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**ASSESSING TEACHING CAPACITY OF NOVICE TEACHERS THROUGH
MENTORING IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS.**

A STUDY SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS OF THE
DEGREE OF MASTERS OF EDUCATION



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Together in Excellence

TO

UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE

BY

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DECLARATION

I, Tanduxolo Nicholas Mthi, declare that the dissertation submitted for the Master in Education degree in the Faculty of Education at the University of Fort Hare, is my own work and has not been submitted by me or anyone else at this institution or any other tertiary education institution. I also declare that all the sources used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



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Date: 04/ 09 /2019

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my late grandmother, Mrs Ntombomhlaba Masonani Mabandla. I am sure she would be proud of me as she was my pillar of strength.



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ABSTRACT

The quality of teacher education seems to have become a crucial point of debate worldwide. However, teaching seems to be one of the careers without a recognised apprenticeship. Therefore, mentoring has been seen as an appropriate way for experienced teachers to guide, assist, coach and motivate teachers in their teaching capacity. Teaching capacity is described as having a broad content which can be related to quality teaching, teacher effectiveness and teacher behaviour in the classroom or in the school. The lens with which the study was viewed was through Lave and Wenger's (1998) theory, Community of Practice (CoP). Community of Practice is defined as a process of social learning that occurs when people who have a common interest in a subject or area collaborate over an extended period of time, sharing ideas and strategies, determining solutions and building innovations. The study used mixed methods and concurrent triangulation design in sampling 60 participants for quantitative data and 6 participants for qualitative data. The unit of analysis were novice teachers who were randomly and purposively selected. Data gathering methods included questionnaires, classroom observations and document analysis. The focus was on the primary schools, Foundation Phase (FP) novice teachers. The findings revealed utilisation of different mentoring approaches such as one on one; Foundation Phase Team and school- based mentoring. Although the study reveals that the work of the mentor teachers and novice teachers has evolved to include Learning Teams to improve the teaching capacity of teachers; some mentoring approaches were less effective. The study suggests, therefore, that school-based and district-based mentoring programmes to be formally organised as part of developing novice teachers' teaching capacity.

KEYWORDS: *Mentoring; Mentor Teachers; Novice Teachers; Primary schools; Teaching Capacity*

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

CAPS	: Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement
CoP	: Community of Practice
CPT	: Continuing Professional Development
CPTD	: Continuing Professional Teacher Development
DA	: Developmental Appraisal
DBE	: Department of Basic Education
DoE	: Department of Education
DSG	: Development Support Team
ECDoE	: Eastern Cape Department of Education Education
EDO	: Education District Officials
GMRDC	: Govan Mbeki Research Development C
HEQC	: Higher Education Quality Council
HoD	: Head of Department
IQMS	: Integrated Quality Management Systems
LTSM	: Learning and Teaching Support Material
NECT	: National Education Collaboration Trust
SIP	: School Improvement Plan

SDT	: School Development Team
SE	: School Experience
SPFTED	: Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development
SMT	: School Management Team
PAM	: Personnel Administrative Measures
PGP	: Personal Growth Plan



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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1 Introduction

The quality of teacher education seems to have become a crucial point of debate worldwide because every child deserves high quality education (Bird, 2012). According to Winters and Cowen (2013), teacher quality does not continue to improve substantially after 5 years, therefore quality teachers must be developed within first few years of teaching. Ingersoll and Strong (2012) stress that when new teachers specifically participate in mentoring, they are likely to be more committed to their job and have high job satisfaction. Failure to capacitate novice teachers within the first few years of teaching, implies that novice teachers might become less committed to teaching job and develop selfishness. Yet, teaching seems to be one of the careers without a recognised apprenticeship. Although global research has acknowledged that mentoring must be an integral part of the induction phase of new teachers (Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009); South Africa seems to have less evidence of official policy on new teacher mentoring. To address the above concern, Higher Education Quality Council (HEQC) (2013) identified a selection of schools, placement of student teachers, training of mentors and mentees, as well as mentoring during the practicing period and induction period. To that tend the South Africa's Minister of Basic Education launched the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Development (SPFTED) in South Africa 2011-2025 (DoE, 2008). The primary aim is to improve the quality of teacher education and development in order to advance the quality of teachers and teaching as a profession. The SPFTED initiative is extended to encompass mentoring support as a part of a broader programme of induction for newly qualified teachers. study assesses teaching capacity Therefore, this of novice

teachers through mentoring. Mentoring is a worldwide concern for school-based mentors who are expected to assume a multi-faceted role of being a guide, supervisor, counsellor, overseer, coach, teacher, model, supporter, critic and instructor (Maphosa, Shumba & Shumba, 2007).

1.2 Background of the Study

Shumba, Shumba and Maphosa, (2012) see mentoring as a means to guide and support new teachers to ease them through difficult transitions. In this way mentoring can be viewed as a nurturing process, in which a more experienced person guides the less experienced. Mckimm, Jollie and Hatter (2007) point out that an individual may have a variety of support, for a variety of reasons, including more than one mentor, at any one time and that mix of support may vary over a period of time. Beutel and Spooner-Lane (2009) endorse mentoring as a key strategy for assisting beginning teachers to successfully navigate their way into the teaching profession. Tolhurst (2010) describes mentoring as a process that enables the mentee not only to take responsibility for his learning but to also develop an awareness of his situation and increase his skills. While Heikkinen Jokinen and Tynjälä (2012) describe mentoring as a reciprocal exchange of ideas and joint construction of knowledge for both parties to learn. Mckimm et al., (2007) further emphasize the importance of making explicit the purpose and the intentions of mentoring in a particular context. When the purpose and intentions are known, mentor and mentee are able to debate what mentoring is to be about in their particular context for mutual understanding and vision of mentoring can be shared as they embark on their relationship and this helps the mentor to become aware of his /her role during the journey (Mckimm et al., 2007). Mentoring is also an appropriate way for experienced teachers and managers to acquire management and

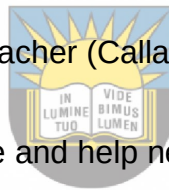
leadership skills that can lead to posts with wider responsibilities. Mentoring of novice teacher as the process to develop novice teachers' teaching capacity and managing their transition is imperative.

While a mentor teacher is seen as a qualified subject expert with several years of appropriate experience in teaching and in giving help and advice to new teachers (Shumba & Maphosa, 2012). Sundli (2007) has some concerns with the idea of choosing mentorteachers based on experience and recommends mentor training so as to provide informed professional support and guidance to the new teachers where necessary. Experience alone has some element of power, danger of dependence which may be an obstacle rather enhancement (Ibid). A novice teacher is a teacher who has zero to three years teaching experience and is a newcomer to the teaching profession (Helleve, 2010). This is the teacher who needs guidance to overcome the transition challenges of the teaching profession. Most significant aspects of teaching are only learnt in the workplace when the beginning teachers actual commence teaching. Beutel and Spooner-Lane (2009) regard the transition from student teacher to teaching students as the time in which beginning teachers require assistance and support for their continued professional learning as they are given the same responsibilities as experienced teachers. Mckimm, Jollie and Hatter (2007) view the period as a transition that can be stressful and challenging as new demands are made upon individuals who are seeking to consolidate their skills. It is therefore a period in which a practitioner is in need of guidance and support in order to develop confidence and competence. In the same light Mckimm, Jollie and Hatter (2007) observe that entering practice in any profession offers a major challenge to newly qualified practitioners.



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Mckimm et al. (2007) regard the period of entering practice as a formative period where knowledge, skills and attitude acquired during a programme of education are applied in practice. Feiman-Nemser (2010) also emphasizes that a process of enculturation is required because new teachers are newcomers to a particular school community. The author uses phrases like “learning the ropes” and ease the entry” to suggest that mentoring is about helping the new teachers fit into the existing system. Callahan (2016) claims that fostering a school culture of inclusion is largely influenced by the school principal and a failure on this, results in new teacher attrition as the new teachers feel lonely and lack collaboration with colleagues. The early years of teaching are a special time in teachers’ career; it is different from what the teacher has gone through before because new s/he is on his/her own, faced with the same responsibilities as experienced teacher (Callahan,2016).



