

- moderation of learners' evidence to establish a common standard (Polia, 2009).

Kerr- Phillips (2007) observes that cluster moderation is a mere formality. Maile (2013) in concurrence noted that clusters were not well planned and did not include teachers' views. Teachers raised a number of concerns under teachers' views in this study. This study sought to establish these views and unpack the challenges faced at circuit level in the implementation of SBA in High school.

2.3.2.5 Implementation structures at school level

The last structures are at the Schools Level. The Head of Department HoD takes responsibility for the moderation of SBA, that is, the assessment tasks and the scores awarded to learners (Polia, 2009). This is not done in most schools, given the full teaching timetable for HODs, which allows them very little time for support in supervision of teachers' work (DoE report 2006). The challenge continues almost unabated nine years later as the Technical report by DBE (2015) reported that, there was little evidence of monitoring and support of schools to improve the quality of pre- and post-moderation of tasks at school level. In the same vein, there are areas that still require support and intervention to improve the quality and standard of SBA. There is some marginal hope after DBE (2017) report identified improvements in the implementation of SBA at Grade 12 in 2016. However, the same challenges continue to hound the implementation of SBA. These are poor quality of some SBA tasks; tasks of low cognitive levels; and variations in moderation systems at school, district, provincial and national levels. The persistence of the same issues stretching over more than a decade necessitated the soliciting of views of teachers, learners and parents for a better understanding of the SBA implementation issues. The current study interviewed the SGB chair to get views of parents on the implementation of SBA. This was backed by empirical studies which have acknowledged the value of parental involvement in teaching and learning. Limiting the views of parents to the views of the SGB chair only affects the generalisation of the study results.

School Governing Board (SGB) as a structure, has a supportive role in the school. It ensures that the school is governed in the best interest of all stakeholders. Some of the key roles of the SGB, according to SASA (no 84 of 1996) include supporting academic staff (teachers) in executing their duties. The second role is to encourage partnership with people with expertise to assist the school programmes including assessment. Third supportive role is to raise funds to supplement the school's income, needed to provide the infrastructure needed in the implementation of SBA in schools.

DBE (2013) asserts that SGB represents a key organisational structure with significance over and above educational reasons, as an opportunity for communities to exercise democratic participation. However, there are challenges in its operation due to power imbalances between professional school managers and less educated members of the parent community. The democratic participation by parents complements Total Quality Management (TQM) theory on which this study was premised. Systems approach as one of the tenets of TQM is hinged on the premise that 85% of all the things that go wrong in any organisation are directly attributable to how the organisation's systems and processes are wired up (Pineda, 2013). Failure by schools to effectively implement SBA can be attributed to how the school systems and processes are set up. Total participation of parents are critically analysed in pursuit of better understanding of how school systems and processes were wired up, in the quest find answers to the issues negating the implementation of SBA in South African school.

2.3.3 Complementary role of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of School-Based Assessment in schools

Complementarities of roles of stakeholders look at convergence points in their execution of duties. Each stakeholder has a distinct role to play in the implementation of SBA. However, the implementation cannot be complete if the roles of the different stakeholders are not fine-tuned. Literature has reported an overwhelming embracing of SBA as an educational reform in the past four decades. SBA has also been seen as the vehicle to deliver 21st century skills like problem-

solving and critical thinking, entrepreneurship and creativity (Obama, 2009 in Darling-Hammond & Pecheone (2010)). The biggest hurdle with SBA, as an educational policy reform, has been its implementation, and among the issues was the complementarity of roles of teachers, learners and parents. The study unpacked this issue from the different perspectives of participants. Among the countries that have registered high success in the implementation of SBA are Sweden and Finland, and Australia in some states (Darling-Hammond & Wentworth, 2010).

In Australia, Queensland State, externally-moderated School-Based Assessment is used to support teaching and learning. Teachers use their classroom assessment to monitor their teaching and provide feedback to students on their learning and grade student work. The teacher is part of the formal, official, summative assessment system, and has responsibility to the school for ensuring that decisions about students' achievements are soundly based on evidence (Allen, 2012). Being part of the system implies convergence of roles with other stakeholders. In Sweden, teachers design School-Based Assessment on the nationally determined syllabi. Assessment in compulsory school (ages 7 to 16) consists of several components. During each term, the teacher, student and parent meet to discuss the students' learning and development (Darling-Hammond & Wentworth, 2010).

In Australia, Queensland Curriculum Assessment and Authority (2014) gives the features of the Queensland's approach to assessment (SBA) which includes teaching, learning, assessment and reporting. These should be aligned so that what is taught informs what is assessed, and what is assessed forms the basis of what is reported. Teacher design continuous School-Based Assessment programmes and makes judgements about standards achieved by their students, including summative judgements for reporting purposes. Teachers work in partnership with the Queensland Curriculum and Assessment Authority (QCAA) to develop high quality assessment tasks, a process supported by the development of exemplar assessment instruments and annotated sample of student responses.

One of the key benefits is that this model of continuous assessment provides more opportunities for teachers to give timely and comprehensive feedback to students about how they might improve their performance. Formative assessment at particular points indicates the standards achieved by students and provides meaningful reports

to parents/ carers on students' achievements. It helps students to achieve the highest standards they can within their own capabilities. From this, students experience a total engagement with the assessment process and learn to think creatively about problems. The approach involves students, teachers and learners in the entire process of teaching, learning and assessment, which depicts a complete synchronisation of efforts in the educational partnership. There are many similarities in the Australian features with those of Sweden and Finland. This justifies why SBA has been successfully implemented as an educational reform in these countries. The current study focused on how the synchronisation of the roles of teachers, learners and parents can create the missing knowledge on the implementation of SBA in South African high schools.

Hong Kong has made significant strides in the implementation of SBA. Barley (2013) reports that, in Hong Kong, teachers are able to help students in resolving their queries on SBA related matters, guide them through the assessment requirements and methods in their respective SBA subjects, and explain to them the complementary nature of written examinations and SBA in public assessments. However, in the same state, Annie (2011) observes communication gaps between teachers and students. This shows that it is imperative that teachers appreciate that providing and responding to feedback is a complex and social act that requires sensitivity to the individual needs of the student. Students feel that feedback works best when it is provided from the onset with a detailed brief and assessment criteria as to the teachers' expectations. Students also observed that, to be effective, feedback needs to be precise, given in a timely fashion, constructive, and where possible, written (Annie, 2011).

There is potentially a misalignment between Assessment for Learning (SBA) environment as perceived by Hong Kong Examination and Assessment Authority (HKEAA), and the actual assessment environments as perceived by the students. SBA can be threatened if the learning conditions are not supportive; teachers' behaviour affects the way a student perceived assessment feedback (Annie, 2011; Barley, 2013). Students' perception and reaction to feedback is not necessarily in line with that of their teachers or schools. What students like should not dictate the nature and form of feedback, and teachers must be prepared to defend unpopular but effective feedback. At the same time, the more the rules and goals are shared,

the better the students are able to interpret the feedback. Students preferred focused and systematic feedback and appreciated it when learning support was imbedded (Annie, 2011). The issue of feedback is critical in the implementation of SBA as it acts as the bridge between the different stakeholders. Effective feedback could be the missing link in the implementation of SBA in South African schools. This study unpacked the issue of effective feedback and its impact on the implementation of SBA in SA high schools.

A recent study by Tong and Adamson (2015) in Hong Kong entitled: *Student Voices in School-Based Assessment* is one of the few known to the researcher to focus on students only in SBA. The researcher acknowledges that research on student perception has been very thin. The current study sought to make a contribution in closing this gap. Some of the findings in Tong and Adamson (2015), which had serious negative implications on the complementarities of roles teachers, learners and parents, include the view that SBA was unfair to students because it resulted in them being over-assessed. Second finding was that students resented SBA because of the need for extra classes to complete SBA tasks. The third finding was that students (64%) agreed that SBA had little impact on their learning. The fourth finding was that students claimed that they did not see how their SBA performances impacted on their teachers' teaching as the teachers had their own schedules to follow. Fifth finding was that the students seemed to be sceptical about the capacity of SBA to perform the functions ascribed to it. The study sums up with the assertion that, the intentions of SBA can be threatened if the negative tendencies are not addressed through teacher education, and calls for a dialogue model that allows student participation in debates about improving learning. These findings raised serious issues which cannot be described as teething problems, but gaps in terms of lack of research on learners; hence, this study.

In the United States of America, the assessment regime is still dominated by public examinations despite legislative changes calling for 21st century learning. It is for this reason that the US still falls way back in terms of Programme in International Student Assessment (PISA) test rankings as compared to Finland. In pursuance of the assessment policy regime change, Darling-Hammond and Pechione (2010) report that in United States of America, Assessment must support ongoing improvements in instructions and learning, and must be educative for all members of the educational

enterprise: students, parents, teachers, school administrators, members of the public and policymakers. Assessment systems must be designed to increase the capacity of teachers to prepare students for the demand of college and career in the 21st century. This calls for an increase in the prominence for school-based tasks (Darling- Hammond & Pecheone, 2010). Developing both school-based and external assessments around learning progressions allows teachers to see where students are on multiple dimensions of learning, and to strategically support their progress. Assessments that evaluate students' work and reasoning will support more transferable learning and teaching, and provide more information to teachers and students. Teacher involvement in developing, scoring and use of results of assessments will support teacher understanding of curriculum and standards and will help improve instruction (Darling- Hammond & Pecheone, 2010). Complementarities of the roles of teachers, learners, and parents is critical in the pursuit of understanding and higher order thinking skills that are demanded by a knowledge based economy (Darling-Hammond & Pecheone, 2010).

The move towards more School-Based Assessment has occurred in various ways in the United Kingdom. The nature of the tasks and the administration has changed over the last two decades to include more school based tasks and projects. Teachers used diagnostic information about learners' strengths and weaknesses to improve teaching, learning and assess learner progress (Darling-Hammond & Wentworth, 2010). However, Opposs (2016) observes that excessive input from teachers and parental support were distorting SBA marks and adversely affecting learning. Opposs' observation shows lack of convergence in the roles of teachers and parents which has a negative effect on the implementation of school-based tasks. This could be the reason behind the UK lagging behind in terms of its implementation of SBA despite its acceptance at policy level.

The Asia-Pacific region has seen a multitude of research studies on the implementation of SBA, as a Policy reform following its wide acceptance in several countries. In Thailand, Tangdhanakanond and Wongwanich (2012) reveal that, student learning assessment should be holistically performed under the active participation of various parties, that is, students, their peers, teachers and parents. Active participation in this context means complementing each other. Kingore (1995) in Tangdhanakanond and Wongwanich (2012) add that, using portfolio as a source

of information about a student can also increase a parents' knowledge of their child's abilities and needs. Nair et al. (2014) acknowledge that SBA is a system where teacher and learners are empowered to gauge student learning. At the same time, SBA enables parents to get involved in the education of their children. It makes parents and teachers partners in the education of their children. Shepard (1995) in Williamson, (2017) argues that SBA provides opportunities for the teacher as an assessor to assess skills which cannot be adequately assessed externally by means of written tests. As a result, it could not be that the teacher's role in the summative dimension of the SBA process weakens the examination. In Indonesia, Supramono and Larasati (2014) argue that, allowing teacher to participate in school programmes and activities such as SBA, schools give a chance to its teachers in making decisions. The findings cited in the above scenarios in the Asia-Pacific region shows high levels of complementarities of the roles of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of SBA. The current study took a leaf from these scenarios, to enhance effective implementation of SBA in SA schools.

In a study in Fiji, Narayan (2014) focuses on challenges faced by students and teachers and the reforms needed in the implementation of internal assessment system (SBA). One of the findings was that, teachers have commented that some of the students are not able to bring resources to their SBA tasks due to poor financial status of parents. Some parents are not able to support their children and, according to the teachers, the SBA tasks have become an extra burden to parents. This raises serious questions on complementarities of the roles of parents and teachers. Kennedy (2013) argued that the biggest challenge for SBA was winning the hearts and minds of students, teachers and the community (parents). This is in essence, calling for complementarities of roles of parents, teachers and learners in the implementation of SBA. Majid (2011) reports the finding that respondents (teachers) were uncertain about the role they needed to play in SBA. Weir (1994), in Majid (2011), states that the implementation of SBA requires serious changes in teachers' perceptions of their own role in relation to their students and their classroom practice.

Another area in need of attention is teachers' collaboration with their students and colleagues. Teachers indicated a need for their students to understand the students'

role in SBA, and the feedback from students need to be taken into consideration and relevant modifications are necessary to suit the students' learning experiences (Majid, 2011). Malakolunthua and Hoonb (2010) report that, School-Based Assessment was a new venture in the Malaysian school system. Unfortunately, insufficient guidelines for teachers on the implementation of the School-Based Assessment, poor knowledge-base of teachers, and lack of proper external monitoring created hurdles in the successful implementation of School-Based Assessment. Samsudin et al. (2014) assert that, management of school should provide great assistance and adequate facilities for to implement the new system. In an almost similar study by Veloo et al. (2015) aimed at finding the level of teachers' knowledge and readiness towards implementation of SBA, two key findings stand out. First, the success of SBA depends on teachers' knowledge and readiness to implement the new assessment for learning. Second, teachers feel that their level of knowledge is not complete and more initiatives need to be taken by the educational authorities so that teachers are more confident of their level of readiness.

The studies in Malaysia were centred on one focal point, that is, the implementation of SBA. The findings indicated the need for complementarities of roles of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of SBA to enhance teaching and learning. The current study takes lessons from the findings in these studies to facilitate the implementation of SBA in South African schools. One common phenomenon in the Malaysian studies is that, they all focus on teachers, which creates lack of balance in the findings. This study provided the balance as it focused on parents, teachers and learners.

In India, a study by Mishra and Mallick (2014) provides the needed balance as they looked at perceptions of teachers, parents and students of SBA. However, they reported serious cracks in the complementarities of roles of the named stakeholders in that, teachers were least bothered even to inform the parents about the assessment results, and there were no adequate funds to the supporting environment for smooth implementation of SBA. Williamson (2017) explores and discusses the issues and concerns that are related to teachers' role in the use of SBA in public examinations. Some of the concerns which have an influence on this study include giving the teacher a role in the summative assessment of SBA as part of the public examination, seen to weaken the value of public examinations. Having

both formative and summative dimensions, SBA may not fit a typical public examination model and is often a source of anxiety among stakeholders. SBA utilises scores awarded by the teacher and these contribute to the final score or grade of the student, while public examinations are typically administered by an external agent to the school where the student has studied (Williamson, 2017). An issue relating to the SBA component and the involvement of the teacher is that differences in the nature and magnitude of teacher inputs into the SBA work of students may unfairly over-compensate some students while unfairly penalising others. SBA marks tend to be inflated due to the assessment process, parental pressure, and in some cases, threats; which interfere with public confidence (Williamson, 2017). Fairness in the SBA process may be questionable. These concerns, places the implementation of SBA in quagmire. The concerns confirm the findings of two different studies conducted in the same year in different places, Hong Kong and Malaysia, with two different respondents, that is, learners and teachers respectively (Tong & Adamson, 2015; Veloo et al. 2015). The only common aspect in the two studies was the data collection instrument (Questionnaire). The concerns and findings from the two 2015 studies reflect a wide research gap in terms of roles of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of SBA. The inclusion of parents, which was missing in most studies, justified parents' contribution to the body of knowledge on the implementation of SBA.

The situation in terms of SBA implementation on the African continent is almost the same as the one in the Asia-Pacific region in which there are more challenges than successes. In Ethiopia, Gobena (2013) says that teachers, students and related stakeholders should be convinced that when assessment is at its best, it can be motivating and productive for students, helping them know how well they are doing and what else they need to do. In Nigeria, Adediwura (2012) investigated the perceived effect of SBA on Nigerian secondary school teachers, with the specific aim of determining the preparedness of the teachers to conduct SBA, as well as the perceived effect of the SBA on their teaching practices and students' learning. The results indicated that more than half of the sampled teachers were not adequately prepared to conduct SBA.

In Tanzania, Byabato and Kismo (2014) lament that the findings on parental participation in the implementation of SBA (CA) indicate that parents are rarely

involved. Ndalichako (2015) concurs and highlights the existence of the blame game in that teachers were blamed for not teaching effectively and students were blamed for not being serious with their studies. Parents were blamed for not making follow-up on what their children doing in schools, and government was blamed for not providing sufficient teaching and learning facilities. The findings from the studies identified issues such as failure to convince stakeholders, lack of teacher preparedness, students lacking proper orientation and stakeholders blaming each other, all point to challenges in the implementation of SBA particularly on the issues of complementarities of roles of teachers, learners and parents.

On the centrally in Zambia, the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development in Kapambwe (2010) reports that teachers' relationship with students and parents were stronger. Parents knew specifically what their children were learning and students had greater involvement in the learning process with their teachers. Both the teachers and the learners worked together to set the specific learning targets which could be attained at different stages.

The Zimbabwean scenario is different from other countries in that SBA was exclusively for practical subjects (Mhishi et al. 2012). Masole (2004) in Mhishi et al. (2012) asserts that, SBA which is done at school level attempts to empower the learner, and if correctly implemented and incorporated into summative assessments, a more comprehensive cumulative judgement about the learner is achieved.

Education experts warn that if teachers are not well-equipped and confident in their work, they may succumb to pressure and corruption from some parents who want good grades for their children, or they may not want to be blamed for the learner's failure hence they end up inflating scores (Mhishi et al. 2012;33).

In South Africa, Polia (2009) asserts that the purpose of SBA is not uniformly understood across the education system by all implementers. Reyneke et al. 2010) state that the main problem with SBA in SA lies with the implementation of policy. . Van der Berg and Shepherd (2010) state that tasks set by the teacher at school level may not support the outcome set by the national curriculum standards. This may result in weak assessments which give students wrong signals that would influence their learning strategies, their examination effort and their future planning. The studies raise almost the same challenges in the in implementation of SBA, in South

Africa. Umalusi (2015) observes lack of formative feedback from teachers to learners when they mark work, and at different levels of internal moderation to both teachers and learners. This may be considered an unfortunate scenario considering the fact that SBA has been part of the SA education system for more than four decades. The roles of teachers, learners and parents are not complementing each other; hence the implementation has not been effective. The study sought to understand the deficiency in role complementarities of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of School-Based Assessment.

2.3.4 Strategies used to enhance the implementation of School-based assessment in schools

A number of issues have been raised by teachers, learners and parents on their roles in the implementation of SBA, the structures which support the implementation of SBA and the complementarities of roles in the implementation of SBA. The issues were the impediments that militated against the implementation of SBA under the different sub-problem of this study. Strategies were suggested to enhance the understanding of the SBA implementation issues.



2.3.4.1 Strategies to address the issues on the views of teachers, learners and parents on the roles of SBA in high schools

Teachers and parents are of the view that SBA is subjective and less reliable (Byabato & Kismo, 2014; Chong, 2008). Nair et al. (2014) support the view and argue that teachers are not able to separate personal from professional judgements. Green et al. (2006) add that teachers often include in the SBA tasks dimensions which are not related to learning. These are issues of opinion which rest in the mindset and can be dealt with by using strategies such as training of teachers in teacher fairness (professionalism) and facilitating a serious shift in mindset among teachers (Narayan, 2014; Samsudin et al. 2014). Teacher and learner negative attitude has been a real stumbling block in the implementation of SBA across the globe. Studies report that some teachers teach to complete the syllabus (Gobena, 2013; Mwebeza, 2010; Nyembe-Nyembe, 2015; Ramalepe, 2015; Tong & Adamson, 2015). The negative attitude for teachers is exacerbated by the feeling that they are not included in the formulation of policy. The strategy to handle the negative attitude

in the teacher was to motivate teachers to become more committed to the effective implementation of SBA (Lukman & Uwadiogwu, 2012; Samsudin et al. 2014). Policy makers should hold consultative meetings with relevant stakeholders during policy formulation.

Heavy workload as an issue has been raised in a number of studies on the implementation of SBA (Chong, 2009; Barley, 2013; Green, 2014; Narayan, 2014; Jaba, 2013; Mishra & Mallick, 2014; Oberholzer, 2010; Polia, 2009; Ramalepe, 2015; Samsudin et al, 2014 Tong & Adamson, 2015). The effect of heavy workload as an issue has been felt across the length and breadth of SBA implementation spectrum. Samsudin et al. (2014) report a new dimension on heavy teacher workload, which is that, it is felt more by females than males and that it is felt more in rural areas than in urban areas. This study was delimited to heavy teacher load as an issue in SBA implementation in both males and females and in rural and urban areas. .

Lumandi (2013) and Mishra and Mallik (2014) identify time wasting as an issue in the implementation of SBA. Time is wasted in the compiling and maintaining of SBA records. Teaching time is taken by the preparation of the paper work for SBA portfolios and moderation records. Teaching time is also wasted when teachers attend a series of SBA moderations during the year. Time can be saved if the moderators were to visit schools for SBA moderation. Time can also be saved by reducing the number of SBA tasks per time (Green, 2014; Samsudin et al. 2014).

Another SBA implementation issue is the large classes. The large classes make it difficult for teachers to give individual attention to learners on SBA tasks. Yusuf (2013) suggests the use of collaborative teaching in the classroom to counter problems of large class size. Narayan (2014) suggest the development teacher network among schools to share ideas and experiences on the SBA.

Learner absenteeism as an issue has a negative effect on learner performance. The teacher has to find time to deal with the work of the absentee learner. Implementation of SBA in schools is negatively affected when learners breach the conditions for effective conducting of tasks (Kapambwe, 2010; Ramalepe, 2015; Samsudin et al. 2014). Literature reports that there is high prevalence of absenteeism among weak learners Ramalepe, (2015).This created a gap for other

studies. The current study focused on understanding learner absenteeism and the implementation of SBA in high schools.

Another major issue from literature was lack of skills to design quality SBA tasks (Kuze & Shumba, 2011; Maile, 2013; Mkwanzani, 2014; Lumadi, 2013; Polia, 2009; and Xule, 2013). Poor quality SBA tasks have a negative impact on the implementation of SBA in that they do not serve the purpose they are intended to, in the teaching and learning process. Darling-Hammond and Pecheone (2010) suggest strategies to enhance the quality of SBA tasks, which in turn will positively impact the implementation of SBA. The strategies include: creating a digital curriculum and assessment library to assist teachers in the preparation of tasks, developing assessment which will assist in improving the quality of tasks, using tasks that are designed to check for essential understandings and give teachers useful information on feedback as part of ongoing instructions in the administration of tasks. Narayan (2014) adds that Subject Association can be formed and teachers cooperate and design tasks which can be utilised in their schools

Reyneke (2016) identifies teachers' inadequate professional knowledge as an issue inhibiting the implementation of SBA in schools. Annie (2011) and Maile (2013) give teachers' lack of skills and confidence as a related issue. Issues of knowledge and skills can be handled by having sustained professional development of teachers to enable them to use assessment to support student learning (Ndalichako, 2014). Confidence can be instilled if teachers are equipped with all the relevant knowledge of SBA (Samsudin et al. 2014). To add to the given strategies, developmental supervision can be provided to raise the confidence level and competence of teachers in organising and conducting SBA (Malakolunthua & Hoonb, 2010).

Teachers, learners and parents raised issues of resources, in particular financial resources and lack of a supporting environment as limiting factors to the implementation of SBA (Mishra & Mallik, 2014; Reyneke et al. 2010) The issue of financing can be handled by having corporate bodies sponsoring training programmes for teachers (Bello & Tijani, 2010). Pineda (2013) suggests the creation of learning organisations that must be afforded the resources needed for training, especially time and money, as well as research and communication among the school's stakeholders.

Klenowski (2013) adds the provision of necessary framework which comprise guidelines and advice, resource development, and professional development that are communicated to the teachers, schools, and stakeholders. Majid (2011) suggests training focusing on time management, student exposure to assessment and techniques or strategies of how teacher collaboration can be done. Malakolunthua and Hoonb (2010) suggest conducting on a regular basis, collaborative and engaging discussions of the SBA practices and implementation strategies to enable teachers to focus on the objectives when conducting SBA. The issues emanating from views of teachers, learners and parents were the gaps that necessitated this study. Strategies suggested guided in the development of a model to plug the gaps

2.3.4.2 Strategies to address issues in the support structures in the implementation of SBA in high schools

Literature reveals that structures have been put in place at different levels to support the implementation of SBA for the enhancement of teaching and learning. However, structure related issues continue to plague the implementation of SBA on the assessment arena. Lack of financial resources and other support materials has inhibited the effective implementation of SBA (Bichi & Musa, 2015; Mishra & Mallick, 2014; Reyneke et al, 2010). Klenowski (2013) suggests strategies such as developing necessary policies, practices, and resources to support teachers. Resources can include the development of assessment and reporting standards, guidelines and principles to guide the implementation process. In South Africa, CAPS was introduced as curriculum reform policy structure. However, DBE (2014) reports that teachers were not conversant with CAPS requirements for subjects. Yusof (2013) suggests publishing and distributing booklets on frequently asked questions to ensure that uncertainties are removed. Maile (2013) reports issues such as lack of clarity on district roles, skills and competences to deal with major challenges in the implementation of SBA in SA educational systems. DBE (2016) adds lack of dedicated support at district level as a result of some personnel lacking adequate competences to provide support. UNESCO (2014) suggests the development of a strong institutional capacity to build and sustain a robust SBA system which requires collaboration across multiple agencies. At cluster level,

moderation was a formality and not well planned (Kerr-Phillips, 2009; Maile, 2013). Strategies to enhance SBA implementation include conducting training for teachers serving as assessors and internal moderators (Chong, 2009); developing a clearly defined moderation process at school, district, provincial and national level (Polia, 2009); and having an effective mechanism for standardisation of assessors (Johnson & Burdett, 2008). At school level, Heads of Departments are overloaded which results in compromised implementation of SBA. In addition, DBE (2015) reports little evidence of monitoring and support at school level. Afemikhe and Omo- Egbekuse (2010) suggest use of assessment committees to monitor and supervise the moderation processes, as a strategy. Begum and Farooqui (2008) add the formation of committees in each school to check the records of teachers for compliance with SBA requirements.

DBE (2017) suggests variations in the moderation systems as a structure borne issue affecting effective implementation of SBA. Bello and Tijani (2010) view intervention aimed at strengthening the capacity of teachers in School-Based Assessment. Implementation of SBA cannot be effective due to structural challenges. The purpose of this study was to examine these issues in high schools in Mpumalanga province. The applicability of suggested strategies was unpacked with a view to adding to existing knowledge on the implementation of SBA in high schools.

2.3.4.3 Strategies dealing with issues on Complementary roles of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of school - based assessment in schools

Literature has identified a host of issues in role complementarities in the implementation of SBA in different countries. Annie (2011) identifies communication gaps between teachers and learners during policy implementation. Students questioned how SBA could impact on teachers' teaching and student's learning (Tong & Adamson, 2015). Mishra and Mallick (2014) observe that teachers were least bothered to inform parents about student assessment results. The views of teachers and learners signal a serious lack of understanding of SBA and its implementation. To redress these issues, Mishra and Mallick (2014) suggest continuous dialogue between teachers, students, and parents on the implementation of SBA. Tangdhanakanond and Wongwanich (2012) assert that student learning and

assessment should be performed holistically under the active participation of various parties, that is, students, their teachers and their parents. Participation can be enhanced by having policies that compel parents to be involved and communicate to parents what happens in schools (Cheng, Andrews & Yu, 2010; Mafa & Makuba, 2013). Pineda (2013) advocates TQM theory which emphasises focus on suppliers and customers in a school educational system, with teachers, learners and parents as suppliers and customers. The implication is that:

The organisation must focus, on the suppliers and the customers. In a TQM organisation, everyone is both a customer and a supplier. It is essential to identity one's roles in the two capacities to better understand the systemic nature of the work in which all are involved. In the classroom, teacher-student teams are the equivalent of the front-line workers in industry. The product of their successful work together is the development of the students' capabilities, interests, and character (Pineda, 2013: 36).

Complementarity issues are visible in the student view that, SBA results in school subjects being over-assessed, leading to extra load on students and parents (Narayan, 2014; Tong & Adamson, 2015). The workload issue on the teacher is exacerbated by learner absenteeism, particularly weak learners' absenteeism (Samsudin et al. 2014). Kennedy (2013) highlights lack of complementarities when SBA is condemned for lacking transparency and as an unfair examination system. Williamson (2017) alleges that teachers' role in SBA weakens the value of public examinations. Several studies condemn SBA for pressure from the several tasks in different subjects and corruption from parents when they want good grades for their children and teachers inflating marks to avoid the blame of having failed learners (Byabato & Kisamo, 2014; Mhishi et al, 2012; Ndalichako, 2014). Another issue on complementarities was insufficient guidelines for teachers on SBA, leading to a poor knowledge base for teachers (Malakolunthua & Hoonb, 2010). This results in teachers being uncertain of the role they need to play in SBA (Majid, 2011). Adediwura (2012) adds that, teachers were not ready for the implementation of SBA in schools in Nigeria. In SA Polia (2009) identifies the issue on the purpose of SBA not being uniformly understood across the education system. Umalusi (2015) reports lack of formative feedback to teachers and learners after moderation.

Strategies for handling the SBA implementation issues include use of dialogue model that allows student participation in debate about improving learning (Tong &

Adamson, 2015). Availing the school year assessment plan to parents at the beginning of the year to familiarise them with what is happening in the school (Mafa & Makuba, 2013). Proper orientation of students on the importance of SBA first week of term one (Bello & Tijani, 2010). Additional strategies to address these issues include having clear guidelines explaining the limits of help and advice from teachers and parents (Opposs, 2016). There is need to have a mechanism in place to avoid malpractice and the need for clear roles, responsibilities and constraints on teachers and parents in relation to SBA (Johnson & Burdett, 2008). Majid (2011) also adds providing guidance to teachers on the conduct of SBA and the awarding of marks by examination board.

Additional strategies to redress the complementarity issues include: regular in-service training/ workshop/ seminars in test construction and validation to make them familiar with operational procedures and guidelines of implementing SBA (Kapambwe, 2010; Lukman & Uwadiogwu, 2012; Narayan, 2014; Williamson, 2017); hands on training modules and supporting materials as guidance and reference (Yusof, 2013). Bello and Tijani (2010) add that training modules and learning materials should be developed on SBA in teachers' home language. This ensures that teachers understand the requirements of SBA (Samsudin et al. 2014). To deal with this issue, strategies include: promoting a quality culture enabling individual actors to continuously improve their educational practice, including implementation of SBA (Wani & Mehraj, 2014) Attending SBA related courses at various levels to get information needed in handling SBA issues (Samsudin et al, 2014). Coaching and monitoring after the training to guide teachers to ensure implementation of information obtained in trainings (Yusof, 2013). Introduction of quality improvement teams in schools to deal with all the systemic issues including SBA (Pineda, 2013). Majid (2011) went on to add hands on sessions, such as workshops and open discussions on the challenges and issues in the implementation of SBA.

If effectively implemented, School-Based Assessment will be a panacea to the provision of quality education. The school is responsible for providing the long-term educational welfare of students by teaching them how to learn and communicate in high-quality ways, how to assess quality in their own work and in that of others, and how to invest in their lifelong and life-wide learning processes by maximising opportunities for growth in every aspect of daily life (Pineda, 2013). Strategies are

needed to get to the desired educational quality. Gobena (2013) argues that teachers and parents should be convinced of the value of SBA to ensure its effective implementation. Bello and Tijani (2010) assert that, implementation of SBA needs proper orientation of learners on the importance of SBA. Parents should be involved in school work by monitoring their children's work through supervision of homework (Mafa & Makuba, 2013). Adediwura (2012) suggests effective monitoring of educational policy implementation and timely in-service training for all teachers. The relevance of teacher assessment is high since the teacher is the best judge of what has been done by the student (Williamson, 2017). School-Based Assessment is the way forward in assessment, provided the fundamentals are in place (Malakolunthua & Hoonb, 2010). Teachers' knowledge and readiness are some of the fundamentals needed to enhance and ensure successful implementation of SBA (Veloo et al. 2015). Pineda (2013) asserts that teachers must focus on establishing the context in which learners can best achieve their potential through the continuous improvement of teachers and students' work together. Mafa and Makuba (2014) suggest sensitising parents about the need to participate in the education of their children.



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School-Based Assessment was being implemented in schools in several countries irrespective of the issues. Strategies have been availed to address the issues; however, the issues continue to hound the implementation of SBA in schools. New knowledge was needed to address the issues and ensure effective implementation of SBA in schools. The current study examined the continued existence of issues in the implementation SBA. The suggested strategies facilitated a better understanding of the SBA issues.

2.4 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Literature reviewed on the implementation of SBA from different perspectives of the world revealed a varied trajectory of the assessment terrain. High level of success in the implementation of SBA has been reported in some Scandinavian countries. Sadly, some developed countries, including the United States and United Kingdom, are still lagging behind in the implementation of School-Based Assessment and still experiencing several issues. The issues in the implementation of SBA validate a gap requiring research. In developing countries, the Asia-Pacific region has seen a

significant number of research studies on the implementation of School-Based Assessment. Their findings reveal serious challenges which are research gaps. Another aspect validating this study was that, literature reviewed was dominated by views of teachers, creating a huge gap on the views of learners and parents. On the African continent, particularly in South Africa, research on the implementation of SBA was thin, creating a gap for this study.

Educational change is a complex phenomenon. Currently, assessment literature is dominated by research studies on teachers. This scenario needs to change if permanent solutions to the implementation challenges on SBA are to be found. The argument was that schools are a complex social system, and any change in the way of doing things need to involve the whole system if it was to be effective. It was high time assessment landscape should get over the teething problems in the implementation of SBA. Hard lessons need to be learnt from Sweden and Finland experiences. There was need for a paradigm shift on the perception of how teachers can help learners and parents to how learners and parents can help the teacher in the implementation of SBA.



The choice of Total Quality Management as a theory to direct the study blends with the study in that teacher, learner and parent are systems which must be synchronised in the implementation process. The current study was guided by the mixed methods approach, unlike most of the studies reviewed which were either qualitative or quantitative, creating a methodological gap. The next chapter focused on discussion and justification of the research methodology. Findings from this study lead to the development of a model to improve the implementation of SBA in South African schools.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter two reviewed literature related to School-Based Assessment and its implementation from the different corners of the world. The focus was to establish whether this study can make a contribution to the assessment arena. Literature revealed that SBA has been widely accepted as a policy reform. However, issues continue to bedevil its implementation. An interesting phenomenon is that the challenges were almost uniform in developed and developing countries. This chapter discussed the methodology applied in investigating the SBA implementation in high schools, in Mpumalanga province, SA. The research paradigm, research approach and research design underpinning this study were discussed. Research on the implementation of SBA in SA has largely been dominated by either the qualitative or quantitative approach, leaving a mixed methods methodological gap which the present study filled. Methods detailing population and sample to provide the data in the study were discussed. Multiple data collection instruments were applied to ensure that qualitative and quantitative data were gathered. Issues of validity and reliability of quantitative data were considered. Trustworthiness, credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability aspects of qualitative data were guaranteed. Data collection and data analysis procedures applied in the study were analysed. Ethical considerations applied during data collection were discussed. Pilot test results which assisted in the refining of the research instruments are presented.

3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM

The term paradigm has been understood differently by various scholars (Thanh & Thanh, 2015). Iacob, Popescu and Ristea (2015) describe a paradigm as a polysemantic term. There seems to be little consistency in what researchers identify as the main paradigms in social science research (Shannon- Baker, 2016). O'Neil and Koekemoer (2016) attest that uniformity is lacking in various textbooks and

scholarly work on the different paradigms in use, as well as the philosophical nature of their origins, and that many researchers find discussions on paradigms difficult to follow and understand. However, Kuhn (1962), the founding father of the paradigm movement in the book *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*, observes that a science does not progress as a linear accumulation of new knowledge, but undergoes periodic revolutions called paradigm shift (Orman, 2016). In this study, the terms paradigm and research paradigm were interrogated from different perspectives to paving the way for the philosophical underpinnings of the study.

Paradigm originated from the Greek word *paradeigma* which means pattern, and was first used by Kuhn (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). Joubish, Khurram, Ahmed, Fatima and Haider (2011) define a paradigm as a worldview, a whole framework of beliefs, values and methods within which research takes place. Morgan (2007) gives three definitions of a paradigm with slight dichotomies. First, paradigm is a system of beliefs and practices that influences how researchers select both the questions they study and the methods they use to study them. Second, paradigm is a shared belief system that influences the kind of knowledge researchers seek and how they interpret the evidence they collect. Third, paradigm is a worldview or all-encompassing way of experiencing and thinking about the world, including beliefs about morals, values, and aesthetics.

Creswell (2014) defines a paradigm as a general philosophical orientation about the world and the nature of research that a researcher brings to a study. Cameron (2011) views a paradigm as a general organising framework for theory and research that includes basic assumptions, key issues, model of quality research, and methods of seeking answers. In concurrence, Shannon-Baker (2016) defines a paradigm as a guide that the researcher can use to ground their research. On a similar note, McGregor and Murnane (2010) define a paradigm as a set of assumptions, concepts, values, and practices that constitutes a way of viewing reality. Atieno (2009) notes that paradigm can be used to mean either approach or design. Antwi and Hamza (2015) define a paradigm as an approach to thinking about and doing research. Goldstein (2012) in Orman (2016) states that, a paradigm refers to the shared ideas and concepts that guide the members of a given scientific field. Chalmer (1982) in Shah and Ai-Barg (2013:253) sum up the five components of a paradigm as; “explicitly stated laws and theoretical assumptions; standard ways of applying the

fundamental laws to a variety of situations; instrumentation and instrumental techniques that bring the laws of the paradigm to bear on the real world; general metaphysical principles that guide work within the paradigm and general methodological prescriptions about how to conduct work within the paradigm.” Guba and Lincoln (1994), in Elshafie (2013: 5), define a paradigm as the basic belief system or worldview which influences the researcher’s choice of epistemology, ontology, and methodology of their search. Denzin and Lincoln (2008), in Cameron (2011:99), describe a paradigm as, “the net that contains the researcher’s epistemological, ontological, and methodological premises.” In summary, Covey (1989) in Shah and Ai-Barg (2013) claim that, it is a general belief that the paradigms we build in our minds have a powerful effect as they create the lens through which we see the world. The availability of a plethora of definitions of the term paradigm shows the diversity of their conceptions.

In the field of research, the term paradigm is described as a research paradigm. Hirschheim and Klein (1989) in Friedrich, Schlauderer, Weidinger and Raab (2017) define research paradigm as the most fundamental set of assumptions adopted by a professional community that allows its members to share similar perceptions and engage in commonly shared practices. Joker and Pennink (2010) in Wahyuni (2012) provide an almost identical definition that, research paradigm is a set of fundamental assumptions and beliefs as to how the world is perceived which then serves as a thinking framework that guides the behaviour of the researcher. Alternatively, Locke and Golden-Biddle (2002) and Kuhn (1962) in O’Neil and Koekemoer (2016:3), assert that, “research paradigm denotes a particular worldview that constitutes researcher’s values, beliefs and methodological assumptions.” Terre Blanche and Durrheim (1999) in Antwi and Hamza (2015) describe a research paradigm as an all-encompassing system of interrelated practice and thinking that define the nature of enquiry along three dimensions; ontology, epistemology and methodology. In this study the researcher borrows from different scholars and defines a paradigm as a way of seeing things in life which influence our belief system as society.

Table 3.1 Philosophical dimensions to distinguish existing research paradigms

	Research Paradigms			
Fundamental Beliefs	<i>Positivism (Naive realism)</i>	<i>Post positivism Critical Realism</i>	<i>Interpretivism (Constructivism)</i>	<i>Pragmatism</i>
<i>Ontology: the position on the nature of reality</i>	External, objective and independent of social actors	Objective. Exist independently of human thoughts and beliefs or knowledge of their existence, but is interpreted through social conditioning (critical realist)	Socially constructed, subjective, may change, multiple.	External, Multiple view chosen to best Achieve the answer to the research question.
Epistemology: the view on what constitutes acceptable knowledge	Only observable phenomena can provide credible data, facts. Focus on causality and law- like generalisations , reducing phenomena to simplest elements.	Only observable phenomena can provide credible data, facts. Focus on explaining within a context or contexts	Subjective meanings and social phenomena. Focus upon details of situation, the realities behind these details, subjective meanings and motivating actions.	Either or both observable phenomena and subjective meanings can provide acceptable knowledge dependent upon the research question. Focus on practical applied research integrating different

				perspectives to help interpret data
Axiology: the role of values in research and researcher's stance.	Value-free and etic. Research is undertaken in a value free-way. The researcher is independent of data and maintains an objective stance.	Value-laden and etic. Research is value laden. The researcher is biased by worldviews; cultural and upbringing.	Value- bound and Emic. Research is value- bound. The researcher is part of what is being researched, cannot be separated so will be subjective.	Value-bound and etic-emic. Values play a large role in interpreting the results. The researcher adopting both objective and subjective points of view.
Research Methodology: the model behind the research process.	Quantitative	Quantitative or qualitative	Qualitative	Qualitative and quantitative (mixed or multi- method design)
Source; Based on Saunders et al 2009; Guba & Lincoln, 2005; Hallebone & Priest, 2009) in Wahyuni (2012:70)				

In O'Neil and Koekemoer (2016) various researchers have their own interpretation or classification of paradigms: Creswell et al. (2007) classify them as; positivist, post positivist, constructivist, critical and feminist-post structural approaches, Blustein et al. (2005) refer to them as logical positivism (denoting positivism), post positivism, and social constructionism. Ponterotto (2005) categorises them as; positivism, post positivism, constructivism/ interpretivism, and critical theory or the critical ideological stance. The current study looked at positivism and post positivism as alternative

which gives the three research paradigms as positivism, constructivism and pragmatism. This study is located in the pragmatic research paradigm. The fundamental beliefs are unpacked below to show how they underpin the current study. Scotland (2012) contends that different paradigms inherently contain differing ontological and epistemological views; therefore, they have differing assumptions of reality and knowledge which underpin their particular research approach. On a similar note, Friedrich et al. (2017) note that, the term research paradigm is used to distinguish between different epistemological and ontological positions.

Ontology

The term ontology is from two Greek words; onto, which means 'being' and logia, which mean 'science, study or theory'. It specifies the form and nature of reality and what can be known about it (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). Hammersley (2012) views ontology as enquiry into, or assumptions or theories about, the nature of what exists, including whether anything can be said to exist at all. Pandey (2016) refers to ontology as what constitutes reality and how we can understand existence. Dash (2015:7) defines ontology as, "the study of the nature of existence, or what it means for anything to exist." Ontology is a system of belief that reflects an interpretation of an individual about what constitutes a fact, and is associated with a central question of whether social entities need to be perceived as objective or subjective (Pandey, 2016). Kalof et al. (2008), in Fazlıoğulları (2012), assert that ontology is the theory of what exists; Guba (1990) in Fazlıoğulları (2012) states that, it is the basic opinions about the nature of what is known or reality. Jennings (2005), in Fazlıoğulları (2012), notes that, it is the presentation of worldview or reality peculiar to a certain theory or paradigm. Tubey, Rotich and Bengat (2015) argue that ontological questions in social science research are related to the nature of reality. Ontological assumptions are concerned with what constitutes reality (Jonker & Pennink, 2010; Scotland, 2012). One central idea from the different scholars is that ontology is what society views as reality. This study unpacked the ontological perspectives of the three identified research paradigms. The selection of pragmatism as a philosophical underpinning for this study was justified.

Epistemology

Krauss (2005:758) states that, “epistemology comes from the Greek word epistēmê, their term for knowledge.” Historically, epistemology appeared at the beginning of the 20th century to designate a branch of philosophy specialised in the study of knowledge theories (Iacob et al. 2015). In addition, Tubey et al. (2015) state that, epistemology poses the following questions: What is the relationship between the knower and what is known? How do we know what we know? What counts as knowledge? Singh (2006) defines epistemology as, “philosophy that investigates the truth-value or the validity of human knowledge and the reliability of the sources of our knowledge.” Hirschheim, Klein and Lyytinen (1995), in Antwi and Hamza (2015) reveal that epistemology refers to the nature of the relationship between the researcher (the knower) and the known and it denotes the nature of human knowledge and understanding that can possibly be acquired through different types of inquiry and alternative methods of investigation. Epistemology is viewed as the branch of philosophy concerned with whether knowledge is possible, and if so, how it can be gained and what its limits are (Dash, 2015; Dawson, 2002; Hammersley, 2012; Jonker & Pennink, 2010; Scotland, 2012; Walliman, 2011). Pandey (2016) notes that, according to epistemologists there are at least four different sources of knowledge, namely; *Intuitive knowledge*, *Authoritarian knowledge*, *Logical knowledge*, and *Empirical knowledge*. *Intuitive knowledge* is based on intuition, faith, and beliefs. Human feelings play a greater role in intuitive knowledge compared to reliance on facts. *Authoritarian knowledge* is information that has been obtained from books, research papers, experts, and supreme powers. *Logical knowledge* is a creation of new knowledge through the application of logical reasoning. *Empirical knowledge* is objective facts that have been established and can be demonstrated. The researcher viewed epistemology as what society defines as knowledge. Epistemology was discussed under each of the identified research paradigms to justify the knowledge domain in this study. Pragmatism was the philosophical paradigm which premised this study.

Axiology

Pandey (2016) states that axiology is a translation of the German word “Axiologie,” which simply means ‘theory of value’? Dash (2015) defines axiology as the philosophical study of value and “value” originally meant the worth of something. Dash (2015:13) adds that, “axiology asks the following questions: What is a value? Where do values come from? How do we justify our values? How do we know what is valuable? What is the relationship between values and knowledge? What kinds of values exist? Can it be demonstrated that one value is better than another? Who benefits from values?” Providing answers to the questions will define how human societies are value wired. These values pervade every facet of societal system. Axiology stands at the foundation of the educational processes and the classroom is an axiological theatre in the development of values (Dash, 2015). Researchers need to be guided by research ethics and values during the research process. Heron and Reason (1997), in Pandey (2016), say axiology is one of the defining characteristics of a research paradigm, which addresses “values of being”, about what human states are to be valued simply because of what they are. Axiology defines values in research, whether research has undertaken an objective stance or subjective stance or is adopting both objective and subjective points of view (Wahyuni, 2012). This study was guided by the both objective and subjective points of view as the axiological perspective.