Mentor teachers therefore nurture and help new teachers to understand how schools are organized and how to work with parents, the community and staff (Mudzielwana & Maphosa, 2014). Roberts (2014) states that the role of the mentor is, to provide critical modelling and mentoring and assist new teachers in learning how to teach individual students, manage student behaviours and plan for and deliver instructions that are appropriate for all students. Butler and Cuenca (2012) assert that the role of the mentor has been questioned because of the lack of definitional clarity about their roles and responsibilities. Helping new teachers discover the ways that student think can assist in the development of students’ critical thinking and reasoning skills (Kent, Green & Feldman, 2012). Butler and Cuenca (2012) argue that mentors often base their conceptualization of mentoring around their own experiences as students, student-teachers and in-service teachers. Yet, mentor teachers are tasked with the formal responsibility of helping new teachers learn how to teach (Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009).

Pitton (2006) stresses that the success of mentoring lies in skills and knowledge of mentors who develop the required skills when they are trained

In contrast, mentors also experience isolation in their roles (Bullough, 2012). Sweeny (2008) claims that only few teachers receive formal training to prepare them adequately for mentoring roles. Hobson et al., (2009) report the existence of variation in the nature and quality of mentoring support provided and documented evidence of poor mentoring practice, which have negative consequences for the learning of mentees and thus for the schools and educational systems into which they are being inducted. Studies have found that some mentors are failing to provide sufficient support for beginner teachers' emotional and psychological well-being, characterised in many instances by general unavailability (Ibid). Another challenge is a considerable amount of anxiety felt by mentees due to bullying tendencies of school-based mentors (Hobson, Malderez & Tmlison, 2009). For (Callahan 2016) if the mentoring relationship is set up using a master-apprentice model, in which the mentor assumes the role the expert and provides quick fixes to the mentees' problem, then the beginning teachers might quickly experience the mentor relationship as an oppressive one.

Although mentoring has been praised for being mutual beneficial to mentees and mentors, Hobson et al. (2009) note that some studies suggest that mentoring can also be disadvantageous or even harmful to mentors. This means there are benefits for mentors as well as challenges. For instance, Lee and Feng (2007) report that mentors have experienced and sometimes unmanageable workloads, as result of their involvement in mentoring in addition to their normal teaching roles. Some scholars have complained that most of the literature on mentoring presents an 'overwhelmingly favourable' account, which fails to adequately investigate or address any potentially negative effects (Hobson et.al.2009). In recent years several studies have reported a

number of specific disadvantages and drawbacks of mentoring, together with examples of what are regarded as poor mentoring practices (Sundli, 2007). Research has found that mentor teachers sometimes experience feelings of insecurity, nervousness, threat and even inadequacy at the prospect of their less on being observed (Hobson, et.al, 2009). This can impact on mentors' work-life balance and may cause them stress. Malderez, Hobson and Tracey (2007) believes mentoring as having an impact on the development of capabilities and classroom management skills and ability to manage their time and workloads.

Mentors may seem more like tormentors (Beutel & Spooner-Lane, 2009) and the process of induction into the profession may amount to seduction of the new teachers away from the purpose and innovative practices they acquire in teacher education and move towards imitating and perpetuating undesirable practices and reinforcing the status quo. Some beginning teachers have been found to be insufficiently challenged by mentors, for example, by not being given sufficient autonomy partly due to their concern to protect their own pupils and their own learning (Hobson et al., 2009). In this instance, primary phase teacher-mentors tend to guide student teacher-mentees into low risk activities (Hobson, Malderez, & Tracey, 2009). Lee and Feng (2007) and Sundli (2007) claim that mentor-teachers tend to focus, in their interactions with mentees, on matters of technical rationality and/ or on practical issues such as classroom management, craft knowledge and mentees' teaching of subject content.

Sundli (2007) reports that a number of studies suggest that some of the restricted forms of mentoring can result in the promotion and reproduction of conventional norms and practices, (Feiman-Nemser, 2010). This renders beginning teachers less likely to develop or consolidate their knowledge and (use) of progressive and learner-centred approaches and less likely to challenge the inherent conservatism in teaching or to

advance social reform and social justice agendas. Sundli (2007) sees this as little devotion on insufficient attention to pedagogical issues, to the promotion of reflective practice incorporating an examination of principles behind the practice, or to issues of social reform and learning. Hobson et al., (2006) pointed out that one of the actual or potential outcomes of these various failures is, in spite of the explicit aim of some mentoring programmes being to reduce teacher attrition, the lack of social and psychological support experienced by some trainee and early career teachers, their decision to leave profession. Hobson et al., (2009), claim that some of these failures, restrict approaches employed by some mentors and end up serving to restrict mentee' learning and development in a variety of ways and thereby finding little evidence of school based mentoring achieving what in some contexts at least was one of the main reasons behind its introduction, namely that of reducing theory of practicing dualism amongst the beginning teachers.



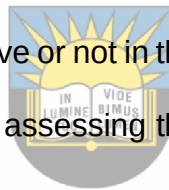
Mentoring is seen as an onsite activity designed to help newly qualified practitioners who lack the necessary experience and skills to serve as fully-fledged practitioners. Mentoring programmes are usually housed at the school site while making use of school facilities and administrative space implies that mentoring can be school based. School-based mentoring is a complex social interaction that mentor teachers (the term mentor teachers is used inter-changeable with experienced teachers), and mentees construct and negotiate for a variety of professional purposes (Roberts, 2014). Maphalala (2013) points out that school-based mentor teachers have become key players in launching new teachers into the teaching profession. Although learning to teach is highly complex for new teachers; with practice it can be manageable (Major & Tiro, 2012; Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009). This is particularly so with the guidance of a skilled mentor teacher (Butler & Cuenca, 2012). Teaching capacity of novice

teachers might develop if they are engaged in mentoring programmes that are aimed at building their teaching capacity because learning is at the heart of mentoring process and it is important that mentor and mentee understand the learning process (Kolb & Kolb, 2009). Ingersoll and Strong (2012) are of the opinion that novice teachers' teaching capacity building should therefore focus on activities that will help them to keep learners on the task; developing effective lessons for learning; utilize appropriate questioning techniques; adjust classroom activities to learners' interests; cultivate a positive classroom environment and establish a successful classroom management.

Mentoring as a field based INSET strategy, theoretically has a potential to meet all the criteria recommended in the literature as essential for a CPD programme (Mohono-Mahlatsi et al., 2007). The growth of formalized programmes of school-based mentoring for beginning teachers is also encouraged by substantial increase in theorizing about and research into the nature and development of teachers' capability (Hobson, 2009). This notion is supported by Callahan (2016) who believes that successful mentoring programmes provide a new teacher with numerous and varied opportunities for open and honest communication with an experienced colleague.

Teaching capacity is described as having a broad content which can be related to quality teaching, teacher effectiveness and teacher behaviour in the classroom or in the school (Elstad, Knut-Andreas & Turmo, 2012). Teaching capacity implies that the new staff members have to undergo some mentoring programme in order for them to possess the necessary knowledge and skills to enable organisation to fulfil its mission. For mentoring to be effective, mentors need to have an intimate knowledge and understanding of teaching and teaching practices in order to enhance mentoring as it is different to classroom teaching. Thus, mentoring requires a new set of skills. Such

skills are to know how to break down complex teaching practices and behaviours into simple components understandable to a beginner (Day & Gu, 2010) and such skills only exist when mentors are trained for their roles (Beutel et al., 2009). Feiman-Nemser (2010) stressed that new teacher needs three to four years to achieve competence and several more years to reach proficiency as powerful mentoring programmes should aim at both keeping new teachers in teaching and also help them become good teachers. Principals have the opportunity to impact the mentoring programme by allowing the mentor and the beginning teacher to choose each other based on shared content areas, learning styles, age, gender, culture and personal variables (Long, 2010). Mentoring appears to be trusted in cases where there is no apprenticeship programme to ease the entrance of new staff members, and assessment of whether it is effective or not in that particular area has to be undertaken. This study, therefore, focuses on assessing the teaching capacity of novice teachers through mentoring.