Methodology

Guba (1990), in Fazlıoğulları (2012), defines methodology as how a researcher carries out a study to discover information. Singh (2006) notes that methodology consists of procedures and techniques for conducting a research study. Antwi and Hamza (2015) states that methodology refers to how the researcher goes about practically finding out whatever he or she believes can be known. Crotty (1998) in Scotland (2012) views methodology as the strategy or plan of action which lies behind the choice and use of particular methods in research. Jonker and Pennink (2010) say methodology is the way in which a researcher conducts research. Pandey (2016) describes methodology as acquiring knowledge which is either deductive or inductive. Methodology is concerned with why, what, from where, when and how data were collected and analysed in the research study (Scotland, 2012).

Methodology defines the methods to be used to collect and analyse data (Crotty, 1998 in Scotland, 2012). Data to be collected can either be quantitative or qualitative or both, as dictated by the paradigm. Bailey (1994), in Almalki (2016:290), says “A methodology provides a piece of research with its philosophy, the values and assumptions which drive the rationale for the investigation, as well as the standards that will be utilised for the interpretation of information and the drawing of conclusions.” In a nut shell, methodology provides the compass for the researcher which gives methods to be used to address the research question. This study adopted a pragmatic methodological position because it blends quantitative and qualitative data.

Methods

Several scholars note that, a paradigm consists of four components namely; ontology, epistemology, methodology, and methods (Guba & Lincoln, 1994 in Elshafie, 2013; Scotland, 2012; Wahyuni, 2012). Creswell et al. 2007 in O’Neil and Koekemoer (2016:3) asserts that, “it is important for the quality of the process that there is coherence throughout the research between the paradigm and method.” Singh (2006) describes methods as techniques that are used for conducting research. Similarly, Crotty (1998), in Scotland (2012), say that methods are the specific techniques and procedures used to collect and analyse data. Kothari (2004) notes that methods are what the researcher uses during the course of study the research problem. In the same vein, Dawson (2002) defines methods as tools you use to gather data, such as Questionnaires or interviews. Bhattacharjee (2012) notes that the researcher must also decide what research method they wish to employ for collecting data to address the research questions. MacDonald and Headlam (2011) define research methods as the tools used to explain social phenomena. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007: 47) say methods refer to techniques and procedures used in the process of data-gathering. Research methods are dictated by the methodology, which is qualitative and quantitative.

Table 3.2 Methodological approaches.

What is out there to be known	How we know what we Know	How to acquire knowledge	What procedures to use
Ontology	Epistemology	Methodology	Methods
Objectivism	Positivism	Deductive	Quantitative
Existence independent of researchers	Truth out there to be discovered	General to specific	Interpretation of phenomena
Constructivism	Interpretivism	Inductive	Qualitative
Phenomena continually accomplished by researchers	Develop truth based on interaction	Observation to theory	Empirical assessment

Source: Pandey (2016:16)

This study adopted a pragmatic methodological approach, popularly known as mixed methods, which is the middle ground between qualitative and quantitative approaches. An interesting phenomenon is that most writers choose to describe the two as approaches but when they are mixed they become methods.

Table 3.3 Paradigms and their application

PARADIGMS	Application according to: Ontology, Epistemology, and Methods
Positivism (Very rare qualitative research)	Ontology: <i>Realism</i> . There is a “real”, objective reality that is knowable. Epistemology: <i>Objectivist</i> . The researcher can and should, avoid any bias or influence on the outcome. Results, if done well, are <i>true</i> . Methods: Tends towards <i>quantification</i> and controlled experiments
Post- Positivism	Ontology: <i>Critical Realism</i> . There is a “real” <i>objective reality</i> but humans cannot know it for sure. Epistemology: <i>Modified Objectivist</i> . The goal is objectivity, but pure objectivity is impossible. The results are <i>probably true</i> . Methods: Includes both qualitative and quantitative methods. <i>Seeks reduction of bias</i> through qualitative and quantitative validity techniques (example triangulation)

Critical Theory	Ontology: <i>Historical Realism. Reality can be understood, but can only be constructed historically</i> and connected to power. Epistemology: Knowledge is mediated reflectively through the perspective of the researcher. Methods: Focused on <i>investigator/participant dialogue</i> , <u>uncovering subjective knowledge</u> and linking it to social critique.
Constructivism	Ontology: <i>Relativist. All truth is “constructed”</i> by humans and situated in a historical moment and social context . <u>Multiple meanings exist</u> of perhaps, the same data. Epistemology: <i>Researcher and participant are linked</i> , constructing knowledge together. Methods: <i>Generally qualitative, research done through dialogue.</i>
Advocacy/Participatory	Ontology: Varied. Epistemology: <i>The distinction between researcher and researched breaks down. Insider knowledge highly valued.</i> Methods: Works with individuals on empowerment and issues that matter to them. Tends towards, social, cultural, or political change , using any appropriate method.
Pragmatism	Ontology: Varied. Pragmatists may be less interested in what “truth” is and more <u>interested in “what works”</u> . Epistemology: Accepts many different viewpoints and works to reconcile these perspectives through pluralistic means. Methods: <i>Focused on real world problems</i> , by whatever methods are appropriate, and tends toward change in practice.

Source: Sefotho (2015:43).

The major research paradigms influencing this study are discussed. These are positivism, constructivism and pragmatism. Focus is on their principles and their ontological, epistemological, axiological and methodological perspectives. The paradigm premising the current study was discussed in detail to justify its choice for providing answers to the research questions

3.2.1. The Positivism Paradigm.

Positivism as a philosophical view was invented by the early nineteenth-century French philosopher Auguste Comte (Antwi & Hamza, 2015; Elshafie, 2013; Hammersley, 2012; Shah & Al-Bargi, 2014). Elshafie (2013) identifies some of the early positivist like Frances Bacon (1561-1626), August Comte (1798- 1857), The

Vienna Circle (1920), Sir Karl Popper (1902-94), Thomas Kuhn (1922- 1996) and Paul Feyerabend (1924-1994). Positivism has been given other names such as Scientific Method, Empirical Science, Post Positivism and Quantitative Research (Creswell, 2014; Rahi, 2017). Neuman (2003), in Antwi and Hamza (2015:219), sees positivism in social science as “an organized method for combining deductive logic with precise empirical observations of individual behaviour in order to discover and confirm a set of probabilistic causal laws that can be used to predict general patterns of human activity.” Healy and Perry (2000), in Krauss (2016), opine that positivists view the world through a one-way mirror. Knowledge is developed through measurement and observation of the objective reality that exists in the world (Creswell, 2014). Krauss (2016) asserts that, in positivism, the object being studied is independent of the researchers. Knowledge of phenomena can be discovered and verifiable through observations and measurements, and facts can be established by experimentally taking part of a phenomena to examine its component parts. The implication is that, in the eyes of positivists, there is one reality which can be expressed by variables that can be measured reliably and validly (Onwuegbuzie, 2000 in Fazlîoğulları, 2012). Positivists therefore, believe that research is objective, measurable, predictable and controllable (Dieronitou, 2014). Phenomena from a sample can be generalised in the population, and issues of validity, reliability and objectivity, are key considerations in the positivist paradigm. Positivist researchers hold that human behaviour may be studied and patterned in terms of the laws of cause and effect (Tubey et al. 2015).

Positivism as a strategy and approach in research is rooted on the ontological principle and doctrine that truth and reality is free and independent of the viewer and observer (Aliyu, Bello, Kasim & Martin, 2014). Antwi and Hamza (2015) observe that at the ontological level, positivists assume that reality is objectively given and is measurable using properties which are independent of the researcher, that is; knowledge is objective and quantifiable. Ontologically, positivists believe in single reality/ realism. Crotty (1998), in Elshafie (2013), asserts that realism is the ontological position of positivism which states that, realities exist outside the mind. In the same vein, positivist ontology claims that an objective, single reality has to be studied exclusive of the researcher’s ideas (Tubey et al. 2015). The use of a data collection tool such as a Questionnaire in this study, ensured quantification of

knowledge and independence of the researcher. Tubey et al. (2015) say positivist researchers often use highly standardised tools such as close ended Questionnaires and psychological tests with precisely worded questions, for data collection.

The epistemological assumption in the positivist paradigm is that there is a single source and nature of knowledge. Lincoln and Guba (2000, 2005) and Neuman (2003), in Antwi and Hamza (2015), report that reliable knowledge is based on direct observation or manipulation of natural phenomena through empirical and experimental means. In addition, positivist epistemology advocates the detachment of the knower from things to be studied. Tubey et al.(2015) and Al Zeera (2001), in Krauss (2016) concur with view and attests that there is the belief that it is possible for an observer to exteriorise the reality studied, remaining detached from it and uninvolved with it. The implication is that, in positivist epistemology, science is seen as the way to get at truth, to understand the world well enough so that it might be predicted and controlled. Dieronitou (2014) affirms that the epistemological perspective is rooted in an objectivist position and adopts a dualist position that the inquirer adopts a distant, non-interactive posture to the object of inquiry. Creswell (2009), in Wahyuni (2012), reports that the positivist epistemological position of universal generalisation believes that different researchers observing the same factual problem will generate a similar result by carefully using statistical tests and applying a similar research process in investigating a large sample. Randomisation in the collection of quantitative data in this study guaranteed the generalisation of the research findings.

The axiological perspective for positivists is that, for findings to be reliable and objective, the research needs to be value-free (Saunders et al. 2009 in Wahyuni, 2012). Smith (1983), in Dieronitou (2014), describes the value-free concept as the value neutrality of the positivist school of thought, and says that quantitative research is time and context free. Fazlıoğulları (2012) asserts that positivism aims to achieve the theory of value freedom. In addition, to avoid researcher bias, positivists in social sciences apply scientific methods to study a social phenomenon, considering it value free and subject to scientific explanation (Shah & Al-Bargi, 2014). Krauss (2016) asserts that data and its analysis are value-free and data does not change because they are being observed. In this study, the ethical principles such as anonymity, was upheld by ensuring that the identity of respondents was not disclosed on all the data

collection tools. Wahyuni (2012) argues that positivist researchers seek to obtain generalisations by conducting value-free research to measure social phenomena

The methodological perspective of positivists is dominated by the use experimental designs. Positivistic thinkers adopt scientific methods and systematise the knowledge generation process with the help of quantification, to enhance precision in the description of parameters (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). Bassey (1995), in Tubey et al. (2015), in concurrence attest that a researcher with a positivist orientation regards reality as being 'out there' in the world and needing to be discovered using conventional scientific methodologies. Currently, the reality of the implementation issues is out there in the teachers, learners and parents; waiting to be discovered through scientific methodologies. Guba (1990), in Elshafie (2013), says that positivist methodology is experimental / manipulative. Rahi (2017) observes that supporters of this paradigm believe that true knowledge can be obtained through observation and experiment. Positivist methodology is concerned with explaining relationships among various phenomena (Shah & Al-Bargi, 2014).

3.2.2. Constructivist/ Interpretivist Paradigm



Constructivist/ Interpretivist paradigm is also known as naturalist, humanistic, anti-positivist or qualitative research (Elshafie, 2013; Rahi, 2017; Shah & Al-Bargi, 2014). Some of the popular names associated with this paradigm are: Max Weber, Wilhem Dilthey, George Herbert Mead, Herbert Blumer, and Edmund Husserl (Elshafie, 2013). Maxwell (2006), Bogdan and Biklen (1992), Guba and Lincoln (1985), in Antwi and Hamza (2015), observe that constructivists see the world as constructed, interpreted, and experienced by people, in their interactions with each other and with wider social systems. Farzanfar (2005), in Antwi and Hamza (2015), says in this paradigm, the nature of inquiry is interpretive and the purpose of inquiry is to understand a particular phenomenon, not to generalise to a population. Constructionist or interpretivist perceives that a social phenomenon is created from perceptions and a consequent action of those social actors is concerned with their existence (Pandey, 2016). Hammersley (2012) give view that, under interpretivism, people interpret or give meaning and value to their environment and themselves, that is, they interpret and make sense of the world. In contrast to positivism, Aliyu, Bello, Kasim and Martin (2014) say in interpretivism, there is no worldwide or universal

truth but relative and biased or subjective conception or view of the world. Crotty (2003), in Shah and Al-Bargi (2014), adds that interpretive paradigm looks for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social world. Wahyuni (2012) says interpretivist researchers prefer to interact and have a dialogue with the studied participants, to understand the social world from the experiences and subjective meanings that people attach. Elshafie (2013) adds that interpretivism seeks to understand the researched phenomena from the point of views of the people involved. Elshafie (2013) further reveals that, unlike positivism, the research in this paradigm is inductive and emergent, and does not seek generalisation as it is context bounded.

The ontological perspective for constructivists is that there are multiple realities and reality is constructed by actors of research (Aliyu et al. 2014; Antwi & Hamza, 2015; Dieronitou, 2014; Elshafie, 2013; Fazlıoğulları, 2012; Krauss, 2016; Hammersley, 2012; Pandey, 2016; Thanh & Thanh, 2015; Tubey et al. 2015; Wahyuni, 2012). Bryman (2003), in Pandey (2016), defines the ontological position of constructionists or interpretivist as one in which social phenomena and their meanings are continually being accomplished by social actors. Willis (2007), in Thanh and Thanh (2015), says that interpretivism usually seeks to understand a particular context, and the core belief of the interpretive paradigm is that reality is socially constructed. Candy (1991), in Antwi and Hamza (2015), notes that constructivists assume that reality is multifaceted and cannot be fragmented or studied in a laboratory. Rather, it can only be studied as a unified whole within its natural context. In concurrence, Wahyuni (2012) says that individuals use their own varied backgrounds, assumptions and experiences to contribute to the on-going construction of reality existing in their broader social context through social interaction. Tuli (2010), in Tubey et al. (2015) note that interpretive researchers cannot accept the idea of there being a reality “out there”, which exists irrespective of people. Guba (1990), in Fazlıoğulları (2012), adds that unlike positivists, constructivists do not intend to predict and control or transform the real world. However, they aim at reconstructing that world only in the place where it exists, that is, in the minds of the ones who create it. Reality is viewed as a product of social processes according to Neuman (2003) in Tubey et al. (2015).

Klein and Meyers (1998) and Morehouse (2011), in Thanh and Thanh (2015), give an advantage of interpretive paradigm as the acceptance of the multiple

perspectives often leading to a more comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon. Thanh and Thanh (2015) add other advantages like that it enables the collection of 'in-depth' information from a population, and is inclusive because it accepts multiple viewpoints of different individuals from different groups. Positivism is attacked by the interpretivist for ignoring the role of the human actors in constructing reality (Elshafie, 2013). Denzin and Lincoln (1998), in Shah and Al-Bargi (2014), assert that unlike positivists' criteria of internal and external validity, reliability, and objectivity, interpretivist research uses terms such as credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability.

The epistemological perspective for constructivism is that knowledge is constructed during the research process (Aliyu et al. 2014; Antwi & Hamza, 2015; Elshafie, 2013; Hammersley, 2012; Tubey et al. 2015). Creswell (2014) states that researchers address the process of interaction among individuals, and knowledge is built through interaction and the researcher's intent is to make sense of (or interpret) the meaning others have about the world. Gephart (1999), in Antwi and Hamza (2015), argues that interpretivist assume that knowledge and meaning are acts of interpretation; hence there is no objective knowledge which is independent of thinking and reasoning humans. Tubey et al. (2015) assert that researchers within the interpretive paradigm are naturalistic since they study real-world situations as they unfold naturally. Dieronitou (2014) says naturalists believe that research is time and context bound and that generalisations are not possible. The interpretive paradigm allows researchers to view the world through the perceptions and experiences of the participants Fazlıoğulları (2012). Knowledge is established through the meanings attached to the phenomena studied, and researchers interact with the subjects of study to obtain data (Coll & Chapman, 2000; Cousins, 2002 in Krauss, 2016). Tubey et al. (2015) note that researchers within interpretive paradigm (qualitative approach) are led to employ data gathering methods such as participant observation, in-depth interview and focused group discussions among others. In this study, School Governing Board chairpersons were interviewed and focus group discussions were conducted with the learners to gather qualitative data. To justify the tool used in the collection of qualitative data, Elshafie (2013) argues that interpretivist believe that true knowledge can only be obtained by deep interpretation of subject. Onwuegbuzie

(2000), in Fazlıoğulları (2012), adds that, the researcher should come as close to what is examined as possible to get insight and in-depth information.

The axiological premise for constructivists is that all research is value laden and characterised by researcher bias. Wahyuni (2012) asserts that in terms of axiology, interpretivist researchers take the emic stance. Deetz (1996), in Antwi and Hamza (2015), opines that constructivists attempt to understand phenomena through the meanings that people assign to them. Wahyuni (2012) attests that there is a substantial influence of researchers' experiences and values on the collection of data and its analysis. Merriman (1998), in Antwi and Hamza (2015), adds that meaning is embedded in the participants' experiences and this meaning is mediated through the researcher's own perceptions. Constructivists develop subjective meanings of their experiences towards certain objects or things (Elshafie, 2013). Hussain et al. (2013), in Shah and Al-Bargi (2014), note that researchers cannot distance themselves from the object being observed, which gives the subject matter and the method of the study. In the interpretive paradigm, the researchers use experience to construct and interpret understanding from gathered data according to Thanh and Thanh (2015) and Shah and Al-Bargi (2014). Fazlıoğulları (2012) adds that the researcher's values influence research. Smith (1983), in Dieronitou (2014), says research is value-bound since the knower and the known are inseparable.

In terms of methodology, interpretivist adopts or recommends qualitative methods such as ethnography and in-depth or unstructured interviewing (Hammersley, 2012). Antwi and Hamza (2015) say using qualitative methodology immerses the researcher in a culture by observing its people and their interactions, interviewing key people and analysing existing documents. Interpretive methodologies include phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, case study, historical and documentary research and ethno-methodology (Shah & Al-Bargi, 2014). The ultimate goal of the qualitative researcher is to get an insider's view of the group being studied (Tuli, 2010, in Tubey et al. 2015). Qualitative data in the current study were gathered from focus group discussions and interviews. Shah and Al-Bargi (2014) add that interpretivist criticise the inadequacy of quantitative research methods to comprehend social phenomena and advocate qualitative techniques that are diverse.

3.2.3. Pragmatic Paradigm

Pragmatism as a philosophical perspective was founded by Charles Sanders Peirce (1839-1914), popularised by William James (1842-1910) and associated with two other major early representatives; John Dewey (1859-19520) and George Herbert Mead (1863-1914) (Halton, 2004). In addition to the founding fathers are modern pragmatists namely; Richard Rorty and Nicolas Rescher (Lipscomb, 2011). Jacobs (2010), in Najmaei (2016), says pragmatism is a philosophical paradigm that views reality as provisional rather than absolute and fixed. Morgan (2007), in Shannon-Baker (2016), argues that pragmatism has been referred to as an “approach” rather than a paradigm. Nowell (2015) says the founding father of pragmatism, Charles Sanders Peirce, describes pragmatism as a method of using scientific logic to clarify the meaning of concepts or ideas through investigating their potential relationship with the real world. Pragmatism is neither independent of the mind as in positivist tradition, nor constructed by the mind as in the interpretive tradition (Najmaei, 2016). Biesta (2010), in Shannon- Baker (2016:325), says that, “pragmatism breaks down the hierarchies between positivist and constructivist ways of knowing in order to look at what is meaningful from both.” In concurrence, Creswell and Plano Clark (2007) and Robson (1993) in Feilzer (2010) adds that pragmatism allows the researcher to be free of mental and practical constraints imposed by the dichotomy between post positivism and constructivism, and researchers do not have to be aligned to a particular research method or technique. Klingner and Boardnnan (2011) reveal that researchers who adopt pragmatism are not necessarily interested in attempting to sort out epistemological/ontological issues, but in doing research that yields useful results (or results that work). The emphasis points to the underlying belief in complementarities, that is, qualitative and quantitative approaches can be combined in order to compliment the advantages and offset the disadvantages present within each (Shannon-Baker, 2016). Feilzer (2010) says pragmatists worry less about which methods they use, as long as the methods chosen have the potential of answering what it is they want to know. Pragmatist researchers therefore, favour working with both quantitative and qualitative data as it enabled a better understanding of social reality (Wahyuni, 2012), making it ideal for this study. Pragmatism believes that objectivist and subjectivist perspectives are not mutually

exclusive, and mixing of ontology, epistemology and axiology is acceptable to approach and understand social phenomena (Wahyuni, 2012).

The pragmatic ontological philosophical perspective is that there are singular or multiple truths and realities (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2007; Dewey, 1925; Rorty, 1999 in Feilzer, 2010). James (1907), in Nowell (2015), claims that there can be different kinds of truth and realities, and those ideas and beliefs become true just in so far as they help people to get into satisfactory relations with other parts of their experience. Okoh (2003), in Kalolo (2015), notes that for pragmatists, what is true is what works best in enabling one to overcome an immediate problem. Dalsgaard (2014) observes that human thought and action, as well as objects and events, must always be understood in the larger frame of the situation. Pragmatists therefore, arrive at truth through confrontation of different points of view (Kalolo, 2015). Everest (2014) reveals that reality is investigated with the ultimate goal to improve human life and truth is tentative and changing. Nowell (2015:143) says Charles Sanders Peirce presented truth as an understanding of reality from an empirical point of view. Morgan (2014:1049) believes that “pragmatism presents a radical departure from age-old philosophical arguments about the nature of reality and the possibility of truth.” Kalolo (2015) posits that there is no absolute truth in pragmatism as a result of the constantly changing global knowledge. Therefore, what works today may not necessarily work in the future. It is for this reason that, in pragmatic research, truth about the subject under study is what works at the time; therefore, pragmatism as a research paradigm enables multi methods or mixed method designs which are ideal for studying complex issues and phenomena (Najmaei, 2016).

The epistemological assumption in pragmatism is that there are multiple sources of knowledge. Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), in Nowell (2015), assert that pragmatists offer an “epistemological justification for bringing together multiple sources of knowledge with the goal of finding workable solutions, gaining a greater understanding of people and the world in which we live and practice, and solving individual and social problems.”

Pragmatism assumes a non-aligned position where multiple views about knowledge are favoured (Kalolo, 2015; York, 2009). Nowell (2015) argues that bringing together various sources of knowledge, with the aim of creating a deeper understanding of

phenomenon of interest, is a way to study complex problems that may exceed an individual's capabilities of understanding a phenomenon independently. Epistemologically, the pragmatic lenses view knowledge as active and constantly transforming through the endeavours of human beings (Morrison, 2016). Doane and Varcoe (2005), in Nowell (2015), argue that pragmatism acknowledges the inseparability and interdependence of knowledge and practice and recognises the integral role they play in knowledge creation. Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), in Feilzer (2010), add that pragmatism acknowledges that any knowledge from research is relative and not absolute. Pragmatism also acknowledges the mutual permeation of knowledge and action (Goldkuhl, 2004). Additionally, pragmatists view knowledge in terms of its ability to work and provide satisfactory impacts (Kalolo, 2015). Pragmatism is also premised on the philosophy that knowledge is constructed based on the reality of the world experienced and lived in, and encompasses, not only the reality of the past, but also what is possible to create for the future (Nowell, 2015). James (1974) in Morrison (2016; 298) argues that "despite the proliferation of various schools of pragmatic thought, all pragmatists seek to explain the roles of knowledge and thought in terms of what is experienced." Viewed from another angle, Biesta (2010), in Shannon-Baker (2016), says pragmatism has been described as offering specific ideas on what constitutes knowledge but does not present an entirely encompassing worldview.

The axiological perspective in pragmatism is that values have a significant role in interpreting results, and the researcher can adopt both objective and subjective points of view (Romm, 2014; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003 in Klingner and Boardnnan, 2011). Wahyuni (2012) in concurrence says that pragmatism believes that objectivist and subjectivist perspectives are not mutually exclusive. Shannon-Baker (2016) reveals that the pragmatic researcher is able to maintain both subjectivity in their own reflections on research and objectivity in data collection and analysis. The argument is that pragmatic values are relative to a context, and pragmatist axiology believes that value can never be understood exclusive of any context. The implication is that, in social science research, raw data cannot be interpreted in the absence of values; therefore, the way in which researchers might interpret results will be influenced by their particular concerns and values (Mertens, 2010 in Romm, 2014). Cram and Mertens (2016) note that axiology concerns the ethics/values

brought to the evaluation practice. Cram and Mertens (2016; 103) adds that, “evaluators with this conscious value-laden positionality can work with stakeholders to provide a frame for evaluation that addresses inclusion of diverse voices in respectful ways as part of the evaluation process.” The evaluator, who is the researcher in social science research, develops whatever appropriate relationship with the participants for the understanding of the problem under investigation.

The methodological assumptions in the pragmatic paradigm are influenced by the nature of the research problem. Patton (1990) and Creswell (2003), in Parvaiz, Mufti and Wahab (2016), argue that the concern for a pragmatist is to find out ‘what works’ and what enables solutions to problems. The argument is that pragmatism focuses on real life research problems and prioritises the purpose of the study, rather than the use of particular research designs (Klingner & Boardnnan, 2011). Thus, “pragmatism has a strong philosophical foothold in the mixed methods or methodological pluralism camps” (Cameron, 2010: 141). Mertens (2010) observes that pragmatism serves as the philosophical basis for mixed methods design in which the primary focus is on allowing the nature of research questions to drive decisions about methods. Greene (2005), in Klingner and Boardnnan (2011), adds that mixed methods is an approach with multiple ways of knowing (ontology); truth (epistemology) and multiple value stances (axiology). Pragmatism presents a radical departure from age-old philosophical arguments about the nature of reality and the possibility of truth (Morgan, 2014).

3.2.4 Reasons why the current study adopted the pragmatic paradigm.

This study is premised on the pragmatic philosophical paradigm as highlighted under sub heading 3.3.3. Pragmatism believes in what works best to address the research problem at hand (Wahyuni, 2012). Challenges in the implementation of SBA may not be attributable to a single reality, hence, the blended nature of pragmatism needed to address the question. Morgan (2007) opines that a pragmatic approach advocates shared meanings and joint action. This makes it suitable for this study, as the implementation of SBA requires teachers, parents and learners to understand each other. Implementation of SBA is a practical problem in the South African education system and the entire world. The literature review identified heavy teacher load and large classes as universal problems in the implementation of SBA (Bello & Tijani,

2010; Ramalepe & Zengele, 2014; Majid, 2011; Narayan, 2014; Reyneke et al. 2010). The magnitude of the problems requires a pragmatic approach which provides a purposeful combination of qualitative and quantitative data and techniques to create a more complete picture of the reality (Najmaei, 2016; Wahyuni, 2012). The reality of the implementation of School-Based Assessment is that it has been accepted at policy level. However, the implementation has been a Gordian knot, and providing information to the problem requires both qualitative and quantitative lenses. Krauss (2005) argues that there are multiple realities constructed by human beings who experience a phenomenon of interest. School-Based Assessment is a phenomenon of interest, and information to its implementation is supplied by teachers, learners and parents. Qualitative data from interviews and focus group discussions provided information imbedded in the learners and parents who are experiencing SBA. Interviewing learners and parents is what Kelly (2016) views as depicting the social world through the eyes of subjects. Quantitative data from Questionnaires sourced information from learners as major stakeholders in the education system. This creates an opportunity for mixed methods which is premised on finding practical solutions to a practical problem (Kalolo, 2015; Mertens, 2010). Implementation of School-Based Assessment is a practical problem and the solution cannot be found by using one methodological lens. The study adopted the mixed method approach to provide a balance to the study. .

3.3 RESEARCH APPROACH

Research approach is a plan and procedure that consists of the steps of broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis and interpretation (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007; Creswell, 2014). Selecting a research approach depends on the worldview, design, and methods, the research problem, personal experiences of researcher and the audience of the report (Creswell, 2014; 31). There are basically three research approaches; Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed methods (Almalki, 2016; Creswell, 2014). Table 3.1 below shows a synopsis of the research approaches.

Table 3.4: The three research approaches

QUALITATIVE, QUANTITATIVE AND MIXED METHODS APPROACHES			
Typically	Qualitative Approaches	Quantitative Approaches	Mixed methods Approaches
Use these philosophical assumptions	Constructivist/ advocacy/ participatory knowledge claims	Post-positivist knowledge claims	Pragmatic knowledge claims
Employs these strategies of inquiry	Phenomenology, grounded theory, ethnography, case study and narrative.	Surveys and experiments	Sequential, concurrent and transformative
Employ these methods	Open-ended questions, emerging approaches, text or image data	Closed questions, predetermined approaches, numeric data	Both open-ended and closed questions, both emerging and predetermined approaches, both qualitative and quantitative data and analysis
Use these practices of research as the researcher	Positions himself or herself. Collects participant meanings. Focus on a single concept or phenomenon. Brings personal values into the study Studies the context or setting of participants Validates the accuracy of findings	Tests or verifies theories or explanations Identifies variables to study Relates variables in question or hypothesis Uses standards of validity and reliability Observes and measures information numerically Uses unbiased	Collects both qualitative and quantitative data Develops a rationale for mixing Integrates the data at different stages of inquiry Presents different visual pictures of the procedures in the study Employs the practice of both qualitative and quantitative research.

	Makes interpretations of data Creates agenda for change or reform Collaborates with participants.	approaches Employs statistical procedures	
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Source: Creswell (2014; 47)

Qualitative and quantitative approaches have dominated the research arena up until around 2000 when mixed method approach was established (Lund, 2012 in Caruth, 2013). Mixed methods were born from the ashes of the so called paradigm wars between the 1950s and the 1980s. Newman and Benz (1998), in Creswell (2014), note that qualitative and quantitative paradigms represent different ends of a continuum. Mixed methods paradigm resides in the middle of the continuum because it incorporates elements of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. In each of the three approaches are assumptions as well as distinct methods and procedures which guide the researcher. Figure 3.4 summarises the three major research approaches which are discussed in detail.

3.3.1 Qualitative approach

Qualitative approach to research is premised on the subjective assessment of attitudes, opinions and behaviour (Kothari, 2004). Kelly (2016) asserts that in the qualitative research approach, there is often a commitment to viewing the social world through the eyes of the people being studied. The focus for qualitative research is to get a better view of why or how phenomena occur in terms of context-specific descriptions. Merriam (2002), in Hadziliadis (2011), observes that qualitative researchers are interested in understanding the interpretations of those studied at a particular point in time and in a particular context. Qualitative methods attempt to gain an understanding of the underlying reasons and motivations for actions, and to establish how people interpret their experiences and the world around them, hence, they belong to the interpretive/ constructivist worldviews (Kelly, 2016). Creswell (1994), in Williams (2007), describes qualitative research approach as an unfolding

model that occurs in a natural setting, which enables the researcher to develop a level of detail from high involvement in the actual experiences. It is therefore, a holistic approach that involves discovery. Guba and Lincoln (1989), in Antwi and Hamza (2015), say generally, reality is socially constructed. Social behaviour follows socially constructed norms under the qualitative research approach. In a nutshell, qualitative research approach is grounded on learning from participants (Creswell, 2013). A qualitative researcher asks the questions, collects the data, makes interpretations, and records what is observed (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). In-depth interviews with SGB chairpersons and focus group discussion with learners were used to collect data in this study.

The strength of qualitative research is its ability to provide complex textual descriptions of how people experience a given research issue (Mack, Woodsong, Macqueen, Guest & Namey 2011). Qualitative approach is commonly used to understand people's experiences and to express their perspectives (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). The argument is that human behaviours; which include interaction, thought, reasoning, composition, and norms, are studied holistically due to in-depth examination of phenomena (Daniel, 2015). Williams (2007) asserts that qualitative approach allows the researcher to explore and better understand the complexity of a phenomenon. The experiences of teachers and learners as partners in the learning environment were sought in this study. However, a weakness of the qualitative approach is researcher bias which makes it difficult to generalise the findings (Hadzilias, 2011). Daniel (2015) says proper explanation of results cannot be given because the results depend on the explanation of the researcher at that time, of which different researcher may give a different explanation. The other disadvantage of the qualitative approach is that it becomes hermetically sealed from the world outside the participants' theatre of activity, and it puts artificial boundaries around subjects' behaviour (Cohen et al, 2007). The rationale for the mixed method approach is to complement qualitative and quantitative approaches. Mack et al. (2011:13) say "When used along with quantitative methods, qualitative research can help us to interpret and better understand the complex reality of a given situation and the implications of quantitative data." Table 3.5 below summarises the components of the qualitative and quantitative approaches.

Table 3.5 Components of qualitative and quantitative approaches

Component	Qualitative approach	Quantitative approach
Aim	The aim is to count things in an attempt to explain what is observed.	The aim is to complete a detailed description of what is observed.
Purpose	Generalisability, prediction, causal explanation.	Contextualisation, interpretation, understanding perspectives.
Defining characteristics	Meaning-centred	Variable-centred
Descriptive aims	Detailed description of core meaning of culture. Interpretation of meaning of action.	Summary descriptions (averages and variations) of social variables and the degree of these estimates.
Relationship between theory and research	Theory generations by means of revealing or reporting the constructions of reality in talk and text including official documents.	Theory testing via the establishment within a specified context of contingent relationships between variables taken as representing theoretical constructs
Tools	Researcher uses tools, such as surveys, to collect numerical data.	Researcher is the data gathering instrument.
Data collection	Structured	Unstructured
Output	Data is in the form of numbers and statistics.	Data is in the form of words, pictures or objects.
Sample	Usually a large number of cases representing the population of interest. Randomly selected respondents.	Usually a small number of non-representative cases. Respondents selected on their experience.
Objective/Subjective	Objective – seeks precise measurement & analysis	Subjective – individuals' interpretation of events is important
Researcher role	Researcher tends to remain objectively separated from the subject	Researcher tends to become subjectively immersed in the subject

	matter.	matter.
Epistemology	Interpretivism. The human nature of social objects requires reference to the subjective meaning when explaining social action. Theory is generated by analysis of the subjective.	Positivism or post-positivism. Theoretical models are developed by deduction and tested by measurement of concepts and applying criteria of causal inference.
Ontology	Symbolic Interactionism to post-modernism. Social structure is formed by institutionalised meanings and constructs.	Structural behaviourism. Meanings and action derive from occupancy of structured social locations.
Analysis	Statistical	Interpretive

Adopted from Kelly (2016:26)

3.3.2 Quantitative approach

Hadziliyas (2011) defines quantitative approach as an approach that is concerned with identifying relationships between variables, and generalising those results to the world at large. Quantitative approach can be further sub-classified into inferential, experimental and simulation approaches to research (Kothari, 2004). The current study adopted inferential perspective by applying inferential statistics in data analysis. Rovai et al. (2014), in Amalki (2016) says, in quantitative research, there is an objective reality independent of any observations. They note that this reality can be understood by subdividing it into smaller, manageable pieces, for the purposes of study. In other words, this is quantifying data to generalise results from a sample of the population of interest (Kelly, 2016). Leedy and Ormrod (2001), in Williams (2007), say that the intention is to establish, confirm, or validate relationships and to develop generalisations that contribute to theory, as data is used to objectively measure reality.

One of the strengths of quantitative research approach is reduced human bias as the research is independent of the researcher. There is researcher detachment, according to Denscombe (1998) in Daniel (2015). Antwi and Hamza (2015) note that quantitative researchers attempt to operate under the assumption of objectivity. Research then becomes objective, measurable, predictable and controllable (Dieronitou, 2014). Onwuegbuzie (2000), in Fazlloğulları (2012), argues that since

there is just one reality, this reality can be expressed by the variables and measured reliably and validly under quantitative approach. Williams (2007) attests that findings from quantitative research can be predictive, explanatory, and confirming. Quantitative research generates statistics through the use of large-scale survey research, using tools such as Questionnaires or structured interviews (Dawson, 2002). In this study, Questionnaires were used to collect data from teachers and learners. The other advantage of the quantitative approach is that the processing of numerical data can be done using statistical software to save time and resources (Daniel, 2015).

However, the quantitative approach often uses what might be called a narrow-angle lens because the focus is on only one or a few causal factors at the same time (Antwi & Hamza, 2015). It therefore, fails to understand the multiplicity and complexity of the life world of individuals (Scott & Usher, 2011 in Elshafie, 2013). Cohen (2011), in Daniel (2015), argues that it is dehumanising and undermines life and mind. Other scholars attest that quantitative research approach is not well suited to examine the complex and dynamic contexts of public education in its forms, sites and variations (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005 in Daniel, 2015).



In summary, Feilzer (2010) acknowledges the value of both quantitative and qualitative research approaches and the knowledge produced by such research in furthering our understanding of society and social life. Elshafie (2013) argues that, researchers are free to use both quantitative and qualitative approaches, and it is essential is to find the best technique and procedure of research that solves the problem. Maxcy (2003), in Klingner and Boardnnan (2011), asserts that researchers mix methods in ways that make the most sense, given their research questions; integrating qualitative and quantitative approaches and data analysis procedures, and attempting to open up inquiry to all possibilities while tying that search to practical ends. Pragmatists argue against a false dichotomy between the qualitative and quantitative research approaches, and advocate the efficient use of both approaches (Cameron, 2010). The study advocates mixed methods approach as the third research approach, highlighted in Table 3.4.

3.3.3 Mixed Methods Approach

Mixed methods research marked the end of an era of the so called paradigm wars; however, there is no single watertight view of what constitutes mixed methods. One view is that mixed methods research evolved in response to the observed limitations of both quantitative and qualitative designs, and is a more complex method (Caruth, 2013). Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), in Williams (2007), opine that mixed methods approach is an extension rather than a replacement of the quantitative and qualitative approaches to research, as the latter two research approaches continue to be useful and important. Some researchers have made numerous calls and attempts in the social sciences, to make peace between the two major paradigmatic positions (Molina Azorín & Cameron, 2010). Another school of thought is that, mixed methods research is recognised as a third model of research in social and behavioural sciences (Caruth (2013;Ponce & Pagán-Maldonado, 2014; Zandvianian & Daryapoor, 2013). It is in line with this school of thought that mixed methods research is increasingly being used today in many disciplines such as sociology, psychology, health, and education (Bentahar & Cameron, 2015). No matter how studies define education or decide to approach the educational phenomenon, the field of education is complex and elusive (Johannigmeier & Richardson, 2008; Condliffe, 2000 in Ponce & Pagán-Maldonado, 2014). The complex nature of educational phenomena such as the implementation of School-Based Assessment creates an opportunity for mixed methods in this study. In mixed methods, the mixing refers to the process whereby the qualitative and quantitative elements are interlinked to produce a fuller account of the research problem (Glogowska, 2011; Zhang & Creswell, 2013 in Halcomb & Hickman, 2015). Antwi and Hamza (2015) add that the appropriateness of the mixture depends on the research questions and the situational and practical issues facing a researcher. Ponce and Pagán-Maldonado (2014 :114) identify key features which guide the use of mixed methods approach as; (a) the nature of the problems of mixed research (premise), (b) the research process (methodology), (c) the research question (foundations), d) the behaviour of the researcher (philosophy), and (e) the study outcomes.

3.3.3.1 Mixed Methods Research (MMR) defined

The contentious nature of the birth of MMR has resulted in coining of a wide range of definitions of mixed methods research. Johnson et al (2007) in Olivier (2017) identify and discuss 19 different definitions of mixed-methods research from the literature. Jonker (2010) describes MMR as natural fusion of the two approaches so that their respective strengths and weaknesses can be compensated. Ponce and Pagán Maldonado (2014) and Shannon-Baker (2016) define MMR as a type of inquiry that is philosophically grounded, where an intentional mixture of both qualitative and quantitative approaches is used in a single research study. The assertion is that the two approaches can be integrated in a single study. Antwi and Hamza (2015) argue that MMR involves the mixing of quantitative and qualitative research methods, approaches, or other paradigm characteristics. Halcomb and Hickman (2015) say MMR involves the use of both qualitative and quantitative data in a single project. Klingner and Boardman (2011) define mixed-methods research as a method of both quantitative and qualitative designs in the same research study. In addition, Caruth (2013), Ponce (2011), Creswell (2009) and Greene (2007) in Ponce and Pagán Maldonado (2014) view MMR as the use of quantitative and qualitative methods as components of a research design. Caruth (2013) argues that mixed methods research has become a valid alternative to either quantitative or qualitative research designs. Carr (1994); Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004); Mingers (2001); Sale, Lohfeld and Brazil (2002); Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) in Williams (2007), point out that the quantitative and qualitative research approaches are not only compatible, but also complimentary underpinning calls for the use of mixed methods research approach.

Zandvanian and Daryapoor (2013) describe MMR as the third methodological paradigm, alongside the traditional qualitative and quantitative paradigms. The argument in the definition is that MMR is a separate methodological view of truth and reality. However, using MMR alongside qualitative and quantitative paradigms means mixing which is the key feature of mixed methods research. In the same vein, Tashakkori and Teddlie (1998), in Molina Azorín and Cameron (2010), refer to mixed methods studies as those that combine the qualitative and quantitative approaches into the research methodology of a single study. This study adopted one of the highly respected definitions of MMR by Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) as a class of

research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study. In education, which is the domicile of this study, the focus is to design research that will have precision and depth as well as provide a better and more comprehensive understanding of the complex educational phenomena (Zandvianian & Daryapoor, 2013). Phillips (2009), in Ponce and Pagán-Maldonado (2014), asserts that, using quantitative and qualitative research is considered an important component of any educational research programme in order to capture the complexity of this field. Caruth (2013), Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), Ponce (2011), Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009), Berman (2008), as well as Greene (2007) in Ponce and Pagán-Maldonado (2014:114) identify four objectives to be pursued in MMR due to its unique nature. The objectives contextualised in this study are: (a) combining or integrating quantitative and qualitative methods toward the best possible approach to the research problem, (b) generating quantitative and qualitative data toward a clear and deep understanding of the research problem being addressed, (c) generate quantitative and qualitative data from the same research problem that allows the researcher greater certainty in inferences, conclusions or statements of its findings, (d) make more robust research by using the strengths from one research model to offset methodological shortcomings from the other. In this study the mixing of qualitative and quantitative approaches occurred at different stages in the study. Proponents of MMR purport that the use of qualitative and quantitative approaches in the same study can be done at different points in the research process. The stages are: (a) in the planning phase where the research plan is developed, making it clear what is investigated and how quantitative and qualitative approaches are used; (b) combining or integrating research questions from quantitative and qualitative approaches to guide the researcher to address the complexity of the problem studied; (c) using quantitative measurement instruments with qualitative research techniques to generate quantitative and qualitative data for the research problem; d) combining or integrating quantitative and qualitative data in the analysis of study data; and (e) combining or integrating quantitative and qualitative data in the presentation of the study findings (Caruth, 2013; Creswell, 2011; Ponce, 2011; Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2009; Greene, 2007 in Ponce & Pagán-Maldonado, 2014:113). In summing up Halcomb and Hickman (2015) and Shannon-Baker (2016) attest that MMR has the potential to combine qualitative and

quantitative characteristics across the research process, from the philosophical underpinnings to the data collection, analysis and interpretation phases.

3.3.3.2 Advantages of mixed methods approach

Mixed methods research was borne out of the irreconcilable weaknesses of the two traditional research approaches. Some of the current MMR proponents, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004), in Zandvanian and Daryapoor (2013), note that mixed method research tries to legitimate the use of multiple approaches in answering research questions, instead of restricting researcher's choices; and they suggest that researchers should have a consolidated approach to methods of research. In the current study, quantitative were gathered during qualitative interviews to offer more in-depth opportunities to evaluate interviewees' statements and responses. The argument was that the use of MMR allows the researchers to use the strengths of the qualitative approach to overcome the weaknesses of the quantitative approach by having both in a research study (Caruth, 2013). This enhanced the body of knowledge and presents a more robust conclusion, and generates more questions of interest for future studies since the researcher was not limited to one research design.



Another advantage of MMR is that qualitative and quantitative research used together produce complete knowledge necessary to inform theory and practice for understanding the realities (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). A mixed method also allows the integration component, which gives readers more confidence in the results and the conclusions drawn from the study (Greene, 2007 in Almalki, 2016; O'Cathain, Murphy, & Nicholl, 2010 in McKim, 2017).), opines that this approach provides researchers with opportunities to compensate for inherent method weaknesses, on inherent method strengths, and offset inevitable method biases.

The use of MMR allows researchers to investigate multifaceted phenomenon, address more complicated questions and tackle a broader range of issues by synthesising inductive and deductive logics (Campbell et al. 2011, Najmaei, 2016). In this study, in order to collect a mixture of data, a survey that contained closed-ended questions to collect the numerical, or quantitative, data were distributed and an interview using open-ended questions to collect the narrative, or qualitative data were conducted. This allowed obtaining of viewpoints about similar experiences or

associations and ensured total representation of experiences or associations. Table 3.6 below summarises the strengths of MMR.

Table 3.6 Advantages of MMR approach

Advantages	Description	Example
Complementarity	A complementary view of the phenomenon and/or relationships is developed by combining the findings.	A qualitative study is used to gain additional insights on the findings from a quantitative study.
Completeness	A more complete picture is obtained by mixing methods. The full picture is more complete than the parts created by each method.	The qualitative data and results provide rich explanations of the findings from the quantitative data and analysis.
Developmental	Question or hypothesis for one method emerges from the other in a sequential form.	A qualitative study is used to develop constructs and hypotheses and a quantitative study is conducted to test the hypotheses.
Expansion	Understanding obtained by one method is expanded and explained by the other.	The findings from one study (e.g., quantitative) is expanded or elaborated by examining the findings from a different study (e.g. qualitative).
Corroboration/Confirmation	The credibility of inferences from one method is assessed by the other.	A qualitative study is conducted to confirm the findings from a quantitative study.
Compensation	Weaknesses of one method are compensated for by strengths of the other.	The qualitative analysis compensated for the small sample size in the quantitative study.
Diversity	Divergent pictures of the same phenomenon are obtained, compared and contrasted.	Qualitative and quantitative studies are conducted to compare perceptions of a

		phenomenon of interest by two different types of participants.
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Source: Adopted from Tashakkori and Teddlie (2008), in Najmaei (2016:25).