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1.3 Statement of the Problem

Research studies noted the challenges faced by new teachers during the transition period which is the first three to five years of employment (Beutel and Spooner-Lane, 2009). During this period mentees experience isolation and lack of opportunities to collaborate with peers (Callahan, 2016). Du Plessis (2013) points at the lack of alignment between academic programmes offered at universities and their practical application in the classrooms. There are also challenges that are linked with the selection of mentors who have different mentoring practices and styles (McDonald, 2009). For example, schools select mentors who are skilled, experienced teachers, who have well developed interpersonal skills and demonstrate leadership qualities,

but they are usually not always, specialists in their subjects (Donaldson, 2015). In reality, Butler and Cuenca, (2012) noted that mentors are not trained for their roles as mentors. There is evidence that being a good or a senior teacher does not make an effective mentor (Donaldson, 2015; Mudzielwana & Maphosa, 2014). In addition, mentor teachers in schools have limited time to devote to mentoring and regard mentoring as subordinate to their primary role of teaching pupils (Shumba, et.al, 2012). Furthermore, there is lack of rewards or incentives associated with mentoring; whereby potentially capable and existing mentors are not encouraged to undertake training to develop their capabilities (Maphalala, 2013). Moreover, school-based mentor teachers are sometimes not sure of what they are doing and what is expected of them (Butler & Cuenca, 2012; Sundli, 2007). As a result, the capacity of mentor teachers to serve as effective mentors for newly appointed teachers has been questioned (Maphalala, 2013). Feiman-Nemser (2003) attributes evidence of poor mentoring practice, to at least, in part to poor mentor training. Hence this study identified a gap of assessing teaching capacity of novice teachers through mentoring in primary schools of East London Education District.

1.4 Main Research Question

How does mentoring build teaching capacity of novice teachers in primary schools of East London Education district?

1.4.1 Sub-Research Questions

1.4.1.1. How do novice teachers experience mentoring, in their teaching capacity?

1.4.1.2. What roles do mentor teacher play to capacitate novice teachers in their teaching?

1.4.1.3. Which mentoring programmes are utilised to capacitate novice teachers in their teaching?

1.4.1.4. What **mentoring strategies** do mentor teachers utilise to capacitate novice teachers in teaching?

1.5 Purpose of The Study

The purpose of the study was to assess the teaching capacity of novice teachers through mentoring in primary schools of East London Education District.



1.6 Research Objectives

To determine how novice teachers experience mentoring in their teaching.

To identify the roles mentor teachers, play to capacitate novice teachers in their teaching.

To evaluate mentoring programmes utilised to capacitate novice teachers in their teaching.

To asses mentoring strategies mentor teachers utilise to capacitate novice teachers in teaching

1.7. Rationale of The Study

As deputy principal of a school, I have observed how novice teachers cope with the demands of the teaching job. I also identified the gaps in their teaching capacity. As

my school has been selected to accommodate prospective student teachers, during School Experience (SE) there were so many challenges that I identified with regards to their teaching. They seemed to be ill- prepared for teaching learners in the classroom. They lacked the capacity to prepare lesson plans, deliver the lessons and utilise Learning and Teaching Support Material (LTSM) that reinforce learning. Furthermore, there were discrepancies noted in terms of classroom organisation, classroom management, lesson management and assessment. Moreover, there were concerns with regards to learner discipline and effective classroom control strategies. Having experienced such challenges first hand, I developed an interest in assessing the teaching capacity of novice teachers in their first years of full time-employment in the teaching profession. I also heard and noted the negative attitude displayed by my colleagues, SMT members and some principals of the neighbouring schools towards novice teachers. Novice teachers are continuously criticised of lacking some of the basic skills of teaching. Beginning teachers are not finished products and still have much to learn (Feiman-Nemser, 2010). Reviewing the literature found that there are few comprehensive studies which were well informed by theory and designed to examine in depth the context, content and consequences of mentoring beginning teachers (Ibid). Hobson, Ashly, Malderez and Tomlinson (2009) also note that there had been few comprehensive studies of nature and consequences of mentoring for beginning teachers. In some aspects the evidence base remains limited to this day, partly because of the inevitable difficulties of disentangling the effects of mentoring from other kinds of assistance normally available to those being mentored (Ibid).

Therefore, this is the gap I have identified for my study and hope it my help build evidence base for some aspects such as the nature and consequences of mentoring for novice teachers.

1.8 Significance of The Study

Seemingly the South Africa's basic education has some challenges in terms quality in education, hence the South Africa's Minister of basic Education launched the Integrated Strategic Planning Framework for Teacher Education and Deveolpment in South Africa 2011-2025 (DoE 2008). The primary aim of the initiative is to improve the quality of teacher education and development in order to advance the quality of teaching. The initiative takes place despite studies on mentoring of teachers have be conducted. For example, du Plessis' (2013) evaluated mentoring practices the student teachers receive during their teaching practice. The results show the existence of poor management, non-existence of timetable, lack of teaching staff and non-mentoring all impact on the practice, leaving some students demotivated and disillusioned (Timm, 2008). Study recommends that the student teachers need to be placed at a school that will provide a constructive learning environment (du Plessis, 2013). Fricke (2008) alludes that the strongest predator of poor student achievements are new teachers who are uncertified or who hold less than a minor in the teaching field. Therefore, this study comes fully aware that there are some initiatives in place in terms of mentoring novice teachers.

The study aims at establishing whether novice teachers' teaching capacity is at the level at the novice teachers feel comfortable to discharge their teaching responsibility. The results might help to effect some informed improvement on the current mentoring programmes that are aimed at improving the quality of teacher education and development.

The results of this research study might be of practical value to the Department of Basic Education (DBE) policy makers in terms of developing sound and effective policies and programmes for mentoring novice teachers. Furthermore, remuneration for the extra work that the mentor teachers will be engaged in mentoring novice teachers might also take into consideration. Moreover, the study might create an awareness to Eastern Cape Department of Education (ECDoE) who in turn might plan workshops for mentoring novice teachers. Also, the Education District Officials (EDOs) and School Management Teams (SMT) responsible for teacher education and development might try to organise district- based and school – based mentoring programmes for novice teachers. Mentor teachers might be interested in guiding, coaching and assisting novice teachers in teaching in the classrooms when supported by DBE. The study may also serve as a basis for other related research that may affect newly employed teachers.



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1.9 Scope of Study

The study assessed the teaching capacity of novice teachers in the Eastern Cape Province, East London Education District. The focus was on the primary schools, Foundation Phase (FP) novice teachers. Due to time constraints and financial implications; the study only assessed the teaching capacity of Foundation phase novice teachers through mentoring by mentor teachers. The study used concurrent mixed methods in sampling the selection of units of analysis. Therefore, the research participants were limited to 60 participants for quantitative data and 6 for qualitative data. Then research sites sampled were three primary schools in the East London Education District.

1.10 Definition of Key Terms

1.10.1 Mentoring:

Hobson, (2009) defines mentoring as one-to-one support of a novice or less experienced practitioner (mentee) by a more experienced practitioner (mentor), designed primarily to assist the development of the mentee's expertise and facilitate their induction into the culture of the profession (in this case, teaching) and into the specific local context (which is the school or college). Mentoring is a process of assisting beginning teachers to grow professionally and personally, through the guidance of an experienced individual. A collaborative relationship between mentor and beginner teacher ensures the success of the mentoring process.



1.10.2. Teaching capacity

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A process of equipping novice teachers with skills of keeping learners on task; developing effective lessons for learning; utilizing appropriate questioning techniques; adjusting classroom activities to learners' interests; cultivating a positive classroom environment and establishing a successful classroom management (Ingersoll & Strong, 2012).

1.10.3. Novice teachers

A teacher who has zero to three years teaching experience and is a newcomer to the teaching profession (Helleve, 2010).

1.10.4. Mentor Teachers

Mentor teacher is an advisor who uses his/her knowledge of the school, programme, institution, area of teacher, or all of these, to help others to learn what they need to know, to make sound educational decision, to enhance their performance and grow and develop intellectually and professionally (Mertz, 2007).

1.11 Overview of Chapters

The study consists of five chapters.

Chapter 1 introduces and gives background of the study. It discusses and provides the context, the rational for the investigation and an outline of the research objectives.

Chapter 2 links the study to the relevant theoretical framework. It also reviews the literature which presents empirical evidence about building teaching capacity of novice teachers through mentoring. The review of literature is linked to the objectives of the study.

Chapter 3 explains the research methodology in this study. It explains how participants were selected, the collection and analysis of data in relation to the research questions. It also covers the ethical considerations and limitations of the study.

Chapter 4 presents the findings of the research of how teaching capacity of novice teachers is built through mentoring in foundation phase. The chapter also discusses the findings using academic evidence in the literature review to compare and contrast the findings. The chapter ends with a summary of the findings and conclusion.

Chapter 5 provides a summary of findings, conclusions, suggestions and recommendations for further research of the phenomenon under study.

Conclusion

This chapter outlined what must be expected on this study. It has given a conceptual understanding of the different terms that form the foundation of the study. The rationale behind the study has been attempted to be explained to find a gap or space for the study. Despite, some studies have been conducted on novice teachers' mentoring, the researcher's view is that policy and literature accommodate the study as it might influence a review of the current situation in terms of novice teachers' mentoring programmes.

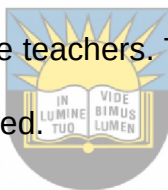


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CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW AND THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the theory chosen and its relevance to the study. The chapter opens by giving a brief mentoring outlook in the world. It breaks into international outlook on mentoring of novice teachers; African context on mentoring of novice teachers and The South African context on mentoring of novice teachers. The chapter further reviews literature highlighted in-depth, detailing on how literature conceptualised mentoring of novice; roles of mentor teachers; mentoring programmes and strategies of mentoring novice teachers. The alignment of the reviewed literature with the research study is discussed.



2.2. Reviewed Literature

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Literature review is regarded as the foundation on which a research project is built. It, therefore, provides a framework and also identifies gaps in the existing literature. The reviewed literature for this study include conceptualisation of mentoring; the roles of mentor teachers; mentoring programmes of novice teachers and strategies of mentoring novice teachers.

2.2.1. International outlook on mentoring novice teachers

In United States, Callahan (2016) focused on Encouraging Retention of New Teachers through Mentoring Strategies as there was poor student achievement caused by lack of experienced teachers because of teacher attrition. Callahan (2016) claims that experienced teachers are better teachers and regarded as highly qualified and able to produce high rate of student achievement. Callahan's research (2016) focused on the

extent to which an effective mentoring programme can address and bridge the needs of new teachers. Findings point out teacher isolation and lack of opportunities to collaborate with peers. To address such challenges Pirkle (2011) suggests that mentors should be provided with professional development in educational leadership in order for them to become leaders and able to guide new teachers toward developing long term professional goals. If mentor teachers are equipped with educational leadership skills, new teachers are also helped to discover the ways that students think which assist in the development of students' critical thinking and reasoning skills (Kent, Green & Feldman, 2012). Feiman-Nemser (2010), notes that US educators and policy makers had a consensus that the success of mentoring of new teachers depends on effective mentors and induction programmes. However, Callahan, 2016) discovered that developed mentoring- induction programmes offer short-term support to help new teachers to survive in their first year on the job.



In Australia, Beutel and Spooner-Lane (2009) focussed on benefits of both new and experienced teachers through mentoring. Firstly, a mentoring programme at a school level for the purpose of reducing burnout and attrition among new teachers can help revitalise the practices of more experienced teachers on staff (Beutel & Spooner-Lane, 2009). Beutel et al. (2009) believe that the retention of experienced teachers has its own challenges as it can bring staleness and complacency as there few opportunities for promotion or for other leadership positions. Secondly, formal training can assist in helping mentors to reflect on their own behaviours and how their actions influence mentees (Ibid). However, mentoring can pose some challenges, for example, in Norway, Sundli (2007) argues on how mentoring may turn out to be an obstacle to reflection rather than an enhancement. As mentoring is new concept that remains misunderstood, there are problematic issues that are seldom heard when mentoring

is considered. Such issues are elements of power and danger of dependence may be an obstacle rather than enhancement (Ibid).

2.2.2. African context on mentoring novice teachers

In Ghana, Kuranchie (2013) sought to unearth how pre-service institutions carried out their induction practices and findings were that the majority of new teachers did not receive induction upon assumption of duty. The findings disclosed that the majority of the head of schools do not heed to the advice of the Ministry to conduct induction as the Ghana education system has no policy on teacher induction (Ibid). Notably, the duration of the induction exercise for those new who received induction was very short and did not cover all issues (Ibid). Kuranchie (2013) reveals that Ghana has no official policy on new teacher induction in spite of experiencing new teacher attrition. The apparent lack of professional and practical support for new entrants has made some observers to criticise teaching as the profession that eats its young and making the initiation of new members a “sink or swim” affair (Ingersoll & Smith, 2017).

Although Cobbold (2015) calls for formal introduction of induction in teacher education in Ghana to be made a policy which would make it mandatory for all heads of schools to comply with. Ingersoll & Smith (2017) reveal that majority of the heads of schools do not heed to the advice by the Ministry to conduct induction for new members of staff. Despite absence of policy on teacher induction, Ghana has made giant strides in producing and enhancing the quality of teachers in the basic and secondary schools (Ibid). This is made possible by colleges of education and some universities (both public and private) in Ghana that run various courses to prepare qualified and professional teachers for both primary and secondary level (Ibid). This is not enough, as teaching profession flourishes on professional development programmes that

prepare, support and retain teachers in the school system (Kuranchie, 2013). When teachers are posted to their places of work meaningful support has to be given to make them familiar with their job (Adudu, 2016).

In Ethiopia, Gemedu and Tynjälä (2015) examined the challenges that might become potential barriers to the teachers' professional development. It has been found that the quality of education has been deteriorating and student achievement declining, due to lack of teaching capacity of novice teachers. The three main challenges that hinder the development of teachers in the Ethiopian context identified were firstly, conceptions and conceptual problems related to teaching and learning, secondly professional development and thirdly mentoring. The nature of mentoring in the Ethiopian context demonstrates that experienced teachers give less advice and support to less experienced, newly qualified teachers (Ibid).



2.2.3. The South African context on mentoring novice teachers

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In South Africa, du Plessis (2013) evaluated mentoring practices that student teachers receive during their teaching practice. Although schools are willing to accommodate student teachers, poor management, non-existent timetable, lack of staff and non-mentoring all impact on the practice, leaving some students demotivated and disillusioned (Timm, 2008). Du Plessis (2013) indicates that the student teachers need to be placed at a school that will provide a constructive learning environment whereby more training is provided to mentoring teachers. In a similar view, Wilson and Demetriou (2007) claim that it is essential to bring the academic programme to close alignment with its practical application in the actual classroom. Maphosa, Shumba and Shumba (2007) emphasize that lecturers, teachers and mentor teachers have to work

together in order to ensure their efforts are coordinated, thus improving the quality of mentorship in schools. At the same time, Mohono-Mahlatsi and Van Tonder (2007) claim that mentoring has potential to meet all the criteria recommended by literature as essential for a continuing professional development of teachers as a field based INSET strategy.

2.2.4. Conceptualising Mentoring

Literature indicates mentoring as a support strategy which is commonly used and valued by novices (European Commission 2010). Fourie and Meyer (2004), see mentoring as a dynamic and reciprocal relationship between an experienced teacher and another teacher with little or no experience. The latter does not necessarily need to be a subordinate of the former. This definition implies a relationship in which both the mentee and mentor are actively involved. Although the mentee is less experienced, he possesses skills in specific capacities which need not be the main focus of the assistance given. Mentoring facilitates instructional improvement through a collaborative, non-judgemental interaction between experienced teachers and novices (Sundli, 2007). This means that mentors are there to facilitate improvements and not to judge novices or to prove them correct.

2.2.5. Conceptualising mentoring of novice teachers

Makhosi (2010) views the definitions of mentoring as self-explanatory in that they unpack the significant roles that mentors should play, mainly with regards to supervision. Hobson et al. (2009) describes mentoring as one-on-one support of novice or less experienced practitioner by a more experienced practitioner designed primarily to assist the development of the mentees' expertise and to facilitate the novice practitioner's induction into the culture of the profession and into a specific local

context. In the context of beginner mentoring, a mentor's efforts to assist the development of expertise will normally focus on the mentee's ability to facilitate learning (Hobson et al. 2009). Feiman-Nemser (2005), describes teacher education in the form of mentoring as a process of equipping new teachers with critical knowledge and skills about teaching and fostering an understanding of learning. Beutel et al., (2009) further added that mentoring is an interactive process that occurs within a social context where effective communication and relationship skills are also required for expect mentoring.

With regards to benefits for student-teachers and beginning teachers, mentoring positively impacts on developing their teaching competencies (Hobson et.al, 2009), and plays a key role in their socialization process and provides emotional and psychological support (Butler & Cuenca, 2012). On one hand mentoring is viewed as an important and effective form of supporting the professional development of beginning teachers (DBE, 2013). On the other hand, mentoring is seen as a symbiotic relationship in which mentors also benefit from the mentoring process (Beutel et al., 2009). Thus mentoring can be seen as an intentional pairing of an inexperienced person with an experienced partner to guide and nurture his or her development.