3.3.3.3 Disadvantages of mixed methods approach

The use MMR is not a straight one-size-fit-all jacket; rather it is Gordian knot. Leech and Onwuegbuzie (2009), in Olivier (2017), say mixed method paradigm is still in its adolescence, and thus, relatively unknown and confusing to many researchers. Creswell (2007), in Najmaei (2016), observes that MMR requires more resources than qualitative or quantitative, a more carefully laid out plan, luxury of time, and a wider range of research skills. Creswell (2012), in Caruth (2013), and Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) assert that MMR researchers need to become experienced in MMR because: it can be difficult for a single researcher, especially when the two designs are best used concurrently; it can require a research team; it can be time consuming; and it can be expensive when concurrency is involved, requiring a team of researchers. In this study, realistic timelines were designed during the data collection. Financial resources required were mobilised by the researcher to supplement the University bursary. Mixed methods designs are conceptually complex. They may provide a basis for triangulation but, more often, they become the source of different ways of conceptualising the problem (Hadzilias, 2011). In this study a concurrent triangulation design was adopted and merging of data were done during analysis and interpretation. Researcher had to learn about multiple methods and approaches and understand how to mix them appropriately (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Basic computer skills such as using SPSS for quantitative data and qualitative data were sought to ensure effective mixing of data in the current study.

3.3.3.4 Reasons for selecting MMR in the current study

Mixed Method Research has been practiced since the 1950s but formally began in the late 1980s and is increasingly used by a growing number of researchers (Creswell, 2003; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2007; Dunning, Williams, Abonyi, and Crooks, 2008 in McKim, 2017). The past three decades have seen a significant

increase in the use MMR in various research fields. Table 3.7 below shows the use of mixed methods research.

Table 3.7: Number of Dissertations and Thesis Containing the Keyword “Mixed Methods.”

Year range	Number
2010-2013	2,538
2005-2009	2,524
2000-2004	532
1995-1999	100
1990-1994	26
1985-1989	17
1980-1984	3

Adapted from McKim (2017:204)

The applications of MMR has been far ranging including in fields such as Nursing, Psychology, Education, Sociology, Library and Information Science, Information Systems, Political Science (Terrell, 2011). Several advantages have been derived from the emergence of MMR on the research arena. According to Olivier (2017),

these advantages have prompted researchers to use mixed-methods research in various diverse setting over the last 20 years. Some of the situations in Olivier (2017) are MMR use to diagnose a pharmacy department in a non-profit research hospital (Paul, 1996), to assess organisational culture (Yauch & Steudel, 2003), to study relocation decision making and couple relationships (Challiol & Mignonac, 2005), to study adolescent alcohol use (Newman, Shell, Ming, Jianping & Maas, 2006), to study social support in widowhood (Scott et al. 2007), to evaluate a school principal development programme (Youngs & Piggot-Irvin, 2012), and to study antecedents of servant leadership (Beck, 2014) .

Ponce and Pagán-Maldonado (2014) assert that mixed studies address research problems in which clear objective and subjective aspects are manifested, that require the use of quantitative and qualitative approaches. In agreement, Antwi and Hamza (2015) reveal that, it is important to understand both the subjective and objective realities in our world. Educational issues like implementation of School-Based Assessment are a complex phenomenon with multiple realities and have a huge impact on the direction of any educational system. MMR will be used when the complexity of the research problem cannot be addressed from the unique perspective of a quantitative or qualitative study. Contemporary society has evolved and has become more complex. The vast majority of the educational, social, economic and contemporary political problems show that complexity (Ponce & Pagán-Maldonado, 2014).

To unpack the SBA implementation issues in SA high schools, a pragmatic paradigm was adopted as previously stated. A major tenet of pragmatism is that quantitative and qualitative methods are compatible (Molina Azorín & Cameron, 2010). Malina et al. (2011) note that, combined quantitative and qualitative methods enable exploring more complex aspects and relations of the human and social world. In addition, Ponce and Pagán-Maldonado (2014) assert that, MMR emphasises the research questions of the study as the focus of all methodological decisions. Put differently, what determines the combination or integration of quantitative and qualitative approaches are the research questions of the study. Caruth (2013) argues that MMR design allows researchers to use words, photos, and narratives to add meaning to numbers while numbers can add precision to words, photos, and narratives. The implication is that, qualitative approach is important for capturing the context of

educational phenomenon and the humane and social aspect of education (Greenne, 2007 in Ponce & Pagán-Maldonado, 2014). Quantitative research methods are important for measuring educational phenomenon with precision and to determine and evaluate the value of educational programs (Ponce & Pagán-Maldonado, 2014).

Williams (2007) notes that, if the researcher wants to provide in-depth insight into a phenomenon the researcher selects a small but informative sample which is typical of qualitative research. MMR has become a valid alternative to either quantitative or qualitative research designs and is registering appeal to researchers. Creswell and Plano Clark (2011); Morse and Niehaus (2009), in Shannon-Baker (2016) say the purpose of MMR is to provide a more complex understanding of a phenomenon. It could also provide more comprehensive answers to research questions, going beyond the limitations of a single approach Hadziliadis (2011). Proponents of the mixed methods approach to research advocate doing what works within the precepts of research to investigate and understand the phenomenon (Carr, 1994; Creswell, 2003; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Mingers, 2001; Sale, Lohfeld, & Brazil, 2002; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003 in Williams, 2007). A summary of the strength for mixed methods research and justification for MMR in this study is given as;



Corroboration – using the results of one method to corroborate the findings of the other about a single phenomenon

Complementarity – use one method to elaborate, illustrate, enhance or clarify the results from other findings from the other methods

Expansion – the depth and breadth of the study is expanded by using different methods for various components of the research

Development – use the results of one method to inform the other method.

Initiation – one method is used to uncover the paradoxes and contradictions in
(Halcomb & Hickman 2015:45)

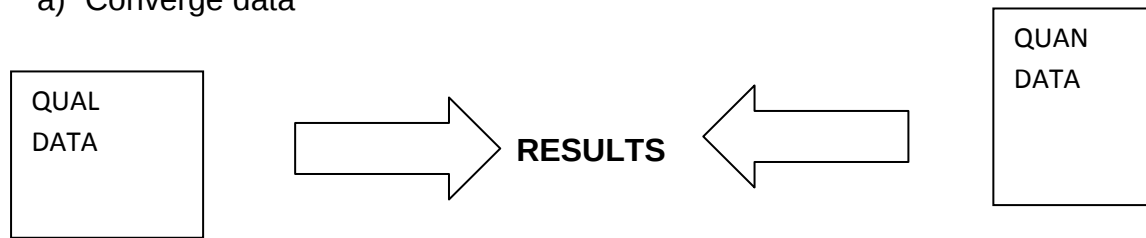
3.4 RESEARCH DESIGN

A research design is defined as the conceptual structure within which research is conducted, and it constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data (Kothari, 2004). Bhattacharjee (2012) and Kumar (2011) view a

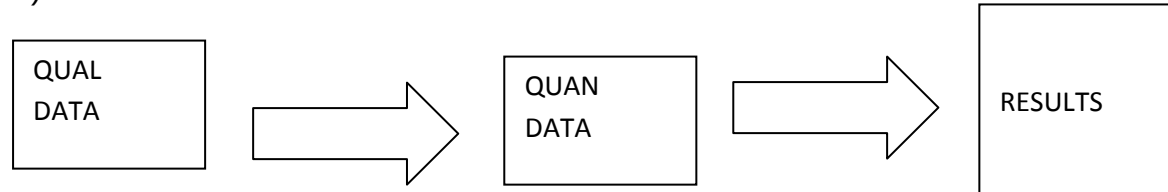
research design as a procedural plan that is adopted by the researcher to answer the question validly, objectively, accurately and economically. Put differently, Pandey and Pandey (2015) see a research design as a map that is usually developed to guide the research. In the same vein, a research design is viewed as a general plan on how to answer the research question that has been set by researcher (Easterby-Smith et al. 2012 in Rahi, 2017). A research design can be summed up as a blue print or road map or procedural plan which guides the research process. The purpose of a research design is to help the researcher to organize ideas in a form whereby it will be possible to identify flaws and inadequacies (Kothari, 2004; Pandey & Pandey, 2015). The other function of a research design is to provide a framework for the collection and analysis of data (Kelly, 2016). Ponce and Pagán-Maldonado (2015) say mixed research designs are accepted ways of how integrated quantitative and qualitative approaches can be combined in mixed methods study.

This study was anchored in the mixed methods approach as highlighted in 3.3. Two key decisions were made in constructing a mixed method design, either to operate largely within one dominant paradigm or to conduct the phases concurrently or sequentially (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).  Burke Johnson et al. (2007), in Almalki (2016), argue that the most pressing challenge for a researcher is that of deciding which mixed method research design is most appropriate for a particular study. Whichever angle the researcher decides to take in a mixed-method design, the findings must be mixed or integrated at some point. That is, a qualitative phase may be conducted to inform a quantitative phase, sequentially. However, if the quantitative and qualitative phases are undertaken concurrently the findings must be integrated during the interpretation of the findings (Creswell, 2008; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Several studies have identified three methods of mixing or linking qualitative and quantitative data in mixed method designs (Almalki, 2016; Bentahar & Cameron, 2015; Caruth, 2013; Campbell, Patterson & Bybee, 2011; Creswell, 2008; Klingner & Boardnnan, 2011; Ponce & Pagán-Maldonado, 2015; Najmaei, 2016; Terrell, 2011). Figure3.1 below shows the integration of data in mixed methods designs.

a) Converge data



b) Connect data



c) Embed the data

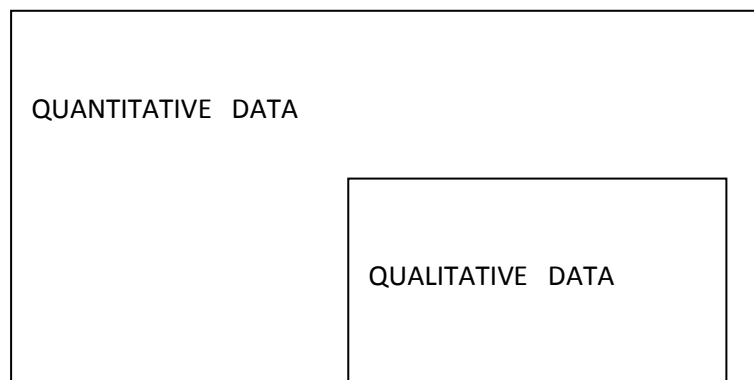


Figure 3.1 Mixing or linking the data; Source: Creswell (2008:12)

A multitude of designs can be created in the mixing of data by varying the timing or sequence of different methods and their intended function or purpose (Campbell, Patterson & Bybee, 2011). Mixed-methods research can be designed in different configurations that vary depending on the order in which were collected (Klingner & Boardnnan, 2011; Caruth, 2013; Terrell, 2011).The sequence and importance of qualitative and quantitative data and the stage at which they were integrated lead to a number of standard designs for mixed methods research (Najmaei, 2016). Table 8 below gives a synopsis of the mixed methods designs discussed in detail in this study.

Table3. 8: Mixed methods designs

Design	Implementation	Priority	Stage of integration
Sequential explanatory	Quantitative followed by qualitative	Usually quantitative	Interpretation phase
Sequential exploratory	Qualitative followed by quantitative	Usually qualitative	Interpretation phase
Sequential transformative	Either quantitative followed by qualitative or qualitative followed by quantitative	Usually quantitatively	Interpretation phase
Concurrent triangulation	Concurrent collection of quantitative and qualitative data	Preferably equal	Interpretation phase or analysis phase
Concurrent nested	Concurrent collection of quantitative and qualitative data	Preferably equal	Analysis phase
Concurrent transformative	Concurrent collection of quantitative and qualitative data	Preferably equal	Usually analysis phase; can be during interpretation phase

Source: Creswell et al. (2003), in Najmaei (2016:26).

3.4.1 Sequential designs

Sequential designs show the manner in which qualitative and quantitative data were collected and mixed in mixed methods research. An application of this design

involves conducting research in sequential phases. The researcher designs a study with a research approach (quantitative) and uses findings to design a second phase using another approach (qualitative). Ponce and Pagán-Maldonado (2015) argue that the fundamentals of studies with sequential phases are to use a research approach to study deeply the research problem and then use the findings of the first phase and design the second phase. There are basically three typologies of sequential designs namely; explanatory, exploratory and embedded sequential designs (Creswell, 2008; Najmaei, 2016).

3.4.1.1 Explanatory Design

Explanatory designs are described as a two stage design which sees quantitative data being used as the basis on which to build and explain qualitative data. The purpose of this design is to study or describe the research problem in depth. The procedure is that, the researcher first uses a quantitative study to measure the attributes or properties of the problem (phase I), and then moves to a qualitative study (phase II) to deepen the findings of Phase I (Ponce & Pagán-Maldonado, 2015). Caruth (2013) echoes the same  by stating that explanatory sequential design gathers quantitative data first and qualitative data next, to enhance the quantitative findings. Equal priority is given to the two phases and data as integrated during interpretation Terrell (2011). Figure 3.2 below shows the explanatory sequential design.

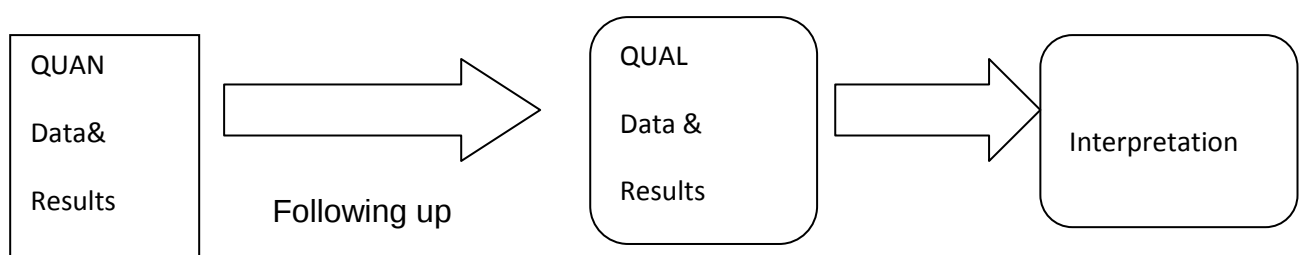


Figure 3.2 Explanatory Design; Source: Creswell (2008:27)

The primary focus is to explain quantitative results by exploring certain results in more detail or helping explain unexpected results for example, using follow-up interviews to bring better understanding of research problem (Terrell, 2011). A major strength of the explanatory sequential design is that, the quantitative data informs

the qualitative data selection process, which enables researchers to pinpoint data that is relevant to specific research project (Almalki, 2016). The other advantage is that, in explanatory design, quantitative data is collected and analysed first; results are used to inform follow-up qualitative data collection. However, its major weakness is that it is time consuming, especially when both phases are given equal consideration and priority in a study (Terrell, 2011).

3.4.1.2 Exploratory Design

The exploratory design is the reverse of the explanatory model, with the qualitative data informing the quantitative information gathering process (Almalki, 2016). Qualitative data were collected and analysed first; results are used to inform follow-up quantitative data collection. Terrell (2011) asserts that the collection and analysis of qualitative data is followed by the collection and analysis of quantitative data. Caruth (2013) states that in exploratory sequential design; the researcher first collects qualitative data to investigate a phenomenon, and then gathers quantitative data to explain the qualitative findings. Equal priority is given to the two phases but priority can be given to either and data is integrated during interpretation (Terrell, 2011). A major benefit of this typology was that the separate stages were easy to implement and that the qualitative data were acceptable to quantitative researchers (Almalki, 2016). The second advantage is that, in this design, quantitative results are used to generalise the qualitative findings (Klingner & Boardnnan, 2011; Terrell, 2011). A major weakness is that it very time consuming, especially where both phases are given equal consideration and priority. Figure 3.3 below shows a typology of the exploratory design.

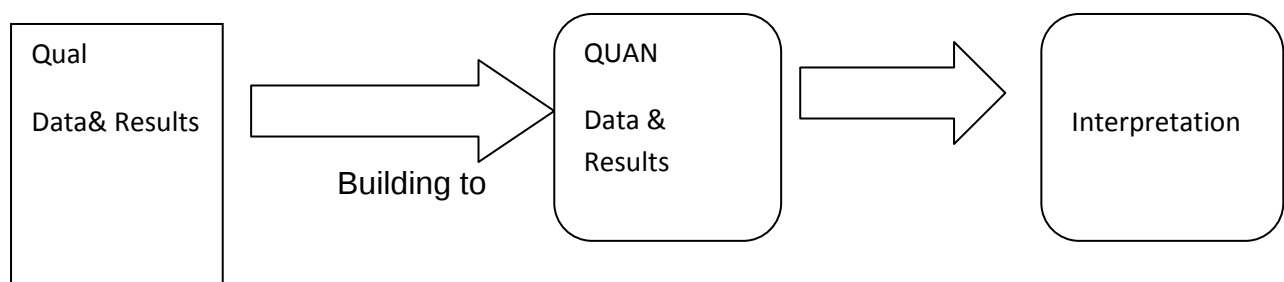


Figure 3.3 Exploratory Design; Source: Creswell (2008:27)

3.4.1.3 Sequential Embedded Design

Sequential embedded design is also known as sequential transformative design. In this design, both methods may be needed for explanation; the findings generated through one method need to be unpacked further using a different method for a more complete understanding of the results. Priority can be given to either or both data types, and data is integrated during interpretation (Terrell, 2011). Different methods are used to collect data on the same subject to compare and contrast findings obtained through each to see if findings converge (Campbell, Patterson & Bybee, 2011). A major strength is that it is very straight-forward in terms of implementation and reporting, however on the weakness side, it is time consuming (Terrell, 2011). Figure 3.4 below shows typology of the embedded sequential design.

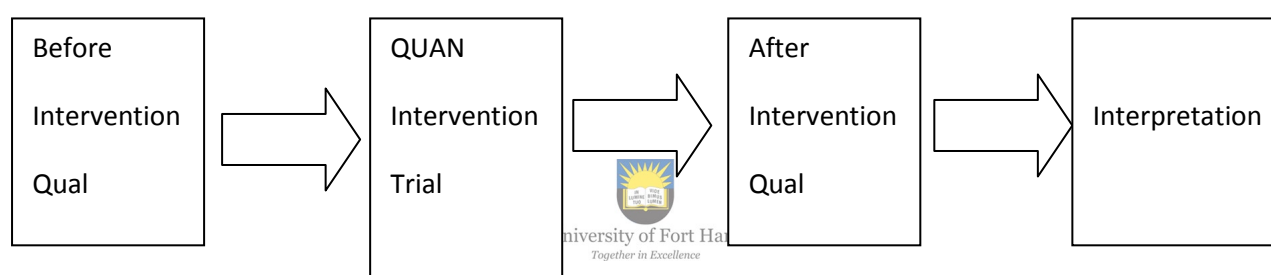


Figure 3.4 Sequential Embedded Designs; Source: Creswell (2008:27)

3.4.2 Concurrent Mixed Methods Designs

Concurrent design is composed of two main typologies, which are triangulation design and nested/transformative (embedded) design. Concurrent design is also termed convergent parallel design (Creswell, 2013).

3.4.2.1 Embedded design

Embedded design is also known as concurrent nested and concurrent transformative strategy (Terrell, 2011). A key feature of the embedded design is that one method of enquiry is used in a supportive secondary role, which enables researchers and readers to make sense of the study in its entirety (Almalki, 2016). Klingner and Boardman (2011) assert that qualitative and quantitative data can be collected sequentially, concurrently, or both as one form of data are embedded within another. Priority is given to the primary data collection approach and less emphasis is placed on the nested approach and data is mixed during the analysis phase (Terrell, 2011).

Caruth (2013) adds that the aim is to gather quantitative and qualitative data at the same time while one's design purpose is to support the findings of the other design. Figure 3.5 below shows the concurrent embedded design.

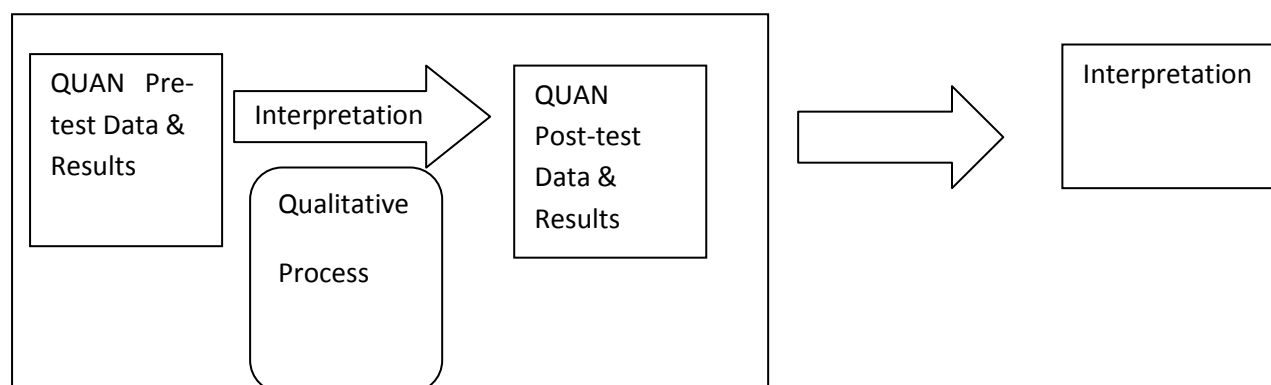


Figure 3.5 Embedded designs; Source: Creswell (2008:27)

A benefit of using this design is that it requires fewer resources and produces fewer data, which makes it an easier prospect for researchers to tackle (Almalki, 2016). The other strength was that researchers are able to collect two types of data simultaneously. Researcher can collect both quantitative and qualitative data allowing for perspectives from each thus, providing advantage of both methods (Terrell, 2011). However, a major challenge is that it can often be difficult to integrate results, it is for this reason that few examples exist from which researchers can model their study (Almalki, 2016). Another weakness was that data needed to be transformed to allow integration during analysis; this may lead to issues in resolving discrepancies that occur between different types of data (Terrell, 2011).

3.4.2.2 Triangulation design

Triangulation design is also known as concurrent triangulation strategy (Terrell, 2011) which was the design for this study. In this design, there are two concurrent data collection phases and the purpose was confirmation, corroboration or cross-validation within a single study. The implementation of School-Based Assessment was a complex phenomenon which required a pragmatic view, which was best provided by a mixed method approach. Triangulation was the appropriate design. Quantitative data from teachers' Questionnaires were corroborated or cross

validated with qualitative data from interviews with SGB chairpersons and learner focus group discussions. Almalki (2016) validates the use of the design by stating that triangulation design seeks to gather complimentary, yet distinctly different data on the same topic, which can then be integrated for analysis and interpretation. Ponce and Pagán-Maldonado (2015) add that the researcher uses quantitative and qualitative approaches simultaneously in the development of their study. Priority should be equal but can be given to either approach (quantitative or qualitative), and data were integrated during interpretation phase. This phase notes either a lack of convergence or convergence that strengthens knowledge claims. Finally, data integration can also occur during analysis (Terrell, 2011). In this study, interpretation of quantitative and qualitative results confirmed the level of complementarity in the two data sets. Ponce and Pagán-Maldonado (2015) state that the researcher uses one of the research approaches to counter the deficiencies of the other, and a research approach is used in a primary role because it is the dominant or principal method of study. Figure 3.6 below shows the triangulation design.



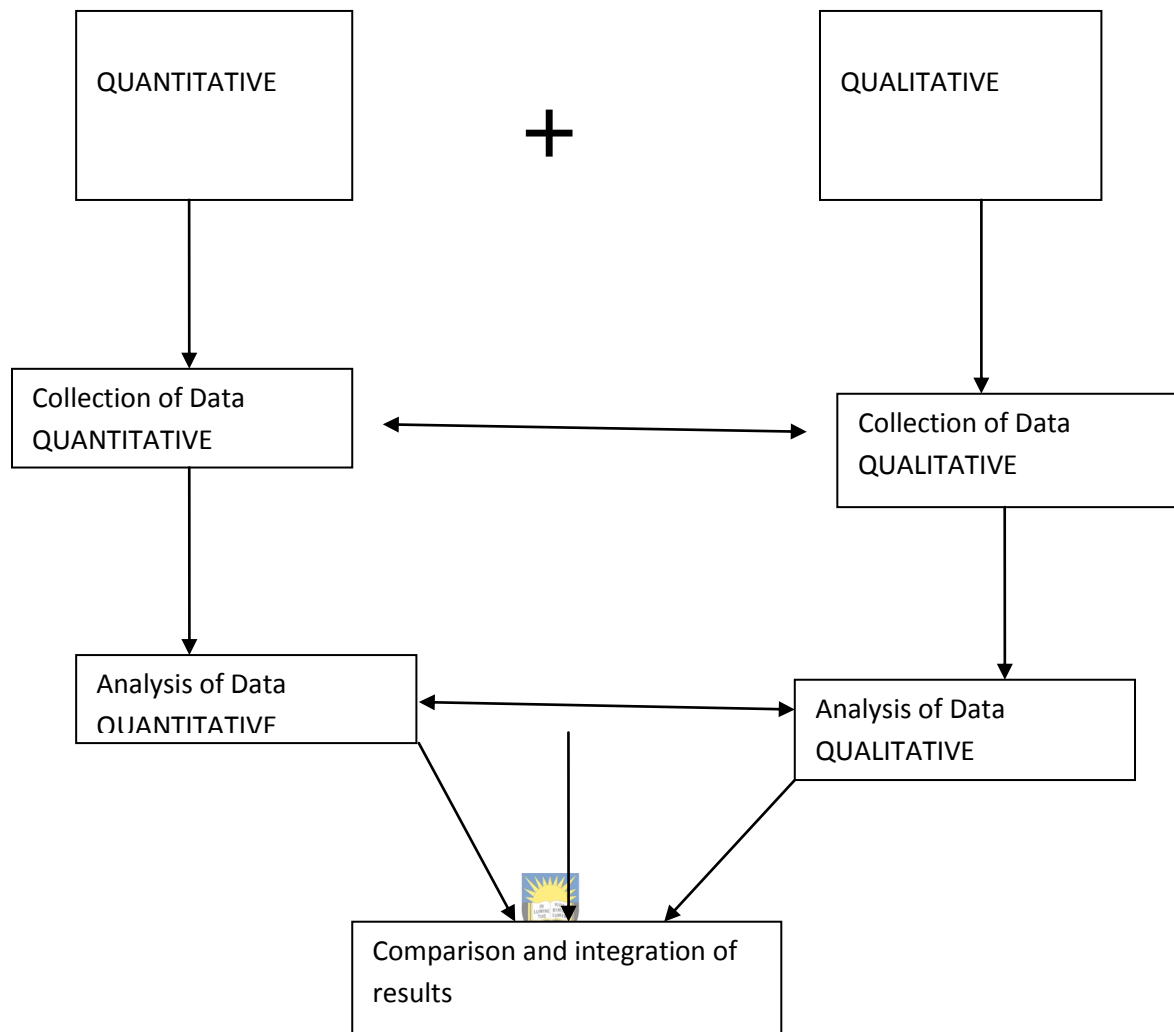


Figure 3.6 Triangulation design; Source: Bentahar and Cameron (2015:7); Creswell, (2008: 27)

A major strength of the triangulation design is that the design is familiar to many researchers, and there was a shorter data collection time compared to sequential designs. In a nutshell, the design offsets weaknesses inherent in one design by using both (Terrell, 2011). Another benefit is that triangulation makes intuitive sense to gather information from different sources, utilising different methods, which work together as an efficient design (Almalki, 2016). However, there are a number of issues to be dealt with when using this design. Among the issues is the considerable effort and expertise that is required to draw everything together, and the potential for further research and/or investigation being required as a result of discrepancies within the data sets (Almalki, 2016; Terrell, 2011).

3.5 POPULATION AND SAMPLING

A population is an entire community of elements in a location. In research, a population is defined as a theoretically specified aggregation of survey elements (Hassan Said & Madugu, 2015). The targeted population in the current study is all the secondary schools in White river circuit, in Ehlanzeni district of Mpumalanga Province in the Republic of South Africa.

3.5.1 Population

Research population is defined as the total number of units from which samples are selected for measurement (Cooper & Schindler, 2006; Parahoo, 2014 in Zahran Al Kindy, Mad Shah & Jusoh, 2016). In the same vein, Rahi (2017) views a population as all people or items that one wishes to understand. A population is also termed a universe or the entire mass of observation, which is the parent group from which a sample is, formed (Pandey & Pandey, 2014). After identifying a population, a target population is defined, which are all the members who meet the particular criteria specified for a research investigation (Alvi, 2016).

In a survey, research data is elicited from a target population. This means that the information required can only be gathered from a target or specified population relevant to the purpose and problems raised for the study (Hassan Sa'id & Madugu, 2015). In this study, the target population was all grade 11 teachers, learners and SGB chairpersons in White river circuit. The target population was the one to which the researcher wanted to generalise the research results (Pandey & Pandey, 2014). Grade 11 was selected for convenience purposes, being the central grade in the Further Education and Training (FET) phase. The other reason for choosing grade 11 is that FET band has an SBA percentage of 25% for all subjects except Life Orientation which has 100%. The moderation process at FET level is more rigorous than at the GET phase, and the implication is that the teachers at FET level have a better encounter of the implementation processes and their views will provide the much needed information for knowledge building and development. White river circuit has 12 secondary schools, categorised as 7 public and 5 private. Total population for grade 11 teachers was 141 composed of 51 males and 90 Females. The population for grade 11 learners was 656 composed of 265 boys and 391 girls. The population for SGB chairpersons was 7 from public schools only. Private

schools are owned by individuals who are the directors of the schools and they do not have an SGB. However, the schools have to comply with the Department of Basic Education requirements on School-Based Assessment.

3.5.2 Sampling

A researcher cannot study the entire population because of feasibility and cost constraints; hence, a representative sample must be selected from the population of interest for observation and analysis (Bhattacharjee, 2012). Sampling means selecting a given number of subjects from a defined population as representative of that population (Pandey & Pandey, 2014; Rahi, 2017). In the same vein, Bhattacharjee (2012:55) views sampling as the statistical process of selecting a subset (sample) of a population of interest for purposes of making observations and statistical inferences about that population. The definitions coincide on the idea that a sample allows generalisability of findings. The objective of drawing a sample is to make inferences about the larger population from the smaller sample (Jawale, 2012). This study deployed a mixed methods approach in which the researcher must take sampling scheme and sample size into consideration for both the qualitative and quantitative phases of the study (Migiro & Magangi, 2011). The application of both qualitative and quantitative strands requires different sampling techniques. Sampling techniques can be divided into two types: probability sampling and purposive sampling (non-probability sampling) (Rahi, 2017). In mixed method studies, these sampling techniques are often blended (Creswell et al, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998 in Jeanty & Hibel, 2011).

Purposive sampling technique, also called judgment sampling, is the deliberate choice of a participant due to the qualities the participant possesses (Pandey & Pandey, 2014). In purposive sampling, the sample is approached having a prior purpose in mind, meaning the criteria of the elements which are to be included in the study is predefined. The point is not to include everyone who is available, but rather to ensure those included meet the defined criteria (Alvi, 2016). Patton (2002), in Etikan, Musa and Alkassim (2016), argues that purposive sampling is typically used in qualitative research to identify and select the information-rich cases for the most proper utilisation of available resources. In agreement, Kemper and Teddlie (2000), in Jeanty and Hibel (2011), affirm that qualitative studies typically use smaller

samples selected through purposive techniques. The idea behind purposive sampling is to concentrate on people with particular characteristics who are better able to assist with the relevant research (Etikan et al. 2016). The use of a small sample may compromise the generalisability of the findings. However, proponents of mixed methods research argue that adding a quantitative component that surveys a randomly selected sample is likely to lead to generalisability (Johnson & Christensen, 2004; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Johnson & Turner, 2003 in Jeanty & Hibel, 2011).

Probability techniques generally use larger samples in quantitative studies (Kemper & Teddlie, 2000 in Jeanty & Hibel, 2011). Probability sampling is a sampling approach in which each unit has an equal chance or probability to be selected (Gary, 1990 in Etikan et al, 2016; Alvi, 2016; Bhattacharjee, 2012; Rahi, 2017). (). Probability techniques also known as random sampling includes stratified random sampling. A major advantage is that a better representative sample is produced using probability sampling techniques since inferences drawn from sample are generalisable to the population. However, the techniques need a lot of effort, time and expenses (Alvi, 2016). The deployment of the triangulation design in this study means qualitative and quantitative data had to be collected at the same time from different samples from the same target population. Purposive sampling was used to select participants to provide qualitative data while stratified random sampling was used to select respondents who provided quantitative data.

Quantitative samples for teachers and learners will be obtained using stratified random sampling. Teddlie and Yu (2007) assert that stratified random sampling is ideal for the selection of a large sample. The sample for learners was 80, composed of 60 learners from public schools and 20 from the private schools. The sample for teachers was 60 made up of 40 from public schools and 20 from private schools.

Tables 3.9 and 3.10 below summarises the sample sizes for learners and teachers.

Table 3.9: Learner sample size

Types of schools	Number of schools	Respondent type	Number of learners in Quantitative sample	Number of learners in Quantitative sample
Public Schools	7	Boys	185	24
		Girls	269	36
Private Schools	5	Boys	80	8
		Girls	122	12
		Totals	656	80



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Table 3.10: Teacher sample size

Type of schools	Number of schools	Respondents type	Number of teachers in Quantitative sample	Number of teachers in sample size
Public schools	7	Male	30	10
		Female	59	30
Private schools	5	Male	23	9
		Female	33	11
		Totals	141	60

The qualitative data were obtained from learners and parents. The sample size for learners was 80, made up of 60 from public schools and 20 from private schools. The learners were purposively selected using their performances in the three subject bands in the curriculum (Commerce, Sciences and General). The learners were divided into 6 focus groups of 10 learners each from public schools, and 2 focus groups of 10 participants each from private schools. The sample of 6 SGB chairpersons from public schools was purposively selected based on school performance at grade 11. SGB chairpersons were selected because they were more knowledgeable on educational matters in the SGB. Patton, in Palinkas et al. (2013), assert that purposive sampling technique is widely used in qualitative research for the identification and selection of information-rich samples. Table 3.11 below summarises the qualitative sample.

Table 3.11: Qualitative sample size

Participant type	Number
SBG Chairpersons	8
Learners	80
Total	88

3.6 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

Mixed method approaches usually use techniques such as closed-ended Questionnaires (numerical data), interviews, and classroom observations (text) (Zohrabi, 2013). In this mixed methods study, data were collected using closed-ended (structured) open-ended (unstructured) Questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussions. Questionnaire and interview questions were a blend of closed and open ended questions, thus, making them semi-structured and aligning well with mixed methods research study.

3.6.1 Questionnaire

A Questionnaire was invented by Sir Francis Galton, and is defined as a research instrument consisting of a set of questions (items) intended to capture responses from respondents in a standardised manner (Bhattacharjee, 2012). Pandey and Pandey (2015) view a Questionnaire as a form prepared and distributed to secure responses to certain questions. In a nutshell, the purpose of a Questionnaire is to gather information needed to answer the research question. Jankowicz (2013), in Al Kindy, Shah and Jusoh (2016), asserts that if a Questionnaire is correctly worded, normally will require less competency and effort in the administration process. An important point in a Questionnaire is that, questions should be designed such that respondents are able to read, understand, and respond to them in a meaningful way (Bhattacharjee, 2012). Design of questions is of supreme importance, because in data collection process, there is usually only one opportunity of collecting data, which has to be well utilized to fulfil the research objectives (Saunders et al. 2012, in Al Kindy, Shah & Jusoh, 2016). The other point is that questions may be unstructured or structured. Unstructured questions ask respondents to provide a response in their own words, while structured questions ask respondents to select an answer from a given set of choices. The unstructured Questionnaire is also known as open-ended Questionnaire and the structured is also known a closed-ended Questionnaire. Closed-ended Questionnaires provide the inquirer with quantitative or numerical data, and open ended Questionnaires with qualitative or text information (Zohrabi, 2013). A crossbreed of a closed-ended and an open-ended Questionnaire will produce semi-structured Questionnaire. A semi-structured Questionnaire responds to the needs of the mixed methods research by providing both qualitative and quantitative data. Mixed method approaches usually use closed-ended Questionnaires (numerical data), interviews and classroom observations (text data) to collect information. The assertion was that the different methods of gathering data can complement each other and hence, boost the validity and dependability of the data (Zohrabi, 2013). Questionnaires are usually administered through direct distribution by the researcher or a contact person or can be mailed or can be emailed. In this study, a semi-structured Questionnaire was distributed via contact persons identified in sampled schools. Questionnaire give the best results with standardised questions that the researcher has a confidence that they can only be

interpreted in one way by all participants (Robson, 2002 in Al Kindy, Shah & Jusoh, 2016). Some of the major reasons for the selection of a Questionnaire, particularly a semi-structured Questionnaire in this study are that; it is an efficient means of collecting data on a large scale basis; respondent's anonymity allows them to share information easily and it is time and cost-efficient way of collecting data from many people. Some of the challenges of using Questionnaires include: low response rate when sent by post or email; and ambiguous, unclear, inaccurate and questionable responses (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Pandey & Pandey, 2015; Zohrabi, 2013). The use of contact persons, pilot testing of the instruments, and members checks applied in this study minimised the impact of these challenges.

3.6.2 Justification for using the semi-structured Questionnaire

A semi-structured Questionnaire was the preferred instrument for providing survey information particularly in this mixed methods study. Zohrabi (2013) argues that, different types of procedures for collecting data through different sources such learners and teachers can augment the validity and reliability of the data and their interpretation. Closed-ended questions in the Questionnaires for both learners and teachers allowed the collection of quantitative data which can easily be analysed. In the same vein, open-ended questions in the same Questionnaires for teachers and learners allowed for the collection of qualitative data which may be difficult to analyse but allowed the researcher to discover new knowledge. Zohrabi (2013) avers that, it is better that a Questionnaire includes both closed-ended and open-ended questions to complement each other, aligning perfectly with this mixed methods study.

3.6.3 Semi-Structured Interviews

An interview was used to collect data for the qualitative strand in a mixed method design while a Questionnaire was used to gather data for the quantitative strand. In order to triangulate the data, the researcher can obtain information through different procedures to heighten the dependability and trustworthiness of the data and their interpretation (Zohrabi, 2013). Pandey and Pandey (2015) define an interview as a two-way method which permits an exchange of ideas and information. The exchange of information is between an interviewer and interviewee. The main feature of an interview is to solicit the interviewees' perspectives, stories and experiences regarding a particular social phenomena being observed by the interviewer (Wahyuni

(2012). Zohrabi (2013) asserts that in an interview, the researcher wants to get first-hand information directly from some knowledgeable informants. Kvale (1996), in Cohen et al. (2007) says an interview is an interchange of views between two or more people on a topic of mutual interest, and sees the centrality of human interaction for knowledge production, and emphasises the social situatedness of research data. Interviews can also take the form of a structured, unstructured or semi structure also known as a qualitative interview. Hadziliyas (2011) avers that, the most common type of qualitative interview involves pre-determined, open-ended questions, but also allows the interviewer to explore themes that emerge during the interview process. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) in Wahyuni (2012) assert that a semi-structured interview, also known as the non-standardised or qualitative interview is a hybrid type of interview which lies in between a structured interview and an in-depth interview. The use of an interview in research was a way of not seeing human subjects as simply manipulatable and data as somehow external to individuals, but regards knowledge as generated from humans through conversations (Kvale, 1996 in Cohen et al. 2007). An interview is therefore, used to collect the second main type of data in the mixed method design (Zohrabi, 2013). In this study, semi-structured interviews were conducted with School Governing Board (SGB) chairpersons to get information on their experiences, perceptions and feelings on the implementation of School-Based Assessment in high schools.

3.6.3.1 Advantages of using a semi-structured interview

A semi-structured interview is a flexible tool for data collection which allows multi-sensory channels to be used such as verbal, non-verbal, spoken and heard (Cohen et al. 2007). Semi-structured interviews are considered as the appropriate format for case study research because research questions cannot be answered briefly (Wahyuni, 2012; Zohrabi, 2013). Hadziliyas (2011) says, in a semi-structured interview, the interviewer can ensure that certain key elements are fully covered, at the same time allowing flexibility. A semi-structured interview therefore, offers the advantage of using a list of predetermined themes and questions while keeping enough flexibility to enable the interviewee to talk freely about any topic raised during the interview (Wahyuni, 2012). Bhattacharjee (2012) attests that the interviewer has the opportunity to clarify any issues raised by the respondent or ask probing or follow-up questions. Zohrabi (2013) adds that a semi-structured interview allows

probing by the interviewer and has a relatively high response rate. Reliable data were gathered directly through a face to face contact between interviewer and interviewee (Pandey & Pandey, 2015). Semi-structured interviews enable participants; that is, interviewers or interviewees, to discuss their interpretations of the world in which they live, and to express how they regard situations from their own point of view. A semi-structured interview is not simply concerned with collecting data about life: it is part of life itself; its human embeddedness is inescapable (Cohen et al. 2007).

3.6.3.2 Weakness of a semi-structured interview

In a semi-structured interview, the interviewer is considered to be part of the measurement instrument, and must proactively strive not to artificially bias the observed responses which may be difficult since the interviewer's mind is skewed in a certain perspective (Bhattacharjee, 2012). In the same vein, the researcher using a semi-structured interview has to be aware that it: is resource-intensive, expensive in terms of time, may be inconvenient for respondents raising issues of interviewee fatigue which may hamper the interview (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Cohen et al. 2007; Zohrabi, 2013). The other issue was that data analysis was sometimes time-consuming for open-ended items (Zohrabi, 2013).

3.6.3.3 Reasons for the use of semi-structured interview

The use of semi-structured interviews allows probing or follow-up questions to clarify any information raised by SGB chairpersons on the implementation of School-Based Assessment to enhance teaching and learning. Semi-structured interviews have a high response rate from a small sample as was the case with the sample of SGB chairpersons to enhance reliability of findings. In using a semi-structured interview, the interviewer was able to discuss responses by the SGB chairperson on School-Based Assessment implementation issues in the educational process. Semi-structured interviews allowed the SGB chairpersons to express their feelings regarding School-Based Assessment implementation from their own point of view. The researcher was able to triangulate the data from teachers and SGB chairperson on the implementation issues for a comprehensive interpretation of study results. The use of semi-structured interviews gave room for sharing of SGB's perspectives, stories and experience regarding the implementation of School-Based Assessment

in high schools to enhance teaching and learning. In the semi-structured interview, information was sought directly from SGB chairpersons who are knowledgeable informants by virtue of their position. The interviewer got information on the experiences, perceptions and feelings of SGB chairpersons on the implementation of SBA in an effort to improve teaching and learning.

3.6.4 Focus Group Discussions

Focus group or focus group interview was a qualitative data collection technique (Dilshad and Latif, 2013). In this technique, usually 6-10 respondents are interviewed together in a common location. Proceedings are directed by the interviewer who is essentially a facilitator, whose job is to lead the discussion and ensure that every person has an opportunity to respond (Bhattacharjee, 2012). Anderson (1990), in Dilshad and Latif (2013), says a focus group is composed of individuals with certain characteristics who focus discussions on a given issue or topic. Hughes and DuMont (1993), in Smithson (2000), view focus groups as in depth group interviews employing relatively homogenous groups to provide information around topics specified by the researchers. Denscombe (2007), in Dilshad and Latif (2013), defines a focus group as a small group of people, usually between six and nine in number, who are brought together by a trained moderator (the researcher) to explore attitudes and perceptions, feelings and ideas about a topic. The success of a focus group depends on the facilitator/moderator that needs to: a) be non-judgmental about the responses from the participants, b) respect the participants, c) be open-minded, d) have adequate knowledge about the topic, e) possess good listening skills, f) have good leadership skills, g) have good observation skills, h) show patience and flexibility, and i) be sensitive to the participants' needs (Dilshad & Latif, 2013). These facilitator characteristics ensure data emerges from the interaction of the group because the participants interact with each other rather than with the interviewer, such that the views of the participants can emerge, and the participants' rather than the researcher's agenda can predominate (Cohen et al. 2007). Focus group interviews are used to triangulate in multi-method studies or mixed methods, when approaches such as in-depth interviews, Questionnaires were used to collect data (Morgan, 1997 in Dilshad & Latif, 2013).

In the current study, the rationale for using a Questionnaire was that the Questionnaires would offer statistically analysable data, while the focus groups would delved more fully into participants' experiences and provided high quality data in specific contexts (Romm, Nel & Tlale, 2013). The number of groups were 8 (6 groups from public schools and 2 groups from private schools) composed of 10 learners in each group, purposively selected from the schools. Interviews were tape recorded and data from learners' (FGD) interviews used to triangulate data from teachers and parents/ (SGB) chairpersons.

3.6.4.1 Advantages of Focus Group Discussions

A number of benefits are derived from the use of focus group discussions in the collection of data for the qualitative strand in a mixed methods study. Bhattacharjee (2012) notes that focus groups allow deeper examination of complex issues, because when people hear others talk, it often triggers responses or ideas that they did not think about before. Dilshad and Latif (2013) affirm that the element of synergy and interaction between the group members plays a significant role in generating qualitative data. Interactions between group members stimulate memories and ideas that would not have surfaced in an individual interview (Fontana & Frey, 2005 in Hadziliass, 2011). Dilshad and Latif (2013) say interaction between group members is given a particular value rather than just gathering opinions of people; that is, the collective view is given more importance than the aggregate view. The other benefit is that focus groups offer an opportunity for immediate feedback or clarification on one's viewpoint, with the contributions of other group members (Dilshad & Latif 2013). Romm et al. (2013) affirm that participants are given the opportunity to speak freely with colleagues about their challenges and about some of their attempts at dealing with these challenges. Focus group provides a rich and detailed set of data about perceptions, thoughts, feelings and impressions of people in their own words (Stewart & Shamdasani, 1990 in Dilshad & Latif, 2013). Kumar (2011) opines that perceptions, understandings and experiences of a group of people who have common experience with regard to a situation or event were explored. Punch (1998), in Hadziliass (2011), note that FGDs are useful for making apparent the views, perceptions, and motivations of the participants. They enable the researcher to take into account, not only what is said, but also gestures, facial expressions and other forms of non-verbal communication (Dilshad & Latif 2013). Focus groups are useful

to triangulate with more traditional forms of data collection such as interviewing and Questionnaire (Cohen et al. 2007).