Benefits of mentoring for beginning teachers include reduced feeling of isolation, increased confidence and self-esteem, professional growth and improved self-reflection and problem solving capacities. Research literature has shown mentoring to be helpful in boosting the confidence of novice teachers enabling them to put difficult experiences into perspective and increase their moral and job satisfaction (Hobson et al. 2009). The involvement in mentoring is described as having a potential of aiding individual teacher's career planning and career progression (Maphosa, 2012). For an example, helping mentor teachers to identify their strengths and priorities, facilitating

an extension of their responsibilities for supporting the professional development of other colleagues or using their experience as mentors to pursue professional qualifications (Ibid).

2.2.6 The roles of mentor teachers

Maphalala (2013) defined the term “role” as being the expected behaviour within a “social position”, where there are various roles that can be taken on. There is also considerable debate in the literature about the multi-faceted role of the mentor. (Shumba, Shumba & Maphosa, 2012) identified the multiple roles of mentors as those of expert-coach, subject specialist, critical friend and learner. Mentors not only offer emotional and instructional-related support to novices they also model useful techniques to them (Ibid). Having a mentor is regarded as an important asset to novices in their first year. The presence of a mentor is likely to mean much to novices since the support given by mentors enables novices to increase learning and to improve learner performance. The importance of mentors to novices is further stressed by Angell and Garfinkel (2002) in that their experiences with mentors who inspired them and respected their inputs make them feel like true professionals. However, not all experienced teachers have the qualities of good mentors. Research evidence suggest that the competences of mentors are not always impressive to some novices as some mentors demonstrate questionable teaching practices and the novices have “to learn what not to do” (Hellsten et al. 2009:712). This gives rise to a question on the credibility of all mentors and a call for the careful selection and intensification of mentor training. Dube (2008) concurs with this and lists a number of characteristics of mentors to novices as “guides, advisors, counsellors, coaches, role models, people to lean and rely on, people who understand novices and have the willpower to work with them”

(2008:41,42). Nash (2010) further suggests that mentors be chosen from the ranks of positive teachers, who are chosen not because of their knowledge of the subject matter or the duration of their stay in the school. Nielsen, Barry and Addison (2007) call for mentors to be committed people who are carefully selected on basis of their skill in content, specific skills to help novices, and the ability to work with them. A mentor's content knowledge seems to be crucial especially where novices need subject-specific support. Careful selection of mentors, because if mismatching occurs, it may add to novices' anxiety.

To have mentors of good quality, it is vital to use criteria when selecting mentors. Researchers support the careful selection and training of mentors (Nash 2010). Literature stresses the importance of matching mentors with novices, which can be done on basis of age, same gender, same subject and grades, or same interests (Dube 2008; Nash 2010). A successful mentorship experience is likely to occur if the two are compatible with each other. Callahan (2016) views a mentor as simply as a master, wiser and more experienced professional who guides a new teacher through probationary period and observes and provides instructional support. Maphalala (2013) identifies mentor roles as: assisting the classroom teachers in refining existing instruction strategies; introducing new strategies and concepts; engaging teachers in conversations about teaching and providing overall support. Dube (2008) believes that greater impact on practice is realised when content specific support is covered. Ingersoll and strong (2012), also found that mentors play an important role in the socialisation of novice teachers, thereby helping them to adapt to the norms, standards and expectations associated with teaching in general and with specific schools.

On the contrary, mentors have also been found to have learned from the new teacher-mentees through participating in mentor training courses and more generally, from

opportunities to talk to others by teaching and learning in general or about their own teaching in particular (Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009). Simpson (2007) points out that mentor teachers gain new ideas and new perspectives, new styles and modern strategies of teaching from the new teachers and enhance their teaching knowledge. As Callahan (2016) puts it, the development of school-based teacher education has made the role of the mentor teacher a complicated job. The mentor teacher as classroom teacher with the additional responsibility of mentoring student-teachers, has been emphasised as more important. Given the definition of mentor teachers, there is no doubt that the role of the mentor is a complex one. The complexity of the process is further echoed by Mckimm, Jollie and Hatter (2007) by emphasizing that mentors require some training in order to develop competence in reflective and have an ability to act as critical friend in order to allow the student teacher to be a reflective practitioner. Despite, the complexity, some mentor teachers are selected by virtue of their experience and sometimes their expertise (Sundli, 2007). One has to acquire a set of skills which have been learnt during training in order to be an effective mentor (Mckimm et al., 2007). Bullough claims that one method by which mentors might be prepare is via a mentor's participation in seminars organised around the practice of mentoring. Such seminars could operate as affinity groups, helping to overcome mentor isolation, facilitating the development of a shared discourse for mentoring and enhancing mentors' skill development through conversation about mentoring practice and pedagogy (Ibid).

The benefits for mentors include encouraging reflection on their own professional knowledge, beliefs and practices and developing their teaching potential (Feiman-Nemser, 2010). Thus, capacitating experienced teachers helps to build strong mentors who will know their roles on how to mentor novice teachers. Beutel et al.

(2009) points out that mentoring is a symbiotic relationship in which mentors also benefit from the mentoring process. Mentors feel revitalized as they learn new skills (Ibid).

Despite, being beneficial to mentors, Hobson (2009) reports that mentoring can be harmful to mentors. Mentors experience unmanageable workloads, as result of their involvement in mentoring in addition to their normal teaching roles and this can impact negatively on mentors 'work life balance and cause them stress (Ibid)

2.2.7. Mentoring Programmes of Novice Teachers

Beutel et al. (2009) refers to the mentoring programme, as a learning in the workplace through dialogue and reflection, since the programme affords mentors with some opportunities to assist new teachers with personal support needs. Mentoring is being praised worldwide as a programme that is effective in facilitating the transition of new teachers to employment as they learn from experienced professionals (Kent et al., 2012). Ingersoll and Strong (2012) noted that participation in mentoring programmes does not only provide an increased job satisfaction but is almost a necessity to combat the inexperience that exists within teacher workforce of a school.

Callahan (2016) strengthens the importance of strong mentoring programme by suggesting an establishment of a strong teacher-programme with transformational teacher leaders as one way in which school leaders support new teachers in realizing their dreams of a difference in the life of a child. Callahan (2016) describes a strong mentoring programme as one with strong mentors and insists that highly qualified teaching is unquestionably necessary in advocating for effective teachers. Callahan (2016), a mentoring programme is only as strong as its mentors who must provide

clear and concise goals in order to impact basic information and solicit feedback from the new teachers. This does not only benefit new teachers, but also experienced teachers by developing ability to reflect on their professional knowledge, beliefs and practices and developing their teaching potential (Feiman-Nemser, 2010). By implication, mentoring needs to be driven by strong and highly qualified human resources with necessary skills.

On one hand, Beutel and Spooner-Lane, (2009) found out that during mentoring programmes the experienced teachers feel revitalized and experience increased job satisfaction while new teachers' capacities are enhanced. On the other hand, Ingersoll and Strong, (2011), believe that, for a mentoring programme to be effective and strong, the programme needs to be consistent with well-planned and comprehensive professional practices. Research evidence suggests that mentoring programmes advance growth of new teachers and make them more effective in a shorter time, thereby improving student learning and reducing the attrition rate of new teachers (Ibid). Therefore, mentoring programmes should be designed to focus on new teachers' fluctuating and limited experience, as well as on recognising the short term and long term needs of new teachers.

Beutel et al. (2009) characterises expert mentoring as a mentoring programme that equips mentors with skills that knowing how to help and support adults so as to facilitate their learning. In view of this Beutel et al. (2009) came up with a programme called "Learning in the workplace through dialogue and reflection" as an example of expert mentoring programme that develops competence and lays foundation for innovative professional practice. The program is designed to build mentoring capacity in experienced teachers through engagement in dialogue and reflection. The programme is clearly articulated of its requirements and the mentors are not only

expected to have an intimate knowledge and understanding of teaching and teaching practices. But, also are generally required to have a new set of skills that include knowing how to help and support adults so as to facilitate their learning through mentoring as it is different to classroom teaching (Ibid).