3.6.4.2 Disadvantages of Focus Group Discussions

Limitations of focus groups include the tendency for certain types of participants to dominate the research process (Smithson, 2000). Bhattacharjee (2012) opines that focus group discussions may be dominated by a dominant personality, and some individuals may be reluctant to voice their opinions in front of their peers or superiors. Dilshad and Latif (2013) add that: a few vocal participants may dominate other members in the course of group discussion; members of the group may dominate the conversation; some members may be reluctant to participate in the conversation; and there is the potential for groupthink to occur, which limits the information that is obtained (Fontana & Frey, 2005 in Hadziliadis, 2011). Dilshad and Latif (2013) assert that due to the nature of group conversation, some participants may conform to the responses of other participants, even though they may not agree. Hadziliadis (2011) argues that from the interviewer's standpoint, the group interview is more difficult to conduct than the individual interview and requires more practice and experience. Cohen et al. (2007) argue that focus groups require skilful facilitation and management by the researcher. The success of focus group discussion is affected if the moderator is not skilled in managing the group interaction (Dilshad & Latif, 2013). Cohen et al. (2007;376) sum up the FGD issues by saying; "they tend not to yield numerical, quantifiable or generalisable data; the data may be difficult to analyse succinctly; the number of people involved tends to be small; they may yield less information than a survey; and the group dynamics may lead to non-participation by some members and dominance by others for example, differentials may operate, the number of topics to be covered may be limited; intra group disagreement and even conflicts may arise; inarticulate members may be denied a voice; the data may lack overall reliability." The researcher consulted widely with other researchers who had used this technique on its use before the interviews. A trial run was conducted to check on the success of the interviewing skills. The contact persons in the selected schools assisted in the identification of learners who participated in the focus groups in this study.

3.6.5 Alignment of Research Items

Table 12 shows the alignment of research questions, research objectives, unit of analysis, research instruments and nature of data.

Table 3.12 Alignment of Research Items

Research Question	Research Objectives	Unit of analysis	Research Instrument	Nature of data
1. What are the views of teachers, parents and learners of the role of School-Based Assessment in the learning and teaching process?	1. Examine teachers', learners' and parents' views of the role of School-Based Assessment in the teaching and learning process.	-Teachers -Learners -Parents (SGB)chair	-Questionnaire -Interview -Focus Group Discussions	-QUAN -QUAL
2. What systems are in place to support the implementation of School-Based Assessment in schools?	2. To assess the systems in place to support the implementation of School-Based Assessment in SA schools.	Teachers -Learners -Parents (SGB)chair	-Questionnaire -Interview -Focus Group Discussions	-QUAN -QUA
3. How do teachers, parents and learners play complementary roles in the implementation of School-Based Assessment in schools?	3. To examine how teachers, parents and learners play complementary roles in the implementation of School-Based Assessment in SA schools.	Teachers -Learners -Parents (SGB)chair	-Questionnaire -Interview -Focus Group Discussions	-QUAN -QUA

4. What strategies can be used to enhance the implementation School-Based Assessment in schools?	4.To identify strategies to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment in schools	Teachers -Learners -Parents (SGB) chair	-Questionnaire -Interview -Focus Group Discussions	-QUAN -QUA
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Source; Author (2017)

3.7 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY (*Quantitative data*)

The purpose of establishing reliability and validity in research is essentially to ensure that data were sound and replicable, and the results are accurate (Mohajan, 2017). Reliability and Validity are essential criteria for quality in quantitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 in Zohrabi, 2013). Studies acknowledge that threats to the validity and reliability of a research exist at almost every turn in the research process. These threats can never be totally eliminated. Rather, they can only be minimised (Mohajan, 2017). An important part of social science research is the quantification of human behaviour that is, using measurement instruments such as a Questionnaire to observe human behaviour (Drost, 2011). The development of a valid and reliable Questionnaire is essential to reduce measurement error (Pandey, & Raghuvanshi, 2017). Ghazali (2016) justifies value of validity and reliability in her study, similar to the current study, by claiming that, a valid, reliable and practical instrument is needed to evaluate the implementation of the School-Based Assessment system. Figure 3.7 below shows a bird's eye view of the different forms of validity and reliability analysed in this study.

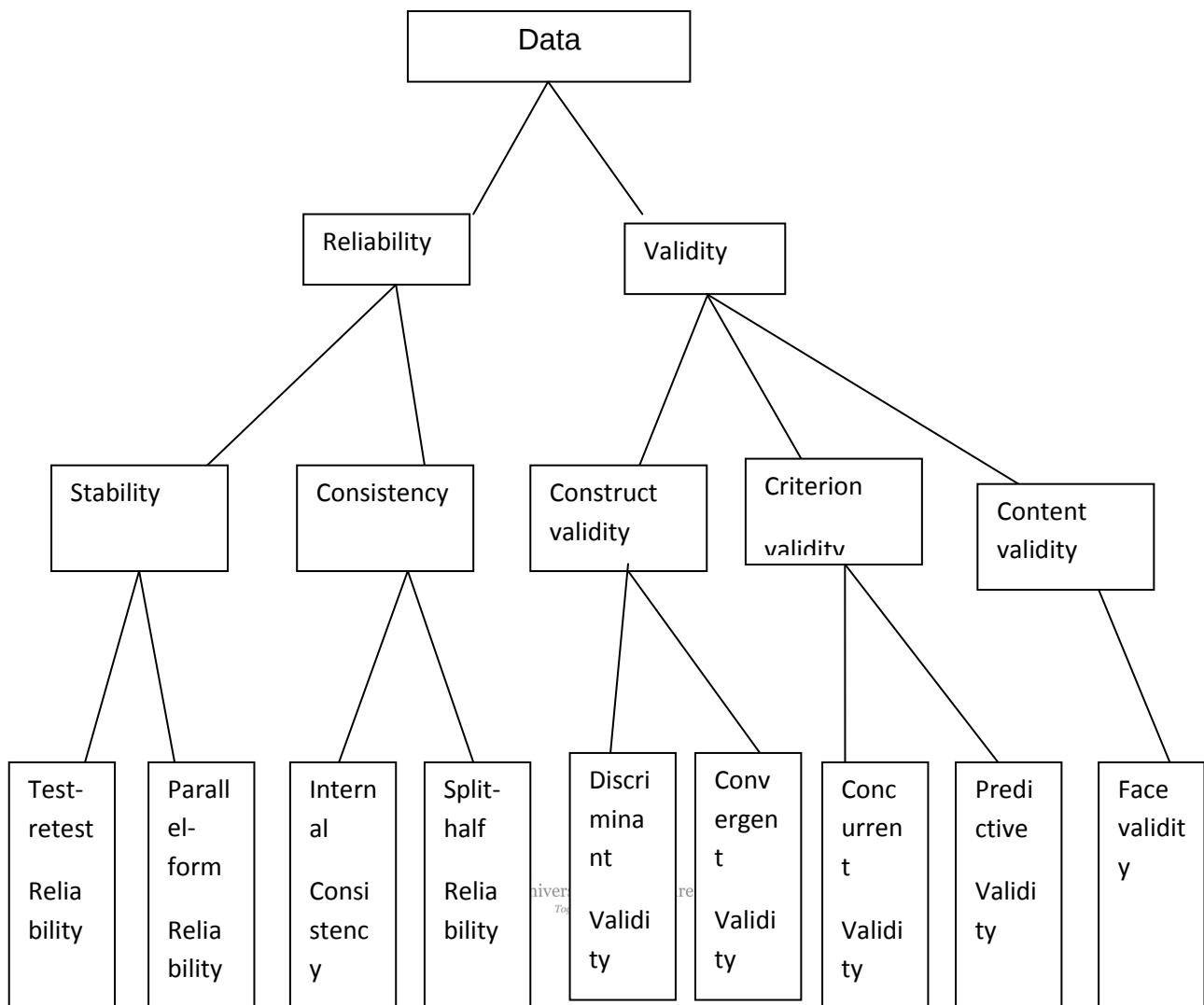


Figure 3.7: Forms of Validity and Reliability; Source: Bajpai and Bajpai (2014:113)

3.7.1 Reliability

Joppe (2000), in Golafshani (2003), defines reliability as the extent to which results are consistent over time and an accurate representation of the total population under study. Simply put, it is the ability of a research instrument to provide similar results when used repeatedly under similar conditions (Kumar, 2011). Drost (2011) says reliability is the extent to which measurements are repeatable, that is when different persons perform the measurements, on different occasions, under different conditions, with supposedly alternative instruments which measure the same thing. Sullivan (2011) posits that reliability is about an assessment instrument giving the same results each time it is used in the same setting with the same type of subjects.

In the same vein, Pandey and Raghuvanshi (2017) view reliability as the degree to which an assessment tool produces stable and consistent results. In quantitative research, reliability refers to the consistency, stability and repeatability of results, that is, the result of a researcher is considered reliable if consistent results have been obtained in identical situations but different circumstances (Twycross & Shields, 2004 in Mohajan, 2017). To ensure that Questionnaires consistently measure whatever they measure, a pilot test was conducted. In any research process reliability of the data and findings are of paramount importance. The purpose is not to attain the same results, but rather to agree that, based on the data collection processes, the findings and results were consistent and dependable (Zohrabi, 2013). Data obtained from behavioural research studies is influenced by random errors of measurement. The measurement errors come either in the form of systematic error or random error (Drost, 2011). Reliability reduces the chances of random errors in measurement and therefore yields consistent results by ensuring that measures are free from error (Lakshmi & Mohideen, 2013; Pandey & Raghuvanshi, 2017).

In the current study quantitative data were collected using a semi-structured Questionnaire as highlighted under section 3.6. To ensure that the Questionnaire and the data collected were free from both systematic and random errors a pilot test was conducted to guarantee internal consistency reliability. Data were collected from teachers and learners to ensure reliability. Reliability was assured through triangulation of research instruments, that is, the use of semi-structured Questionnaires, semi- structured interviews, and focus group discussions. Reliability of the Questionnaires was assessed by applying several techniques such as: test-retest reliability, alternative forms, split-halves, Cronbach's alpha, inter-rater reliability, and internal consistency (Bajpai & Bajpai, 2014; Drost, 2011; Mohajan, 2017). Figure 3.8 below illustrates techniques for assessing reliability or types of reliability to be analysed in this study

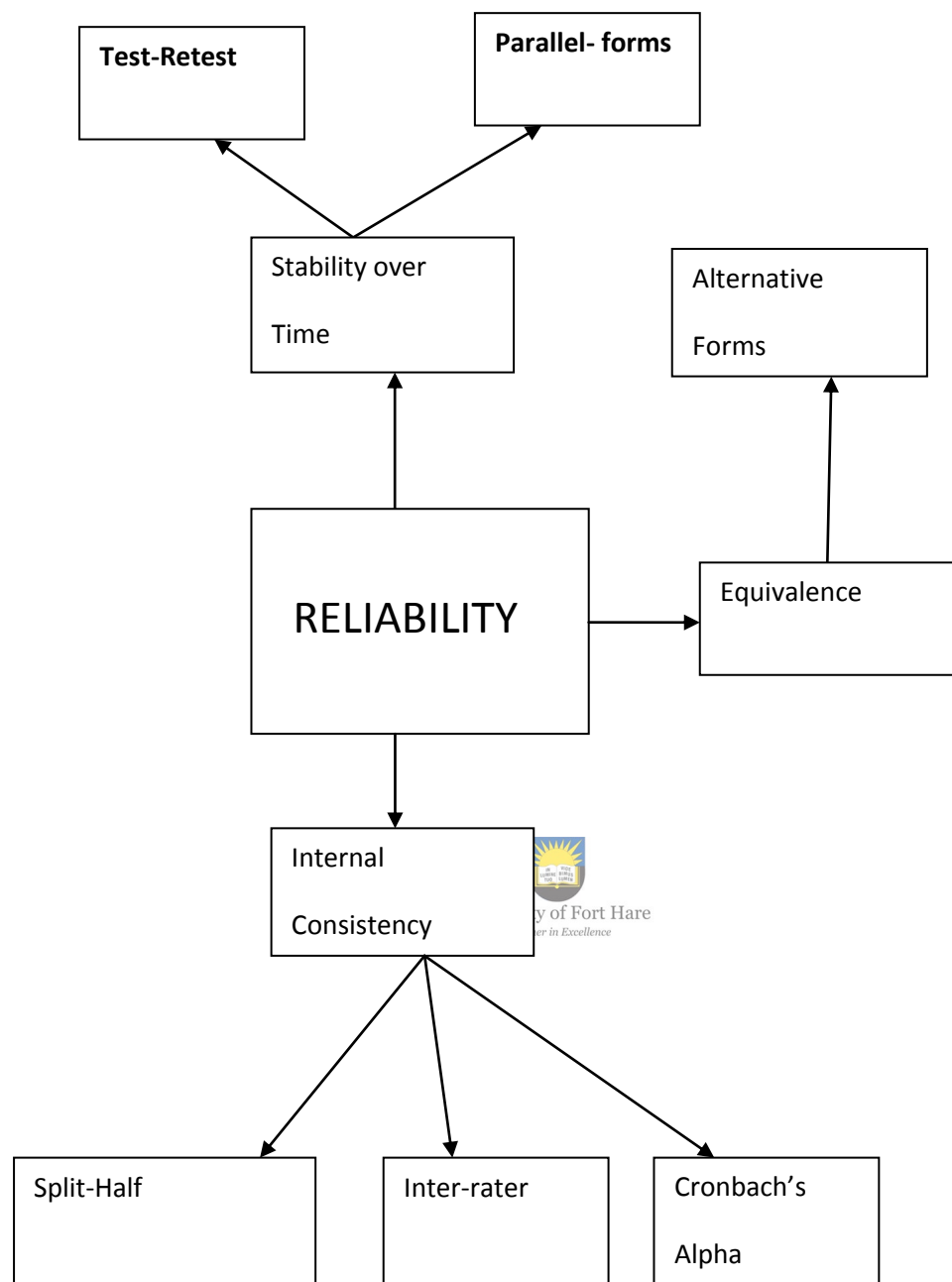


Figure 3.8: Types of Reliability. Source: Drost (2011:109).

3.7.1.1 Stability

Stability is defined as the ability of a measure to remain the same over time despite uncontrolled testing conditions or respondents. There are two methods to test stability which are test-retest reliability, and parallel-form reliability (Bajpai & Bajpai, 2014; Golafshani, 2003; Mohajan, 2017). Golafshani (2003) notes that an instrument

with a high degree of stability indicates a high degree of reliability, which means the results, are repeatable.

Test – retest reliability

Test-retest reliability, as one of the methods of testing the stability of an instrument, is a measure of reliability obtained by administering the same test twice over a period of time to a group of individuals (Mohajan, 2017; Pandey & Raghuvanshi, 2017; According to Drost (2011), the procedure is to administer the test to a group of respondents (Time 1) and then administer the same test to the same respondents at a later date (Time 2). The scores from Time 1 and Time 2 can then be correlated between the two separate measurements in order to evaluate the test for stability over time (Mohajan, 2017; Pandey & Raghuvanshi, 2017). Drost (2011) observes that the correlation between scores on the identical tests given at different times operationally defines its test-retest reliability. In the same vein, Bajpai and Bajpai (2014) say the correlation coefficient is calculated between two sets of data, and the higher it was, the better the test-retest reliability. Mohajan (2017) confirms that the test-retest reliability indicates score variation that occurs from testing session to testing session as a result of errors of measurement. In a quantitative research, a Questionnaire containing some items that are supposed to measure a concept, is administered to a set of respondents at two points in time ranging from few days to weeks or months, on the same respondents (Drost, 2011).

A few challenges have been identified which may affect the results of the test-retest. Rosenthal and Rosnow (1991), in Drost (2011), reveal that the period between the two tests may distort the results because the respondents could be exposed to things which changed their opinions, feelings or attitudes about the behaviour under study. If the interval between the first and second test is too short, respondents might remember what was on the first test and their answers on the second test could be affected by memory Drost (2011). Joppe (2000), in Golafshani (2003), calls this sensitising respondent to the subject matter which will eventually influence the responses given. Test-retest is measured as correlation with Pearson r (Sullivan, 2011).

Parallel-forms reliability

The second method for testing the stability of a Questionnaire is the parallel-forms reliability. Mohajan (2017) defines parallel-forms reliability as a measure of reliability obtained by administering different versions of an assessment tool to the same group of individuals. The scores from the two versions can then be correlated in order to evaluate the consistency of results across alternate versions (Mohajan, 2017). Parallel-form reliability is also similar to test-retest method except in the order or sequence of questions, or sometimes wording of questions, which is changed at second time (Bajpai and Bajpai 2014). In this study, semi-structured Questionnaires, in-depth interviews and focus groups were administered to learners and the results were correlated to show reliability.

3.7.1.2 Internal Consistency Reliability

Mohajan (2017) defines internal consistency as a measure of reliability used to evaluate the degree to which different test items that probe the same construct produce similar results. Internal consistency questions how well a set of items measures a particular behaviour or characteristic within the test in addition to measuring consistency within the instrument (Drost, 2011). In the same vein, Parmenter, Waller and Wardle (2000) in Deniz and Alsaffar (2013) view internal consistency as the extent to which all of the items in a scale measure the different aspects of the same attribute. Internal consistency, also known as homogeneity, may be measured by using either the split-half method, alternate-form method, or Cronbach's alpha method (Bajpai & Bajpai 2014; Lakshmi & Mohideen, 2013). Drost (2011) claims that coefficient alpha, often referred to as Cronbach's alpha, is the most popular method of testing for internal consistency in the behavioural sciences.

Inter-rater reliability

Inter- rater reliability is viewed as the level of agreement between raters or observers. The observation is that human observers do not necessarily interpret answers the same way; raters may disagree as to how well certain responses or material demonstrate knowledge of the construct or skill being assessed (Mohajan, 2017). Bajpai and Bajpai (2014) add that inter-rater reliability tests consistency of respondents' answers to all concepts, and they are correlated with one another. Reliability is therefore, determined by the coefficient of agreement of the judgments

of the raters, or the correlation of the scores from two or more independent raters (Mohajan, 2017). Teachers and learners, as participants in this study, completed a semi-structured Questionnaire to rate the implementation of School-Based Assessment in high schools and its impact on teaching and learning.

Split- half reliability

The split-half method is one that measures the degree of internal consistency by checking one half of the results of a set of scaled items against the other half (Lakshmi & Mohideen, 2013). It tests reliability by assuming that a number of items are available to measure behaviour and half of the items are combined to form one new measure and the other half is combined to form the second new measure (Drost, 2011). Split- half is part of Cronbach's coefficient alpha. According to Cronbach (1951), in Bajpai and Bajpai (2014), Cronbach's alpha is actually an average of all the possible split-half reliability estimates of an instrument. Mohajan (2017) concurs by stating that Cronbach's alpha (α) is the most common internal consistency measure which is usually interpreted as the mean of all possible split half coefficients.



Cronbach's alpha

A pilot study is defined as small scale test of the methods and procedures to be used on a large scale (Porta in Hazzi & Maldaon, 2015). They go on to state that, it can also be used check a particular research instrument. It checks a research instrument to ensure reliability of the scores obtained from the instrument. Drost (2011) asserts that reliability pertains to consistency of scores. Sharma (2016) says reliability is concerned with the ability of an instrument to measure consistently. Kimberlin and Winterstein (2008) note that pre-testing or pilot testing an instrument allows identification of the source of measurement error that can be detrimental to useful score interpretation. Bougie in Hazzi and Maldaon (2015), asserts that reliability can be expressed in terms of the stability and the consistency of (homogeneity) which the instrument measure the concept and help to assess the goodness of the measure. Cronbach's alpha is the most common measure for checking reliability (Field in Hazzi & Maldaon, 2015; Kamberlin & Winterstein, 2008; Lakshmi & Mohideen, 2013; Sullivan, 2011). It is represented by the Greek symbol (α). Alpha was first employed in 1951 by Lee Cronbach, and it presents a measure of internal

consistency of test or scales numerically treated between 0 and 1 (Bajpai & Bajpai, 2014; Mohajan, 2017; Sharma, 2016). According to Lakshmi and Mohideen (2013) there are three different measures of coefficient alpha; the most widely used measure being Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Lakshmi and Mohideen (2013) note that Cronbach's alpha is an average of all the possible split-half reliability estimates of an instrument and is a reliability coefficient that measures inter-item reliability or the degree of internal consistency between variables measuring one concept; that is the degree to which different item measuring the same variable attain consistent results. Hazzi and Maldaon (2015) observe that there are deep discussions among researchers with respect to acceptable values of Cronbach's alpha.

This study adopted the coefficient of alpha to observe the reliability of the instrument which, as given by Sharma (2016:273), is;

Cronbach's alpha	internal consistency
$\alpha \geq 0,9$	Excellent
$0,9 > \alpha \geq 0,8$	Good
$0,8 > \alpha \geq 0,7$	Acceptable
$0,7 > \alpha \geq 0,6$	Questionable
$0,6 > \alpha \geq 0,5$	Poor
$0,5 > \alpha$	Unacceptable



As the value of coefficient of alpha increases, the instrument tends to be more reliable. Cronbach (1951), in Mohajan (2017), asserts that alpha values above 0.7 are generally considered acceptable and satisfactory, above 0.8 are usually considered quite good, and above 0.9 are considered to reflect exceptional internal consistency.

In this study, Cronbach's alpha was calculated on values obtained using a Likert scale to measure respondents' perceptions by asking the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with a particular question or statement. The scale ranges were 5= Strongly agree, 4= Agree, 3= Neutral, 2= Disagree, and 1= Strongly disagree. Bajpai and Bajpai (2014) note that coefficient alpha is used during scale

development with items that have several response options that is 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Questionnaires were administered to 5 learners and 5 teachers within the cohort population in a different circuit. The results from the SPSS computation are shown in Table 3. 13 (a) and (b) below:

Table 3.13: Cronbach's alpha reliability of internal consistency for Likert scale results;

a) Teachers

Question	Items	α	Theme
6	11	0,8	Role of SBA in the teaching and learning process
8	5	0,2	Familiarity with SBA administrative structures
10	10	0,9	Support systems in the implementation of SBA
11	12	0,8	Complementarities of roles of Teachers, learners and parents
13	10	0,8	Strategies to enhance the implementation of SBA



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b) Learners

Question	Items	α	Theme
6	12	0,7	Role of SBA in the teaching and learning process
8	5	0,5	Familiarity with SBA administrative structures
10	12	0,9	Support systems in the implementation of SBA
12	10	0,4	Strategies to enhance the implementation of SBA

The coefficient alpha for teachers was between 0, 8 and 0, 9 which is acceptable according to Sharma (2016), except for question 8 which was unacceptable at 0,2. The coefficient alpha for learners showed two questions which were acceptable (0, 7 and 0, 9). Question 12 had an unacceptable alpha value of 0.4 possibly due to the inability of learners to comprehend the crafting of strategies. The other reason for the lack of internal consistency could have been the language not being pitched at the level of the learners. Pre-testing helps the inquirer, helps to detect flaws in the

measurement instrument Dikko (2016). Table 14 (a) and (b) below show the problems identified and how they were rectified.

Table 3.14: Problems identified and how they were rectified

a) Questionnaire for learners

Question	Section	Problem identified	Action taken
8	C	low internal consistency with a coefficient alpha of 0.53	Replaced word systems with structures in the sub heading. Removed word level and remain with structure in the table.
10	D	lack of consistency with other questions	Changed the numbering from letters to numbers .
12	E	low internal consistency with a coefficient alpha of 0.4	Removed the words that can be in the heading.
		Lack of consistency in the numbering	Changed the numbering from letters to numbers .
All	All	Poor understanding of the questions. inability of learners to comprehend the crafting of strategies	Translated the Questionnaire for learners so that it includes Siswati and English . A translation certificate will be provided.

b) Questionnaire for Teachers

Question	Section	Problem identified	Action taken
8	C	low internal consistency with a coefficient alpha of 0.2	Sub heading; Replaced systems with structures . Table; Removed word level and remain with structure .
		Lack of consistency in the numbering	Changed the numbering so that Extremely familiar become (5), Moderately familiar (4), Somewhat familiar (3), Slightly familiar (2) ND not at all familiar (1).
10	D	Lack of consistency in the numbering in other questions	Removed letters and replaced them with numbers on the complementary roles.
12	E	Lack of clarity of the question	Removed the words that can be in the heading. Removed letters and replaced with numbers on the Strategies .

The amendments made to the Questionnaire were necessitated by the input from the pilot on items with a low internal consistency reliability coefficient. Crocker and Algina (1986), in Bajpai and Bajpai (2014), attest that low internal consistency estimates are often the result of poorly written items or an excessively broad content

area of measure. The changes were therefore, done to improve clarity and correlation among the items to improve reliability of the data collected.

3.7.2 Validity

Pandey and Raghuvarshi (2017) define validity as how accurate a test measures what it is purported to measure. Sullivan (2011) in concurrence says that validity in research is how accurate a study answers the research question. Validity is a test of the extent to which an instrument measures the particular concept it is intended to measure (Bajpai & Bajpai, 2014; Drost, 2011; Golafshani, 2003; Sullivan, 2011). Robson (2011), in Mohajan (2017), says validity of a research instrument assesses how well the instrument measures what it is designed to measure. A valid measure, measures what it is supposed to measure, without accidentally including other factors (Lakshmi & Mohideen, 2013). Researchers ask a series of questions to determine validity, and look for the answers in the research of others (Golafshani, 2003). Zohrabi (2013) opines that validity is concerned with whether the research is true, believable, and evaluates what it purports to evaluate. Validity is the degree to which research results are truthful. Pallant (2011), in Mohajan (2017), affirms that validity requires research instrument (Questionnaire) to correctly measure the concepts under the study. In other words, “does the research instrument allow you to hit ‘the bull’s eye’ of your research object?” (Golafshani, 2003: 599). Validity is not necessarily on scores or items, but on inferences made from the instrument (Lakshmi & Mohideen, 2013). Different instruments are used to collect data, and it is imperative that the researcher ensures that the data and the instruments are validated (Zohrabi, 2013). Oliver (2010), in Mohajan (2017), argues that validity is a compulsory requirement for all types of research studies. In the same vein, Zohrabi (2013) attests that, it is up to the researcher and research participants to attempt to build validity into the different phases of the research, from data collection through to data analysis and interpretation. Bajpai and Bajpai (2014) notes that there is a whole host of validity typologies used to test the goodness of measures and writers use different terms to denote them. The current study focused on the three which are applied in the study. These are; construct validity, content validity and external validity.

3.7.2.1 Content Validity

Content validity is the extent to which the items on the instrument and the scores from the questions represent all possible questions that could be asked about the content or skill (Creswell, 2005 in Mohajan, 2017). Lakshmi and Mohideen (2013) say content validity considers whether or not the items on a given test accurately reflect the theoretical domain of the latent construct it claims to measure. Drost (2011) attests that it is a qualitative means of ensuring that indicators tap the meaning of a concept as defined by the researcher. Content validity gives the assurance that the Questionnaire includes an adequate and representative set of items that tap the concept (Bajpai & Bajpai, 2014; Mohajan, 2017). Statistically, a researcher cannot easily determine whether a measure adequately covers a content area. Thus, content validity depends on the judgment of experts in the field (Mohajan, 2017). In agreement Zohrabi (2013) says that experts in the field of research review the research instruments and the data. The reviewers make the judgements on the content validity of an instrument by making a rational analysis of the instrument, to review all of the items for readability, clarity and comprehensiveness; and to agree on items to include in the final Questionnaire (Bajpai & Bajpai, 2014). This was done in this study to ensure content validity. The feedback from the reviewers assisted in amending unclear and obscure questions and discarded ineffective and non-functioning questions (Mohajan, 2017; Zohrabi, 2013).

3.7.2.2 Construct validity

Bajpai and Bajpai (2014) view construct validity as how well the results obtained from the use of the measure fit the theories around which the test is designed. Trochim (2006), in Drost (2011), opines that construct validity is operationalisation, that is, how well the researcher translated the operationalisation or transformed a concept, idea, or behaviour (construct) into a functioning and operating reality. Construct validity is how aligned a measure is to the construct it purports to measure, and how it behaves with regard to established measures of other constructs (Lakshmi & Mohideen, 2013). Construct validity involves accumulating evidence in six validity typologies: face validity, content validity, concurrent and predictive validity, and convergent and discriminant validity (Bajpai & Bajpai, 2014;

Drost, 2011). Figure 3.9 below shows the types construct of validity of prominence in this study.

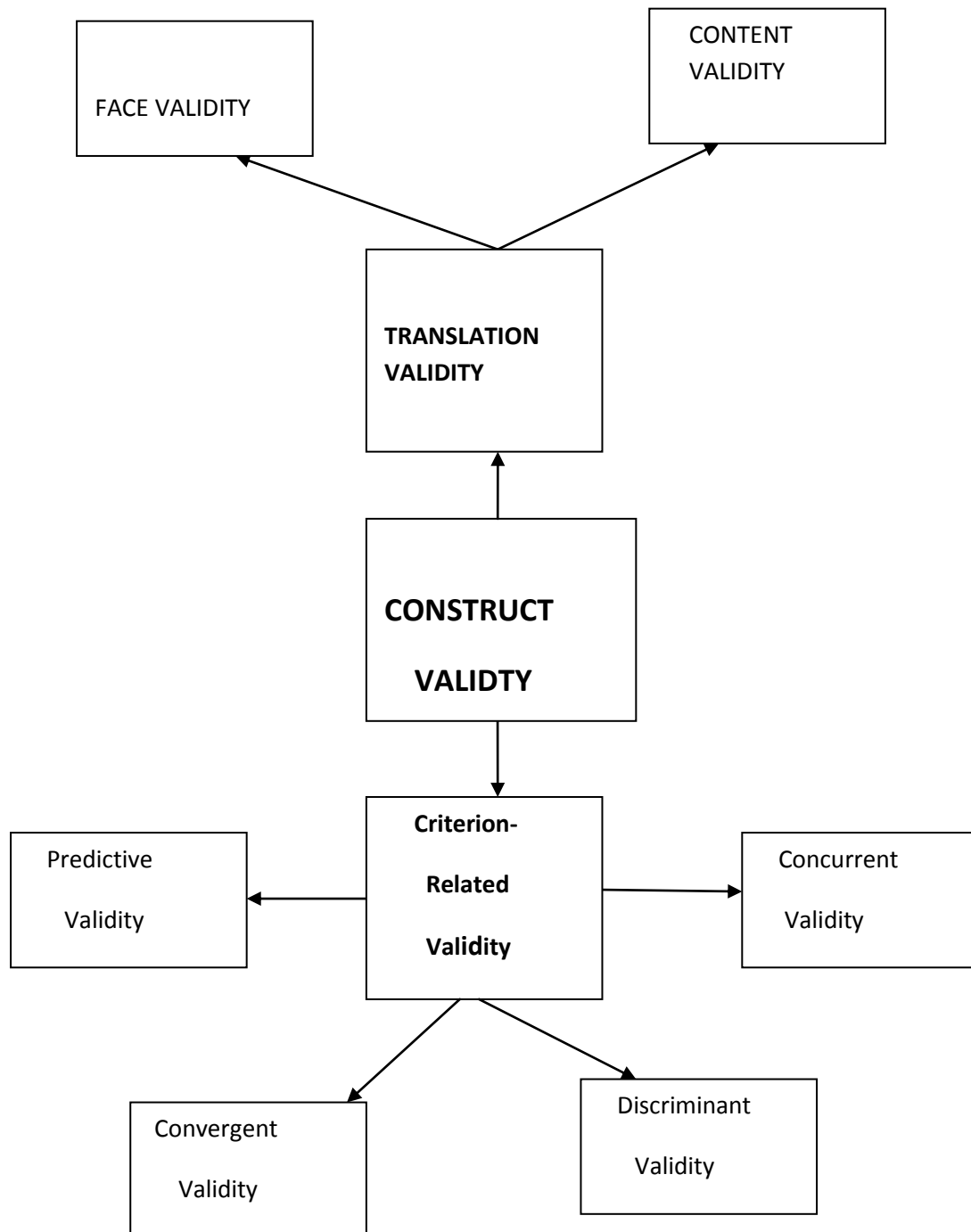


Figure 3.9 Types of Construct Validity; Source: Drost (2011:117)

3.7.2.3 External Validity

Zohrabi (2013) defines external validity as the applicability of the findings in other settings or with other subjects. Last (2001), in Mohajan (2017), says it shows whether the results given by the study are transferable to other groups of interest. External validity implies generalising the results of a study to other persons, settings, and times (Drost, 2011; Ihantola & Kihn, 2011; Burns, 1999 in Zohrabi, 2013). In concurrence, Lakshmi, and Mohideen (2013) note that external validity looks at whether the results given by the study are transferable to other groups (populations) of interest, which is referred to as generalisability. Ihantola and Kihn (2011) sum up by stating that external validity is generalisability and transferability. Mohajan (2017:15) identifies elements which a researcher can apply to increase external validity such as: “achieving representation of the population through strategies, such as, random selection; using heterogeneous groups; using non-reactive measures, and using precise description to allow for study replication or replicate study across different populations and settings.” These were pursued in this study to ensure external validity. Howell (1995), in Mohajan (2017), warns of biases and other limitations which exist in the accessible population as possible serious threats to external validity, the researcher needs to guard against in a study.

3.7.2.4 Measures to ensure validity

Validity ensures that research results are truthful. The researcher thus, needs to ensure that the processes are validated. First and foremost, the samples of participants were randomly selected through stratified random sampling. Large samples of 80 teachers and 60 learners were selected using stratified random sampling were the participants to provide quantitative data in this mixed methods study to ensure external validity of findings. Teddlie and Yu (2007) assert that stratified random sampling is ideal for the selection of a large sample. A semi-structured Questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data from the randomly selected sample to ensure generalisability of findings. The objective of drawing a sample is to make inferences about the larger population from the smaller sample (Jawale, 2012). Golafshani (2003) argues that the ability to generalise findings to wider groups and circumstances is one of the most common tests of validity. To overcome the problem of low return rate on the Questionnaire, contact persons were

used to facilitate the completion and return of the Questionnaires. The Questionnaire was pilot tested in other circuits to detect flows in the data collection instrument to ensure content validity. Content validity is examining questions of a research instrument to establish the extent of coverage of the area under study, and face validity is linking each question with the objective of the study (Kumar, 2003). The instruments were also presented to experts in the field of research for an expert opinion. Data were collected through several sources as Questionnaires, interviews and focus group discussions to strengthen the validity of findings in this mixed methods study (Zohrabi, 2013). The several sources implied several kinds of methods data such as quantitative and qualitative. Convergent triangulation design, adopted in this study, was used to mix the data and the findings to ensure construct design. Creswell and Miller (2000), in Golafshani (2003), define triangulation as a validity procedure where researchers search for convergence among multiple and different sources of information in a study. Convergent validity was assured in this study by triangulating quantitative and qualitative instruments during data collection.



3.8.3 DATA TRUSTWORTHINESS (Qualitative data)

According to Kalu and Bwalya (2017), qualitative research involves exploring complex phenomena that are difficult to measure with quantitatively. However, it is important that qualitative research is recognised as familiar and understood as legitimate by researchers, practitioners, policy makers, and the public at large (Nowell, Norris, White & Moules, 2017). Korstjens and Moser (2018:121) argue that, “qualitative researchers speak of trustworthiness, which simply poses the question ‘Can the findings to be trusted?’” Trustworthiness, according to Lincoln and Guba (1985) in Korstjens and Moser (2018), is the definition of quality criteria in qualitative research. “Trustworthiness is therefore, one way researchers can persuade readers that their research findings are worthy of attention” (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 in Nowell et al. 2017:3). Loh (2013) posits that, trustworthiness of research is a critical methodological issue that Lincoln and Guba (1985) give a lot of space in their influential work on Naturalistic Inquiry. After their work, researchers now view trustworthiness as a determinant of the quality of research (Marshall & Rossman,

2011 in Chowdhury, 2015). In a nutshell, trustworthiness of results is the bedrock of high-quality qualitative research (Birt, Scott, Cavers, Campbell & Walter, 2016).

Lincoln and Guba (1985) identify the now popular four criteria to judge validity and reliability, commonly referred to as trustworthiness of the qualitative data and findings (Kalu & Bwalya, 2017). Nowell et al. (2017) affirm that Lincoln and Guba (1985) refined the concept of trustworthiness by introducing the criteria of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability, to parallel the conventional quantitative assessment criteria of validity and reliability. To describe rigour (trustworthiness) in qualitative research, researchers now promote the use of alternative terminologies such as dependability, credibility, conformability and transferability; instead of their quantitative equivalents reliability, internal validity, objectivity and generalisability respectively (Anney, 2014; Hadi & Closs, 2016; Kalu & Bwalya, 2017; Morrow, 2005; Shenton, 2004). Table 15 below illustrates the highlighted differences.

Table 3.15: Aspect of “Trustworthiness (Quantitative vs. Qualitative)



Aspect /Issue	Scientific term (Qualitative)	Naturalistic term (Qualitative)
Truth value	Internal validity	Credibility
Applicability	External validity or generalisability	Transferability
Consistency	Reliability	Dependability
Neutrality	Objectivity	Confirmability

Source: Guba (1981) in Chowdhury (2015:148)

3.8.3.1 Credibility

Lincoln and Guba (1985), in Shenton (2004), argue that ensuring credibility is one of most important factors in establishing trustworthiness. Korstjens and Moser (2018) define credibility as the confidence that can be placed in the truth of the research findings. The point is that, credibility establishes whether or not the research findings represent plausible information drawn from the participants’ original data, and was a

correct interpretation of the participants' original views (Lincoln & Guba, 1985 in Anney, 2014; Korstjens & Moser, 2018). In the same vein, Lincoln and Guba (1985), in Kalu and Bwalya (2017), assert that, credibility is the accuracy of findings and how the researcher attempts to demonstrate that a true picture of the phenomenon being investigated is presented. The main idea from the different lenses is that qualitative research findings need to be believable and edible to their consumers because of qualitative research's high susceptibility to researcher bias. Creswell and Miller (2000) opine that qualitative researchers use a lens not based on scores, instruments, or research designs but a lens established using the views of people who conduct, participate in, or read and review a study. Merriam (1998) in Shenton (2004) asserts that credibility looks at the congruence of the findings of a qualitative research study with reality. To attain credibility, researchers need to establish confidence in the truth of the findings of a particular inquiry and the context in which the inquiry was carried out (Guba, 1981 in Moon, Brewer, Januchowski-Hartley, Adams & Blackman, 2016). Credibility looks at the issue of whether consistency exists between the views of the participants and the researcher's representation of them (Ryan, Coughlan, Cronin, 2007 in Kalu & Bwalya, 2017). Credibility is an attempt by researchers to verify the accuracy of research findings in an effort to show that a true portrait of the phenomenon under investigation is being presented (Shenton, 2004 in Chowdhury, 2015).

The credibility of the current study was achieved by using various methods such as interviews and focus group discussion which are appropriate methods within the qualitative research, and are well recognised research methods (Kreuger & Casey 2009; Padgett, 2016 in Kalu, & Bwalya, 2017). The researcher made an effort to remain as neutral as possible by avoiding giving opinions while conducting interviews or focus group discussions (Timmins, 2006; Jootun, 2009 in Kalu, & Bwalya, 2017). Interviews and focus group discussions were tape recorded and transcribed verbatim to enhance accuracy of the data (Bryman, 2008, Goodman & Evans, 2010, Krippendorff, 2013 in Kalu, & Bwalya, 2017). Transcripts were compared with audio-recordings to ensure accuracy of the data capture (Krippendorff, 2013 in Kalu, & Bwalya, 2017).

3.8.3.2 Transferability

Transferability is the extent to which the results of qualitative research can be transferred to other contexts or settings with other respondents (Korstjens & Moser, 2018; Pandey & Pandey, 2014). Transferability is also how well the findings of a qualitative research fit outside the study situation (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Marshall & Rossman, 2014; Noble & Smith, 2015 in Kalu & Bwalya, 2017). However, the level of researcher involvement in qualitative research makes it difficult to determine the degree to which the findings of a particular inquiry may have applicability in other contexts or with other subjects (respondents) (Guba, 1981 in Moon et al. 2016). Houghton et al. (2013) in Kalu and Bwalya (2017) argue that all good research needs to produce some ideas and results that can be applied generally. The qualitative researcher needs to be concerned more with the richness and depth of the data and making sure that the findings can be transferable and have some relevance when applied to other contexts, situations, or individuals. Shenton (2004), in Chowdhury (2015), adds that sufficient detail of the context of the fieldwork should be provided for a reader to be able to decide whether the prevailing environment is similar to another situation with which he or she is familiar, and whether the findings can justifiably be applied to the other setting. Transferability by a potential user has to be facilitated by the researcher through thick description (Korstjens & Moser, 2018). “Sufficient thick description of the phenomenon under investigation must be provided to allow readers to have a proper understanding of it, thereby enabling them to compare the instances of the phenomenon described in the research report with those that they have seen emerge in their situations” (Shenton, 2004:70) Transferability of qualitative findings in the current study will be ensured through thick descriptions of the School-Based Assessment implementation issues. Purposeful sampling was used to select Learners and parents who participated in the focus group discussions and interviews (Bitsch, 2005 in Anney, 2014).

3.8.3.3 Dependability

Dependability is defined as the stability of the research findings and the researcher’s attempt to account for any changing condition in the phenomenon of study, design or methodology, as appropriate (Lincoln & Guba, 1985; Houghton et al. 2013 in Kalu & Bwalya, 2017). Korstjens and Moser (2018) opine that dependability involves

participants' evaluation of the findings, interpretation and recommendations of the study, such that results are supported by the data as received from participants of the study. Guba (1981) in Moon et al. (2016) says dependability focuses on the issue of determining whether the findings of an inquiry would be consistently repeated if the inquiry were replicated with the same (or similar) subjects (respondents) in the same (or similar) context. Shenton (2004) asserts that the processes within the study should be reported in detail to address the dependability issue more directly, to enable future researchers to repeat the work and gain the same results. The key issue is that the process through which findings are derived should be explicit and repeatable as much as possible (Morrow, 2005). Some researchers have suggested that dependability is difficult to predict in a changing social world (Silverman, 2016 in Kalu & Bwalya, 2017). In this study, dependability was assured by giving the reader sufficient information to determine how dependable the study and the researcher was (Ryan et al. 2007 in Kalu & Bwalya, 2017). Triangulation, audit trail and peer examination were also applied to ensure dependability of findings.

3.8.3.4 Confirmability



Confirmability was concerned with establishing that data and interpretations of the findings are not figments of the inquirer's imagination, but was clearly derived from the data (Korstjens & Moser, 2018; Tobin & Begley, 2004 in Anney, 2014). Pandey and Pandey (2014) note that confirmability can be seen as a degree of neutrality or the extent to which the findings of a study are shaped by the respondents and not researcher bias, motivation, or interest. Morrow (2005) says confirmability is premised on the perspective that the integrity of findings lies in the data and that the researcher must adequately tie together the data, analytic processes, and findings in such a way that the reader is able to confirm the adequacy of the findings. Confirmability involves steps taken by the researcher to demonstrate that findings emerge from the data and not their own predispositions (Shenton, 2004; Anney, 2014 in Kalu & Bwalya, 2017). In short, confirmability is the degree to which the results of an inquiry could be confirmed or corroborated by other researchers (Baxter & Eyles, 1997 in Anney, 2014; Korstjens & Moser, 2018). Confirmability establishes the degree to which the findings of an inquiry are a function, solely of the subjects (respondents) and conditions of the inquiry and not of the biases, motivations,

interests, perspectives of the inquirer (Guba 1981 in Moon, et al. 2016). Confirmability is based on the acknowledgment that research is never objective (Morrow, 2005). Shenton (2004) advises that steps be taken to ensure that, as far as possible, the work's findings are the result of the experiences and ideas of the informants, rather than the characteristics and preferences of the researcher. Ryan et al. (2007), in Kalu and Bwalya (2017), says confirmability is achieved by ensuring credibility, transferability, and dependability. Triangulation was used in this study to promote confirmability and, reduce the effect of investigator bias (Shenton, 2004). Audit trail was also engaged for a detailed account of the research processes to be provided to ensure confirmability of the study (Kalu & Bwalya, 2017).

3.8.3.5 Techniques/ Strategies used to ensure dependability, credibility, and transferability in qualitative studies

The qualitative rigour of an inquiry is established by adopting and applying a number of strategies or techniques. There is a plethora of techniques that can be used to ensure credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability in qualitative studies. Methodological techniques accorded prominence and used in this study were; audit trail, member checking, peer examination, interview technique, triangulation, prolonged engagement with participants, theoretical/purposive sampling, and peer debriefing studies (Anney, 2014; Hadi & Closs, 2016).

Member checks

Member checking is a process of validating, verifying or assessing the trustworthiness of qualitative results (Doyle, 2007 in Birt, et al. 2016). Member checks refer to checking of study findings and conclusions by the respondents from whom the data (interview, observation) were originally obtained (Long & Johnson, 2000 in Hadi & Closs, 2016). Creswell and Miller (2000) assert that in member checking, the validity procedure shifts from the researchers to participants in the study. The process was that, the analysed and interpreted data were sent back to the participants for them to evaluate the interpretation made by the inquirer and to suggest changes if they are unhappy with it or if they have been misreported (Anney, 2014; Birt, et al. 2016 Creswell & Miller, 2000). Informants are asked to read any transcripts of dialogues in which they have participated (Shenton, 2004). The focus of member checking is to ensure dependability and credibility of qualitative studies

(Hadi & Closs, 2016). Member checks also assist in eliminating researcher bias when analysing and interpreting the results. This is done through actively involving the research participant in checking and confirming the results (Anney, 2014; Birt, et al. 2016).

Prolonged engagement

Prolonged engagement is a validity procedure in which the researcher stays at the research site for a prolonged period of time (Creswell & Miller, 2000). Anney (2014) affirms that prolonged engagement in the fieldwork assists the researcher to understand the core issues that might affect the quality of the data because it helps to develop trust with study participants. The process assists the researcher to gain an insight into the context of the study, which minimises the distortions of information that might arise due to the presence of the researcher in the field (Anney, 2014). In the current study the researcher spent much time in schools with learners and parents during focus group discussions and interviews respectively.