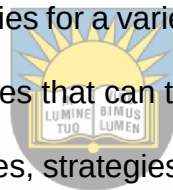
Although teachers who are mentored have been found to be less likely to leave teaching and less likely to move schools within the profession (Ingersoll & Smith, 2017). When new teachers specifically participate in mentoring programme, they are more committed to their job and develop job satisfaction and are more likely to stay within the profession of teaching (Ibid). However, Feiman-Nemser (2010) criticises mentoring programmes claiming that policy makers lack an understanding of the learning needs of the beginning teachers and of the resources required to create effective programmes. Also, short- programmes stop short of realizing what powerful programmes can accomplish. To him clearly the short-term mentoring programmes are aimed at increasing the retention of new teachers. In the same vein Callahan (2016) claims that if mentoring programmes are helpful in reducing new teacher attrition, then, they must be helpful in the reduction of the immense cost of replacing teachers and that benefits education districts.

For the powerful programme to accomplish an objective of helping new teachers to become good teachers, Feiman-Nemser (2010) suggests that the first years of teaching should be treated as a phase in learning to teach and surround the new teachers with a professional culture that supports teacher learning. Beutel et al. (2009) concurs with Feiman-Nemser in that successful mentoring takes place when there is expert mentoring that does not allow new teachers to develop competence only but also lays foundation for innovative professional practice. Ingersoll and strong (2011), also show that mentoring programmes advance the professional growth of new

teachers, thereby making them more effective in a shorter period, improving student learning and reducing the attrition rate of new teachers. It has been reported that even some experienced teachers begin to approach mentor teachers for individual help and seek advice on specific areas and/ or their own professional needs (Ibid). This in turn, suggests that mentoring programmes are likely to offer a more developed culture of professional development and support within participating schools. Seemingly the success of mentors' role depends on various issues of which the organisation of the mentoring programmes.

2.2.8. The Strategies of Mentoring Novice Teachers

Mentoring have a variety of activities for a variety of purposes or goals and can involve a variety of practices and strategies that can take place at different stages. There are a number of mentoring approaches, strategies and tactics that have been found to be effective across different contexts.



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2.2.8.1. District- based Mentoring

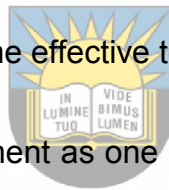
Gross (2009) discussed two examples of models of mentoring, at district and regional levels. District based mentoring are developed after state programmes fail to meet the needs of novices (Ibid). This model ensures the existence of a strong partnership between university and district. Although it may be difficult to detach support programmes from the state for reason of funding, locally organised programmes are likely to be more successful than those coordinated by the state. Small networks ensure the flow of communication and an increased level of understanding. Novices stand a good chance to make reasonable connections between theory and practice.

Some education systems and education districts view mentoring as a cost-effective method of training and developing staff (ECDoE, 2013). In agreement (DBE, 2013) noted that mentors are able to carry out their roles in conjunction with their teaching job and there is no cost incurred from external training providers or premises. Some other reasons for mentoring is the stabilisation of the budget that is stretched out by new teacher attrition (Ibid). Therefore, it is imperative that both schools and education systems benefit from the enhanced retention of those teacher-mentees who become more confident and committed as a result of their participation in mentoring schemes (Ingersoll & Strong, 2012). Bullough (2012), claims that one method by which the above suggestion of mentor preparation might be achieved is via a mentor's participation in seminars organised around the practice of mentoring, together with other teacher-mentors and university based teacher educators. Such seminars could operate as affinity groups, helping to overcome mentor isolation, facilitating the development of a shared discourse for mentoring and enhancing mentors' skill development through conversation about mentoring practice and pedagogy (Ibid).

2.2.8.2. School- based Mentoring

Beutel and Spooner-Lane (2009) view workplace learning that is mediated by mentors as potentially powerful source of learning for new teachers as it enables new teachers to obtain information and support from experienced colleagues in a safe and individualised learning environment. Kent, Green and Feldman, (2012), recommend principals to provide an environment that supports the development of productive relationship between mentor and mentee by creating a culture that supports the teacher mentoring process.

Hudson (2010) highlighted that when a mentor discusses and models his or her own teaching, the mentor helps the beginner to learn about certain important aspects, such as planning appropriate learning activities and considering pupils' prior knowledge and experiences of the topic. According to Maphalala (2013) the demonstration of lessons by mentor teachers are the skills of teaching that will be learnt more effectively through modelling as the modelling has a potential of having new teachers emulating the mentor teachers. Callahan (2016) anchors this teaching role of mentors by referring to mentors as a resource for suggestion on classroom management, assistance and guidance in lesson planning and locating material, wisdom gained from experience with the school policies and procedure, and facilitation of reflective practice. This implies that teaching becomes one of the key roles of a mentor teacher as novice teachers' primary aim is to become effective teachers.



Tillema (2009) identifies assessment as one of the mentors' roles. Assessment as a process of evaluating, measuring and documenting the level of readiness, learning progress and skills acquisition of a person (DBE, 2013). Nyaumwe and Mavhunga (2005) claim that assessment during mentoring is very critical as it helps to provide information on how well the new teachers are performing in order to detect difficulties and alert them to areas that need to be strengthened. This role is aimed at providing the information through feedback and helps student teachers to gain insight into their performance as it is valuable to their professional growth. Assessment also helps novice teachers to implement teaching methods promoted in their teacher curriculum, evaluate their teaching and reflect on their instructional practice. According to Maphosa (2010), assessment serves to ensure that only those student teachers who have developed sufficiently are allowed into teaching field and determines how much the student teacher has acquired in terms of professional knowledge and skills.

2.2.8.3. Classroom-based Mentoring

Classroom-based lesson observation is seen as one of employing mentoring strategy. Maphalala (2013) points out that visiting classrooms, seeing teachers in action and providing on-going feedback and support and that is how mentors help classroom teachers grow professionally. Maphalala (2013) stress that constructive feedback to new teachers is a vital ingredient in the mentoring process because it allows new teachers to reflect and improve. For feedback to take place, Maphalala (2013) stresses that mentors need to observe practices in order to provide oral and written feedback on aspects associated with the mentor's pedagogical knowledge. Callahan (2016) further says that only well-trained mentors, work well with new teachers to develop reflective practices through dialogue about classroom management and pedagogy. The importance of building relationships with students and developing caring values such as respect in the classroom seemingly is emphasised.



The mentor can introduce collegial supervision where the mentor and mentee criticise each other's lessons (Lu, 2010). Maphosa (2010) observed that during the process of supervision, lecturers preferred to take a reflective role, acting as critical friend, whereas mentors preferred a steering and performance-orientated advisory role. Effective mentoring strategies also include holding regular meetings, open dialogue, involving them in decision making and providing emotional and psychological support. Effective mentors provide their mentees with emotional and psychological support and make them feel welcomed, accepted and included (Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009). Hobson et al. (2009) further characterises effective mentors as those that make time for their mentees by holding regular meetings and avail themselves for informal discussions at other times. In turn, Hobson et al., (2009) see effective mentors as

those mentors that allow their mentees an appropriate degree of autonomy to make decisions and to develop their own teaching styles. This means that mentors of beginner teachers should respect their mentees as adult learners, taking into account of their individual learning styles. Hobson et al. (2009) claim that effective mentors depend on mentors' preparation and support, hence several studies suggest that mentors are more likely to be able to employ effective mentoring strategies if they have undertaken an appropriate programme of mentor preparation. As the mentor and the mentee interact, there must be exploration of strengths and weaknesses (Mukeredzi & Mandrona, 2013). Through these interactions, shortcomings are rectified and suggestions are made on how to overcome anxiety and how to apply a variety of strategies to improve their teaching (Ibid). In the process of identifying such attributes, student-teachers get nurtured into competent practitioners (Kiggundu & Nayimuli, 2009; Major & Tiro, 2012).



2.3 Theoretical Framework: Community of Practice

To strengthen the need of mentoring newcomers, a number of educational theories and concepts throw light on the reasons why institutions promote mentoring as good practice. The lens through which the study was viewed is through Lave and Wenger's (1998) theory, Community of Practice (CoP). Firstly, Community of Practice is defined as a process of social learning that occurs when people who have a common interest in a subject or area collaborate over an extended period of time, sharing ideas and strategies, determining solutions and building innovations (Wenger, 1998). Putting it simpler, Wenger (2011) explains "Communities of Practice refers to groups of people who share a concern or passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly." If CoP refers to a group of people who share a concern or

passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly, and it requires members to be practitioners (Hobson et al 2009). In relation to CoP mentoring is also seen as one-on-one support of novice or less experienced practitioners by experienced practitioners in that subject designed primarily to assist the development of mentees' expertise.

CoP is characterised by three components: the domain, the community and the practice (Ibid). The domain in this study refers to teachers who have a shared domain i.e. the school and the classrooms. Furthermore, CoP emphasises that learners inevitably participate in communities as practitioners because the mastery of knowledge and skills require newcomers to move toward full participation in the socio-cultural practices of a community (Lave & Wenger,1998). Wenger (2011) emphasizes that the members of a specific domain interact and engage in shared activities, help each other and share information with each other. As a community of professionals they share teaching practices. Wenger (2011) characterises CoP as a group that coheres through a sustained mutual engagement on an indigenous enterprise, and creating a common repertoire. This is possible when relationships and understandings are structured by work itself and management-created context. Although the concept is regarded as ideal, it may be questioned if its applicability of it is heavily individualised in a tightly managed work (Cox, 2005).

Wenger (2011) agreed that the term "community" does not imply necessarily co-presence, a well-defined identifiable group or social visible boundaries, rather it is an activity system about which participants share an understanding concerning what they are doing. Lave and Wenger's (1998) situated learning emphasises that the learning process provided through community of practice should be informed through social interaction rather than by a planned mechanistic process of cognitive transmission.

Such an approach would result in authentic, motivated learning of a skill gap. Furthermore, learning is not a property of an individual and the representation in the heads of CoP members, but rather a more relational property of individuals in context and in interaction with one another (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Although their work emphasises improvised new practice, not the reproduction of an existing practice, Lave and Wenger (1998) agree that every organisation has to allow social interaction among its staff members for purpose of having work done and sustainability.

For some authors, the use of the term “community” is a continuing cause of confusion; instead, a concept of occupational community may be suitable (Wang & Noe, 2010). Their notion points to the power of common work situations and structures, as opposed to direct joint practices to create commonality and immediate mutual understanding that underpins social networks. To address this confusion, Kim, Chung and Lee (2013) clarifies that the term “community” does not imply necessarily co-presence, a well-defined identifiable group or socially visible boundaries; rather, it is participation in an activity system about which participants share understanding concerning what they are doing and what that means for their lives and their communities.

Lave and Wenger (1998) argue that CoP is essentially a picture of how newcomers are socialised into a rather static practice community, through legitimate peripheral participation. A feature based definition of CoP states that learning is not a property of an individual and the representations in the heads of CoP members, but rather a more relational property of individuals in context and in interaction with one another (Lave & Wenger, 1991). Wenger (2011) see learning as being central to human identity when an individual is an active participant in the practice of social communities, then he or she is in construction of his or her identity through these communities. The motivation to become a more central participant in a community of practice can provide a powerful

incentive for learning, with an implication that novice teachers will have a desire to develop skills if the people they admire have the same skills (Wenger, 1998). The point emphasizes that learning during the process of mentoring should be a two-way process, that is mentors must also hope and be willing to benefit from the process. Mentor teachers are viewed as the senior teachers, experienced teachers and/or any other teacher who might be seen as relevant to carry out mentorship on novice teachers (Sundli, 2007). The common goal and the shared concern would be to deliver quality teaching to learners in the presence of novice teachers for modelling. Quality teaching is a teaching that benefits every child irrespective of his/her abilities (EI, 2017). While on one hand, the definition of CoP promotes mutual benefit for both mentor teachers and novice teachers. On the other hand, CoP processing Nett's (2008) view does not consider the relationship between communities as a potential driver for change.



As CoP is context-based, communities develop their practice through a variety of methods, including: problem solving, request for information, seeking the experiences of others, reusing assets, coordination and synergy, discussing developments, visiting other members, mapping knowledge and identifying gaps (Wenger, 1998). Seemingly CoP has some common features with some of the definitions of mentoring. For instance, Tolhurst (2010) describes mentoring as process that enables the mentee to not only take responsibility for his or her learning but also develops an awareness of his or her situation and increases his/her skills. While Shumba et, al., (2007) see mentoring as a means to guide and support new teachers to ease them through difficult transition; it is about smoothing the way, enabling, reassuring as well as directing, managing and instructing. This is supported by Mckimm, Jollie and Hatter, (2007) who pointed out that an individual may have a variety of support for a variety

of reasons, including more than one mentor at time and that mix of support may vary over a period of time. Therefore, CoP activities seem to be activities that might potentially build teaching capacity of novice teachers.

CoP is often read as primarily about the socialisation of newcomers into knowledge by a form of apprenticeship. According to Lave and Wenger (1991), for newcomers, the purpose is not to learn from talk as a substitute for legitimate peripheral participation; but it is to learn to talk as a key to legitimate peripheral participation. CoP implies that even in apparent routine or unskilled work there is a large amount of interaction and sense making involved in getting the job done. This definition also gives an idea of a nature of mentoring programmes expected for novice teachers because mentor teachers and novice teachers have common on a subject, the teaching. Beutel and Spoone-Lane (2009) endorse learning in the workplace through dialogue and reflection as a programme that affords mentors with some opportunities to assist with personal support needs in addition to their broader professional concerns. School-based mentoring of novice teachers involves engagement in activities with mentor teachers who are both practitioners that share repertoire of practice (Ibid). This might provide apprenticeship that novice teachers need as they are entering practice in any profession that appears to be challenging to new practitioners.

Hoadley (2012) claims that, on an individual level, learners (novice teachers) may seem to have a knowledge about something (for instance, a skill for solving a problem), but then fail to apply that knowledge in a context different from the one in which they learned the skill from. This implies that novice teachers are not empty but they need interaction and guidance from experienced members that will help them relate to the situation. Therefore, mentoring programme that carries the features highlighted by CoP through Lave and Wenger (1998) might be more relevant to build teaching

capacity of novice teachers. However, success of community of practice in Hoadley (2012) view depends on appropriation. The author noted conditions such as lack of frequent reorganisation, leading to engagement between individuals not being sustained; employment of temporary or part time staff, where people come and go and no relationship built; leading to individuals not committing to the task (Ibid). Seemingly the highlighted conditions might limit the appropriation of CoP.

Sundli (2007) believed that the depth and sweep of concepts such as mentoring are part of the reasons why a 'theory of mentoring' is problematic; as a result, mentoring theory seem to be under-developed. CoP communities has been observed by some authors (Mckimm, Jollie & Hatter, 2007) as free floating natural set of relationship, yet such interaction is actually likely to be heavily structured by task and formal controls (Hoadley, 2012). Furthermore, it should be avoided seeing consumption/leisure activities not work as the primary form of identity creation; tight task management, where the organisation wishes itself to own the task; individualised work, so there is no collective engagement as factors that limit appropriation (Ibid). Thus if the above named conditions are not taken into consideration, the mentoring process can be a lip service and intended objectives might not be achieved.

The implication is that mentoring is not as simple as it is envisaged and needs thorough planning and commitment on the part of organisation that intends to employ for staff development. However, this does not take away the acknowledgement by global research that mentoring must be an integral part of the induction phase of new teachers in order for them to experience the success that will lead to address their challenges new teachers face on entrance to teaching profession (Kent, Green & Feldman, 2012). These might be the reasons why Continuing Professional Teacher Development (CPTD) in the form of workshops seems to be more popular while

mentoring remains a lip service. This is in spite CPTD approach proving to be ineffective since it does not sufficiently change teachers' content knowledge or pedagogical skills (Mewborn & Huberty, 2004). For mentor teachers to coordinate mentoring of novice teachers successfully, they need to undergo an intense mentoring training to develop a strong awareness of factors that become barriers to their task.

The selected theoretical framework helps to understand the nature of mentoring novice teachers need to undergo. Community of Practice might help to contextualise mentoring, as CoP is context based. In CoP, Communities develop their practice through a variety of methods, including: problem solving, request for information, seeking the experiences of others, reusing assets, coordination and synergy, discussing developments, visiting other members, mapping knowledge and identifying gaps (Wenger, 1998). These activities seem to be undertakings that might ease the mentoring and take away the power of seniority of experience teachers that has tendency of intimidation to mentees.