Steps taken to ensure honesty



A number of steps were taken to help ensure honesty in informants when contributing during focus group discussions. First, participants were given an opportunity to refuse to participate to ensure that the data collection sessions involve only those who are genuinely willing to take part and prepared to offer data freely. Second, participants were encouraged to be frank from the onset and assured that there is no right or wrong answer to the questions asked. Third, participants were given the right to withdraw from the study at any point, and no explanation would be given to the investigator (Shenton, 2004). These were laid out as ground rules during the focus group discussions in this study.

Triangulation

Triangulation is a widely used method to ensure credibility and conformability of qualitative studies (Creswell, 2006 in Hadi & Closs, 2016). Creswell and Miller (2000) define triangulation as a validity procedure where researchers search for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study. Triangulation involved the use of different data collection methods, especially observation, focus groups and individual interviews, which form

the major data collection strategies for qualitative research (Shenton, 2004). Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007), in Anney (2014), say triangulation may involve the use of multiple and different methods, investigators, sources and theories to obtain corroborating evidence, to assist the investigator to reduce bias and to cross examine the integrity of participants' responses. Shenton (2004) adds that triangulation may involve the use of a wide range of informants. A major advantage was that triangulation involving at least two related data sources, data collection methods or researchers reduces inherent bias associated with a single source, method or researcher (Long & Johnson, 2000 in Hadi & Closs, 2016). The other advantage was that individual viewpoints and experiences can be verified against others and, ultimately, a rich picture of the attitudes, needs or behaviour of those under scrutiny may be constructed based on the contributions of a range of people (Shenton, 2004). In this study, different research instruments, such as focus group discussions and face to face interviews, were used to generate qualitative data. Various informants in learners and SGB chairpersons provided their views on their experiences of the SBA implementation issues. Data from the different methods and informants were triangulated to ensure  credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability of the data and findings.

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Do Theoretical/Purposive Sampling

Purposive sampling is defined as a strategy for selecting participants based on specific purposes associated with answering a research study's questions (Teddlie & Yu, 2007). Purposive sampling assists the researcher to focus on key informants, who are particularly knowledgeable about the issues under investigation (Schutt, 2006 in Anney, 2014). In this study, the SGB chairperson was purposively selected for his/ her knowledge of school policies, including policy on the implementation of School - Based Assessment. Learners were purposively selected based on performance to facilitate provision of information on school - based assessment issues

Use of peer debriefing

To enhance credibility, transferability, dependability and confirmability of the research findings, the researcher sought support from other professionals willing to provide scholarly guidance. In the peer examination or peer debriefing the

researcher discussed his/her research process and findings with neutral colleagues, such as doctoral students who were either doing qualitative research or had experience with qualitative research. This form of feedback from peers went a long way in assisting the researcher to improve the quality of the inquiry findings (Anney, 2014).

Table 16 below shows a summarised view of Lincoln and Guba's trustworthiness criteria and the techniques for achieving them.

Table 3.16: Lincoln and Guba's (1985) trustworthiness criteria and techniques for establishing them

Criteria	Techniques
Credibility	Prolonged engagement Persistent observation Triangulation (sources, methods, investigators) Tactics to help ensure honesty in informants; Peer debriefing Member checks
Transferability	Thick description Provision of background data to establish context of study and detailed description of phenomenon in question to allow comparisons to be made.
Dependability	Overlap methods (Triangulation of methods) Dependability audit - examining the process of the inquiry (how data were collected; how data were kept; accuracy of data)
Confirmability	Confirmability audit

	- examining the product to attest that the findings, interpretations& recommendations are supported by data Triangulation to reduce effect of investigator bias;
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Source: Loh (2013:5); Shenton (2004:73).

3.9 DATA COLLECTION

The findings of any study are hinged on solidity of the data collected. In the current mixed methods study, both qualitative and quantitative data were collected concurrently but in phases, to enhance data trustworthiness. In the first phase, quantitative data were collected from teachers and learners who completed a semi-structured Questionnaire. In the second phase, qualitative data were gathered through face to face interviews and focus group discussions with SGB chairpersons and learner participants respectively.



3.9.1 Data collection procedures

After the sampling procedures to identify the participating schools, the six sampled schools were visited and Questionnaires distributed. This gave the inquirer an opportunity to interact with the respondents and explain how to complete the Questionnaires. Volunteer contact persons were identified at each school. The inquirer used the opportunity to inform the schools of the second phase of the data collection process which involved focus group discussions and interviews with learner and SGB chairpersons. Contact details of SGB chairpersons were collected to facilitate the scheduling of the interviews. The second phase, the focus group discussions and the interviews, took a month to conduct. Completed Questionnaires were collected during the second phase. Interviews with SGB chairpersons were conducted during weekends at their convenience.

3.10 DATA ANALYSIS

Data analysis is a process of making raw data meaningful after proper treatment (Singh, 2006). The data were raw before treatment which was inspecting, cleansing, transforming and modelling the data to reveal useful information. Creswell (2009) says analysis of data is carried out in both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Starks and Trinidad (2007) in Nowell, Norris, White, and Moules (2017) argue that, the researcher becomes the instrument for analysis, making judgments about coding, theming, decontextualising, and recontextualising the data during data analysis. In the current mixed methods study, qualitative and qualitative data were collected and analysed to obtain information needed to answer the research questions. A mixed analysis was used to analyse data in this mixed research, and it involved the use of both quantitative and qualitative analytical techniques within the same framework (Onwuegbuzie & Combs, 2011). Open ended items in the semi-structured Questionnaire for teachers, face to face interviews with SGB chairpersons, and focus group discussions with learners gathered qualitative data. Quantitative data were generated from responses to closed ended items in the semi-structured Questionnaire for teachers and learners. Mixed data were gathered from the mixed questions in the semi-structured Questionnaire. Concurrent mixed data analyses of qualitative and quantitative data were employed in this study.

3.10.1 Analysis of quantitative data

Quantitative data from semi-structured Questionnaires was analysed with descriptive statistics such as percentages, mean, standard deviation, (Singh, 2006). Descriptive statistics were used to summarise and compare the data. Tables were used to present quantitative data. Inferential statistics, such as Chi-square, was applied to draw generalisations from the sample data. Chi-square was used to measure the strength of relationships (Salkind, 2011). In this study, Chi-square was used to determine the strength of the relationship of the responses of teachers and learners. Computer software programmes, SPSS version 21 and Excel, were applied in the statistical analysis of data.

3.10.2 Analysis of qualitative data

Qualitative data analysis involves organising and explaining the data; in short, making sense of data in terms of how participants define the situation, noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities (Cohen et al. 2007). Qualitative data were manually analysed, and it involved transcription, coding and development of themes. Transcription of recorded interviews included denaturalising the data through removing the actual expressions and remaining with the content (Oliver, Serovich & Mason, 2005 in Wahyuni, 2012). Content analysis was used to interpret meaning from textual data which involved cutting the collected texts into pieces and logically recombining them based on the research questions and research aims (Wahyuni, 2012).

Coding was part of data transformation, which involves creating codes and themes qualitatively, then counting the number of times they occur in the text data or possibly the extent of talk about a code or theme by counting lines or sentences (Creswell, 2009). Smith and Davies (2010), in Theron (2015), say coding does not constitute the totality of data analysis, rather it was a method to organise the data so that underlying messages portrayed by the data may become clearer to the researcher. Through coding, data were linked to an idea and richer meanings, categories, themes and concepts generated from the data (Saldaña, 2013 in Theron, 2015). The development of themes was thematic analysis, which was an interpretive process whereby data were systematically searched to identify patterns within the data in order to provide an illuminating description of the phenomenon (Smith, & Firth, 2011). Thematic analysis, also viewed as a method for identifying, analysing, organising, describing, and reporting themes found within a data set (Braun & Clarke, 2006 in Nowell et al. 2017). Regrettably, thematic analysis seems to: lack depth, fragment phenomena being studied, be subjective, and lack transparency in relation to the development of themes, which results in difficulties when judging the rigour of the findings (Attride-Stirling, 2001 in Smith & Firth, 2011). Qualitative data generated from the open-ended questions in the semi-structured Questionnaire, interviews and focus group discussions was subjected to a thematic analysis. Themes were quantified so that the finding could be described and compared to

establish relationships. Themes established were also assessed to establish convergence or divergence of views of teachers, learners and parents on the implementation of School-Based Assessment and its impact on teaching and learning.

3.10.3 Analysis of mixed data

Since the current study was located in the mixed methods paradigm, the concurrent mixed methods analysis, skewed to the parallel approach, was utilised. Analyses of both qualitative and quantitative data were applied separately up to the interpretation, and then results were compared and integrated. Mixed data sets were obtained from the semi-structured Questionnaire.

3.11 ETHICAL ISSUES

Qualitative and quantitative research involves collecting data from participants and respondents, usually people. This calls for the need for ethical conduct when conducting research. Researchers have a responsibility to ensure that they recognise and protect the rights and general wellbeing of their participants, regardless of the nature of their research (Research and Enterprise Development Centre (REDC), 2014). Halai (2006) says sound research is a moral and ethical endeavour, and should be concerned with ensuring that the interest of those participating in a study are not harmed as a result of research being done. Ethical considerations in research include free and informed consent, confidentiality and anonymity, avoiding harm, and permission to conduct the study (Cohen et al. 2007; Marczyk, DeMatteo & Festinger, 2005 in REDC, 2014). Clearance was sought from the Faculty of Research Ethics Committee and the Institutional Research Ethics Committee of the University of Fort Hare. Permission was sought from Mpumalanga Provincial Department of Education, Education Director for Ehlanzeni district, Circuit manager White river circuit and selected Principals of schools in the sample. Letters of request were sent to relevant offices seeking permission to conduct this study.

3.11.1 Informed and voluntary consent

Informed consent comes from the acknowledgement for autonomy, which gives an individual the right to determine their own course of action in accordance with their own wishes and plans (Marczyk et al, 2005 in REDC, 2014). Researchers are expected to obtain informed consent from those who are directly involved in the research. This involves providing sufficient information about the nature of the research, the procedures involved, and objectives of the study, potential risks and benefits. In this study, written consent forms were signed by the department, schools principals, teachers, learners and their parents. The clause that participation is voluntary and participants have a right to withdraw from the study was included on all the instruments.

3.11.2 Privacy and confidentiality

Privacy and confidentiality gives the participants the freedom to decide the time, extent and circumstances under which they withhold or share information (Marczyk et al. 2005 in REDC, 2014). Confidentiality and anonymity of information shared was assured by not revealing the identity of the individuals involved in this study. Where names were used, participants were protected by the use of pseudonyms. Where names appeared in tape recorded interviews, they were deleted during data cleaning.

3.11.3 Harm and benefits to participants

According to the harm and benefits principle, the researcher was expected to provide the participants with an outline of risks and benefits involved in the study (Halai, 2006). Modern research ethics require a favourable harm-effect balance so that foreseeable harms should not outweigh anticipated benefits (Marczyk et al. 2005 in REDC, 2014). In this study, the researcher provided information about risks and benefits in a brief write up attached to the consent form. The professional association code of ethics was consulted and honoured. Participants and respondents were assured of the guaranteed physical and emotional safety by respecting their culture, religion and gender persuasions.

3.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Chapter three of this mixed methods study focused on the research methodology located in the pragmatic paradigm. A mixed methods approach was adopted, guided by the concurrent triangulation design. The ontological, epistemological, axiological and methodological underpinnings were unpacked and contextualised. Qualitative, quantitative and mixed data sets were gathered from multiple data collection techniques such as semi-structured Questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions. Stratified random sampling was used to select the sample to provide quantitative data, while purposive sampling was used to select the sample for qualitative data. Mixed data were obtained from both samples. Reliability and validity of quantitative data were assured through specific techniques. In the same vein, trustworthiness of qualitative data was guaranteed by observing credibility, dependability, transferability and confirmability. Data analysis procedures for all data sets were discussed. Measures to ensure compliance with research ethics were identified. Chapter four focused on presentation and analysis of the findings of all data sets.



CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

4.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to examine the implementation of School-Based Assessment in SA schools to enhance teaching and learning. This chapter dealt with the presentation, analysis, interpretation and discussion of quantitative and qualitative data collected from participants and respondents in the previous chapter. Quantitative data were gathered from teacher and learner respondents who completed a semi-structured Questionnaire. The focus of the Questionnaire was to collect data to answer the research question. The Questionnaire was divided into five sections. The first section collected demographic data which assisted in validating the study since the demographics of the sample had to be a reflection of the population. Sections B to E were guided and directed by the research objectives, each collecting information to answer a specific research question. Schools were divided into public and private before the random sampling. A total of 60 Questionnaires were administered to a randomly selected sample of teachers from the public and private of schools and 53 were completed and returned, giving a return rate of 88%. Eighty Questionnaires were distributed to grade 11 learners and 68 were returned translating into a return rate of 85%. See Tables 3.9 and 3.11 in chapter three for representativeness of sample. Researchers must fully understand the population studied by ensuring that representative data were collected (Bumgardner, Montague & Weidendeck, 2016). Response rates of 88% and 85% for teachers and learners respectively, obtained in this study, assured useful results which could be generalised to the population with high confidence. However, it was difficult to obtain 100% response rate when conducting a survey and there was no agreed upon norm as to how high the response for a given study needs to be (Baruch, 1999 in Bumgardner et al. 2016: 85).

The issue of return rates and the quality or validity of a study has been quite contentious. Morton, Bandara and Robinson (2012:107) opine that, "It would appear

that a response rate alone may no longer be sufficient evidence to judge study quality and/or validity, and perhaps should never have been accepted as a suitable single proxy measure for all measures of study validity.” What a reasonable response rate was the question to ask in survey-based research. Morton et al. (2012) assert that some studies with as low a response rate as 20%, were able to yield more accurate results than studies with response rates of 60% to 70%. In the current study, qualitative data were collected from face to face interviews with SGB chairpersons and focus group discussions with learners. Six out of eight focus group discussions were conducted with learners, and five out of six of the SGB chairpersons were interviewed. These return rates were high to guarantee results which are accurate; useful, and with high external validity for inferences to be made to the target population.

4.2 BIOGRAPHIC DATA FOR TEACHER AND LEARNER RESPONDENTS AND PARTICIPANTS

Demographic data helped the researcher to better understand those who have been surveyed, and allows the researcher to look for any patterns in how different communities were impacted by the issue being studied. In a survey, demographic data of respondents has a very important role to play in expressing and giving the responses about the issue under study, and can be used to draw comparisons among respondents. Hughes, Camden and Yangchen (2016) say that personnel characteristics of respondents have a very significant role to play in expressing and giving the responses about the problem. In this study, responses on gender, age, qualification and experience were analysed to show the dependence of the views of teachers, learners and parents on the implementation of School-Based Assessment in high schools on the biographic characteristics of respondents. Abdelal, Herrera, Johnston, & McDermott, 2009 in Hughes et al. (2016:138) opine that among the reasons for collecting demographic data were;

“to collect information to answer research questions, which can involve analysing demographic information to determine if identity is causing an individual to do a specific thing or is something causing an individual to adopt a certain identity. To accurately describe the sample to determine if the

participants who responded represent the population the researcher wanted to study.....”

Below is the biographic data for the teacher and learner respondents and participants who provided the data for this study.

4.2.1 Teacher respondents

Table 4.1 shows the biographic data for teacher respondents who provided quantitative data for this study.

Table 4.1 Biographic characteristics of teacher respondents (N=53)

Aspect	Description	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	32	60.4
	Female	21	39.6
Total		53	100
Age	Below 25	1	1.9
	25-30	8	15.1
	31-35	4	7.5
	36-40	6	11.3
	41-45	10	18.9
	46-50	11	20.8
	51-55	11	20.8
	Above 55	2	3.8
Total		53	100
Academic Qualification	Matric	3	5.7
	Bachelor's degree	41	77.4
	Master's degree	1	1.9
	Others	8	15.1
Total		53	100
Highest Professional Qualification	Certificate	4	7.5
	Diploma	33	62.3
	Others	16	30.2
Total		53	100
Teaching experience	Less than 1 year	0	0
	1-5 years	10	18.9
	6-10 years	8	15.1
	11-15 years	8	15.1

	16-20 years	7	13.2
	More than 20 years	20	37.7
Total		53	100

Table 4.1 indicates that 32 (60.4%) teacher respondents were males while 21 (39.6%) were females. The study was delimited to collect data from teachers and was premised on the assumption that gender does not have an influence on the views of respondents and participants. This assumption was contrary to Samsudin et al.'s (2014) finding that female teachers experience higher levels of workload in implementing SBA as compared to their male counterparts. In terms of age, 22(41.6%) teachers were above the age of forty-six. Teacher qualification indicate that 41(77%) and 49(93.5%) of the teachers have Bachelors' Degree and Diploma respectively. Only 1(1.9%) has Masters degree a statistic which needs urgent attention from the DBE because literature reveals that, those who succeeded in the implementation of SBA have invested more in the development of teacher skills (Darling-Hammond & Wentworth, 2010). Teachers who participated in this survey were academically and professionally qualified. This was contrary to the literature reviewed which revealed inadequate professional knowledge for teachers (Maile, 2013; Lumadi, 2013; Polia, 2009; Xule, 2013). In terms of teaching experience, 27 (50.9%) of the teachers had been teaching for more than sixteen years, a period long enough to provide reliable information on the implementation of School-Based Assessment.

4.2.2 Learners respondents and participants

The biographic data for learner respondents and participants is shown in Tables 4.2 and 4.3 below.

Table 4.2 Biographic characteristics of learner respondents and participants (N=68)

Aspect	Description	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	32	47.1
	Female	36	52.9
Total		68	100
Age	Below 15 years	2	2.9
	16-17 years	38	55.9
	18 and above	28	41.2
Total		68	100

Table 4.2 shows the statistics for learners comprising 32 (47.1%) males and 36 (52.9%) females. The statistics for learners were in tandem with Stats SA (2016) Report that there were more female than male learners attending in both public and private schools. The majority of the learners, 66 (97.1%) were between the ages of 16 and 18 years. Learner ages corresponded with policy requirements of age limit of 18 years at Matric. At the age of 18 years, learners were expected to be mature enough to interact with curriculum discourse.



Table 4.3 Grade and Stream for learners (N=68)

Grade	Frequency	Percentage	Stream	Frequency	Percentage
Grade11	68	100	Science	46	67.6
			Commerce	12	17.6
			General	10	14.7
Total	68	100.0	Total	68	100.0

Table 4.3 shows that all the learners 68 (100%) were in grade 11, which was the focus group in this study as highlighted in chapter 3. In terms of subject streams, 46 (67.6%) of the learners were in the Science class and were presumed to be high performers. The statistics are in tandem with the National Development Plan's

Medium-Term Strategic Framework target of producing 36000 Natural and Physical Science graduates by 2017(Stats SA, 2016).

4.2.3 Parent participants

Table 4.4 shows the biographic data for parents who participated in the guided interview for the study.

Table 4.4 Biographic data for parent participants (N=8)

Gender	Description	Frequency	Percentage
	Male	6	75
	Female	2	25
Total		8	100
Age	Less than 40	1	12.5
	41-50	3	37.5
	51-60	3	37.5
	Above 60	1	12.5
Total		8	100
Number of years as chairperson	1 year	2	25
	2years	2	25
	3 years	1	12,5
	4years	2	25
	5 years	1	12,5
	6Years	0	0
	More than 6 years	0	0
Total		8	100
Highest Qualification	Standard 5or 8	3	37.5
	Matric	3	37,5
	Certificate	1	12,5
	Diploma	1	12.5
	Bachelors degree	0	0
	Masters degree	0	0
	PHD	0	0
Total		8	100

Table 4.4 revealed that the position of SGB chair was dominated by males 6(75%) and the majority of SGB chairpersons were between the ages of 41 and 60 years 6(75%). On the number of years as SGB chairperson, the participants had enough experience to provide relevant information. Though qualification was not a prerequisite to be appointed as an SGB chair, 8(100%) indicated that they were literate.

4.3 RESULTS ON VIEWS OF TEACHERS AND LEARNERS ON THE ROLES OF SBA IN HIGH SCHOOLS

This section focuses on the views of teachers and learners on the role of SBA in high schools. Quantitative data on the views of teachers and learners were gathered using a semi-structured Questionnaire. IBM SPSS Statistics were used to analyse quantitative data, and descriptive statistics in form of frequencies, mean and standard deviation were used to present and compare the data. Chi-square tests were used to determine the strength of the relationship of the responses of teachers and learners on the complementarity of roles in the implementation of SBA in high schools. Since the study was based on the mixed methods paradigm, qualitative data were collected from the semi-structured Questionnaires for teachers and learners, semi-structured interviews with SGB chairpersons and FGDs with learners. Qualitative data were presented as direct extracts after a thematic analysis.

4.3.1 Quantitative results on the views of teachers and learners on the role of SBA in high schools

In pursuit of answers to the research question, the first sub problem sought to examine the views of teachers, learners and parents on the role of School-Based Assessment in the teaching and learning process. Information was gathered on the views of teachers and learners on the role of SBA in high schools in the teaching and learning process. Studies have shown that SBA as an educational reform has been widely embraced in many educational systems the whole world. Nair et al. (2014) argue that by changing the assessment system that places less emphasis on centralised, summative exam, it somewhat changes the approach to teaching and the manner in which learning transpires. Teachers, learners and parents were

identified as key stakeholders in the implementation of SBA. In South Africa, the introduction of DBE's (2012) (a) *Curriculum and Assessment policy Statement* (CAPS) points to the need for research on assessment practices in the schooling system, since the ushering of CAPS meant a shift into a new assessment dispensation. It was imperative to establish how teachers were taking the shift to the new practices as envisaged by CAPS (Maile, 2013). Table 4.5 shows teachers' responses to the closed questions in the semi- structured Questionnaire which sought to address the first sub problem.

Table 4.5 views of teachers on the roles of SBA in high schools (N=53)

Roles of School - Based Assessment	SA	A	N	D	SDG	Total	Mean	Std D
	5	4	3	2	1			
1. Enable teachers to give feedback to students frequently	26 (49.1)	24 (45.3)	2 (3.8)	1 (1.9)	0 (0)	53 (100)	4.42	.663
2. Enable students to demonstrate their ability in areas which cannot be assessed in public examinations	7 (13.2)	34 (64.2)	3 (5.7)	7 (13.2)	2 (3.8)	53 (100)	3.70	.992
3. Promote creative teaching and learning activities	16 (30.2)	27 (50.9)	9 (17.0)	1 (1.9)	0 (0)	53 (100)	4.09	.741
4. Empower teachers in the evaluation process	15 (28.3)	31 (58.5)	5 (9.4)	2 (3.8)	0 (0)	53 (100)	4.11	.725

5. Provide a stable and continuous pressure free assessment	9 (17.0)	30 (56.6)	12 (22.6)	2 (3.8)	0 (0)	53 (100)	3.87	7.35
6. Enable teachers to decide what to teach	11 (20.8)	25 (47.2)	3 (5.7)	13 (24.5)	1 (1.9)	53 (100)	3.60	1.132
7. Enable students to have a better understanding of their own strength and weaknesses in learning	18 (34.0)	31 (58.5)	2 (3.8)	2 (3.8)	0 (0)	53 (100)	4.23	.697
8.Promote continual improvement and confidence building	13 (24.5)	32 (60.4)	6 (11.3)	2 (3.8)	0 (0)	53 (100)	4.06	.718
9.Complement public examinations	17 (32.1)	29 (54.7)	6 (11.3)	1 (1.9)	0 (0)	53 (100)	4.17	.700
10. Help learners to develop positive attitude in learning	14 (26.4)	28 (52.8)	9 (17.0)	2 (3.8)	0 (0)	53 (100)	4.02	.772
11. Enhance learner	9	31	9	4	0	53	3.85	.794

collaborative skills	(17.0)	(58.5)	(17.0)	(7.5)	(0)	(100)		
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SA= Strongly Agree; A= Agree; D= Disagree; SDA= Strongly Disagree; Std. D= Standard Deviation. (Mean 1- 2.4 = low; 2.5 - 3.4 = moderate; 3.5- 5.0 high)

The views of teachers on SBA enabling teacher to give feedback to students frequently as shown in Table 4.5, has the highest affirmation value of 50(94.4%) and mean score of 4.42; and the smallest SD of .66. A small SD figure shows that figures are clustered around the mean. The high affirmative value confirms the importance of SBA giving feedback to learners in the teaching and learning process. The other end of the spectrum show 'enabling teachers to decide what to teach' with the lowest affirmation value of 36(68%) and mean score of 3.6; and the highest SD of 1.132 which show a wide dispersion of figures from the mean. The two affirmation values show divergences when they are suppose to converge in terms of their context.



Other notable figures from the responses which are pointers to implementation issues are the 'Neutral' values which in descending order are; providing a stable and continuous pressure free assessment 12(22.6%); helping learners to develop a positive attitude in learning 9(17.0%); promoting creative teaching and learning activities 9(17.0); enhancing learner collaborative skills 9(17%); promoting continual improvement and confidence building 6(11.3%); complementing public examinations 6(11.3%) and empowering teachers in the evaluation process 5(9.4%). A high 'neutral' was of concern to any researcher because the researcher does not know where to place the response since the respondent was undecided.

The results also show high score for 'disagree' response on; enabling teachers to decide what to teach 14(26.4%) and enabling students to demonstrate their ability in areas which cannot be assessed in public examinations 9(17%). A high score on the 'disagree' response could be a result of; the question being poorly phrased or the respondent having different opinion.

Table 4.6 views of learners on the roles of SBA in high schools (N=68)

Roles of school - based assessment	SA	A	N	D	SDG	Total	Mean	Std. D
	5	4	3	2	1			
1. Enable teachers to give feedback to students frequently	37 (54.4)	27 (39.7)	3 (4.4)	1 (1.5)	0 (0)	68 (100)	4.47	.657
2. Enable students to demonstrate their ability in areas which cannot be assessed in public examinations	28 (41.2)	22 (32.4)	10 (14.7)	6 (8.8)	2 (2.9)	68 (100)	4.00	1.09
3. Promote creative teaching and learning activities	45 (66.2)	15 (22.1)	7 (10.3)	1 (1.5)	0 (0)	68 (100)	4.53	.743
4. Empower teachers in the evaluation process	25 (36.8)	38 (55.9)	4 (5.9)	1 (1.5)	0 (0)	68 (100)	4.28	.643
5. Provide learners with a stable and continuous pressure free assessment	32 (47.1)	25 (36.8)	9 (13.2)	2 (2.9)	0 (0)	68 (100)	4.28	.808
6. Enable teachers to decide on what to teach	31 (45.6)	17 (25.0)	12 (17.6)	6 (8.8)	2 (2.9)	68 (100)	4.01	1.126

7. Enable students to have a better understanding of their own strengths and weaknesses in learning	36 (52.9)	23 (33.8)	8 (11.8)	1 (1.5)	0 (0)	68 (100)	4.38	.754
8. Promote learner continual improvement and confidence building	29 (42.6)	21 (30.9)	12 (17.6)	4 (5.9)	2 (2.9)	68 (100)	4.04	1.057
9. Complement written public examinations	22 (32.4)	30 (44.1)	14 (20.9)	2 (2.9)	0 (0)	68 (100)	4.06	.808
10. Enhance learner development of positive attitudes in learning	22 (32.4)	26 (38.2)	17 (25.0)	2 (2.9)	1 (1.5)	68 (100)	3.97	.914
11. Enhance learner collaborative skills	25 (36.8)	25 (36.8)	16 (23.5)	1 (1.5)	1 (1.5)	68 (100)	4.06	8.96
12. Reduce reliance on standardised external examinations	14 (20.6)	24 (35.3)	12 (17.6)	15 (22.1)	3 (4.4)	68 (100)	3.46	1.177

SA= Strongly Agree; A= Agree; D= Disagree; SDA= Strongly Disagree; Std. D= Standard Deviation. (Mean 1- 2.4 = low; 2.5 – 3.4 = moderate; 3.5 – 5.0 high)

The views of learners show higher figures of the 'Neutral' responses. The highest in rank order are SBA; enabling learners to develop a positive attitude in learning 17(25%); enhancing learner collaborative skills 16 (23,5%) and complementing public examinations 14(20.9%). Learner views are not in tandem with teacher views on the aspects with highest 'neutral response. A high prevalence of the Neutral response

reflects some level of uncertainty which may compromise the implementation of SBA.

The factors with had the highest 'disagree' response from the learners were; reducing reliance on standardised external examinations with a combined strongly disagree and disagree of 18(24,5%). Enabling teachers to decide what to teach and enabling students to demonstrate their ability in areas which cannot be assessed in public examinations 8(10, 5%).

Findings from learner respondents on SBA enabling teachers to give feedback to students frequently, correlates positively with findings from teacher respondents with the highest affirmation of 64(94,1%). The lowest on the affirmation was 'reducing reliance on standardised external examinations' which had 38(55,9%). Overall, the views showed that learners understood the role of SBA. The SD showed a slight deviation from the mean, which was between moderate and high.

4.3.2. Qualitative results on the views of teachers and learners on the roles of SBA in high schools

Qualitative data to answer the first sub problem were gathered from the open ended questions in the Questionnaire for learners and teachers, focus group discussions with learners and in-depth- semi-structured interviews with chairpersons of school governing body. The main theme of the role of School-Based Assessment in the teaching and learning generated other sub-themes such as, preparation for exams, evaluating teaching methods, to show learner strengths and weaknesses and improve final examination results. Table 4.7 shows a summary of the main theme and sub-themes. These are further explained in the sections that follow.

Table 4.7: Main theme and sub-themes on the views of teachers and learners on the roles of SBA in high schools

Theme	Sub-Themes	Main Issues
Role of SBA in teaching and learning	Preparation for final exams	-Trains learners for final exam efficiently. -Helps teacher to track learner progress. -Checks progress of learner's preparedness for exams. -Gives learners a clue on how their exams

		may look like. -Improves learners' understanding of tasks done in class so that their final performance becomes great. -Makes it easy for learners to do their exams. -Prepares learners for final examinations. -SBA has a practical component which was consolidated theoretically in public examinations.
	Evaluation of teaching methods	-Enables teachers to evaluate their teaching methods and strategies; to improve learner performance. -Gives clue to whether learners are making progress. -Helps teachers to trace the problems encountered by learners. -Enables teachers to adjust their teaching strategies. -Helps teachers to give regular tests to analyse improvement of learners. -Assists in planning interventions and support for continued progress. - Assist teachers to look for learner's mistakes and how to help them. -Enable teachers to identify where learners are struggling. -Enables teachers to judge the effort of the learners. - Inform on what the learner understand and what the learner does not understand. -Enable teachers to structure their content when teaching.
	Show learner	Helps students to understand their strengths

	strengths and weaknesses	and weaknesses and to develop their study strategies. - Enable learners work in groups and are to check own understanding and challenges. -Motivate learners to work hard so that they can improve their marks.
	Improve final results	-Improve final results. -Boost year marks.

T=Teacher; L= Learner; FGD= Focus Group Discussion; SGB= School Governing Body

Below are the snippets of the views of the respondents and participants under different sub-themes on the main theme on the role of school-based assessment.



4.3.2.1 Preparation for final exams

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Teacher responses on the open ended questions in the Questionnaire confirmed the importance of SBA in preparing learners for examinations. Asked about their view on the role of SBA of assisting in the preparation for final exams? One of the teachers said;

Check progress of learner preparedness for exams (T40).

From the Questionnaire's open ended questions and FGD, learners acknowledged the importance of SBA in preparing for final exams. Some of the responses from learners were;

Give learners a clue on how their exams may look like (L29).

Prepare learners for final examinations (FGD2; FGD3).

Some of the parents had this to say;

SBA has a practical component which will be consolidated theoretically in public examinations (SGB1; SGB5).

4.3.2.2 Evaluation of teaching methods

Teacher responses to the open ended questions in the Questionnaire allowed them to explain how SBA assists in the teaching and learning process. Asked about their view on the role of SBA assisting in evaluating teaching methods? The responses were;

Enables teachers to evaluate their teaching methods, and strategies to improve learner performance (T9)

Helps teachers to trace the problems encountered by learners (T27).

Learners concurred with teachers on how SBA enhanced teaching and learning in their responses to the open ended questions in Questionnaire and in their submissions in the FGD. Excerpt from learners were;

Enables teachers to adjust their teaching strategies (L8)

Assists in planning interventions and support for continued progress (L37)

Teachers look for learner's mistakes and how to help them (FGD1).

SBA tells what the learner understands and what the learner does not understand (FGD5).

The parents noted that, because of the use of SBAs

Teachers are able to identify knowledge gaps when marking which assist in deciding what to teach (SGB1).

Teachers structure their content when teaching (SGB4).

4.3.2.3 Show learner strengths and weaknesses

Appreciating the value of SBA in the learning process by learners was a prerequisite for supporting its implementation. Learner responses to the open ended questions in the Questionnaire and FGD confirmed the importance of SBA in the teaching and

learning process. Asked about their view on the role of SBA in assisting learners to identify their strength and weaknesses? One of the learners noted that;

SBA helps students to understand their strengths and weaknesses and to develop their study strategies (L27).

Learners work in groups work and will be able to check own understanding and challenges (FGD2).

SBA marks can act as wake up call to learners who did not prepare if they get a poor mark they co-operate to improve their marks (FGD6).

Teacher responses in the open ended questions confirmed the views of the learners. One of the teachers had this to say;

Learners identify their strong and weak areas in the subject (T22).

Parents' views were in tandem with the views of learners and teachers in appreciating the value of SBA to the learner. A parent had this to say;

Learners work in groups and will be able to check own understanding and challenges (SGB2).



4.3.2.4 Improve final results

Learner responses confirmed the significance of SBA in the teaching and learning process through improvement of their final results. Asked about their view on the role of SBA assisting learners in improving final results? Some of the learners said;

Improve final results (L17).

Boost year marks (L19).

It boosts your marks in the public exams (FGD3; FGD5).

Parents' submissions in the interviews concurred with the views of learners on the value of SBA in the teaching and learning process. A parent submitted that SBA;

Boosts the marks of the learners (GB6)

Findings from the views of teachers, learners and parents concurred on the role of School-Based Assessment. The concurrence of stakeholders' views provided a

fertile ground for the implementation of SBA, a major component of the systems theory, which was the theory informing this study.

4.3.2.5 Findings on the roles of SBA in the teaching and learning process

Quantitative and qualitative findings showed that teachers, learners and parents were in agreement on the role of School-Based Assessment in the teaching and learning. Table 4.8 confirms the concurrence from the two data sets.

Table 4.8 Triangulation quantitative and qualitative findings on the roles of SBA

Quantitative findings	Qualitative findings
Most teachers and learners confirmed that SBA enables teachers to give feedback to learners.	Helps teacher to track learner progress.
More teachers than learners believed that SBA enables students to have a better understanding of their strength and weaknesses.	Helps students to understand their strengths and weaknesses and to develop their study strategies.
On empowering teachers in the evaluation process, more learners than teachers believed SBA does that.	Enables teachers to evaluate their teaching methods and strategies to improve learner performance.
Both teachers and learners concurred on SBA complementing public exams, but the responses were more skewed in favour of teachers.	Prepares learners for final examinations.

4.3.2.5.1 Interpreting the triangulation table

Findings from both quantitative and qualitative data converged on all the roles of SBA in the teaching and learning process. Quantitative data findings agreed on the significance of SBA in the teaching and learning process. In addition, the quantitative data findings from teachers and learners reveal that SBA provides feedback in the

teaching and learning process which was a prerequisite for effective learning. Both respondents also confirmed that SBA enables learners to have a better understanding of their strengths and weaknesses, which assisted in the teaching and learning process as learners had to focus on both for an enhanced performance in their school work. Another view raised by both teachers and learners was that SBA complements public exams in that, SBA tasks were prepared on the content covered, which was the same content to be covered in exams. Last but not least, both respondents were in tandem on the view that SBA assisted teachers in deciding what to teach.

Qualitative data findings from teachers, learners and parents affirmed the view that SBA helped students to understand their strengths and weaknesses, and to develop study strategies. The participants also attested to the fact that teachers can decide what to teach from areas learners did not do well. Participants also declared that SBA enabled teachers to evaluate their teaching methods and strategies to improve learner performance. The findings from the quantitative data and qualitative data were in total convergence on the role of SBA in the implementation of School-Based Assessment. The implication was that teachers, learners and parents were well informed on the value of SBA in the teaching and learning process, and would therefore, support its implementation.

4.4 RESULTS ON VIEWS OF TEACHERS AND LEARNERS ON ADMINISTRATIVE STRUCTURES IN PLACE AND FORM OF SUPPORT IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SBA IN HIGH SCHOOLS

Sub-problem two of the study sought to gather information on structures in place to support the implementation of SBA in high schools. The support structures were expected to be fully functional to allow a smooth flow of the SBA implementation process. Teacher and learner familiarity with the different structures signified availability and hopefully functionality.

4.4.1 Quantitative results on administrative structures and the form support in the implementation of SBA in high schools

Table 4.9 provides data for teacher and learner familiarity with different administrative structures in the implementation of SBA in high schools to answer second sub-problem of the study.

Table 4.9: Sought respondents' confirmation of their familiarity with the role that different bodies played in the implementation of SBA in high schools (Teachers N=53) (Learners N=68)

Structure		EF	MF	SF	S F	NF	T	M	Std D
		5	4	3	2	1			
1. National: DBE and Umalusi	Teachers	22 (41.5)	19 (35.8)	5 (9.4)	5 (9.4)	2 (3.8)	53 (100)	4.02	1.118
	Learners	28 (41.2)	24 (35.3)	10 (14.7)	2 (2.9)	4 (5.9)	68 (100)	4.03	1.106
2. Regional/ District: Subject advisors	Teachers	28 (52.8)	21 (39.6)	2 (3.8)	2 (3.8)	0 (0)	53 (100)	4.41	.745
	Learners	24 (35.3)	28 (41.2)	8 (11.8)	6 (8.8)	2 (2.9)	68 (100)	3.97	1.050
3. Circuit: Schools Assessment Irregularities Committee	Teachers	21 (39.6)	20 (37.7)	7 (13.2)	4 (7.5)	1 (1.9)	53 (100)	4.06	1.008
	Learners	37 (54.4)	12 (17.6)	9 (13.2)	3 (4.4)	7 (10.3)	68 (100)	4.02	1.344
4. Cluster: leader	Teachers	33 (62.3)	18 (34.0)	1 (1.9)	1 (1.9)	0 (0)	53 (100)	4.57	.636
	Learners	21 (30.9)	20 (29.4)	18 (26.5)	2 (2.9)	7 (10.3)	68 (100)	3.68	1.239
5. School:	Teachers	37	11	4	1	0	53	4.58	.719

Head of Department (subject)		(69.8)	(20.8)	(7.5)	(1.9)	(0)	(100)		
	Learners	40 (58.8)	18 (26.5)	6 (8.8)	1 (1.5)	3 (4.4)	68 (100)	4.34	1.064

EF=Extremely Familiar; MF= Moderately Familiar; SF= Somewhat Familiar; SF= Slightly Familiar; NF= Not Familiar at all; T=Total; M= mean; Std D= Standard Deviation. (Mean 1- 2.4=Low; 2.5- 3.4= moderate; 3.5- 5.0= high)

4.4.1.1 Familiarity with DBE and Umalusi

Results in table 4.9 show that teachers and learners were familiar with the role of DBE and Umalusi as structures which supported the implementation of SBA in high schools. However on the rank order for the 'not familiar' factor for DBE and Umalusi was the top ranked structure by teachers at 2(3, 8%) and second by learners at 4(5, 9%). Both sets of data showed a polarised view as depicted by the high SD of 1.118 and 1.106 for teachers and learners respectively.



4.4.1.2 Familiarity with Subject Advisors

The result for teachers and learners on the familiarity with subject advisors showed that, the factor was ranked last by both respondents. On the affirmation, the factor was ranked third by teachers with a total of extremely familiar, moderately familiar, somehow familiar and slightly familiar of 51(96.1%) and forth by learners at 64(94, 1%). A high SD of 1.050 for learners showed that the responses were dispersed from the mean. .

4.4.1.3 Familiarity with Schools Assessment Irregularities Committee

Learner responses ranked the 'not familiar' with the role of the 'Schools Irregularities Committee' factor first at 7(10, 3%). The same factor was ranked last by teachers at 1(1, 9). On the affirmations the factor was ranked last by learners at 61(89, 6%) and second by teachers at 52(98, 1%). The high SD of 1.008 and 1.344 for teachers and learners respectively depicts a wider dispersion from the mean.

4.4.1.4 Familiarity with Cluster Leaders

The results showed that teachers were familiar with the cluster leader structure with an affirmation of 53(100%). Teachers were expected to be familiar with the role of cluster leader since cluster leaders were selected from teachers. The factor was the highest ranked by learner on the 'not familiar' factor at 7(10, 3%). The high figure for the lack of familiarity with role of cluster leader by learners may be pointer implementation issues.

4.4.1.5 Familiarity with subject Head of Department

Teacher and learner affirmations rank first familiarity with the role of Subject HoD at 100% and 95.6% respectively. The results for teachers and learners views on familiarity with the role of subject HoD confirm the existence of the structures which will facilitate the implementation of SBA in schools. On the 'not familiar' factor the structure was ranked third by learners at 3 (4.4 %). The SD of 1.064 shows dispersion from the mean of learner responses.

4.4.1.6 Role played by different structures in Support in the implementation of SBA in schools



Teacher's views were also sought on the support provided by these structures in the implementation of SBA in high schools. Table 4.10 shows the views of teachers on the support systems from the administrative structures, in the implementation of SBA in high school.

Table 4.10 results of the views of teachers on the existence of support systems in the implementation of SBA in schools (N=53)

Form of Support	S A	A	N	D	SD	Total	Mean	Std D
	5	4	3	2	1			
1. Induction of new teachers on SBA	16 (30.2)	25 (47.2)	8 (15.1)	3 (5.7)	1 (1.9)	53 (100)	3.98	.930
2. Teachers availed with policies on	11 (20.8)	29 (54.7)	11 (20.8)	2 (3.8)	0 (0)	53 (100)	3.93	.756

SBA								
3. Teachers provided with adequate resources	13 (24.5)	24 (45.3)	13 (24.5)	3 (5.7)	0 (0)	53 (100)	3.89	.847
4. Assistance with submission of SBA tasks by learners	14 (26.4)	23 (43.4)	12 (22.6)	4 (7.5)	0 (0)	53 (100)	3.89	.891
5. Trained on setting of SBA tasks	16 (30.2)	18 (34.0)	12 (22.6)	7 (13.2)	0 (0)	53 (100)	3.81	1.02
6. Assistance in administering SBA tasks	15 (28.3)	25 (47.2)	10 (18.9)	3 (5.7)	0 (0)	53 (100)	3.98	.843
7. Assistance in preparation of marking guides for SBA tasks	16 (30.2)	23 (43.4)	10 (18.9)	4 (7.5)	0 (0)	53 (100)	3.96	.898
8. Assistance in standardization of marking guides	15 (28.3)	22 (41.5)	10 (18.9)	6 (11.3)	0 (0)	53 (100)	3.87	.962
9. Assistance in marking of SBA tasks	11 (20.8)	23 (43.4)	10 (18.9)	9 (17.0)	0 (0)	53 (100)	3.68	.996
10. Assistance in computation	14	22	14	3	0	53		

of weighted SBA marks	(26.4)	(41.5)	(26.4)	(5.7)	(0)	(100)	3.89	.869
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SA= Strongly Agree; A= Agree; D= Disagree; SDA= Strongly Disagree; Std. D= Standard Deviation. (Mean 1- 2.4 = low; 2.5 – 3.4 = moderate; 3.5 – 5.0 high)

4.4.1.6.1 Induction of New Teachers on SBA

Induction of new teachers was intended to equip teachers with the necessary skills needed during the discharge of service. Results in Table 4.10 showed that teachers acknowledged the support given by the structures through induction of new teachers. The factor was ranked first on the teacher affirmation at 41(77.4%). On the 'neutral' response, teachers ranked the factor last at 8(15.1%). With teachers confirming the induction of new teachers, focus should then have been on the quality of the induction.

4.4.1.6.2 Availing of Policies on SBA



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Policies provide direction to activities in a school. Structures in the implementation of School-Based Assessment were mandated to avail these policies to stakeholders. Results revealed that, policies on SBA were availed to teachers; with affirmations constituting 40(75.5%).

4.4.1.6.3 Provision of adequate resources to teachers

Findings show that teachers were provided with adequate resources for the implementation of School-Based Assessment in high schools. The results show 'agree' responses as 37(69.8%). The neutral and disagree responses, which translate to 16 (30.2%), were worrisome coming from teachers. The implication was that 30% of the teachers were saying that they were not provided with adequate resources to facilitate the implementation of SBA in high schools.

4.4.1.6.4 Assistance on the submission of SBA tasks by Learners

Teacher responses revealed that structures assisted teachers in the submission of SBA tasks by learners. The statistics of teachers who agreed were 37(69.8%), with 'neutral' and 'disagreeing' totaling 16 (30.1%). The low affirmation figure and a high figure for the 'neutral' and 'disagree' show that there are issues on the submission of SBA tasks by learners in the implementation of SBA in high schools.

4.4.1.6.5 Training of teachers in the setting of SBA tasks

Findings revealed that 34(64.2%), constituting a mean of 3.81 agreed with the view that structures trained teachers in the setting of SBA tasks. A high SD of 1.020 indicated that teacher responses were somehow polarised as evidenced by the high neutral and disagree response of 19(35.8%). The findings cast a dark cloud on the quality of tasks and implementation of SBA in high schools.

4.4.1.6.6 Assistance with the administering of SBA tasks

Results showed that 30(75.5%) of teachers responses agreed on the support given by the structures in the administration of SBA tasks. The responses for the other 13(24.5%) teachers were 'neutral' and 'disagree'. This figure points to serious implementation issues which may negatively impact on the implementation of SBA in high schools.

4.4.1.6.7 Assistance in preparation of marking guides for SBA tasks

Findings revealed that teachers acknowledged the assistance received from structures in preparing marking guides for SBA tasks. Response were 39(73.6%) and a mean of 3.96 who agreed, with 10(18.9%) being undecided. The high neutral figure translates to a lack of a much needed assistance in the implementation of SBA in high schools.

4.4.1.6.8 Assistance in standardisation of marking guides

Results revealed that teachers got assistance with the standardisation of marking guides to improve the quality of marking. Those agreeing were 37(69.8%) and 10(18.9%) remaining neutral

4.4.1.6.9 Assistance in the in the Marking of SBA tasks

Teacher responses confirmed that teachers were assisted by the structures in the marking of SBA tasks as shown by agree response of 31(64.2%) and a mean of 3.679. However, 10(18.9%) were undecided and 9(17.0%) disagreed, depicting issues in the implementation of SBA in high schools.

4.4.1.6.10 Assistance in the in the computation of SBA marks

Findings revealed that teachers agreed on the view that they were assisted by the structures in the computation of SBA marks. Those who agreed were 36(67.9%) with a mean of 3.88 and SD of .869. The views were slightly polarised with 14(26.4%) choosing to remain neutral and 3(5.7%) disagreeing.

Overall, the views of teachers on the existence of support systems in the implementation of SBA in high schools showed a dominance of agree and strongly agree. The SD was significantly low showing a small variation from the mean and less polarised views. High prevalence of neutral response from teachers cast a dark cloud on their ability to implement SBA in high school.

4.4.2 Qualitative results on teacher, learner and parent familiarity with administrative support structures and support in the implementation of SBA in high schools

The study was located in the pragmatic paradigm and applies the MMR approach in which qualitative and quantitative findings complement each other. Table 4.11 presents the main theme and sub-themes emerging from qualitative findings on familiarity with administrative and support structures in the implementation of SBA in high schools

Table 4.11: Main Theme and Sub-Themes on teacher, learner and parent familiarity with administrative and support structures in the implementation of SBA in high schools

Theme	Sub -Theme	Main issues
Administrative and support structures in the implementation of SBA	Familiarity with structures	-SBA tasks are cluster based. -The HOD promotes creative teaching and learning activities. -Familiar, Circuit office can assist schools in dealing with challenges which schools are facing. -Familiar with structures at cluster and school level, not quite familiar with structures from district to national level.
	Setting of Tasks	-Set tasks. -Provide tasks. -Setting exams. -Distribute tasks to schools. -Ensures fair exams and prepares backup papers. -Provide training in the setting of tasks. -Ensures assessment tasks are conducted. -Give tests and assessments for practice. - Inducting teachers on how to handle SBA issues like setting of question papers.
	Moderation of Tasks	-Moderate to ensure compliance and sense of accountability among teachers. -Ensure quality control. -Ensure that teaching and learning was standardised. -Ensure that SBA tasks and exams are in line with curriculum.

		-Discuss of memo with cluster leader. -Work with Curriculum Implementers in the finalisation of SBA marks during moderation.
	Support to schools	-Give support to educators in their subjects. -Hold meetings with all stakeholders to discuss the implementation of SBA -Support SBA implementation by providing schools with infrastructure. -Give valuable information to learners. -Provide information on how to conduct tasks. -Prepares learners using different resources to make learners 100% ready for exams. -Capturing of SBA marks. -Conducting workshops for teachers
	Monitoring curriculum coverage	-Co-ordinating and promoting smooth running of education processes. -Ensuring that the pace setters are covered. -Ensuring formal tasks are administered in time. -Monitoring the SBA implementation process. -Ensuring that syllabus was covered and learners do all assessment tasks. -Ensuring that teachers adhere to their duties and make sure that SBA systems are functional. -Providing SBA policy documents. -Ensuring that SBA implementation takes place smoothly. - Supervision of the implementation of SBA tasks. -Providing SBA policies and timetable for SBA tasks per term. -Assisting new teachers with SBA

		implementation processes. -Availing of policies on SBA. -Conducting workshops on a quarterly basis by CIs. -Holding workshops on the handling of SBA tasks. -Promotes creative teaching and learning activities by HoD
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T=Teacher; L= Learner; FGD= Focus Group Discussion; SGB= School Governing Body

Below are extracts from qualitative data on responses of participants. The responses were solicited from the main theme of familiarity with structures and existence of support structures. They are highlighted under derived sub- themes:



4.4.2.1 Familiarity with structures University of Fort Hare Together in Excellence

In response to the open ended question in the Questionnaire, teachers acknowledged familiarity with the administrative structures which facilitate the implementation of School-Based Assessment in high schools. Asked what they would consider as the role of administrative structures in the implementation of SBA. One of the teachers said;

Preparing SBA tasks are cluster based (T24)

Learner responses in the open ended questions in the Questionnaire and focus group discussions concurred on the existence of administrative structures. At the same time, others were not familiar with the structures. However, this was not a serious issue since these were learners. The responses were;

The HOD promote creative teaching and learning activities (L8)

Familiar with some of them like HOD (FGD3)

Familiar with some of them up to district level (FGD6)

Not familiar with the administrative structures (FGD1; FGD2)

Parents had mixed responses on familiarity with administrative structures. One parent argued that parents did not have much business with these structures. Such sentiments were not expected from SBG chairpersons who were appointed on the basis of their expertise in educational issues. Parents had this to say;

Not familiar with the structures as parents. (SGB1)

Familiar, Circuit office can assist schools in dealing with challenges which schools are facing. (SGB2)

Familiar with structures at cluster and school level, but not quite familiar with structures from district to national level (SGB5)

4.4.2.2 Setting of Tasks

In response to the open ended question in the Questionnaire on the existence of support systems in the implementation of SBA, most of the teachers confirmed the support of the structures by identifying setting of tasks as a form of support provided. Asked on their view on what they could consider to be the role of structures in the setting of tasks. Teachers had this to share about the structures;

Provide tasks (T5)

Setting exams (T10)

The structures send tasks to schools (T22)

Provide training in the setting of tasks (T39)

Learners were also in agreement with teachers on the support given by the structures in their responses in the Questionnaire open ended questions and FGD. The support was essential in the implementation of SBA as highlighted in the systems approach, one of the tenets of the TQM theory. Some of the learners had to say;

Give learners assignments and ensure that learners write them (L16)

Teachers are trained because some tasks are challenging (FGD2)

They are assisted and taught how to set papers (FGD3)

Teachers use past papers to set SBA tasks (FGD5)

Parents' responses in the interview were in agreement with the teachers and learners on the support from the structures. Some of the parents said;

HODs induct teachers on how to handle SBA issues like setting of question papers (SGB2; SGB4)

4.4.2.3 Moderation of Tasks

To ensure quality in SBA, moderation was required. This was in line with TQM the theory informing this study. In their responses to the open ended questions in the Questionnaire, teachers confirmed moderation as a form support. Asked on their view on what they would consider as the role of structures in the moderation of tasks. They said;

Conducting cluster moderation (T9)

Ensuring that SBA tasks are standardised, moderated and credible (T15)

Moderate to ensure compliance and sense of accountability among teachers (T35)

Ensure quality control (T50)



Learner responses to the open ended questions on the Questionnaire and FGD affirmed moderation as a form of support from the structures in the implementation of SBA. Some of the responses were;

Administrative structures ensures that SBA tasks and exams are in line with curriculum (L38)

Administrative structures supports implementation by moderating tasks (L62)

Teachers get assistance because work was given to the HOD for moderation to ensure that the marking was up-to-date (FGD3)

At cluster level, teachers discuss memo with cluster leader (FGD6; SGB2)

Parents identified moderation of task as a form of support given by the structure in the implementation of SBA in the interviews. One of the parents said;

Teachers work with CIs in the finalisation of SBA marks during moderation (SGB5).

4.4.2. 4 Provision of resources

The implementation of SBA cannot take place without adequate resources. The support structures need to provide the resources. Asked what they consider as the role of structures in the provision of resources. One of the teachers said;

Give supporting materials; Knowledge development on difficult topics (T13)

Hold meetings with all stakeholders to discuss the implementation of SBA (T25)

Give advice and support to teachers (T40)

Learners reiterated the need for resources in the implementation of SBA in the open ended questions in the Questionnaire and FGD. Some of the learners expressed that;

Support teachers so that learners can get the best education (L23)

Provide information on how to conduct tasks (L64)

They are not provided with enough resources because some schools do not have computers (FGD3)

Not all teachers are given assistance, at times tasks are done under pressure because tasks are not received on time (FGD3)

Teachers are given information during workshops (FGD6)

Parents acknowledged the significance of resources in the implementation of SBA. However, they lamented the serious shortage of resources in the schools. Some of their responses in the interview were;

Teachers are not provided with adequate resources e.g. in science some schools does not have laboratories (SGB1).

Schools are partially resourced; libraries have poor resources e.g. no internet (SGB2).

Lack of resources (SGB3; SGB5)

4.4.2.5 Monitoring Curriculum coverage

As a process in the education system, School-Based Assessment requires monitoring. The monitoring was a requirement in the process approach, a tenet of

TQM theory informing this study. Asked about what they consider as a role of monitoring curriculum coverage by the support structures. One of the teachers had this to say on the support structures;

Ensures that the pace setter was covered (T8)

Monitoring the process (T10)

Ensures that syllabus was covered and learners do all assessment tasks (T36)

Ensures that teachers adhere to their duties and make sure that SBA system was functional (T38)

Ensuring that SBA takes place smoothly (T49)

The views of the learners on the structures were that;

Assist teachers know what to do (L17)

Work together in the supervision of SBA tasks (L37)

There was a policy, timetable for tasks per term (FGD1)

Parents reiterated the significance of the structures in the implementation of SBA during interview sessions. Some of the responses were;

Teachers get assistance from CIs. New teachers need the assistance more (SGB1)

Schools have policies on SBA which are availed to teachers (SGB2)

Workshops are conducted on a quarterly basis by CIs (SGB3)

CIs hold workshops on the handling of SBA tasks (SGB5)

4.4.2.6 Main findings on familiarity and support from structures in the implementation of school-based assessment

The views of teachers, learners and parents on the familiarity with administrative and support structures were somehow varied. Some expressed the view that they were quite familiar with the different structures. Others were familiar with these structures up to a certain level. In the same vein, there were those who were not familiar with these structures at all. On the second sub-theme, all the stakeholders were in concurrence on setting of tasks as a form of support given by the different structures. The stakeholders were also in total agreement on moderation of tasks as a form of support. On provision of resources as a form of support, the views of stakeholders were mixed. While some acknowledged the provision of resources by the structures, others lamented lack of support in terms of provision of resources. On the last sub-theme, the views of stakeholders were in tandem on the support given in ensuring curriculum coverage. Table 4.12 presents the main findings from research data on familiarity and support from structures in the implementation of School-Based Assessment.



Table 4.12 Triangulation of quantitative and qualitative data on teacher and learner familiarity with administrative and support structures

Quantitative findings	Qualitative findings
Teachers and learners confirmed familiarity with the administrative and support structures.	Views of participants were somehow mixed with some parents confessing limited knowledge. However, overall, they are aware of these structures.
Respondents agreed on the support from the structure in the setting of tasks.	Participants and respondents confirmed the support the structures in terms setting of tasks.
The views of the respondents were unanimous on moderation of tasks as a form of support rendered by the structures.	Parents and learners confirmed the significance of moderation and the support from the structures.

The respondents concurred on the provision of resources.	Participants and respondents concurred on the importance of resources. However, they lamented that the resources were inadequate.
Teachers and learners confirmed the support in terms of monitoring curriculum coverage.	Participants and respondents agreed on the support from structures in terms of monitoring curriculum coverage.

The findings reflected in Table 4.12 were generally converging though there were a few points of divergence.

4.4.2.6.1 Interpretation of the triangulation table

Inferences in the quantitative data from closed questions in the Questionnaire revealed that views of respondents converged on most of the aspects. Teachers and learners concurred on their familiarity with administrative structures. They identified support from the structures in form of setting of tasks; moderation of tasks; provision of resources and monitoring curriculum coverage. These were critical components needed in the implementation of School-Based Assessment to enhance teaching and learning.

Qualitative findings from the open ended questions in the Questionnaire, focus group discussions with learners, and interview sessions with SGB chairpersons confirmed familiarity with the administrative structures. Participants and respondents also identified setting of tasks, moderation of tasks, provision of resources, and monitoring of curriculum coverage as forms of support from the administrative structures. The findings revealed a perfect convergence of the two data sets, thereby confirming the credibility of quantitative results with qualitative findings.

4.5 QUANTITATIVE RESULTS ON TEACHER AND LEARNER RESPONSES ON COMPLEMENTARY ROLES OF TEACHERS, LEARNERS AND PARENTS IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SBA IN HIGH SCHOOLS

In pursuit of answers to the research question, sub-problem three sought to examine how teachers, learners and parents played complementary roles in the implementation of SBA in high schools to enhance teaching and learning. Teacher and learner respondents in Table 4.13 revealed the various typologies of complementary roles.

Table 4.13 Views of teachers and learners on the complementary roles of stakeholders in the implementation of SBA in high schools (Lrs N=68) (Trs N=53)

Complementary roles		SA	A	N	D	SDA	Total	Mean	Chi square test
1.Preparing SBA tasks	Lrs	21 (30.9)	14 (20.6)	14 (20.6)	12 (17.6)	7 (10.3)	68 100	3.44	p .114
	Trs	4 (7.5)	11 (20.8)	10 (18.9)	17 (32.1)	11 (20.8)	53 100	2.62	p.090
2.Responding to SBA tasks	Lrs	23 (33.8)	21 (30.9)	13 (19.1)	7 (10.3)	4 (5.9)	68 100	3.76	p.000
	Trs	6 (11.3)	20 (37.7)	11 (20.8)	13 (24.5)	3 (5.7)	53 100	3.25	p.000
3.Supervision of SBA tasks	Lrs	14 (20.6)	20 (29.4)	15 (22.1)	12 (17.6)	7 (10.3)	68 100	3.32	p.161
	Trs	5 (9.4)	16 (30.2)	10 (18.9)	16 (30.2)	6 (11.3)	53 100	2.96	p.033
4.Monitoring of SBA tasks	Lrs	18 (26.5)	21 (30.9)	14 (20.6)	8 (11.8)	7 (10.3)	68 100	3.51	p.027
	Trs	8	12	11	18	4	53	3.04	p.039

		(15.1)	(22.6)	(20.8)	(34.0)	(7.5)	100		
5.Evaluating SBA tasks	Lrs	25 (36.8)	21 (30.9)	10 (14.7)	10 (14.7)	2 (2.9)	68 100	3.83	p .000
	Trs	8 (15.1)	24 (45.3)	13 (24.5)	6 (11.3)	2 (3.8)	53 100	3.57	p.000
6.Providing adequate resources for SBA	Lrs	26 (38.2)	23 (33.8)	12 (17.6)	3 (4.4)	4 (5.9)	68 100	3.94	p.000
	Trs	12 (22.6)	22 (41.5)	12 (22.6)	6 (11.3)	1 (1.9)	53 100	3.72	p.000
7.Providing psychosocial support	Lrs	20 (29.4)	24 (35.3)	18 (26.5)	5 (7.4)	1 (1.5)	68 100	3.83	p.000
	Trs	7 (13.2)	16 (30.2)	12 (22.6)	16 (30.2)	2 (3.8)	53 100	3.19	p.008
8.Researching on SBA tasks	Lrs	20 (29.4)	22 (32.4)	15 (22.1)	7 (10.3)	4 (5.9)	68 100	3.69	p.000
	Trs	6 (11.3)	24 (45.3)	11 (20.8)	9 (17.0)	3 (5.7)	53 100	3.39	p.008
9.Consulting each other on SBA issues	Lrs	18 (26.5)	21 (30.9)	15 (22.1)	9 (13.2)	5 (7.4)	68 100	3.55	p 0.13
	Trs	7 (13.2)	17 (32.1)	10 (18.9)	13 (24.5)	6 (11.3)	53 100	3.11	p.105
10.Administering of tasks	Lrs	15 (22.1)	10 (14.7)	20 (29.4)	16 (23.5)	7 (10.3)	68 100	3.15	p .102
	Trs	4 (7.5)	13 (24.5)	12 (22.6)	17 (23.1)	7 (13.2)	53 100	2.81	p.042

11. Creating of enabling learning environments	Lrs	21 (30.9)	21 (30.9)	13 (19.1)	12 (17.6)	1 (1.5)	68 100	3.72	p .001
	Trs	6 (11.3)	23 (43.4)	9 (17.0)	14 (26.4)	1 (1.9)	53 100	3.35	p.000
12. Ensuring compliance with SBA task expected standards	Lrs	17 (25.0)	26 (38.2)	15 (22.1)	7 (10.3)	3 (4.4)	68 100	3.69	p.000
	Trs	5 (9.4)	17 (32.1)	9 (17.0)	19 (35.8)	3 (5.7)	53 100	3.03	p.001

SA =Strongly Agree; A=Agree; N= Neutral; D= Disagree; SDA=Strongly Disagree;
Trs= Teachers; Lrs = Learners. (Mean 1- 2.4 = low; 2.5 – 3.4 = moderate; 3.5 – 5.0 high)



4.5.1 Teacher and Learner responses on the complementarity of roles of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of SBA in high schools

There were a number of stakeholders who perform various roles in educational process. This study was delimited to roles of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of School-Based Assessment as one of the educational processes. Complementarity of roles of stakeholders was critical for the effective implementation of SBA and for enhancing teaching and learning. Findings in table 4.13 above are interrogated below.

4.5.1.1 Preparing SBA tasks

The findings of the present study suggest that 35(51.5%) of the learners agreed to the complementarity of roles during the preparation of SBA tasks, while only 15(28.3%) of the teachers agreed that there was complementarity of roles during the preparation of SBA tasks. The majority of the teachers 38(71.8%) disagreed. They found it to be practically impossible to bring complementarity among teachers, learners and parents during the preparation of SBA tasks. Although more learners

were agreeing, a p value of .114 was greater than .05 which shows that there was a significant difference meaning there was no complementarity. Similarly, for teachers, a p value of .090 was greater than .05 which shows that there was no complementarity.

4.5.1.2 Responding to SBA tasks

Learners responses showed that 44(64.7%) agreed to the need for stakeholders to work together when they respond to SBA tasks but 11(16.2%) disagreed. Teacher responses showed that 26(49%) agreed and 16(30.2%) disagreed. The p value for learner and teacher responses was .000 indicating that there was no significant difference. This means teachers and learners confirmed the need for stakeholders to work together in assisting learners when responding to SBA tasks to enhance teaching and learning.

4.5.1.3 Supervision of SBA tasks

The results showed that 34(50%) of learners agree to the supervision by stakeholders, while 19(27.9%) disagreed, with the other 15(22.1%) deciding to remain neutral. A speculation on the polarisation could be fear of supervision by learners. Teacher respondents 21(39.6%) agreed to the supervision of learners by the identified stakeholders, while 22(41.5%) disagreed. 10(18.9%) The neutral figure of 10 (18,9%) was an unexpected response coming from teachers who were professionally and academically qualified to have a better understanding of supervision. The p value for teachers (.033) and learners (.161) was greater than .005, which means there was a significant difference in the way teachers and learners viewed complementarity on the supervision of SBA tasks by stakeholders.

4.5.1.4 Monitoring of SBA tasks

Teacher responses showed that 20(37.7%) agreed and 22(41.5%) disagreed with 11(20.8%) undecided. The sum of 'disagree' and 'neutral' was more than the affirmations, a scenario which raise issues in the implementation of SBA in high schools. Learner responses showed a different picture with 39(57.4%) agreeing and 15(22.0%) disagreeing, and 14(20.6%) undecided. Learner responses confirmed that they acknowledged the need for complementarity in the monitoring of SBA tasks to facilitate its implementation and enhance learning. The p values for both teachers

(.039) and learners (.027) were more than .005. This confirms a significant difference in the way teachers and learner view complementarity in the monitoring of SBA tasks.

4.5.1.5 Evaluating SBA tasks

Results showed that most learners 46 (67.7%) agreed and few 12(17.6%) disagreed, with 10(14.7%) remaining neutral. Teachers 32(60.4%) agreed and 8(15.1%) disagreed, with 13 (24.5%) remaining neutral. The p values for both were less than .005 at .000, which means that there was no significant difference in the way teachers and learners viewed the complementarity needed in the evaluation of SBA tasks by stakeholders.

4.5.1.6 Providing adequate resources for SBA.

The issue of adequate resources was critical for the successful implementation of SBA assessment in high schools. Findings in the current study confirmed the need for complementarity in the provision of adequate resources for the implementation of SBA in high schools. The results of views on the provision of adequate resources were; teacher 34(64.1%) agree and 7(13.3%) disagree, with 12(22.6%) undecided; learners 49(72%) agree and 7(10.3%) disagree, with 12(17.6%) undecided. The p values were at .000 which was less than .005. This means there was convergence in the way teachers and learners view the need for complementarity in the provision of adequate resources for the implementation of SBA in high schools.

4.5.1.7 Providing psycho-social support

Teacher views on the complementarity of roles of stakeholders in the provision of psycho-social support showed that 23(43.4%) agreed and 18(34.0%) disagreed, while 12(22.6%) decided to remain neutral. However, results showed that teachers supported the complementarity of stakeholders in providing psycho-social support during the implementation of SBA in high schools.

Learner responses on the provision of psycho-social by stakeholders in the implementation of SBA showed that 44(64.7%) agreed and 6(8.9%) disagreed; with 18(26.5%) deciding to remain neutral. A p value of .000 for learners and 0.008 for teachers show that there was a significant difference in views of teachers and

learners on the need for complementarity in the implementation of SBA in high schools.

4.5.1.8 Assistance in researching SBA tasks

Results on views of learners on complementarity of roles in the implementation of SBA showed that 42(61.8%) agreed and 11(16.2%) disagreed while 15(22.0%) remained neutral. Teacher responses on the same aspect were 30(56.6%) agreeing and 12(22.6%) disagreeing, while those remaining neutral were 11(20.8%). The results showed that views of teachers and learners were polarised as evidenced by a p values of .008 and .000 respectively.

4.5.1.9 Stakeholders consulting each other on SBA issues

Learner views on complementarity of stakeholders consulting each other on SBA issues showed that 39(57.4%) agreed and 14(20.6%) disagreed, with 15(22.0%) being undecided. The p value was at .013 depicting a polarised perspective. Teacher views on the same aspect were 24(45.3%) agree and 19(35.8%) disagree, while 10(18.9%) were undecided. The p value was .105 confirming polarisation. This means teachers and learners do not see the need for stakeholder consultations on SBA issues during implementation of SBA in high schools.

4.5.1.10 Administration of SBA tasks

Results on the views of teachers and learners on the role of complementarities in the administration of SBA tasks showed that teachers 17(32.1%) agreed and 24(34.3%) disagreed, while 12(22.6%) were undecided. Learners' results on the same aspect showed that 25(39.7%) agreed and 23(36.5%) disagreed, with 15(23.8%) undecided. The p values for both teachers and learners were .042 and .102 respectively are greater than .000. This means teachers and learners viewed complementarities in the administration of SBA tasks with different lenses.

4.5.1.11 Creation of an enabling learning environment

Results from responses on role of complementarity in the creation of an enabling learning environment showed that teachers 29(54.7%) agreed and 15(28.3%) disagreed, while 9(17.0%) were undecided, while 42(61.8%) agree and 13(19.1%) disagree, with 13(19.1%) undecided. The p values for both teachers and learners were .000 and .001 respectively, depicting support for complementarities in the creation of an enabling learning environment for effective implementation of SBA in high schools.

4.5.1.12 Ensuring compliance with SBA task expected standards

Views of teachers and learners on complementarities in ensuring compliance with SBA expected standards showed that learners 43(63.2%) agreed and 10(14.7%) disagreed, and 15 (22.1%) decided to remain neutral; teachers, 22(41.5%) agreed and 22(41.5%) disagreed, with 9(17.0%) being undecided. The p values for teachers and learners were .001 and .000 respectively, confirming that teachers and learners view complementarities in ensure compliance with expected SBA standards during the implementation of SBA in high schools with the same lens.



4.5.2 Qualitative views on complementary roles of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of school-based assessment in high schools

Qualitative views of teachers, learners and parents converged on their roles in the implementation of SBA in high schools. Table 4.14 below shows a summary of the main themes and sub-theme on complementary roles of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of School-Based Assessment in high schools.

Table 4.14 Main themes and sub-themes on complementary roles of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of school-based assessment in high schools

Theme	Sub - Theme	Main Issues
Complementary roles in the implementation of SBA	Preparation of tasks and responding to tasks	-Teachers and parents work together in assisting with school work. -Parents check homework every day. Parents guide learners when they are doing their work. -Parents, though they are stakeholders, might not be needed in the preparation of tasks; however, they may assist learners when tasks are done at home.
	Monitoring and supervision	-Ensures that parents assist teachers in ascertaining that submission dates are adhered to by learners. -Encourage learners to avail themselves for SBA tasks. -Teachers and parents work together to review the work and progress of learner. -One-on-one session between teachers and learners to reduce learner weaknesses. -Teachers report on progress of learners. -Parents should ensure that learners do school work on time. -Teachers have chat groups for updating parents on homework given to learners.

		-Parents should make sure that children do their work. -Teachers, parents and learners make it a point that learners are up to date with their SBA tasks. -If a learner was given a task, it was the teacher and parents' responsibility to make sure that learner complete the task both monitors the child at school and at home respectively. -Parents need to be informed of the tasks given to learners so that they monitor completion. -Tell parents about the number of tasks, due dates and make the parents understand the demands of SBA tasks. -Parents should regularly check with their children and remind them to complete their tasks.
	Psychosocial support and provision of other resources	-Teachers and parents are to work together to ensure that learners are always at school in class at the right time. -Teachers, learners and parents must work as a team. -Teachers and parents meet each term for feedback. -The learning environment should be safe and conducive for effective implementation of SBA. -Teachers and parents work together to support learners with their SBA

		tasks. -Parents and teachers work together to ensure students study. -Parents assist teachers to discipline learners. -Parents and teachers take time to motivate learners on their school work - Parents provide material resources such as question papers. -Teachers can give references to learners on where to get information needed to answer the question. -Parents assist by helping learners to have access to the information. -Teachers and parents collaborate with teachers informing parents of the behaviour of the learner. -Support from teachers and parents motivate the learner to work hard and get good marks. -Teachers contribute by making sure that classrooms are free from distracters, and parents do the same with the home environment. -Parents and teachers prepare learners by giving them resources such as textbooks; study guides and financing educational programmes. -Teachers and parents should come together and mobilise resources to create an enabling learning environment.
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		-Parents repair broken furniture in the school, get sponsors to supplement the budget. -Teachers motivate learners as a form of psychosocial support. - Government provide the money.
	Meetings with parents on SBA issues	-Parents must consistently visit schools to check on problems and to fix them. Parents discuss SBA issues during parents' meetings. -Invite parents of learners with problems to come to school.

T=Teacher; L= Learner; FGD= Focus Group Discussion; SGB= School Governing Body

Below are snippets of qualitative responses of teachers', learners' and parents' views on complementary roles in the implementation of SBA in high schools, after thematic analysis on the qualitative data. Findings were obtained from teacher and learner responses to the open ended questions in the Questionnaire, focus group discussions with learners and guided interview with SGB chairpersons.

4.5.2.1 Preparation of tasks and responding to tasks

Complementarity of roles of teachers and parents was the synergy needed for effective implementation of SBA in schools. Asked about what they consider as complementarity of roles of respondents in the preparation of tasks and responding to tasks. Some of the learners said,

Teachers and parents work together in assisting with school work (L17).

Parents check homework every day (L23).

Submissions from parents in the interview confirmed the complementarity of roles teachers and parents. Parents said,

They guide learners when they are doing their work (SGB2).

Parents, though they are stakeholders, might not be needed in the preparation of tasks. However, they may assist learners when tasks are done at home (SGB3).

4.5.2 2 Monitoring and supervision

Teachers and parents work together in monitoring and supervision of learners. One of the challenges in the implementation of SBA was the late or non-submission of tasks. Asked about what they consider as role complementarity in the monitoring and supervision of SBA tasks. Some of the parents had this to say;

Parents assist teachers in ascertaining that submission dates are adhered to by learners (T5).

Encourage learners to avail themselves for SBA tasks (T15).

Teachers and parents work together to review the work and progress of learners (T22).

Learner responses from open ended questions in the Questionnaire and FGD confirmed how parent roles complemented teacher role in SBA processes. They said;

Parents ensure that learners do school work on time (L1).

Parents have chat groups for updating parents on homework given to learners (L23)

Parents make sure that children do their work (L25).

Teachers, parents and learners make it a point that learners are up to date with their SBA tasks (L29).

If a learner is given a task, it is the teacher and parents' responsibility to make sure that learner complete the task both monitors the child at school and at home respectively (FGD6).

In concurrence with the views of learners on the complementarity of roles, parents said;

Parents need to be informed of the tasks given to learners so that they monitor completion (SGB1).

Parents should regularly check with their children and remind them to complete their tasks (SGB4).

4.5.2.3 Psychosocial support and provision of other resources

Support in terms of resources and psychosocial support were critical in ensuring that school systems deliver their product, which was quality education. Asked about what they consider as role of complementarities in providing psychosocial support and other resources. Teacher responses confirmed that by saying;

Teachers, learners and parents must work as a team (T17).

Teachers and parents meet each term for feedback (T19).

The learning environment should be safe and conducive for effective implementation of SBA (T24).



Hold meeting to discuss implementation of SBA (T25).

Hold fund raising activities to supporting learners (T40).

Learner responses to the open ended questions in the Questionnaire and FGD were in tandem with parent responses in the interviews and noted that;

Parents and teachers work together to monitor learners' social well-being (L2).

Teachers and parents support learners to achieve (L21).

Parents assist teachers to discipline learners (L34).

Parents and teachers take time to motivate learners on their school work (L68).

Teachers contribute by making sure that classrooms are free from distracters and parents do the same with the home environment (FGD5).

Parents and teachers prepare learners by giving them resources such as textbooks and study guides, and financing educational programmes (FGD6).

Parent submissions in the interviews with SGB chairpersons confirmed teacher and learner responses by saying;

Teachers and parents should come together and mobilise resources to create an enabling learning environment (SGB).

Teachers should motivate learners to do their SBA work as a form of psychosocial support (SGB3)

4.5.2.4 Meetings with parents on SBA issues

Schools need regular meetings with parents particularly on SBA issues. Asked about the complementarity of roles of teachers and learners when holding meetings with parents on SBA issues? Responses confirmed this by saying;

Parents must consistently visit schools to check on problems and to fix them (SGB1).



Discussing SBA issues during parents' meetings (SGB2)

Invite parents of learners with problems to come to school (SGB4).

4.5.2.5 Main findings on complementary roles of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of school-based assessment in high schools

Main findings from qualitative responses identified critical roles that have to be complementary among teachers, learners and parents to ensure effective implementation of School-Based Assessment. Teachers, learners and parents complement each other in the preparation and responding to tasks. Stakeholder should complement each other in monitoring and supervision of the SBA processes. Support in terms of resources and psycho-social needs should come from all corners of the system as all the stakeholders work in harmony with each other. School-Based Assessment issues require the concerted effort of all stakeholders if the impediments to its implementation are to be eliminated. Table 4.15 presents quantitative and qualitative findings from research data on complementary roles of

teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of School-Based Assessment in high schools

Table 4.15 Triangulation of quantitative and qualitative findings on complementarities of roles of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of school-based assessment in high schools

Quantitative findings	Qualitative findings
Respondents agreed that teachers, learners and parents complement each other in the preparation and answering of tasks.	Teachers and parents concurred on preparation of tasks and responding to tasks as roles where they complement each other.
Teachers, learners and parents confirmed complementarity of roles in the monitoring and supervision of tasks	Monitoring and supervision were roles performed in the implementation of SBA as confirmed by the responses of teachers, learners and parents.
Responses from teachers, learners and parents concurred on the complementarity of roles on the provision of psychosocial support and other resources.	Stakeholders complemented each other in providing Psycho-social support and other resources in the implementation of SBA.
Respondents concurred on the holding of stakeholder meetings on SBA issues.	Submissions by parents confirmed role complementarity when meetings with parents on SBA issues are held.

Table 4.15 above showed a summary of quantitative and qualitative findings on the complementarity of stakeholder roles in the implementation of School-Based Assessment.

4.5.2.5.1 Interpretation of the triangulation table

Quantitative data from the closed questions in the Questionnaire revealed that teachers and learners acknowledge complementarity in the preparation and responding to tasks; monitoring and supervision of tasks; provision of psychosocial

support and other resources, and handling of SBA issues. This confirmed convergence points in the execution of duties which was a fertile ground for the implementation of SBA.

Qualitative findings from open ended questions in the Questionnaire, FGD with learners and interviews with SGB chairperson identified complementarity in the roles of respondents and participants in the preparation and answering of tasks, monitoring and supervision of tasks, provision of psychosocial support, and other resources and meetings to handle SBA issues.

The result exhibits a convergence of the quantitative findings with the qualitative results. A complete picture was obtained by mixing methods, as qualitative data and findings provide rich explanations of the results from the quantitative data.

4.6 RESULTS OF TEACHER AND LEARNER RESPONSES ON STRATEGIES TO ENHANCE IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SBA IN HIGH SCHOOLS

In an attempt to answer the fourth sub-problem, teachers and learners provided their views on some of the suggested strategies. School-Based Assessment as an assessment tool, intends to measure learner performance. Learners play a critical role in the implementation of School-Based Assessment and their views could be the panacea to the issues in the implementation of SBA in high schools. Studies on views of learners have been thin, despite learners being a key stakeholder in the learning process.

4.6.1 Quantitative results on teacher responses on strategies to enhance in the implementation of SBA in high schools

Views of teachers on strategies that can be used to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools were obtained from closed questions on the Questionnaire. Table 4.16 presents findings on views of teachers on strategies to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment in high school.

Table 4.16 Quantitative results of teacher responses on strategies to enhance in the implementation of SBA in high schools (N=53)

Strategies:		S A	A	N	D	S D	Total	Mean	Std D
		5	4	3	2	1			
1	Assessment committees to coordinate the implementation of SBA among subjects	15 (28.3)	29 (54.7)	4 (7.5)	4 (7.5)	1 (1.9)	53 (100)	4.00	.919
2	Engagement of teachers in test development workshops	15 (28.3)	27 (50.9)	7 (13.2)	3 (5.7)	1 (1.9)	53 (100)	3.98	.909
3	SBA consultation meetings with parents	12 (22.6)	19 (35.8)	8 (15.1)	10 (18.9)	4 (7.5)	53 (100)	3.47	1.249
4	Establishment of SBA cluster task banks	19 (35.8)	22 (41.5)	7 (13.2)	3 (5.7)	2 (3.2)	53 (100)	4.00	1.037
5	Involvement of teachers in item writing of SBA tasks	24 (45.3)	18 (34.0)	9 (17.0)	2 (3.8)	0 (0)	53 (100)	4.21	.862
6	Standardising of SBA task quantities for all subjects	21 (39.6)	22 (41.5)	9 (17.0)	1 (1.9)	0 (0)	53 (100)	4.19	.786
7	Enforcement of SBA task completion by credit point accumulation system	16 (30.2)	24 (45.3)	8 (15.1)	5 (9.4)	0 (0)	53 (100)	3.96	.919
8	Synchronised		30	4	1	0	53	4.23	.669

	regional calendar for administration of SBA tasks	18 (34.0)	(56.6)	(7.5)	(1.9)	(0)	(100)		
9	Term meetings with parents to discuss SBA issues	14 (26.4)	25 (47.2)	6 (11.3)	5 (9.4)	3 (5.7)	53 (100)	3.79	1.116

SA= Strongly Agree; A= Agree; D= Disagree; SDA= Strongly Disagree; Std. D= Standard Deviation. (Mean 1- 2.4 = low; 2.5 – 3.4 = moderate; 3.5 – 5.0 high)

4.6.1.1 Establish School Assessment Committees

Findings in Table 4.16 revealed that teachers agreed on the use of assessment committees as a strategy to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment in high schools. Affirmations for the use of Assessment committees as a strategy were 44(83.0%). The figure for the neutrals was 4(7.5%) and was the most popular strategy as reflected by the least neutral value.



4.6 1.2 Test development workshops for Teachers

Test development workshops involve regular well planned staff development exercises for all teachers targeting specific areas. A timetable and an Assessment Teaching Plan to be covered in each grade must be availed at the beginning of the year. Results confirmed professional development on teachers through the use of test development workshops as strategy. The responses for teachers agreeing were 42(79.2%) with a mean of 3.98.

4.6.1.3 SBA Consultation Meetings with Parents

The findings on the use of SBA consultation meetings with parents as a strategy showed that; teachers 31(58.5%) agreed to holding SBA consultation meetings with parents. However, the views of teachers were polarised, with those remaining neutral and disagreeing standing at 22(41.5%). A 'neutral' and 'disagreeing' figure of 41% was worrisome as it suggests that it was not important to have SBA consultation meetings with parents. The view disregards the importance of voice of

the parent in the implementation of SBA in high schools as advocated under the literature review of the current study.

4.6.1.4 Establishing SBA cluster Task Banks

Establishing a cluster task bank will ensure that tasks are available in time thus removing the problem task backlog which may result a heavy workload for teachers and learners. Results for views of teachers on the establishment of a cluster task bank showed that teacher affirmations were 41(77.3%). Findings were positively skewed revealing that teachers supported the use of a cluster task bank to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment. Views on the use of a SBA cluster task bank were limited to teachers on the pretext that the use of a task bank was administrative.

4.6.1.5 Involving Teachers in SBA task item writing

Results for views of teachers on involving teachers in SBA task item writing revealed that teachers supported the involvement of teachers in the setting of SBA tasks. The strategy complemented the establishment of a cluster task bank as teachers would be appointed to set the tasks for the cluster task bank. This would improve the quality of the tasks and the marking guides since they would be prepared on time and would go through a rigorous pre-moderation process. The figures for the affirmations were 42(79.3%). The strategy also showed a 'neutral' figure of 9(17.0%), such a high neutral figure from teachers was a pointer to the existence of SBA implementation issues.

4.6.1.6 Standardising the number of SBA tasks for All Subjects

Standardising the number of SBA tasks for all subjects as a strategy for enhancing the implementation of School-Based Assessment responded to the issue of increased workload for teachers, learners and parents. Teacher responses revealed that 43(81.1%) of the teachers agreed to the standardisation of SBA tasks for all subjects. Regrettably the strategy has highest neutral value of 9(17.0%) which may be a pointer to the existence of SBA implementation issues.

4.6.1.7 Instituting a Credit Point Accumulation System to enforce completion of SBA tasks

Another chronic challenge negatively impacting the implementation of School-Based Assessment was learner compliance with SBA requirements. Findings showed that teacher responses were skewed towards 'agree' and 'strongly agree' on the strategy of instituting a credit point accumulation system to enforce completion of SBA tasks to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment in high schools. Teacher affirmations were 40(75.5%). The strategy ranked second highest on the neutral response at 8(15, 1%). A high neutral response would signify implementation issues.

4.6.1.8 Synchronised Regional Calendar for Administration of SBA tasks

Synchronised regional calendar for administration of SBA tasks as a strategy was intended to harmonise the SBA implementation processes to enhance teaching and learning. A harmonised SBA implementation schedule would improve the quality of SBA results because of better supervision by district and cluster structures, since the moderation processes would be harmonised as well. The findings indicates that teachers 48(90.6%) agreed to the strategy of using a synchronised regional calendar for the administration of SBA tasks to enhance implementation as well as teaching and learning.

4.6.1. 9 Evaluation Meetings with Parents on SBA issues

Findings in this study revealed that teachers 39(73.6%) agreed to holding evaluation meetings with parents to discuss SBA implementation issues as strategy, clearing the way for a smooth implementation of SBA to enhance teaching and learning. The results were rather polarised as depicted by an SD of 1.12 for teachers.

4.6.1.2 Quantitative results on learner responses on strategies to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools

Learner views were sought from the closed questions in the Questionnaire on the suggested strategies, to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools. Table 4.17 presents findings on views of learners on strategies to enhance the implementation of school - based assessment in high schools.

Table 4.17 Quantitative results of learner responses on strategies to enhance in the implementation of SBA in high schools (N=68)

Strategies:		S A	A	N	D	S D	Total	Mean	Std D
		5	4	3	2	1			
1	Assessment committees to coordinate the implementation of SBA among subjects	22 (32.4)	35 (51.5)	10 (14.7)	1 (1.5)	0 (0)	68 (100)	4.15	.718
2	Engagement of teachers in test development workshops	31 (45.6)	24 (35.3)	9 (13.2)	2 (2.9)	2 (2.9)	68 (100)	4.17	.977
3	SBA consultation meetings with parents	31 (45.6)	24 (35.3)	9 (13.2)	2 (2.9)	2 (2.9)	68 (100)	4.17	.977
4	Involvement of teachers in item writing of SBA tasks	19 (27.9)	33 (48.5)	12 (17.6)	3 (4.4)	1 (1.5)	68 (100)	3.97	.880
5	Standardisation of SBA task quantities for all subjects	21 (30.9)	29 (42.6)	12 (17.6)	2 (2.9)	4 (5.9)	68 (100)	3.89	1.07
6	Enforcement of SBA task completion by credit point accumulation system	16 (23.5)	32 (47.1)	15 (22.1)	5 (7.4)	0 (0)	68 (100)	3.87	.862
7	Synchronising of regional calendar for administration of SBA tasks	25 (36.8)	25 (36.8)	15 (22.1)	3 (4.4)	0 (0)	68 (100)	4.06	.879
8	Term meetings with parents to discuss SBA issues	33 (48.5)	18 (26.5)	12 (17.6)	3 (4.4)	2 (2.9)	68 (100)	4.13	1.05

SA= Strongly Agree; A= Agree; D= Disagree; SDA= Strongly Disagree; Std. D= Standard Deviation. (Mean 1- 2.4 = low; 2.5 – 3.4 = moderate; 3.5 – 5.0 high)

4.6.1.2.1 Establish School Assessment Committees

Table 4.17 shows that learners agreed to the establishment of assessment committees as a strategy to facilitate the implementation of SBA in high schools. The affirmations were 57(83.9%) with an SD of .718. The low SD shows that the learner responses were less polarised. There was convergence on the views of teachers and learners on the use of assessment committees to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools as the strategy was ranked first by teachers and learners.

4.6.1.2.2 Test development workshops for Teachers

Results confirmed the professional development of teachers through the use of test development workshops as a strategy to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools. Workshops are important for skills development in the implementation of SBA. The responses for learners agreeing were 55(80.9%) with an SD of .977. Those who remained neutral were 9 (13.2%).

4.6.1.2.3 SBA Consultation Meetings with Parents

Learners' responses were positively skewed with those agreeing at 55(80.9%) with an SD of .976. Learners strongly believed that teachers needed to consult parents on SBA issues as a strategy to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools.

4.6.1.2.4 Setting of SBA Tasks

Results revealed that learners supported the involvement of teachers in the setting of SBA tasks. The results were 52 (76.4%), with an SD of .880, depicting moderate polarisation of learner responses.

4.6.1.2.5 Standardising the number of SBA tasks for All Subjects

Learner responses showed that 50(73.5%) of the learners agreeing to the standardisation of SBA tasks per subject. Learner responses were somewhat polarised, with an SD of 1.06. The polarisation could be a result of the limited experience of grade 11 learners since the workload issues raised could be felt more at grade12, considering the busy schedule because of Matric examinations.

4.6.1.2.6 Instituting a Credit Point Accumulation System to enforce completion of SBA tasks

With the limited disciplinary options at the teachers' disposal in the implementation of SBA in high schools, a strategy such as instituting a credit point accumulation system to enforce completion of SBA task. Results of learner views showed that learners agreed to the use of the strategy. Learners' responses were 48(70.6%) agreeing, with an SD of .862.

4.6.1.2.7 Synchronised Regional Calendar for Administration of SBA tasks

The findings indicated that learners 50(73.6) agreed to the strategy of using a synchronised regional calendar for the administration of SBA tasks to enhance implementation as well as teaching and learning. The results showed a less polarised view for learners with mean of 4.06 and SD of .879.

4.6.1.2.8 Evaluation Meetings with Parents on SBA issues

Findings on views of learners on holding of evaluation meetings with parents on SBA issues revealed that learners 51(75.0%) agreed. The holding of evaluation meetings with parents to discuss SBA issues, would clear the way for a smooth implementation of SBA to enhance teaching and learning. The results were rather polarised as depicted by an SD of 1.049 for learners.

4.6.2 QUALITATIVE RESULTS ON STRATEGIES TO ENHANCE THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SBA IN HIGH SCHOOLS

Table 4.18 below gives a summary of themes and sub-themes of strategies to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment.

Table 4.18 Main Themes and sub-themes on strategies to enhance the implementation of SBA in high school

Theme	Sub - theme	Main issues
Strategies to enhance the implementation of SBA	Stakeholder meetings	-Having one on one discussion between learner and teacher in the presence of parent. -Orientate parents and learners on the importance of SBA and its impact on learner progress. -Workshop parents on the importance of assisting their children (needs to be fully and actively involved). -Attending workshops with assessment committee at school level -Hold parental meetings to; • make input about school assessment • give constant update on the performance of their children • allow them have a say during the meeting • discuss SBA issues with learners whose SBA was slow • inform them about SBA issues • enable parents to make an input on what they think learners should be doing at school • show where the learner was lacking • share ideas informed by learner performance to consolidate what was happening at school and at home • iron out problems faced by stakeholders
	Provision of Resources	-Ensure that learners have resource materials for every subject. -Provide both learners and parents with ATPs and SBA schedules.

		-Give relevant documents to both parents and learners for better understanding of SBA evaluation. -Use online learning and assessment platforms for SBA. - Ensure availability of libraries and internet. - Provide time for teachers and learners to work together. -Provide the information on assessments in advance. -Draw up a schedule for conducting the tasks.
	Ensuring Compliance	-Deduct marks for failure to submit tasks or if learners show lack of seriousness. -Use of penalty system; •  To make learners co-operate during SBA administration. • To makes students to do their work because they cannot afford to lose the points. • To encourages learners to submit the tasks. • To motivates learners to work hard.

	Monitoring by stakeholders	-Encourage parents to be involved in the studies of their children. - Avail study timetables for learners to parents. -Send a message to the parents to inform them about the tasks to be written or not submitted -Monitoring of learners by parents; • to ensure submission of tasks • to allow learners to prepare better since the parents know what they are doing at school • to make sure that the work was well done • to hold parents accountable for their child's behaviour  University of Fort Hare Together in Excellence
	Assessment committees	- Use Assessment Committee ; • to check books regularly • to do follow up to see if the teachers are giving learners the right material for SBA • to ensure uniformity in the conducting of SBA matters • to do the timetabling of tasks • to evaluate the tasks being given to learners
	Handling of workload issues	- Training of learners on time management. -Give parents synchronised regional calendar for SBA. -Give learners more tasks and select the best. -Plan in advance and space out the writing of the tasks and balance out depending on the level of difficulty.

		-Draw up a timetable for tasks, to avoid overloading learners.
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T=Teacher; L= Learner; FGD= Focus Group Discussion; SGB= School Governing Body

Below are extracts of views of respondents and participants on the strategies to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment.

4.6.2.1 Stakeholder meetings

Participation of all the stakeholders was important in the implementation of SBA. Teacher responses to the open ended questions in the Questionnaire revealed the need for stakeholder meetings as a strategy to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools. Asked about their view on stakeholder meetings as a strategy in the implementation of SBA? Some of the teachers said;



Parents make input about School assessment (T2).

Have a one-on-one discussion with learner and teacher in the presence of parent (T19).

Orientate parents and learners on the importance of SBA, and its impact on learner progress (T22).

Learner responses to the open ended questions in the Questionnaire and FGD were in tandem with teacher responses. The views of the learners were that;

Parents of learners should attend parents meeting in order to get constant update on the performance of their children (L1).

Learners should be deeply involved in SBA meetings and must be allowed to have a say during the meeting (L2).

Arrange meetings with children's parents to discuss task completion (L16).

Have meetings with the community to inform them about SBA (L20).

Enable parents to make an input on what they think learners should be doing at school (FGDI).

Enable parents to make an input on what they think learners should be doing at school (FGD2).

Meetings show where the learner was lacking, discuss learner performance in class. If learner is not passing, strategies are developed to see how learner's marks can be improved (FGD5).

Parent submissions in the interviews concurred with teachers and learners' views on stakeholder meetings as a strategy to enhance the implementation of SBA. Parents had this to say;

Teachers must invite parents to school if they are not giving their children time to do tasks (SGB1).

Share ideas informed by learner performance to consolidate what was happening at school and at home (SGB2).

Meetings are used to iron out problems faced by stakeholders (SGB5).

4.6.2.2 Provision of Resources

Asked about the provision of resources as a strategy to enhance the implementation of SBA? Teachers said;

Ensure that learners have resource materials for every subject (T9).

Provide both learners and parents with ATPs and SBA schedules (T17).

Give relevant documents to both parents and learners for better understanding of SBA evaluation (T26).

Use online learning and assessment platforms for SBA (T35).

Learner responses to the open ended question in the Questionnaire and FGD concur with the suggestion provision of resources by stating that;

Availability of libraries and internet (L28)

Enough time must be made available for teachers and learners to work together (L68).

Provide the information on assessments in advance (FGD1).

Parents confirmed the need for resources in the implementation of SBA in their submissions during interviews. Some of the views of the parents were;

SMT must draw up a schedule for conducting the tasks (SGB1).

Parents should give time to their children to do the tasks (SGB3).

4.6.2.3 Ensuring Compliance

Compliance becomes an issue where learner absenteeism and general learner indiscipline was high. Asked about their views on ensuring compliance from learners as a strategy; one teacher suggested that;

Marks should be deducted for failure to submit tasks or if learners show lack of seriousness (T20).

As a way of ensuring compliance and timely submission, learners suggested



Officialising an SBA final score penalty system for learners who do not submit tasks (T35).

Point system makes students to do their work because they cannot afford to lose the points (FGD2).

The Point system encourages them to submit the tasks so that they will be able to write the exams and pass (FGD6).

Parents concurred with teachers and learners in their submissions during interviews with SGB chairpersons. The parents observed that;

The use of the point system motivates learners to work hard (SGB2).

Point system motivates learners as it becomes a target which the learner would like to achieve (SGB5).

4.6.2.4 Monitoring by stakeholders

Parents should be involved in school work by monitoring their children's work through supervision of homework. Asked about their views on monitoring by teachers and parents? Teacher responses to the open ended questions noted that;

Learners should be monitored by teachers, administration and parents to ensure completion and submission of tasks (T38; T40).

Learners confirmed the significance of monitoring in their responses to the open ended questions and FGD. Learners suggested the following strategies on enhance implementation of SBA;

Encourage parents to be involved in studies of their learners (L23).

Study timetables for learners should be availed and accessible to parents (L27).

Teachers should send a message to the parents to inform them about the tasks (FGD1).

Send messages to parents if tasks are not received in time (FGD2).

Parents should monitor their children to the best of their ability but should be held accountable (FGD5).

Parents should be held accountable for their child's behaviour (FGD6).

Submissions by parents were in tandem with the views of teachers and learners. They suggested that;

Parents should monitor the work of their children to ensure that child does not fail as they are the ones paying the money (SGB3).

Parental guidance was needed on the learners in all what they do (SGB5).

4.6.2.5 Assessment committees

Literature suggested the use of assessment committees as a strategy to ensure effective implementation of SBA. Teachers identified the establishment of Assessment committees to facilitate the implementation of SBA. Asked what strategies would enhance effective implementation of SBA. One of the teachers said

Assessment committee conducting workshops with teachers, learners and parents (T25)

Learner supported the establishment of Assessment committees in schools to check the records of teachers for compliance with SBA requirements. Some of the learners said;

Committees assist by checking books at the end. However, they must help learners from the beginning (FGD1).

Committees are needed because they do follow up to see if the teachers are giving learners the right material for SBA (FGD4).

Committees meet regularly to check on teachers and learners' books (FGD6).

Parents accepted the use of Assessment committees in the monitoring and supervision of the moderation processes as a strategy. Their submissions in the interviews were that;

Committees will ensure uniformity in the conducting of SBA matters (SGB3).



Timetabling of tasks will be done by committees (SGB4).

Committees evaluate the tasks given to learners (SGB5).

Some of the parents had reservations on the use of Assessment committees. Their views were that;

Committees may lack the needed content to assist in checking quality of tasks since they were made up of members from different subjects (SGB1).

Committees are there for compliance purposes and do not assist with SBA tasks (SGB2).

4.6.2.6 Workload

Heavy workload was among the serious challenges negatively impacting on the implementation of SBA in high schools across in the global village. Asked about the strategies to deal with heavy workload on teachers and learners? Suggesting a strategy to deal with the issue of heavy workload, one of the teachers gave;

Time management training for learners (T18).

Learner responses to the open ended questions in the Questionnaire and FGD suggested the following;

Give parents synchronised regional calendar for SBA tasks (L37).

Parents need to teach their children how to manage time (FGD2).

Learners in high school should be responsible enough to manage their own time (FGD3).

Teachers should plan in advance and space out the writing of the tasks and balance out depending on the level of difficulty (FGD4).

Submission by one of the parents suggested that;

Schools should draw up a timetable for tasks, to avoid overloading learners (SGB3)

4.6.2.7 Main findings on strategies to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment in high schools



Qualitative findings revealed a number of strategies that could be used by teachers, learners and parents to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment in high schools. The suggested strategies included: holding meetings with stakeholders to deal with issues; providing adequate resources to all stakeholders in an effort to capacitate them for effective implementation of SBA; ensuring compliance particularly on the part of learners by instituting a penalty system; monitoring of SBA processes by teachers and parents; establishment of assessment committees to monitor and supervise SBA implementation processes; and effective time management as strategy for handling workload on teachers and learners.

Table 4.19 below present quantitative and qualitative findings on strategies to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools

Table 4.19 Triangulation of quantitative and qualitative findings on strategies to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools

Quantitative findings	Qualitative findings
Stakeholders suggested the use of consultation meetings as a strategy for dealing with SBA issues.	Holding meetings with stakeholders to deal with issues.
Teachers are capacitated through test development workshops and involving them in the setting of SBA tasks.	Providing adequate resources to all stakeholders in an effort to capacitate them for effective implementation of SBA.
Findings showed teachers, learners and parents supporting the use of the point system to ensure compliance from learners.	Ensuring compliance particularly on the part of learners by instituting a penalty system.
Use of synchronised calendar for administering of SBA tasks to ensure effective monitoring of processes.	Monitoring of SBA processes by teachers and parents.
Quantitative findings showed a high percentage of stakeholders supporting the use of committees as a strategy for dealing with SBA issues.	Establishing assessment committees to monitor and supervise SBA implementation processes.
Respondents supported the use evenly spaced SBA schedule; standardising reducing the number of tasks per subject as strategies for handling workload for teachers and learners.	Managing time effectively and reducing the number of tasks per subject as strategies for handling workload for teachers and learners.

4.6.2.7.1 Interpretation of the triangulation table

Table 4.19 presents quantitative and qualitative findings on strategies to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment.

Quantitative findings identified the use of consultation meetings in dealing with SBA issues; capacitating teacher through workshops and involvement in setting tasks; using the point system to ensure compliance from learners; using a synchronised calendar for effective monitoring of processes; using Assessment committees to support the implementation of SBA; and standardising the number of tasks as a measure to deal with workload on all stakeholders.

Qualitative findings identified the holding of meetings with stakeholders to deal with SBA issues; providing adequate resources to capacitate them in the implementation of SBA; ensuring learner compliance through instituting a penalty system; monitoring of SBA processes by teachers and parents; establishing Assessment committees to monitor and supervise SBA processes and effective time management; and reducing the number of tasks as a strategy for handling workload.

Quantitative findings and qualitative findings converged on most, if not all, the strategies to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment as envisaged when concurrent design was used in MMR. Qualitative findings were more explicit because of probing during FGD and interviews. Qualitative findings were complemented, and elaborated quantitative findings.

4.7 DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

The research study aimed at examining the implementation of School-Based Assessment in high schools. Research findings were discussed in this section as responses to the sub research questions. Findings were summarised as quantitative from closed questions in the Questionnaire, using descriptive statistics (frequencies, mean, and standard deviation) and qualitative (themes) from open ended questions in the Questionnaire, interviews, and FGDs. Findings confirmed an array of roles for teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of School-Based-Assessment. Quantitative and qualitative findings are compared and interrogated to establish

whether they converge or diverge. The convergence and divergence were discussed within the parameters of the literature reviewed and (TQM) the theory supporting the study.

4.7.1 Views of teachers, parents and learners on the role of School-Based-Assessment in the learning and teaching process

The first sub-problem sought to establish the roles of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of School-Based Assessment to enhance teaching and learning. Findings from the study confirm that schools were implementing SBA and teachers' views on different roles were varied.

4.7.1.1 Providing feedback to learners

UNESCO (2014) identified the world's high performing education systems such as Australia, Finland, Hong Kong, Singapore, Sweden and United Kingdom, as having assessment systems characterised by providing feedback to students, teachers and schools about what has been learnt and feed forward information that can shape future learning. However, literature revealed lack of feedback as one of the critical factors hindering effective implementation of SBA in South African Schools (Umalusi, 2015). In concurrence, students expressed reservations about the value of SBA as mode of assessment and were unable to benefit from the feedback they were receiving from teachers (Tong & Adamson, 2015).

Teacher and learner responses to the closed questions in the Questionnaire confirmed having sound knowledge of the value of feedback in the teaching and learning process. In concurrence, responses to open ended questions in the Questionnaire, FGDs and submissions by parents in the interviews confirmed the value of feedback on SBA, to enhance teaching and learning. Confirmation of feedback as a key role in the implementation of SBA was in line with the quality control principle of TQM where action was taken to remove differences.

4.7.1.2 On assessing what cannot be assessed by public exams

School-Based Assessment was used to assess subject areas that cannot be assessed in public examinations. Green (2014) opines that some important skills such as creativity, communication, independent learning and teamwork are difficult

to assess in an examination, yet they are key to student's future success in their education and in the world of work. Practical skills, orals and soft skills which were advocated in the 21st century can only be accessed through SBAs. Having the ability to test all skills enable SBA to offer total customer satisfaction which was TQM management philosophy (Wani & Mehraj, 2014). Learners' and parents' responses in FGDs and interviews respectively revealed the role of SBA as being able to assess aspects which cannot be assessed in public exams and concurred with the quantitative findings.

4.7.1.3 Preparation of learners for final examinations

Another critical role of SBA identified by respondents and participants, and linked to exams was the preparation of learners for final examinations. Tong and Adamson (2015) in concurrence assert that, SBA prepares learners well for exams. While there was a general consensus on SBA preparing learners for final exams, some respondents and participants condemned SBA for weakening the value of education as teachers only assess what they taught. This perception concurs with Ndalichako's (2014) finding that teachers tend to view SBA as a means of preparing learners to succeed in national examinations rather than viewing assessment as a means for enhancing teaching and learning. Mishra and Mallik's (2014) findings support the view that, learners do not enjoy examinations since teachers do not teach properly what to write in the examination. Findings from the study, particularly from interview probing, confirmed the critical role of SBA as preparing learner for final exams despite the few grey areas highlighted.

4.7.1.4 Evaluation of teaching methods and strategies

Respondents and participants reported that SBA enabled teachers to evaluate their teaching methods and strategies. SBA would therefore, assist teachers to have self-introspection of their teaching as depicted by the results of the assessment. Learners would be able to make a personal judgement of their efforts. In the end, there will be a realignment of the teaching and learning processes as dictated by the TQM, the theory informing this study. Mansor et al. (2013) said teachers believed the implementation of SBA encouraged personal progress. The finding from the study and from Mansor et al. (2013) confirms the critical role of SBA in enabling teachers to evaluate their teaching methods for enhancing teaching and learning.

4.7.1.5 Identifying their strengths and weaknesses.

The other role of SBA as reported by respondents and participants was that it enables them to identify their strength and weaknesses. DBE in Ramalepe (2015) gave one of the merits of SBA in the teaching and learning as allowing constant assessment of learners' strength and weaknesses and informing remedial programmes. Teachers as the architects of the learning process would be able to reconfigure and recalibrate their pedagogic styles. Learners learn better by discovering their strengths and weaknesses as they reinforce on the strengths and build on the weaknesses. This was confirmed in literature that, when SBA was at its best, it can be motivating and productive to students, helping them to know how well they are doing and what else they need to do (Gobena, 2013). Results showed that responses of learners and teacher converged on SBA assisting learner to have a better understanding of strengths and weaknesses to enhance learning.

4.7.1.6 Developing positive attitudes



Learner responses reflected a high percentage of uncertainty on SBA, assisting them to develop a positive attitude. However, results show convergence on views of teachers and learners in both quantitative and qualitative findings. This was in tandem with literature revelation that teachers were found to have a positive attitude on the use of student portfolios (Tangdhanakanond & Wangwanich, 2012). A high prevalence of uncertainty on learner responses in findings for the current study confirms Tong and Adamson's (2015) report that students seemed to be sceptical about the capacity of SBA performing the functions ascribed to it, such as advancing their learning. This was contrary to TQM theory, which confirms learners as one of the internal customers in an educational context, and the quality of education being measured through satisfying the agreed learner needs and expectations, through the essential ingredients of TQM, such as integrity, honesty, trust and openness (Arcaro 2005 in Supramono & Larasati 2014; Wami & Mehraj, 2014).

4.7.1.7 Enhancing collaborative skills

Findings in the current study revealed that learner responses on SBA assisting learners in enhancing collaborative skills were polarised, with a high prevalence of

the neutral response. However, teacher responses confirmed the value of SBA in enhancing collaborative skills to ensure teaching and learning. SBA helps to develop positive attitudes and enhances collaborative skills that promote creative teaching and learning activities (Mansor et al., 2013). The overall picture, however, was that views of teachers and learners were not in total consonance on enhancing collaborative skills despite one of TQM principles advocating SBA activities to be customer focused. This means that teachers, learners and parents should attain satisfaction from educational service

4.7.1.8 Promote creative teaching and learning activities

Responses for both teachers and learners posited that SBA promotes creative teaching and learning. This was contrary to findings by Tong and Adamson's (2015) finding that, students in their study were not convinced that SBA provided them with a more enjoyable and less stressful assessment experience. However, findings were in tandem with the TQM principle of customer focus in that organisations depend on the users of their products, and the need to understand their current and future needs, as well as meet their demands and exceed their expectations (Luburić, 2014).



4.7.2 Structures in place to support the implementation of School-Based Assessment in schools

The second sub-problem sought to establish familiarity of respondents and participants with the support structures and the support provided by the structures in the implementation of SBA in high schools. Studies zeroed in on implementation as the problematic component in the SBA machinery as an educational reform (Ramalepe & Zengele, 2014; Narayan, 2014). Support structures are pillars which anchor the implementation processes. In countries with higher success rate in the implementation of SBA, the success was attributed to support measures provided to teachers in the implementation, whereby working group and coordinators were designated to help teachers coordinate their subjects, and measures were employed to ensure fairness, objectivity and consistency in grading SBA work (Barley, 2013). In South Africa, SASA (84 of 1996) identified five levels in school governance such as National level, Provincial level, District level, Circuit level and School level.

Findings on familiarity with the structures will be interrogated to establish how they can enhance the implementation of schools based assessment.

National level provides the legislative framework which includes policies upon which SBA was founded. The draft policy on the quality assurance of SBA grades 10-12 was published for public comment in 2017 (DBE, 2017). The unavailability of the national policy on the implementation of SBA impacts negatively on its implementation, and the impact cascades down the structures to school level. Umalusi, as a structure, was mandated to assure quality of all assessments, including SBA. Statistics in Table 4.9 show that teachers and learners were familiar with the identified structures. Results concur with literature that structures exist at district level for discussions and meetings on assessment, Circuit managers oversee policy implementation in schools and ratify the appointment of cluster leaders from schools (The Eastern Cape Provincial Department of Education, 2016). Learner results confirmed familiarity with these structures. However, the results show a high prevalence of the 'somewhat familiar' response on familiarity with DBE and Umalusi. This was expected from learners, considering their limited scope on curriculum discourse. A slightly high prevalence of lack of familiarity with Subject HOD in quantitative results from learners was an unexpected finding. Findings are supported by DBE (2015) Technical Report that there was little evidence of monitoring and support of schools to improve the quality of pre and post moderation of tasks at school level.

Qualitative results showed convergence of teacher and learner views on the administrative structures in the implementation of School-Based Assessment. The implication was that teachers and learners acknowledged the structures and their purpose in the implementation of SBA in high schools. However, some parents were not quite familiar with some of the structures, which was somewhat unexpected considering that the parent was an SGB chair, purposively selected on the basis of knowledge in educational issues.

4.7.2.1 Support from administrative structures in the implementation of SBA in high schools

Literature revealed that curriculum debate has been vibrant with many scholars criticising the government on lack of training of teachers on curriculum (Maile, 2013). Stakeholder views from quantitative and qualitative findings were engaged in lieu of the research problem.

Statistics in Table 4.10 show that teachers acknowledged the support for the implementation of SBA given by the structures through induction of new teachers. Findings were in tandem with Ramalepe's (2014) suggestion of holding induction or mentoring programmes to take the new teachers on board with regard to SBA. The rationale for inducting teachers was to improve on the quality of service offered by the teacher and respond to the TQM call for quality to be imbedded in every facet of educational processes (Chauhan & Sharma, 2015).

Structures are expected to avail policies which guide and coordinate schooling activities including SBA. Findings revealed that teachers confirmed policies being availed by the relevant structures. However, Umalusi (2015) report identified many aspects of SBA which were expected to be addressed by the policies which were availed.

Findings from participants and respondents reported mixed views on the support given to teachers and learners in the implementation of School-Based Assessment in high schools. Some respondents acknowledged the support given to teachers and learners as evidenced by the quality of the tasks. At the same time, others reported lack or inadequate support in terms of resources (financial and material). Parents highlighted a huge disparity in terms of resources between schools such as computers and computer rooms, science laboratories and science equipment. The findings concur with Mishra and Mallick's (2014) finding which reported inadequate funds and supporting environments for smooth implementation of SBA. Despite lack of resources findings reported positively on monitoring curriculum coverage as support given to implementers of SBA. Teacher responses on the forms of support from the identified structure showed a high prevalence of the neutral view, an aspect

which was rather disturbing coming from teachers. Probing could not be applied since teacher responses were solicited from closed questions on the Questionnaire.

One of the major challenges faced by teachers during the implementation of School-Based Assessment was failure by learners to submit SBA tasks. Support from structures was intended to facilitate the submission of tasks to ensure that SBA enhances teaching and learning. Eastern Cape Provincial Department of Education (2016) Assessment Instruction number 18 of 2016 clearly states that Learners/ Parents must be informed at the beginning of the year that SBA was a compulsory component of their promotional mark, and therefore must be fully complied with and given the support and attention it deserves. Statistics in Table 4.10 confirm the need for the assistance. However, a slightly high prevalence of undecided and disagreeing responses cast doubt on the curbing of the challenge of submission of tasks by learners.

Setting of tasks was paramount for quality purposes. Findings reflected concurrence of views of teachers, learners and parents on the setting of quality tasks. However, one parent remarked that some of the tasks were sent with inadequate information. The remark showed a well-informed parent, confirming compliance with the requirements for the appointment of an SGB chair. On the contrary, DBE (2017) Report bemoaned the continued existence of challenges which continue to hound the implementation of SBA, which was poor quality of some SBA tasks, or tasks of low cognitive levels.

Structures offered different forms of support including moderation of tasks. This aligned with the process approach as a principle of TQM, which advocates for support networks and systems for developing effective education both within and outside the school (Stringfield 2001 in Pineda, 2013). Participants and respondents confirmed moderation of tasks by different structures. The finding showed an improvement from what was reported in the Technical Report by DBE (2015), where there was little evidence of monitoring and support to schools to improve the quality of pre- and post- moderation of tasks at school level. Implementation of School-Based Assessment requires a solid resource support base. Overall, quantitative and qualitative findings converged on the forms of support given to stakeholders in the

implementation of SBA with a few incidences of divergence on the views of stakeholders.

4.7.3 Complementary roles of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of school-based assessment in schools

When components of a system are not working in synergy, the system will collapse. In an effort to provide answers to the research question, the third sub-problem sought to identify complementary roles of stakeholders in the implementation of SBA to enhance teaching and learning. Complementarity of roles conforms to the systems approach principle of TQM which advocates the interconnectedness of stakeholders (Diamadescu, 2016).

Studies have identified several challenges emanating from lack of synergy on the part teachers, learners and parents during the implementation of SBA in high schools. Statistics in Table 4.13 show responses to the closed questions in the Questionnaire for teacher and learner respondents. The results show the views of teachers and learners agreeing on the complementarity of the roles. What was interesting with views of teachers and learners was a high prevalence of the neutral response for both respondents. A neutral response from learners can be tolerated considering their level of interaction with curriculum discourses. A high prevalence of the neutral response on the views of teachers literally means they were undecided, which then raise questions on their understanding of SBA issues considering their level of maturity and understanding of curriculum issues. There was divergence on the views of teachers and learners on the complementarities of roles. The findings were in tandem with Tong and Adamson's (2015) finding of a low level of complementarities on the roles of teacher's learners and parents. Responses from the open ended questions on the Questionnaire, FGDs and interviews revealed high levels of convergence on the views of the participants and respondents. Participants and respondents agreed on how teachers, learners and parents complemented each other in the preparation and responding to tasks. This concurred with findings which point out that many parents are now educated and should be able to guide their children at home (Noorazam, 2011 in Nair et al. 2014). However, one parent questioned how parents assisted in the preparation of tasks, which shows a divergence of views. The remark from the parent was consistent with findings of

past studies by Mishra and Mallik (2014), that parents do not give suggestions to teachers because teachers have better knowledge about evaluation system. On monitoring and supervision of tasks, there was a unanimous convergence on the views of the respondents and participants. The responses highlighted the importance of synergy among the stakeholders in ensuring that learners do the tasks (Adediwura, 2012). This answered one of the major challenges faced by teachers, particularly in South Africa, of learners who do not do the tasks. Responses of respondents and participants were in tandem on the provision of psychosocial support and other resources. Some of the parents raised the issue of specialist skills which they could not provide, when it came to the provision of psychosocial support. After probing on financial resources, participants pointed at government as the source of funds; a view which was rather worrisome as it was taking away a crucial responsibility from parents. Findings from literature were that, financial resources and other support materials had inhibited the effective implementation of SBA (Bichi & Musa, 2015; Mishra & Mallick, 2014). Parents need to be partners in funding educational programmes and projects for them to refocus their support on policies like SBA. Stakeholder meetings were giving as key roles in particular to fix problems related to learner behaviour. The convergence of views on the complementarities of roles was a positive condition for the implementation of SBA. Findings encouraged the creation of learning organisations that must be afforded the resources, especially time and money, needed for training, research and communication within the school's stakeholders (Pineda, 2013). The convergence of views on the complementarity of stakeholder roles was a positive development in stakeholder understanding of SBA which should translate into better teaching and learning.

4.7.4 Strategies that can be used to enhance the implementation school-based assessment in schools

The fourth sub-problem to the research question sought to provide strategies that can be used to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment. Studies have confirmed that, proper implementation of SBA enable teachers and parents to effectively monitor learners' progress, thereby enhancing the basis for better quality teaching and learning in the classrooms (DBE, 2014). Monitoring learner progress was informed by the TQM principle of continuous improvement which advocates

better allocation of human effort and effective, efficient, continuous gathering of information to achieve optimal student learning (Haughn, 2014).

Statistics in Table 4.17 reveals that stakeholders in the school system acknowledged the significance of SBA in the teaching and learning process, hence the need to interrogate the issues impacting its implementation. Results from quantitative data showed a high prevalence of agree and strongly agree for both teachers and learners, indicating a convergence of views on strategies to enhance the implementation of SBA. Responses of learners showed a slight variance with a high prevalence of the neutral response. This could be attributed to lower levels of maturity in interrogating curriculum issues.

Results from open ended question on the Questionnaire, FGDs and interviews were thematically analysed and sub-themes developed. The sub-themes were; holding of stakeholder meetings, provision of resources, ensuring compliance, monitoring by all stakeholders, establishment of assessment committees, and stakeholder workload.

4.7.4.1 Establish School Assessment Committees



Some countries established assessment committees to facilitate the implementation of SBA (Bande & Ayodele, 2015). The purpose of establishing assessment committees was to provide a sustainable professional development of teachers to enable them to use assessment to support student learning (Ndalichako, 2014). Results revealed that participants and respondents suggested the use of assessment committees as a strategy to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools. One learner remarked, during the FGDs, that committees were needed because they did follow up to see if teachers were giving learners the right SBA material. A parent concurred in the interview that assessment committees must shoulder the responsibility of effective implementation of SBA in schools and evaluate the tasks being given to learners. However, some parents saw things differently. One argued that assessment committees lacked the needed content to assist in the checking the quality of tasks since they were made up of members from different subjects. Other parents noted that committees were there for compliance purposes. The views of the majority of participants and respondents converged and a few diverged on the establishment of assessment committees as a strategy to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools.

4.7.4.2 Test development workshops for Teachers

The development of quality SBA tasks was seen as a precursor to the effective implementation of SBA in high schools. The need for quality tasks aligned with Narayan (2014)'s suggestion for the establishment of Subject Association in the designing of tasks which can be utilized in schools. Reyneke (2016) lamented the inadequate professional knowledge of the teacher as a major cause of the ineffective implementation of SBA, both as learning and teaching tool, and as an element in the final NSC mark, as evidenced by submissions by Teacher Unions and Umalusi to the Ministerial Task Team (DBE, 2013). Findings show that teachers agreed to the use of test development workshops to close the professional knowledge gap for teachers. Umalusi Report conceded to some improvement in SBA processes as reflected by the national drop in of rejected marks in 2016 but still mourn the quality of tasks (DBE, 2017).

4.7.4.3 SBA Consultation Meetings with Parents on provision of resources

The success of a programme depends on the resources stakeholders are willing to avail. Studies have identified financial resources and other support materials in form of assessment and reporting standards, guidelines and principles to guide the implementation process (Bichi & Musa, 2015; Klenowski, 2013; Mishra & Mallick, 2014). In South Africa, SBA Exemplar booklets were produced to assist and guide teachers with the setting and development of standardised SBA tasks and assessment tools (DBE 2018). Findings in the current study corroborated the studies, in that participants and respondents suggested provision of resources as a strategy to support the implementation of SBA. Teachers suggested compliance with current trends by using online learning and assessment platforms. Parents concurred with the other stakeholders suggesting the provision of time to learners for tasks. However, upon probing on funding for the material resources the responses from parents advocated for government to provide 100% of all teaching and learning programmes.

4.7.4.4 SBA cluster Task Banks

The idea of establishing a cluster task bank was aimed at dealing with a number of issues such as improving the quality of the tasks, validity and reliability of the tasks,

and managing the dates for the tasks. Findings were positively skewed revealing that teachers supported the use of a cluster task bank to enhance the implementation of SBA. The use of cluster task banks would prevent teachers from teaching what was in the task as they would not know which task was to be selected. The system would ensure that teachers cover the entire syllabus effectively. Through the use of task banks, SBA would address issues raised by Opposs (2016) that, it does not always assess the aspects of a subject that it was designed to assess, that it can divert time from teaching and learning, and was arduous to organise and deliver, and too often, it was delivered inconsistently. Cluster task banks would also deal with what was reported as widespread tendencies in school to design assessment tasks with a low cognitive demand and task quality being compromised because tasks were poorly constructed (DBE, 2017; Umalusi, 2015) .

4.7.4.5 Standardising the number of SBA tasks for All Subjects

The issue of workload has been synonymous with SBA in curriculum discourse across the globe. Mishira and Mallik (2014) suggest continuous dialogue between teacher, students, and parents on the implementation of SBA to handle the issue of workload. UNESCO (2014) suggests the development of a strong institutional capacity to build and sustain a robust SBA system which requires collaboration across multiple agencies. Results from open ended questions in the Questionnaire, FGDs and interviews suggested dealing with workload related issues to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools. A learner suggested in the open ended questions in the Questionnaire that parents should be given synchronised regional calendar for SBA. The view was supported by Mafa and Makuba (2014) who argued that availing the school year assessment plan to parents at the beginning of the year to familiarise them with what was happening in the school. Responses from one of the teachers in the open ended questions in the Questionnaire and learners in the FGDs suggested time management in dealing with workload related issues. Studies have reported that SBA results in subjects being over-assessed, leading to extra load on students and parents (Narayan, 2014; Tong & Adamson, 2015). Views of participants in the FGDs and interviews suggested dealing with workload related issues by reducing in the number of tasks as a strategy to enhance the implementation of SBA. Samsudin et al. (2014) concur by suggesting reduction of

the number of tasks per subject. In concurrence, Green (2014) suggests fewer tasks, a reduction in the number of changes to tasks and improved guidance and controls, task requirements and marking criteria. Views of participants and respondents converged on dealing with workload related issues as a strategy to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools.

4.7.4.6 Use of a Credit Point Accumulation System to enforce completion of SBA tasks

One of the major challenges encountered by teachers in the implementation of SBA was failure to submit tasks, or absenteeism of learners, in particular, those who are not gifted academically. Results of the current study suggested the use of the point system as a measure to ensure compliance from learners. Responses from the learners supported the use of the point system by stating that the point system encourages them to submit the tasks so that they will be able to write the exams and pass. The argument was that implementation of SBA in schools was negatively affected when learners breached the conditions for effective conducting of tasks (Ramalepe, 2015; Samsudin et al. 2014). Ironically, one parent showed divergence by challenging the legality of penalising learners through the use of the point system. Overall, views of respondents and participants converged on the use of some form of penalty to ensure compliance by learners in the submission of tasks.

4.7.4.7 Evaluation Meetings with Parents on SBA issues

It was quite captivating for learners to report that; parents should attend meetings in order to get constant update on the performance of their children, and learners should be deeply involved in SBA meetings and must be allowed to have a say during meetings. Such responses from learners show a deeper understanding and appreciation of SBA issues, which implies that they will support its implementation to enhance teaching and learning. Learner responses aligned with Samsudin et al. (2014) findings that suggested the use of parents' meetings to inform them on internal assessment, its significance and how it helped in improving students' attendance. Holistically, there was convergence on the views of participants and respondents on holding stakeholder meetings as a strategy to enhance the

implementation of SBA in high schools. Respondents' and participants' views suggested holding of stakeholder meetings to deal with SBA issues. Mafa and Makuba (2014) assert that parents should be involved in school work by monitoring their children's work through supervision of homework. Findings in the current study confirmed the assertion by identifying monitoring by stakeholders as a strategy to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools. Interestingly, learner responses were quite plausible as they included such responses as; teachers sending a message to the parents to inform them about the tasks, and sending messages to parents if tasks were not received in time. The responses confirmed the use of appropriate and current technology, and concurred with Supramono and Larasati's (2014) suggestion on the creation a school website with learner grades so that students' parents can check their children's academic performance. The views of the respondents and participants converged on monitoring of SBA implementation processes by all stakeholders as a strategy to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools. The strategy was confirmed by Yusof 's (2013) finding on the use of an open door communication policy via cellular phone, the school's telephone, letters and direct communication to make school-students' parents communication easier. Though the findings were heavily skewed towards convergence, some learners in the FGDs disagreed with the idea of holding parents accountable if learners did not submit tasks.

4.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter focused on presentation, analysis and discussion of quantitative and qualitative findings. Tables were used to present summarised quantitative data from closed questions in the Questionnaires completed by teachers and learners. Chi-square tests were conducted using responses from the results on complementarity of roles of teachers and learners to establish the strength of the relationship of their responses and allow for inferences to the population. Discussions blended reviewed literature with TQM, the theory informing the study, to bring out the sticking points in the findings. Survey findings revealed that there were issues in the implementation of SBA in high schools. Teachers, learners and parents needed to work in synergy to deal with these issues to enhance the implementation of SBA. Respondents

acknowledged the value of SBA in the teaching and learning process and that they would support its implementation. Stakeholder roles and structures which supported the execution of the roles were identified. Complementarities of stakeholder roles were confirmed and strategies to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools were given. In response to empirical studies, DBE continues to reconfigure the SBA implementation processes as evidenced by the SBA Exemplar booklets and the draft Policy on the Quality Assurance of SBA for grades 10-12 (DBE, 2017; DBE, 2018). What was evident from the findings was grassroots supported SBA implementation model.

Qualitative findings from open ended questions in the Questionnaire, semi-structured interviews with SGB chairpersons, and FGDs with learners were presented as direct citations from respondents and participants. Probing during interviews and FGDs allowed clarity to be sought on some issues and critical points. Themes, sub-themes and main issues were summarised in tables after a rigorous transcription process, coding and thematic content analysis. Quantitative and qualitative findings were triangulated to determine convergence points as advocated by the concurrent triangulation design of the MMR approach adopted for this study. The findings did not reveal any divergence since no new themes emerged. Findings were summarised and interpreted in pursuit of answers to the research questions. Chapter five focused on summary, conclusion and recommendations for the study.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In answering the research question, chapter four presented, analysed and discussed quantitative and qualitative findings of the study. Findings were triangulated during interpretation to establish convergence or divergence of the quantitative and qualitative results as dictated by MMR. Discussions of findings were informed by the Total Quality Management theory, the theoretical cornerstone for this study. Reviewed literature anchored discussions as answers were provided to fill the gaps identified during the review. Chapter five zero in on the study by summarising the findings, concluding the study, give recommendations and suggestions for further studies. A recap of the research problem, research objectives and sub-research questions were given to focus the study.



5.2 RESTATEMENT OF RESEARCH PROBLEM

School-Based Assessment has been embraced as an educational reform with a view to improving the quality of educational output. Studies have shown that, although SBA has been widely researched, implementation issues continue to impact on the educational processes. The study sought to examine the implementation of School-Based Assessment and its implications for teaching and learning.

5.2.1 Main Research Question

How is School-Based Assessment implemented in high schools in Mpumalanga province of South Africa?

5.2.2 Sub- Research Questions

To unpack the main research question four sub-research questions were coined. The first one read; what are the views of teachers, parents and learners of the roles of school - based assessment in the learning and teaching process? The trajectory

taken by teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of SBA was influenced by their perceptions of the concept. Teachers, learners and parents need to have clear and common understanding of their roles in the implementation of SBA to effectively facilitate its implementation. The second sub-problem was; what structures are in place to support the implementation of School-Based Assessment? Structures anchor the implementation process by providing the support base and quality control (Ramalepe & Zengele, 2014; Majid, 2011; Narayan, 2014; Reyneke et al, 2010). Sub - problem three was; how do teachers, learners and parents play complementary roles in the implementation of School-Based Assessment in high schools? Once the roles are clearly defined and support structures identified, complementarity of roles are fostered for effective implementation of School-Based Assessment. The fourth sub- problem was; what strategies can be used to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment in schools? A strategy assures continual improvement and better quality of the educational product.

5.2.3 Research Objectives

Studies have confirmed that implementation of SBA has been widely researched in both developed and developing countries; on teachers, learners and parents (Annie, 2011; Cheng et al. 2010; Majid, 2011; Mishra & Mallik, 2014; Mpapalika, 2013; Nair et al, 2014; Ndalichako, 2015; Narayan, 2014; Tong and Adamson, 2015). Most of the studies focused on SBA implementation views of teachers and learners, with very few focusing on teachers, learners and parents. This study sought to address the deficiency on empirical studies by focusing on the views of the shop floor stakeholders in the implementation of School-Based Assessment. To realise the foci of the study, four objectives guided the research process. Examining roles of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of School-Based Assessment in the teaching and learning process was the first cardinal point. The dominance of views of teachers and learners at the expense of parents' input relegated to the periphery of curriculum discourse exposed a research gap requiring empirical engagement. Advocates for the voice of parents note that parents' views are required to provide an educational assessment framework that empowers parents with information on their children's performance (Van der Berg, Taylor, Gustafsson, Spaul & Armstrong, 2011). However, others lamented the excessive input from parental support distorting SBA marks and adversely affecting learning (Opposs,

2016). The trajectory for the current study was to interrogate perceptions of the critical grassroots implementers of SBA in high schools. Roles of the shop floor implementers were defined as ground rules in analysing SBA implementation processes.

Defining of the roles was followed by the identification of support structures required to anchor the implementation of SBA in high schools. In SA, there are five structural levels in school governance; National level, Provincial level, District level, Cluster level and School level (SASA 84 of 1996). The study sought to assess the various structures to establish the level of familiarity from the vantage point of stakeholders and support offered in the implementation of SBA in high schools to enhance teaching and learning. The absence of support would negatively impact the operation of any system. However, literature underscored the lack of support during SBA implementation process, such as lack of resources and support materials, in most of the African countries (Bichi & Musa, 2015; Reyneke et al, 2010). Similar sentiments were raised from other corners of the globe such as Mishra and Mallick's (2014) study in India which revealed that, there were no adequate funds and supporting environments for smooth implementation of SBA. After the identification of the structures and their support in the implementation of SBA in high schools, complementarity of roles of various stakeholders was interrogated. Teachers, learners and parents were expected to operate in synergy in the implementation of SBA in high schools. The assumption was that the identified roles, supported by the structures and the roles complementing each other would facilitate the implementation of SBA to enhance teaching and learning. Successes in the implementation of SBA have been reported in countries like Finland and Sweden (Darling-Hammond & Wentworth, 2010). However, some corners of the world are still lagging behind, as evidenced by findings that the biggest challenge for SBA was winning the hearts and minds of students, teachers and parents (Kennedy, 2013). Research indicated that subject meetings, departmental meetings, school and district based workshops, and discussions during staff meetings were used to support teachers (Narayan, 2014). In pursuit of new knowledge, strategies were suggested to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment.

5.3 SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

The study sought to investigate how School-Based Assessment was implemented in high schools, and its implications for teaching and learning. The summary of findings focused on views of teachers, parents and learners on the roles of School-Based Assessment in the teaching and learning process; identification of structures in place and the support offered in the implementation of School-Based Assessment; examination of how roles of teachers, learners and parents complement in the implementation of School-Based Assessment in schools; and strategies to enhance the implementation of SBA in schools. To make the results easy to comprehend and maintain consistency in this study the results were presented as either agree or disagree, which means those who were neutral were deemed to be disagreeing.

5.3.1 Views of teachers, parents and learners on the roles of School-Based Assessment in the learning and teaching process

Biographic data revealed that teacher respondents were mature, academically and professionally qualified, had adequate experience in their interaction with curriculum discourse. The data placed the teachers strategically to guarantee diverse perceptions in the implementation of SBA due to the sufficient experiential knowledge. Learners were in grade 11 which gave them enough exposure in the implementation of school - based assessment.

It emerged from the quantitative and qualitative data sets that respondents identified the various roles of SBA. Qualitative data confirmed the understanding of the roles by giving explanations of the roles. The findings indicated convergence on abstraction and understanding of the implementation of SBA, and reflected clarity of SBA issues, paving the way for the support of its implementation.

Findings indicated a high prevalence on assisting teachers to give feedback, from teachers and learners, preparing learners for exams, assisting teachers in the evaluation process, showing learners strengths and weaknesses and assisting learners to improve final results. Teachers showed a notably high prevalence of the neutral responses on roles such as assisting teachers on what to teach, and providing pressure free assessment. In the same vein, learners revealed a high prevalence of the undecided response in aspects such as complementing public

exams, enhancing the development of a positive attitude, and enhancing collaborative skills. Reducing reliance on public exams showed a high prevalence disagreeing. Parent submissions revealed their clarity on SBA aspects justifying their appointment as SGB chairperson.

5.3.2 Structures are in place to support the implementation of School-Based Assessment in schools

The findings indicated that respondents were familiar with the structures which support the implementation of School-Based Assessment in high schools. The level of familiarity for teachers was positively skewed, and the significance of the result was that teachers as educational technocrats had interacted with the various levels of the hierarchical structures of the department. Learner participants' results were polarised with high prevalence on familiarity with DBE and Umalusi, Subject advisors and Subject Heads of Department. The result for familiarity with school irregularities committee and cluster leader revealed high prevalence of the neutral response. The response for familiarity with irregularities committee was somehow expected coming from learners, considering their limited exposure to the activities of the structures. However, the high prevalence of the neutral response on the cluster leader structure was worrisome considering the position of cluster leaders on the hierarchical structure of the department of education. Interestingly, learner findings were in consonance with parent findings, with a parent reporting that they were not quite familiar with structures from district to national level.

Findings on forms of support from the structures confirmed that teachers were receiving different forms of support from the structures. However, findings revealed that views on provision of resources, assistance with submission of SBA tasks, training in the setting of SBA tasks, assistance with the marking of SBA tasks, and assistance with the computation of SBA tasks were polarised, with a significantly high prevalence of 'disagree; responses. Findings revealed that teachers were not receiving adequate resources in the implementation of School-Based Assessment. In addition, teachers were not getting the ideal support on the submission of tasks. There was inadequate training in the setting of tasks, and limited assistance was offered in the marking of SBA tasks and computation of marks.

5.3.3 Complementary roles of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of School-Based Assessment in schools

Complementarities ensure synergy in the execution of roles by different stakeholders. The findings suggested that, in general, respondents and participants confirmed complementarity of roles in the implementation of School-Based Assessment. However, the findings revealed a highly polarised scenario with some the roles showing almost no complementarity. On the preparation of SBA tasks, learners revealed a slightly high prevalence of agreeing. Teachers, however, revealed a high prevalence of disagreeing with the complementarity of roles while parents concurred with learner and revealed that parental assistance might not be needed in the preparation of tasks, and that they may assist when tasks are done at home.

Results for the role of assisting in responding to SBA tasks showed a high prevalence of agreeing by learners while teachers showed a high prevalence of disagreeing. Similarly, findings on supervision of SBA tasks learner responses showed a stalemate. Teachers revealed a high prevalence of disagreeing on the supervision of SBA tasks. Statistics for monitoring of SBA tasks revealed a slightly high prevalence of the agree responses while teachers revealed a slightly high prevalence of disagreeing. Results for evaluation of SBA tasks and provision of adequate resources received a high prevalence of 'agree' responses by teachers and learners. Teachers revealed a slightly high prevalence of disagreeing while learners on the other revealed a high prevalence for agreeing for the provision of psychosocial support and researching SBA tasks. Results for consulting each other on SBA issues, creation of an enabling learning environment, and ensuring compliance with SBA expected standards show a high prevalence of slightly high prevalence of agreeing for learners. Teachers revealed slightly high prevalence of disagreeing. Results for administering of SBA tasks teachers and learners revealed a high prevalence of divergence. Overall, teacher and learner results diverged on complementarity of roles.

5.3.4. Strategies to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment in schools

Quantitative data revealed a strong convergence of teacher and learner results on the strategies to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment. Teacher results indicated a very high prevalence for agreeing. One somehow isolated case on teacher results was on holding of SBA consultation meetings with parents, which reported a slightly lower prevalence of the agreeing. Learner statistics showed a consistently high prevalence of agreeing on the strategies. Qualitative data from interviews and FGDs revealed a strong convergence with quantitative data. Parents supported the use of various strategies to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment. Learners suggested strategies which converged with findings for teachers and parents. Results revealed that School-Based Assessment was being implemented. However, the slightly high levels of divergence pointed to constraining issues in the systems and this call for a spring cleaning and realignment of processes. The coming of the policy on Quality Assurance of SBA for Grades 10-12 is a part of the spring cleaning package meant to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment in high schools. Realignment will entail retooling school systems particularly teachers and learners.



5.4 CONCLUSION OF STUDY

The study sought to examine the implementation of SBA in high schools. This was against the backdrop of Umalusi report that there were areas that required further support and intervention to improve the quality and standard of SBA, and empirical research showing that the quality and standard of implementation of SBA in grades 10 and 11 still faced serious challenges. Notably, South Africa needs to be applauded for championing a successful SBA model as authorities have accepted the criticisms, built on them to improve its implementation. Findings revealed that SBA was being implemented in high schools but quality issues continued to hinder its effective implementation. These were SBA systemic issues such as: lack of professional development of teachers in the areas of developing quality assessments integral for successful teaching and learning; some assessment tasks

still being of very poor quality; heavy teacher, learner and parent workload; and absence of a well-coordinated parental involvement programme. The conclusions of this study are drawn from the findings submitted to the sub-research questions for this study.

5.4.1 Views of teachers, parents and learners of the role of School-Based Assessment in the teaching and learning process

What emerged from the study findings was that participants and respondents were aware of the role of SBA in the education system. While the results showed that stakeholders acknowledged different roles of SBA as an assessment tool, there were sporadic incidences of questionable results. A slightly high prevalence of the 'disagree' result on roles such as assisting teachers decide on what to teach and providing pressure free assessment cast a huge doubt on the sincerity of such results, coming from qualified teachers. A case in point here was the contradiction between responses to sub-problem one, roles one and six that; in role one majority of teachers agree 50(94.4%) and 3(5.7%) disagree that SBA enables teachers to give feedback to learners. In role six fewer teachers agree 36(66%) and 17(32.1%) disagree with the role that SBA enabling teachers to decide what to teach. Learner results revealed a significantly high prevalence of the disagree result on roles such as; complementing public exams, enhancing the development of a positive attitude, and enhancing collaborative skills.

5.4.2 Structures are in place to support the implementation of School-Based Assessment in schools

Teachers confirmed familiarity with the Department's hierarchical structures as set out in policy documents. Learner results on the familiarity with the structures were slightly polarised, with some of the results lack of familiarity the Department's hierarchical structures as expected, considering learners' limited exposure to the bureaucratic structures. However, a low level of familiarity with cluster leader structure was unexpected from learners considering their proximity to the structure on the levels set up to facilitate the implementation of SBA in high schools. The low levels of familiarity with some of the structures reported by some parents were a cause for concern. The assumption was that, parents' knowledge of these structures was critical for them to support the policies from the hierarchical structures. Structures provide the support which enhances the implementation of School-Based

Assessment. Results confirmed the existence of various forms of support for stakeholders. Regrettably, findings revealed a low prevalence of some critical forms of support, confirming the issues which were raised in the Umalusi reports. Support was a hygiene factor which cannot be compromised if SBA was to be effectively implemented.

5.4.3 Complementary roles of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of School-Based Assessment in schools

Complementarity of roles depicts a well organised system in any organisation. The systems and sub-system of the department of education resemble various centres of power in the implementation of SBA. It was critical for the centres to synchronise their power to ensure synergy in the implementation of SBA in high schools. Findings confirming stakeholder acknowledgement of complementarity of roles was a positive development for the successful implementation of SBA in high schools. However, results revealed sporadic incidences of lack of complementarities with some of the critical roles such as; supervision of SBA tasks, monitoring of SBA tasks, providing psychosocial support, holding stakeholder consultative meetings on SBA and ensuring compliance with SBA tasks standards. On these roles, while learners agreed on the need for complementarity, teacher results showed that they totally disagreed. Failure by teachers to uphold the need for complementarity on such critical roles placed the implementation of SBA in serious jeopardy. Another interesting result was the convergence on administration of SBA tasks where they disagreed. The findings revealed serious cracks in the implementation of SBA in high schools, particularly on the aspect of complementarity of roles.

5.4.4. Strategies to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment in schools

The study identified strategies which include test development workshops for teachers, establishment of task bank, standardisation of the number of tasks per subject, instituting a credit point system, synchronised regional calendar for SBA tasks and holding of SBA consultative meetings with stakeholders. It emerged from the study findings that respondents and participants acknowledged the application of various strategies in the implementation of SBA. The implementation of SBA in SA high schools in 2019 will be facilitated by the use of SBA exemplar booklets intended to address the quality of tasks as a strategy to enhance the implementation (DBE,

2018). Currently, SBA was implemented through systems which appear less coordinated and cumbersome because, on paper, legislative framework was water tight but on the ground the school environment depicts a negative outlook. The systems need realigning through a refined implementation model. Realigning the SBA processes entails reducing some of the aspects and retooling of stakeholders with the various strategies to facilitate the implementation of SBA in high schools.

5.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

In view of the research question, findings and conclusions drawn thereof, recommendations are advanced to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools.

- Develop a simplified implementation process; the argument was that the current legislations lay out the framework for the delivery of a comprehensive quality educational product. Formal Assessments follow a two-pronged approach that was School-based assessments and the year-end examination. Literature revealed that SBA as an element in the NSC mark was questionable and negatively impacts on National Senior Certificate (DBE, 2014). Regarding SBA as questionable was, in essence, questioning the teaching and learning processes. The system needs to simplify the implementation process by; getting quality checked tasks and guides, and having one timetable for tasks administration for all schools.
- Setting of SBA tasks and use of task banks; District offices need to coordinate the setting of SBA tasks by capacitating teachers through workshops. DBE can also lobby Higher Education to reinforce Assessments in the Teacher education curriculum.
- Reduce the number of tasks; this recommendation involves making slight modifications to the legislative framework and reducing the number of tasks to give teachers more time to explain the content which will be tested in the tasks to the learners. Reducing tasks will also have a positive impact on the moderation processes so as to reduce the rejection rate of SBA marks by Umalusi.

- Moderation of tasks; a new model needs to be developed in which moderation was done while the marking was in progress (The In-Situ model). The model would allow feedback to be given and allow effecting of correction on errors identified in marked scripts, and also benefit the scripts not yet marked.
- Assessment Programme; currently, schools are expected to come up with own Assessment Programme (plan) developed from teachers initiated Programme of Assessment (NPA chapter 4 subsection 8). This was not happening and if it were to happen, it would place assessment at the mercy of overburdened teachers who are battling with the content to deliver the curriculum. The recommendation would be to harmonise the Assessment programme for all schools and coordinate all activities from the district office.

5.5.1 Develop a simplified implementation process

The legislative framework guiding School-Based Assessment was clearly laid out in; National Curriculum Statement (NSC) Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) Further Education and Training Phase (FET) Grades 10-12, National Protocol for Assessment (NPA) Grades R-12 and National Policy Pertaining to the Programme and Promotion requirements of the National Curriculum Statement (NPPPPP of NSC) Grades R-12. Findings in the current study confirmed that SBA enhanced teaching and learning. However, it was the implementation processes which are cumbersome for the grassroots implementers. A suggested model would be for the preparation of tasks by a body coordinated by the district. Tasks would then be sent to schools after a rigorous quality check for compliance with the syllabus and difficulty levels. Teacher's responsibility would be to administer the tasks according to a common timetable. The timetable for the tasks must be availed to learners at the beginning of each academic year and teachers must constantly remind them before they write the task. The coordination would be easy since the tasks for FET phase grades will be conducted in the same week.

5.5.2 Setting of SBA tasks and use of task bank

Currently, according to the National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12, chapter 2 paragraph 4.5; "The assessment tasks should be carefully designed to cover the content of the subject." This means the tasks are prepared by teachers in the schools or by selected teacher. This system has its own challenges in that the quality

of the tasks could be compromised depending on the resources and skills of the selected examiner. Findings in the current study revealed that teachers were not trained in the setting of tasks. A paradigm shift in the setting of tasks would involve School-Based Assessment tasks and guides being prepared by selected and experienced classroom practitioners, preferably markers. The teachers would meet once a term to discuss the set tasks and the guides for compliance. After the discussions, which are coordinated by the Subject Specialist, tasks would be sent to the district office for banking. The process of setting papers will be continuous to ensure that there was enough stock in the bank. The district office would draw up a timetable for each FET grade and release papers on the set dates. This would guarantee that there are no leakages of papers, since teachers would not know which paper would be released.

5.5.3 Reduce the number of tasks

Literature revealed that the number of internal tasks per subject differs from 6 to 7 as specified in Section 3 of the Subject Assessment Guidelines. This gives a total of 61 tasks to be done in a term with, on average, 162 days (Oberholzer (2010)). Qualitative findings from teachers suggested the reduction of SBA tasks. Reducing the number of tasks to four per term per subject would give more time to teachers to prepare the learners as well as to mark the tasks. Subjects with much content like languages would have to combine some of the aspects in one comprehensive paper. The focus would be on quality of the tasks and not quantity tested by the task.

5.5.4 Moderation of Task

Currently, the legislative instruments guiding moderation are; The National Curriculum Statement (NSC), Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS), Further Education and Training Phase (FET) Grades 10-12, (Chapter 4). The instruments stipulate that moderation at school level will be carried out at least once each school term by the Head of Department responsible for the subject (DBE, 2011). To fulfil this requirement, Provincial Education Departments have drafted their own Assessment instruments in which they complied with NSC (CAPS) FET grades 10-12. There are two issues with this model. First, the instruments talk of pre-moderation of tasks which was questionable if it was left in the hands of HODs in schools. Second, how the post moderations are conducted where scripts are given

to the HOD for moderation after all the scripts has been marked was unclear. A case in point was the provision made by the Assessment Guideline Number 03 of 2014 which states that; “At school level a random selection of learner evidence of performance in a 2 high, 2 middle and 2 low performers ratio, for each assessment task should be moderated by the teacher deemed to be competent in the subject or HOD” (Gauteng Department of Education, 2014). The question then was; what will happen if the marking was very poor? Will the teacher accept a re-mark of the whole batch? To save themselves from any conflicts with teachers, moderators end up shadow marking, which they also do due to time constraints. This model could be the reason why SBA marks are rejected by Umalusi. The implication was that this moderation model requires spring cleaning by refining some of the processes to ensure that moderation benefit the learners. A new moderation model (The in-situ model), where the moderation was done during the making would benefit learners. In the new model, scripts (2) for moderation would be taken from the first 10 marked scripts, any deviations with the marker discussed, another (2) taken halfway through the marking, and the last (2) taken from the last 10 on the batch. The HOD would send 2 moderated scripts to the cluster leader for moderation. One script would then be forwarded to the subject specialist after moderation by cluster leader. This would ensure that feedback on the marking was given in time and benefits both teacher and learner, complementing findings which confirmed the value of feedback in the learning process.

5.5.5 Assessment Programme

The current scenario shows that provincial governments have own Assessment Programmes and some schools; particularly former Model C schools have their own Assessment Programmes. However, all are guided by the same legislative framework (NSC-CAPS, FET grades 10-12), and the final assessment was through one examination at Grade 12. This depicts a polarised assessment system in the country, where the SBA for learners was assessed by different systems but the learners sit for the same final paper. An ideal situation would be to harmonise the Assessment Programmes into one comprehensive programme for all schools. The programme would then be availed to learners at the beginning of the term, and learners and parents would sign compliance pledges when the learner are admitted in a school. Compliance could also be enforced through instituting a credit point

system in which a learner loses points if tasks are not submitted. Programmes would be developed to capacitate new teachers on how to handle SBA as an assessment tool. Figure 5.1 below shows a diagrammatic representation of the refinements to the implementation model to enhance teaching and learning.

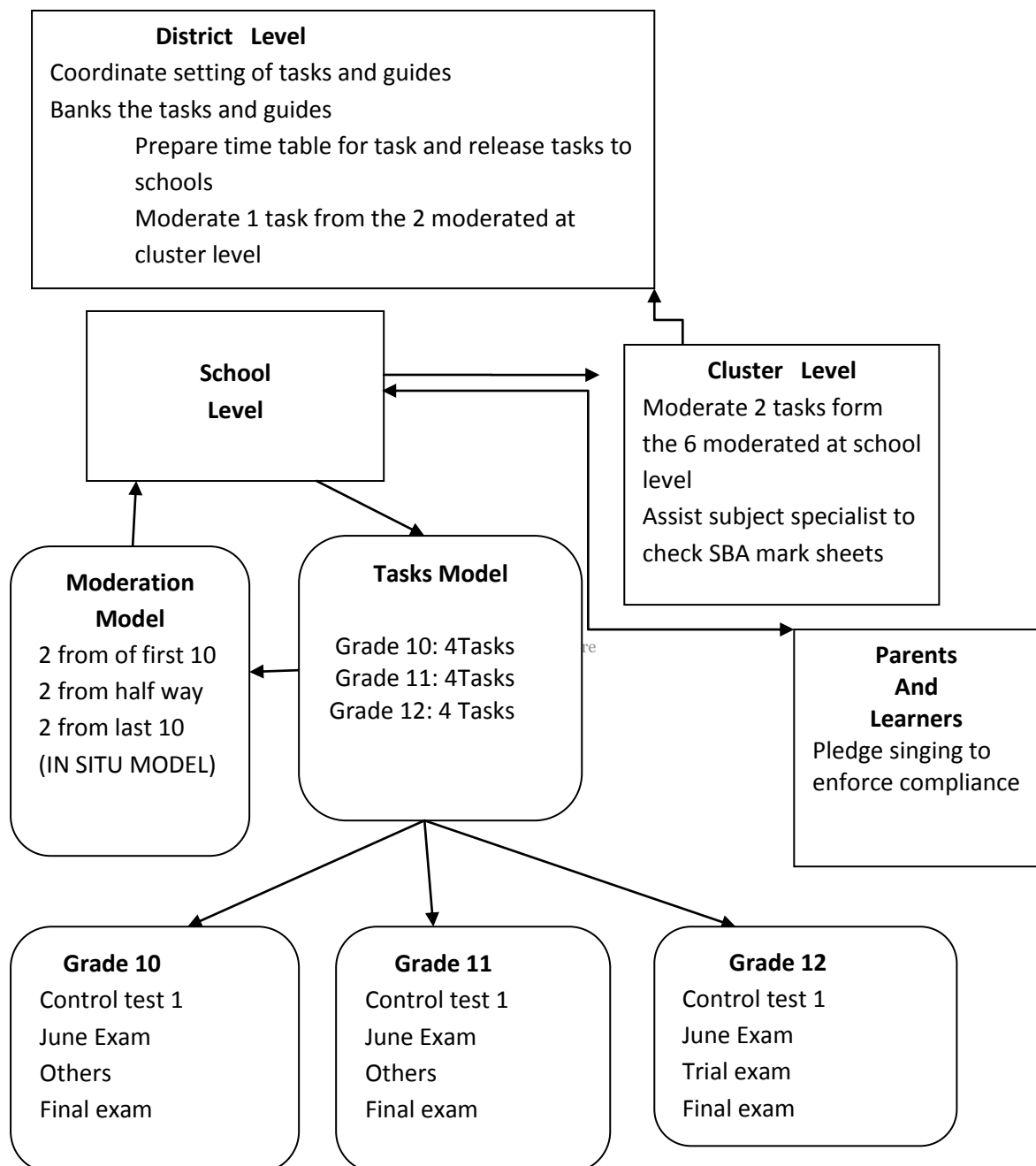


Figure 5.1: Proposed SBA Implementation model. Source: (Author, 2018)

5.6 ACHIEVEMENT OF RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

Research objectives were designed to unpack the main research question. To ascertain the achievement of objectives, the discussion focused on: roles of School-Based Assessment in the teaching and learning process; structures in place to support the implementation of School-Based Assessment; complementary roles of teachers, learners and parents in the implementation of SBA in SA schools; and strategies to enhance the implementation of School-Based Assessment.

5.6.1 Research objective 1: Examine teachers, learners and parent's views of the roles of SBA in the teaching and learning process

Unpacking how SBA was implemented in SA high schools involved seeking views of teachers, learners and parents on the roles of SBA in the teaching and learning process. Participants and respondents acknowledged the various roles of SBA in facilitating teaching and learning. The implications were that teachers, learners and parents experienced these roles in the implementation of School-Based Assessment. School-Based Assessment was being implemented and benefiting the education system. However, some processes needed realignment for SBA to deliver a quality educational product.



5.6.2 Research objective 2: Assess the structures in place and the support in the implementation of SBA in SA schools

Findings indicated that participants and respondents encountered several structures in the implementation of School-Based Assessment. Support from the structures was confirmed but with traces of polarisation on some of the forms of support. The levels of polarisation on some critical support structures confirmed existence of issues which negatively impacted on the implementation of SBA in high schools to enhance teaching and learning.

5.6.3 Research objective 3: Examine how teachers, learners and parents play complementary roles in the implementation of SBA in SA schools

This study revealed prevalence of polarisation on complementarity of roles, particularly critical roles such as; supervision of SBA tasks, monitoring of SBA tasks, providing psychosocial support, holding stakeholder consultative meetings about SBA, and ensuring compliance with SBA tasks standards. Confirmation of lack of complementarity of roles by teachers revealed serious cracks in the implementation of SBA in high schools.

5.6.4 Research objective 4: Identify strategies to enhance the implementation of SBA in SA schools

Study findings confirmed the application of various strategies to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools. The situation on the ground revealed that on paper, there was a water tight legislative framework, but on the ground, in terms of the school environment, the outlook was negative. School-Based Assessment implementation mechanisms appeared less coordinated and cumbersome. The system needs realigning through a refined implementation model. DBE needs to develop a programme to capacitate new teachers on the implementation of SBA in schools.

5.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Respondents, particularly teachers, had a negative attitude towards answering Questionnaires. The researcher had to make return visits to collect the Questionnaires and check if all the parts were completed. The other limitation was time, which was why the research was restricted to one circuit with a population of twelve schools, which gave enough time to the small sample that was selected. Despite the existence of limitations, adequate measures were taken to circumvent the limitations. There was a strong conviction that the results of this study provided an adequate answer to the research question. Teachers were expected to handle SBA differently to enhance learning after interacting with the current study.

5.8 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

Assessments serve as a critical component of any educational system. However, teacher attitude towards SBA as an assessment tool left a lot to be desired. Further work needs to be done to establish the reasons for teacher negative attitude towards SBA implementation in schools.

An implementation model was suggested to enhance the implementation of SBA in high schools. If the study succeeds in informing its adoption, an evaluative study would be necessary for further refinement of the model.

Moderation was identified as critical and the nerve centre of SBA. Unfortunately, the current scenario depicts weak moderation process. A study was needed on the effective ways to conduct moderation of School-Based Assessment and its impact on teaching and learning.

5.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY



This chapter presented a summary of findings, research conclusions, and advanced recommendations based on the findings. The revelation from findings was that SBA was being implemented in high schools. The legislative framework was available to guide the implementation of SBA in schools. DBE continued to refine the implementation processes though the implementation of recommendations from empirical studies. A proposed implementation model was presented with suggestions for a spring clean on the number of tasks. A quality educational product was achievable through a quality driven assessment tool.

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LIST OF APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1:

INTRODUCTION LETTER



University of Fort Hare
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25 August 2016

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

REGISTRATION FOR PHD AND RESEARCH STUDY ASSISTANCE FOR CHIPFIKO JACK
(201607631)

This serves to confirm that Mr Jack Chipfiko is a registered PhD candidate at the University of Fort Hare under my supervision. He is working on a study entitled; **Implementation of Continuous Assessment in high schools in White river circuit, Ehlanzeni region, Mpumalanga province in South Africa: Implications for teaching and learning.**

May you kindly assist and grant him any necessary support he requires to conduct his study in schools in the Mpumalanga Province.

For any further information do not hesitate to contact the undersigned.

Faithfully Yours

PROFESSOR COSMAS MAPHOSA
RESEARCH PROFESSOR AND SUPERVISOR
UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE
FACULTY OF EDUCATION
Email: cmaphosa@ufh.ac.za
Tel: +27 43 704 7203
Cell: 073 660 1920

APPENDIX 2:

APPLICATION TO MPUMALNGA PROVINCIAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION FOR ACCESS TO SCHOOLS

Jacob Mdluli Secondary School
P. O. BOX 2510
Kabokweni, 1245
7 April 2017.

Dr A Baloyi
Mpumalanga Provincial Department of Education
Private Bag X11341
Nelspruit, 1200

RE: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH STUDY IN EHLANZENI DISTRICT, WHITE RIVER CIRCUIT SCHOOLS.

This correspondence serves to request for your permission to conduct a research study in the secondary schools of the referred education district and circuit.

The research study is a fulfilment of the requirements of Doctor of Philosophy degree in Education.

*The research title is: **Implementation of school - based assessment in high schools in Mpumalanga Province, South Africa: Implications for teaching and learning.***


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Data collection process is scheduled for October to December 2017, and will involve: teachers; learners and SGB chairperson in 5 public and 3 private schools in white river circuit:

Find the attached documents: Proof of registration; Proposal; Ethical Research Clearance Certificate from the host University of Fort Hare, a letter of support from my supervisor Prof C Maphosa.

It is my wish to submit to your office a copy of my Doctoral Thesis on completion.

Your granted permission for me to conduct this research in your schools will be greatly appreciated.

Yours faithfully



Chipfiko Jack (Mr)

Email chipfiko@gmail.com

Cell: 0744683855

APPENDIX 3: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH



Building No. 5, Government Boulevard, Riverside Park, Ngwenyane Province
Private Bag K11341, Mbombela, 1208
Tel: 013 760 5522/115, Toll Free Line: 0800 203 115

Ukuzisa Isikole, Umnyango we-Funda

Department van Onderwys

Indawo ka Dyobane

Mr Jack Chipfiko
University of Fort Hare
Faculty of Education
Cell: 073 660 1920

RE: APPLICATION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH: MR JACK CHIPFIKO – FORT HARE

Your application to conduct research study was received and is therefore acknowledged. The title of your research project reads: "Implementation Continuous Assessment in high schools in White River circuit, Ehlanzeni region, Mpumalanga province in South Africa: Implications for teaching and learning". I trust that the aims and the objectives of the study will benefit the whole department especially the children who are the beneficiaries. Your request is approved subject to you observing the provisions of the departmental research policy which is available in the department website. You are requested to adhere to your university's research ethics as spelt out in your research ethics.

In terms of the research policy, data or any research activity can be conducted after school hours as per appointment with affected participants. You are also requested to share your findings with the relevant sections of the department so that we may consider implementing your findings if that will be in the best interest of the department. To this effect, your final approved research report (both soft and hard copy) should be submitted to the department so that your recommendations could be implemented. You may be required to prepare a presentation and present at the departments' annual research dialogue.

For more information kindly liaise with the department's research unit @ 013 766 5476/5148 Or a.baloyi@education.mpa.gov.za

The department wishes you well in this important project and pledges to give you the necessary support you may need.

MRS MOC MHLABANE

HEAD EDUCATION

04/5/18

DATE



APPENDIX 4:

INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR LEARNERS

STUDY TITLE: Implementation of school - based assessment in high schools:
Implications for teaching and learning.

Conducted by: Jack Chipfiko

Supervisor: Professor Cosmas Maphosa

I the undersigned confirm that the purpose of the study and my involvement were clearly explained to me. I therefore voluntarily agree to take part in the study without any reservations.

I understand that I am free withdrawn from participating at any time and will not be affected in any way.

I also understand that my participation in this study remains confidential

Signed:

Full Name:

Signature:

Date:



APPENDIX 5:

INFORMED CONSENT FORM FOR TEACHERS

STUDY TITLE: Implementation of school - based assessment in high schools:
Implications for teaching and learning.

Conducted by: Jack Chipfiko

Supervisor: Professor Cosmas Maphosa

I the undersigned confirm that the purpose of the study and my involvement were clearly explained to me. I therefore voluntarily agree to take part in the study without any reservations.

I understand that I am free withdrawn from participating at any time and will not be affected in any way.

I also understand that my participation in this study remains confidential

Signed:

Full Name:

Signature:

Date:



APPENDIX NO 6:

INTERVIEW GUIDE FOR SGB CHAIRPERSON

1. Gender: Male..... Female
2. What is your age?
3. How long have you been an SBG chair person?
4. What is your highest qualification?

INDIVIDUAL INTERVIEW WITH SBG CHAIR PERSONS

RESEARCH QUESTION 1:

What are the views of parents on the role of school - based assessment in the teaching and learning process?

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS:

- Do you think SBA enable teachers to give feedback to students frequently?
- Do you think SBA enables students to demonstrate their ability in areas which cannot be assessed in public examinations?
- Do you think SBA promotes creative teaching and learning activities?
- Do you think SBA empowers teachers in the evaluation process?
- Do you think SBA provides a stable and continuous pressure free assessment?
- Do you think SBA enables teachers to decide what to teach next?
- Do you think SBA enables students to have a better understanding of their own strength and weaknesses for continual improvement and confidence building?
- Do you think SBA complements public examinations?
- Do you think SBA help learners to develop positive attitudes and enhances collaborative skills?
- Do you think SBA reduces reliance on standardised examinations?

RESEARCH QUESTION 2:

What systems are in place to support the implementation of school - based assessment in schools?

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS :

- Are you familiar with the SBA administrative structures at national; provincial/district; circuit; cluster and school level?
- Do you think schools provide induction for new teachers on SBA?
- Do you think schools avail policies on SBA to teachers?
- Are teachers in your school provided with adequate resources for the implementation of SBA?
- Do you think teachers are getting the needed assistance on the submission SBA tasks by learners?
- Are teachers trained on the setting of SBA tasks?
- Do you think teachers get the needed assistance in administering; preparation

and standardization of marking guides; marking of SBA tasks? Do you think teachers are given the needed assistance in the computation of weighted SBA marks?
RESEARCH QUESTION 3: How do teachers, learners and parents play complementary roles in the implementation of school - based assessment in schools?
INTERVIEW QUESTIONS: - Do you think teachers and parents should work together in the preparation of SBA tasks? - Do you think teachers and parents should assist learners on how to respond to SBA tasks? - Do you think teachers and parents should work together in the supervision of SBA tasks? - Do you think teachers and parents should work together in providing psychosocial support? - Do you think teachers and parents should work together in the creation of enabling learning environments? - Do you think teachers and parents should work together in ensuring compliance to SBA expected standards? - Do you think teachers and parents prepare learners on SBA tasks?
RESEARCH QUESTION 4: What strategies can be used to enhance the implementation of school - based assessment in schools?
INTERVIEW QUESTIONS: - Do you think schools should establish assessment committees in schools to coordinate the implementation of SBA among subjects? - Do you think schools should establish an SBA schedule for all subjects to avoid overloading learners and teachers at some specific time of the year? - Do you think schools should have a uniform number of SBA tasks for all subjects? - Do you think parents should monitor the completion of SBA tasks and be held accountable if a learner fails to comply? - Do you think schools should use the point system on SBA tasks to determine who should write the final exam? - Do you think teachers and parents should hold meetings to discuss SBA issues?

THANK YOU

APPENDIX NO 7:

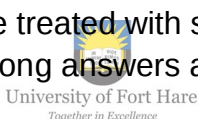
FOCUS GROUP GUIDE FOR LEARNERS

SECTION A: DEMOGRAPHIC DATA FOR SCHOOL.

1. Gender Boys [] Girls []
2. Age range to..... Years

INTRODUCTION

Hello, my name is Jack Chipfiko I am a PhD candidate studying with the University of Fort Hare. As part of the requirements for the degree programme I am conducting a study entitled: **" Implementation of school - based assessment in high school, in Mpumalanga Province, South Africa, Implications for teaching and learning."** You are being kindly requested to participate in a Group Discussion (Focus Group Discussion) to share your thought and opinions on the implementation of school - based assessment. Your school has been selected to participate in the study because it falls within the study site and is envisaged to provide the request data. The thoughts, opinions and suggestions from the FGD will be used solely for the purpose of this study and will be treated with strict confidentiality. Feel free to participate as there is no right or wrong answers and your identity will not be revealed during or after the study.



GROUP INTERVIEW WITH LEARNERS

RESEARCH QUESTION 1:

What are the views of learners on the role of school - based assessment in the teaching and learning process?

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS:

- What is your view on SBA enabling teachers to give feedback to students frequently?
- Would you say SBA enables students to demonstrate their ability in areas which cannot be assessed in public examinations? Probe how?
- What is your opinion on SBA promoting creative teaching and learning?
- How SBA does empowers teachers in the evaluation process?
- Do you think SBA provides a stable and continuous pressure free assessment? Probe how?
- How does SBA enable teachers to judge what to teach next?
- What is your view on SBA enabling students to have a better understanding of their own strength and weaknesses for continual improvement and confidence building? Probe why?
- How best can SBA complement public examinations?
- What is your opinion on SBA helping learners to develop positive attitudes and enhancing collaborative skills?
- What is your view on SBA reducing reliance on standardised examinations?

RESEARCH QUESTION 2:

What structures are in place to support the implementation of school - based assessment in high schools?

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS :

- Are you familiar with the SBA administrative structures at national; provincial/district; circuit; cluster and school level?
- How are new teachers inducted on SBA in your school?
- Does your school have policies on SBA and are they availed to teachers?
- Do you think teachers in your school are provided with adequate resources for the implementation of SBA? Probe why?
- What is your understanding on the assistance given to teachers on the submission of SBA tasks by learners?
- Are teachers trained on the setting of SBA tasks?
- What is your view on the assistance given to teachers in administering; preparation and standardization of marking guides; marking of SBA tasks?
- Do you think teachers are given the needed assistance in the computation of weighted SBA marks?

RESEARCH QUESTION 3:

How do teachers, learners and parents play complementary roles in the implementation of school - based assessment in high schools?

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS:

- Do you think teachers and parents should work together in the preparation of SBA tasks? Probe why?
- How do teachers and parents assist learners on how to respond to SBA tasks?
- How best can teachers and parents work together in the supervision of SBA tasks?
- What is your view on the provision of psychosocial support by teachers and parents on SBA issues?
- How do teachers and parents should work together in the creation of enabling learning environments?
- What is your view on teachers and parents working together in ensuring compliance to SBA expected standards?
- How best can teachers and parents prepare learners on SBA tasks?

RESEARCH QUESTION 4:

What strategies can be used to enhance the implementation of school - based assessment in high schools?



INTERVIEW QUESTIONS:

- What is your view on the establishment of assessment committees in schools to coordinate the implementation of SBA among subjects?
- How should schools handle SBA schedule for all subjects to avoid overloading learners and teachers at some specific time of the year?
- What is your view on parents monitoring the completion of SBA tasks and held accountable if a learner fails to comply?
- How do you see the use the point system on SBA tasks to determine who should write the final exam as a strategy to ensure compliance by learners?
- What is your opinion on teachers and parents holding meetings to discuss SBA issues?

THANK YOU



APPENDIX NO 8:

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR TEACHERS

INTRODUCTION AND CONSENT

Hello, my name is Jack Chipfiko I am a PhD candidate studying with the University of Fort Hare. As part of the requirements for the degree programme I am conducting a study entitled: **" Implementation of school - based assessment in high school, in Mpumalanga province, South Africa."** Your school has been selected to participate in this study because it falls within the study area.

My target audience include teachers, learners and SGB Chairpersons. I am kindly requesting you to honestly complete this Questionnaire. Anonymity and confidentiality of your responses will be totally guaranteed.

PREAMBLE ON IMPLEMENTATION OF SCHOOL - BASED ASSESSMENT

School - based assessment (SBA) is defined as all formal assessment, including examinations conducted by the school throughout the year on a continuous basis. SBA enables students to identify and improve their areas of weakness and teachers to adjust their teaching strategies accordingly.

INSTRUCTIONS



Please indicate your response with an (X) in the appropriate box or filling in the provided spaces.

Type of school: Public..... Private.....

Learner enrolment: Boys..... Girls.....

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHIC DATA FOR TEACHERS

1. Gender

Male	Female
1	2

2. Age in years

Below 25	25-30	31-35	36-40	41-45	46-50	51-55	Above 55
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8

3. Highest academic qualification

Matric	Bachelor's Degree	Master's Degree	Doctoral Degree	Others (Specify)
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1	2	3	4	5
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4. Highest professional qualification

Certificate	Diploma	Others (Specify)
1	2	3

5. Teaching experience

Less than 1year	1-5 years	6-10years	11-15years	16-20years	More than 20
1	2	3	4	5	6

SECTION B: VIEWS OF TEACHERS ON THE ROLE OF SCHOOL - BASED ASSESSMENT IN HIGH SCHOOLS

This section seeks to gather information on the views of teachers on the role of school - based assessment in high schools, in the teaching and learning process

6. Indicate with an(X) the extent to which you agree with the following roles of School - based Assessment (SBA) in the teaching and learning process.

Roles of school - based assessment are to:	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	5	4	3	2	1
1. Enable teachers to give feedback to students frequently					
2. Enable students to demonstrate their ability in areas which cannot be assessed in public examinations					
3. Promote creative teaching and learning activities					
4. Empower teachers in the evaluation process					
5. Provide a stable, continuous and pressure free assessment					

6. Enable teachers to decide what to teach					
7. Enable students to have a better understanding of their own strength and weaknesses in learning					
8. Promote continual improvement and confidence building					
9. Complement written examinations and public examinations					
10. Help learners to develop a positive attitude in learning					
11. Enhance learner collaborative skills					

7. List any other roles of SBA not given in the table above.



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SECTION C: STRUCTURES IN PLACE TO SUPPORT THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SCHOOL - BASED ASSESSMENT IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

This section seeks to generate information on the structures in place to support the implementation of school - based assessment in high schools, in the teaching and learning process.

8. Indicate with an(X) your level of familiarity with the administrative structures of SBA

Structure	Extremely familiar	Moderately Familiar	Somewhat familiar	Slightly Familiar	Not at all familiar
	5	4	3	2	1
1. National: DBE and Umalusi					
2. Regional/District: Subject advisors					

3. Circuit: Schools Irregularities Committee					
4. Cluster: Cluster Leader					
5. School: Head of Department(subject)					

9. Briefly explain how the above administrative structures support the implementation of SBA

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10. Show with an (X) your level of agreement with the existence of the following support systems in the implementation of SBA in your school.

Form of Support		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		5	4	3	2	1
1	Induction of new teachers on SBA					
2	Teachers availed with policies on SBA					
3	Teachers provided with adequate resources to implement SBA					
4	Assistance with submission of SBA tasks by learners					
5	Trained on setting of SBA tasks					
6	Assistance in administering of SBA tasks					
7	Assistance in preparation of marking guides for SBA tasks					
8	Assistance in standardization of marking guides					
9	Assistance in marking of SBA					

	tasks					
10	Assistance in computation of weighted SBA marks					

SECTION D: COMPLEMENTARY ROLES OF TEACHERS, LEARNERS AND PARENTS ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SBA IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

This section seeks to gather information on how teachers, parents and learners complement each other in the implementation of SBA in high schools, in the teaching and learning process.

11. Show with an (X) your level of agreement on complementary roles of teachers, parents and learners in the implementation of SBA at school level

Complementary roles		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		5	4	3	2	1
1	Teachers learners and parents work together in preparing SBA tasks					
2	Teachers and parent assist learners on how to respond to SBA tasks					
3	Teachers and parents work together in the supervision of SBA tasks					
4	Teachers and parents work together in monitoring of SBA tasks					
5	Teachers have subject working groups to evaluate SBA tasks					
6	Teachers are provided with adequate resources for SBA.					

7	Teachers and parents work together to provide psychosocial support					
8	Teachers and parent assist learners in research on SBA tasks					
9	Teachers and parents consult each other on SBA issues.					
10	Teachers and parents work together in SBA task administration					
11	Teachers and parents work together in the creation of enabling learning environments					
12	Teachers and parents work together in ensuring compliance with SBA task expected standards					



12. State any other complimentary roles of teachers, parents and learners not listed in Q11.

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SECTION E: STRATEGIES TO ENHANCE THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SBA IN HIGH SCHOOLS

This section seeks to generate data on possible mechanisms to enhance the effective implementation of SBA in high schools, in the teaching and learning process.

13. Indicate with an (X) your level of agreement on suggested strategies to enhance effectiveness of SBA in high school

Strategies:		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		5	4	3	2	1
1	Schools assessment committees to coordinate the implementation of SBA among subjects.					
2	An evenly spaced SBA schedule for all subjects.					
3	Test development workshops for teachers.					
4	SBA consultation meetings with parents					
5	Establishment of SBA cluster task banks					
6	Involvement of teachers in setting of SBA tasks					
7	Standardizing the number of SBA tasks for all subjects					
8	Enforcing completion of SBA tasks by learners through instituting a credit point accumulation system					
9	Synchronised regional calendar for administration of SBA tasks					
10	Holding evaluation meetings with parents to discuss					

	SBA issues					
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14. State any other strategies not identified in Q13 which could be instituted to improve the implementation of SBA in high schools.

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THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION



APPENDIX NO 9:

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR LEARNERS

INTRODUCTION

Your school has been selected to participate in this study to examine the implementation of school - based assessment in high schools. This study is a requirement for the fulfilment of a PhD Degree Thesis in Philosophy of Education and its findings are intended to assist in providing a better understanding and effective implementation of school - based assessment.

PREAMBLE OF SCHOOL - BASED ASSESSMENT

School - based assessment (SBA) is defined as all formal assessment, including examinations conducted by the school throughout the year on a continuous basis. SBA enables students to identify and improve their areas of weakness and teachers to adjust their teaching strategies accordingly.

INSTRUCTIONS

You are kindly requested to answer **ALL** questions. Do not write your name on the Questionnaire. The researcher would like to assure you that the information gathered will be kept confidentially and strictly used for the purpose of this study. Your honest responses to the questions will contribute to the success of this study. Tick (✓) in the appropriate box, and where detail is required, please fill in the information in the spaces provided. It is likely to take you approximately 20 - 30 minutes to answer the questions.

SECTION A: BIOGRAPHIC DATA FOR LEARNERS

1. Gender

Male	Female
1	2

2. Age in years

15years and below	16-17 years	18 and above
1	2	3

3. Grade

Grade11	Grade12
1	2

4. Type school

Public school	Private school
1	2

5. Class

Science	Commerce	General
1	2	3

SECTION B: VIEWS OF LEARNERS ON THE ROLE OF SCHOOL - BASED ASSESSMENT IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

This section seeks to gather information on the views of learners on the role of school - based assessment in high schools, in the teaching and learning process

6. Indicate with an(X) the extent to which you agree with the following roles of School - based Assessment (SBA) in the teaching and learning process.

Roles of school - based assessment are to:	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
	5	4	3	2	1
1. Enable teachers to give feedback to students frequently		 University of Fort Hare <i>Together in Excellence</i>			
2. Enable students to demonstrate their ability in areas which cannot be assessed in public examinations.					
3. Promote creative teaching and learning activities.					
4. Empower teachers in the evaluation process.					
5. Provide learners with a stable and continuous pressure free assessment					
6. Enable teachers to decide on what to teach					
7. Enable students to have a better understanding of their own strength and weaknesses in					

learning					
8. Promote learner continual improvement and confidence building					
9. Complement written public examinations					
10. Enhance learner development of positive attitudes in learning					
11. Enhance learner collaborative skills					
12. Reduce school reliance on standardised external examinations					

7. List any other roles of SBA not given in the table above.



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

SECTION C: STRUCTURES IN PLACE TO SUPPORT THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SCHOOL - BASED ASSESSMENT IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

This section seeks to gather information on the structures in place to support the implementation of school - based assessment in high schools, in the teaching and learning process.

8. Indicate with an(X) your level of familiarity with the administrative structures of SBA

Structure	Extremely familiar	Moderately Familiar	Somewhat familiar	Slightly Familiar	Not at all familiar
	5	4	3	2	1
1. National: DBE and Umalusi					
2. Regional/District: Subject advisors					
3. Circuit: Schools Assessment					

Irregularities Committee					
4. Cluster: Cluster leader					
5. School: Head of Department (subject)					

9. Briefly explain how the above administrative structures support the implementation of SBA

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.....

SECTION D: COMPLEMENTARY ROLES OF TEACHERS, LEARNERS AND PARENTS ON THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SBA.

This section seeks to generate information on how teachers, parents and learners complement each other in the implementation of SBA in high schools, in the teaching and learning process.



10. Show with an (X) your level of agreement on complementary roles of teachers, parents and learners in the implementation of SBA at school level

Complementary roles		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		5	4	3	2	1
1	Teachers learners and parents work together in preparing SBA tasks					
2	Teachers and parent assist learners on how to respond to SBA tasks					
3	Teachers and parents work together in the supervision of SBA tasks					
4	Teachers and parents work together in monitoring of SBA					

	tasks					
5	Teachers have subject working groups to evaluate SBA tasks					
6	Teachers are provided with adequate resources for SBA.					
7	Teachers and parents work together to provide psychosocial support					
8	Teachers and parent assist learners in research on SBA tasks					
9	Teachers and parents consult each other on SBA issues.					
10	Teachers and parents work together in SBA task administration and assessment					
11	Teachers and parents work together in the creation of enabling learning environments					
12	Teachers and parents work together in ensuring compliance to SBA task expected standards					

11. State any other complimentary roles of teachers, parents and learners not listed in Q10.

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SECTION E: STRATEGIES THAT CAN BE USED TO ENHANCE THE IMPLEMENTATION OF SBA IN HIGH SCHOOLS

This section seeks to generate data on possible mechanisms to enhance the effective implementation of SBA in high schools, in the teaching and learning process.

12. Indicate with an (X) your level of agreement on suggested strategies to enhance effectiveness of SBA in high schools

Strategies:		Strongly Agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
		5	4	3	2	1
1	Assessment Committees to coordinate the implementation of SBA among subjects.					
2	An evenly spaced SBA schedule for all subjects					
3	Engagement of teachers in test development workshops					
4	SBA consultation meetings with parents					
5	Establishment of SBA cluster task banks					
6	Involvement of teachers in item writing of SBA tasks					
7	Standardising of SBA task quantities for all subjects					

8	Enforcement of SBA task completion by credit point accumulation system					
9	Synchronised regional calendar for administration of SBA tasks					
10	Term meetings with parents to discuss SBA issues					

13. State any other strategies not identified in Q12 which could be instituted to improve the implementation of SBA in high schools.

.....

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.....



University of Fort Hare
excellence

THANK YOU FOR YOUR COOPERATION

APPENDIX 10:

Application to White River Circuit for access to schools

Jacob Mdluli Secondary school
PO Box 2510
Kabokweni
1245
13 June 2017.

The Circuit Manager
White River Circuit Office
Private Bag X828
White River
1240.

Dear Madam

RE: Request for permission to conduct research in White River Circuit High Schools.

This correspondence serves to request for permission to conduct a research study in high schools in White River Circuit.

The research study is in fulfilment of the requirements for Doctor of Philosophy Degree in Education.

The title of the research study is:

Implementation of School - based Assessment in White River Circuit, Ehlanzeni District, Mpumalanga Province, South Africa: implications for teaching and learning

Data collection was scheduled for September to December 2017, and will involve Teachers, Learners and SGB chairpersons in the following high schools, which were randomly selected.

- Phatfwa secondary
- Khumbula secondary
- Mntungwa secondary
- Ngazi Ndlovu secondary
- Rob Ferreira
- Metropolitan College
- Acek Academy
- Kings school

Find attached the supporting documents:

- Permission Letter from the HOD Mpumalanga Department of Education.
- Ethical Research Clearance Certificate from the host University of Fort Hare.
- Letter of support from my supervisor, Prof Maphosa.

Your granted permission for me to conduct this research study will be greatly appreciated.

Yours Faithfully



Chipfiko Jack (Mr)

Cell: 074 4683855

Email; Chipfiko@gmail.com

APPENDIX 11:

APPLICATION LETTER TO SCHOOLS

Jacob Mdluli Secondary school
PO Box 2510
Kabokweni
1245
30 July 2018.

The Principal
.....

Dear Sir/ Madam

RE: Request for permission to conduct interviews to collect data for research in your school

This correspondence serves to request for permission to conduct interviews in your school. The interview will be conducted with grade11 learners in form of a Focus Group Discussion and will take 15 to 20mins.

The research study is in fulfilment of the requirements for Doctor of Philosophy Degree in Education.

The title of the research study is:

Implementation of School - based Assessment in White River Circuit, Ehlanzeni District, Mpumalanga Province, South Africa: implications for teaching and learning

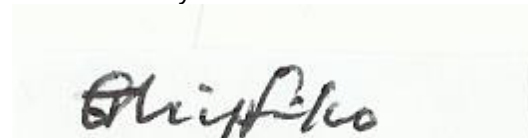
Find attached the supporting documents:



- Permission Letter from the HOD Mpumalanga Department of Education.
- Ethical Research Clearance Certificate from the host University of Fort Hare.
- Letter of support from my supervisor, Prof Maphosa.

Your granted permission for me to conduct this research study will be greatly appreciated.

Yours Faithfully

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Chipfiko Jack'.

Chipfiko Jack (Mr)

Cell: 074 4683855

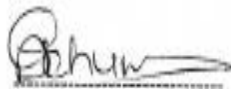
Email; Chipfiko@gmail.com

APPENDIX 12:

CERTIFICATE OF TRANSLATION

CERTIFICATE OF TRANSLATION

I, **KHUMALO GILBERT NTOKOZO**, am competent to translate from English into **SISWATI**, and certify that the translation of the **QUESTIONNAIRE** is true and accurate to the best of my abilities.



Signature of Translator

Gilbert N'Khumalo

Name of Translator

P.O. BOX 662 Nelspruit 1200

Address of Translator

0826450113

Cell Phone Number of Translator

APPENDIX 13:

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE **REC-270710-028-RA Level 01**

Certificate Reference Number: MAP091SCH101

Project title: **Implementation of school based assessment in high schools, Mpumalanga Province in South Africa: Implications for teaching and learning.**

Nature of Project: PhD in Education

Principal Researcher: Jack Chipfiko

Supervisor: Prof C Maphosa

Co-supervisor: N/A

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

The Principal Researcher must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

Special conditions: Research that includes children as per the official regulations of the act must take the following into account:

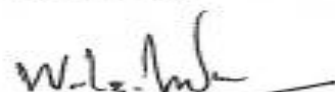
Note: The UREC is aware of the provisions of s71 of the National Health Act 61 of 2003 and that matters pertaining to obtaining the Minister's consent are under discussion and remain unresolved. Nonetheless, as was decided at a meeting between the National Health Research Ethics Committee and stakeholders on 6 June 2013, university ethics committees may continue to grant ethical clearance for research involving children without the Minister's consent, provided that the prescripts of the previous rules have been met. This certificate is granted in terms of this agreement.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
 - o Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected
 - o Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented
 - o Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require
 - o The conditions contained in the Certificate have not been adhered to
- Request access to any information or data at any time during the course or after completion of the project.
- In addition to the need to comply with the highest level of ethical conduct principle investigators must report back annually as an evaluation and monitoring mechanism on the progress being made by the research. Such a report must be sent to the Dean of Research's office

The Ethics Committee wished you well in your research.

Yours sincerely



Professor Wilson Akpan
Acting Dean of Research

10 March 2017

APPENDIX 14:

EDITING CERTIFICATE



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TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I hereby confirm that I have proof read and edited the following PhD Thesis, using Windows 'Tracking' System to reflect my comments and suggested corrections for the author(s) to action:

- Author Name: Jack Chipfiko
- Title: Implementation of School-Based Assessment in High Schools, Mpumalanga Province, South Africa: Implications for Teaching and Learning
- Date: 22 January 2019

Although the greatest care was taken in the editing of this document, the final responsibility for the product rests with the author.

Sincerely

22.01.2019

SIGNATURE

DATE