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Conclusion

The literature underpinning the mentoring of novice teachers has been highlighted and discussed. The reviewed literature categorised mentoring of novice teachers as viewed through international, African and South African empirical studies. The chapter also looked at different aspects of mentoring as aligned with research questions and the objectives of the study. Furthermore, theoretical framework with which the study was viewed was critically discussed and its application justified.

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

Research methods provide a discussion of the research approaches which were adopted to assess the building of teaching capacity of novice teachers in primary schools. This chapter begins with an explanation of the research paradigms of which pragmatism was selected as suitable for the study. A mixed methods approach of inquiry used to find answers to the research questions is highlighted. The description of the research setting, participants, the data collection process, research instruments and data analysis will be discussed.

3.2. Research Paradigm: Pragmatism



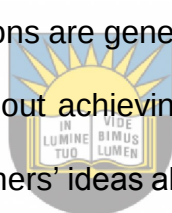
The approach to research often involves philosophical worldview, a set of beliefs that guide action (Neuman, 2011). This worldview has been called a “paradigm” by other authors (Cresswell, 2014; Babbie, 2012; Blance & Durrheim 2006). Blance and Durrheim, (2006) define a paradigm as an all-encompassing system of interrelated practice and thinking that define for researchers the nature of their inquiry along three dimensions: ontology, epistemology and methodology. These three dimensions of a paradigm entail a set of beliefs, values and methods influencing what should be studied, how it should be studied, and how results will be interpreted. Creswell, (2014) and Babbie, (2012) both posit that a paradigm is essentially a frame of reference with which to observe and understand the world. The paradigm offers an alternative worldview to that of positivism/post-positivism and constructivism and focuses on the problem to research and the consequences of the research (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2017).

The widely discussed three paradigms in the research literature include post positivism; constructivism and pragmatism. Firstly, the post positivist assumptions also known as scientific, empirical research is seen in quantitative studies. As its name suggests, post-positivism specifically refers to the thinking that followed positivism, which challenged the notion of an absolute truth awaiting discovery, and recognised that there cannot be absolute certainty about knowledge claims when studying human behaviour and actions (Opie,2010). Nonetheless, post-positivism does reflect a deterministic philosophy in which causes do probably determine outcomes, a stance which is often reflected in the design of the research associated with this paradigm. It holds a deterministic belief in which causes determine effects or outcome (Ibid). The knowledge that develops through a positivism is based on careful observation and measurement of the objective reality. Secondly, the constructivist assumptions also known as social constructivism is an approach seen in qualitative studies (Mertens,2010). Social constructivists believe that individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work (Mertens, 2010). Individuals thus develop subjective meanings of their experiences.

Thirdly, another position about world views comes from the pragmatists. Pragmatism as a worldview arises out of actions, situations and consequences rather than from antecedent conditions as in positivism (Babbie, 2012). Pragmatists do not see the world as an absolute entity nor is it committed to any one philosophical system of reality and knowledge (Creswell, 2014). Knowledge from the pragmatic viewpoint are considered to be both constructed and based on the reality of the world we experience and live in (Creswell & Clark, 2017). The concern is with applications and solutions to problem situations, and, the problem is more important than the actual methods chosen (Creswell, 2014). Instead of focusing on the methods, the researcher

emphasises that the research problem should use all the approaches available to understand the problem (Neumann, 2011).

When regarded as an alternative paradigm, pragmatism sidesteps the contentious issues of truth and reality, and accepts philosophically that there are singular and multiple realities that will be open to empirical inquiry and orients itself towards solving practical problems in the real world (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2017). This paradigm allows the researcher to be free of mental and practical constraints imposed by the forced choice dichotomy between post-positivism and constructivism, and researchers will not be prisoners of a particular research method or technique (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2017). Researchers' beliefs about the research questions to ask and usage of methods to address these questions are generally based on their stances about what can be known and how to go about achieving such knowledge. These stances are important components of researchers' ideas about reality and the nature of knowledge as reflected in their worldviews (Morgan, 2007).



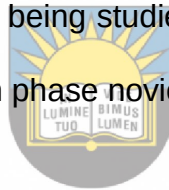
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This research study adopted the pragmatism paradigm. The use of this paradigm was deemed suitable as the study seeks to assess teaching capacity of novice teachers through mentoring in selected primary schools. Pragmatism, allowed the researcher to employ different but interrelated strategies in interacting with respondents and participants within their particular contexts to gain insights. Within the context of the study, primitive evidence was explored to gain a deeper understanding of the mentoring realities on which the evidence was based. Tashakkori and Teddlie (2009) have suggested that researchers within the pragmatist tradition must engage in more investigation. Moreover, they believe that a practical combination of methods, such as mixed methods approach, may offer greater insight, or the best chance of answering specific research questions. Pragmatism is generally regarded as the metaphysical

foundation for mixed method research (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2009); thus, the researcher utilised mixed method approach

3.3 Research Approach: Mixed Methods

A research approach is the plan and the procedure of inquiry, data collection methods, analysis and interpretation. The study adopted mixed methods research approach. Mixed methods research approach is a distinct research methodology that evolves as a way of converging and triangulating different qualitative and quantitative methods in data sources (Creswell, 2014). Mixing qualitative and quantitative for data collection enabled the research to solicit different views from different sources that gave adequate insights into the issues being studied. The researcher solicited views from heads of departments; foundation phase novice teachers and experienced teachers.



3.3.1. Quantitative Research

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Quantitative research method is defined as research approach that is aimed at testing theories, determining facts, demonstrating relationships between variables and predicted outcomes. According to Creswell (2014), quantitative research has traditionally been linked to the so called “scientific method”, also identified as positivist or post-positivist research, empirical science and post-positivism. This study employed this research approach to ensure objectivity, generalisability and reliability (Weinreich, 2009). Denzin and Lincoln, (2011) add that quantitative researchers believed that their view of research is the only true search for meaning.

3.3.2. Qualitative research

According to Van der Merwe (2008), qualitative research is a research approach aimed at developing theories and understanding the world around us. While, Denzin and Lincoln (2011) define qualitative research as a research methodology that is situated in an activity that locates the observer in the world. Neuman (2011) defines qualitative research as an approach that uses a naturalistic approach which seeks to understand phenomena on context-specific settings, such as real-world settings, where the researcher does not attempt to manipulate the phenomena of interest. Qualitative research implies an emphasis on the qualities of entities and processes and meanings that are not experimentally examined or measured (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011). Reinking and Bradley (2008) characterize qualitative inquiry as a research approach that is generally conducted in natural settings, utilizing the researcher as the chief tool in both data gathering and analysis. Unlike quantitative research which has, as its objective, collecting facts about human behaviour that will lead to verification and extension of theories, qualitative research emphasizes the improved understanding of human behaviour and experience.

The objective of qualitative research is to promote better self-understanding and increase insight into the human condition. The benefits of qualitative inquiry are embedded in its emphasis on thick description, in obtaining real, rich, deep data which illuminates everyday pattern of action and meaning (Babbie, 2012). This view emphasizes the importance of the voice of the researched and gaining first-hand information regarding the live experiences of the research on a subject. The strength of qualitative approaches, according to Weinreich (2009), is that, they generate rich, detailed data that consent the participants' perspective intact and provide a context

for the phenomena being studied.” Weinreich (2009) indicates that the purpose of qualitative research is to provide the researcher with perspective of target audience members through immersion in a culture or situation and direct interaction with the people under study.

3.3.3. Mixed methods approach

Mixed method approach is a distinct research methodology that evolves as a way of converging and triangulating different quantitative and qualitative methods in the data sources (Creswell, 2014). Leading mixed methodologists offer defining characteristics of mixed method approach. McFarlane (2016) describes mixed methods approach as an approach where research methodologies and approaches are grounded in the philosophical and assumptions underpinning existing research. A growing number of mixed method researchers suggest that research should not be restricted to exclusive paradigms and limited methodological practises (Denscombe, 2014). Mixed methods approach combines a distinct set of ideas and practices, which separates it from the traditional qualitative-quantitative. In the same vein, Jang, McDougall, Pollon, Herbert and Russell, (2008) state that one should choose a combination of methods that provides sufficient evidence for answering the research question.

Qualitative and quantitative research methodologies have their own place in research depending on the approach the researcher intends to adopt. Quantitative research is associated with a view of social world that is external, independent, fixed or objectively real, whereas qualitative research is linked to ideas of a world that is constructed, subjectively experienced and the product of human thought as expressed through language (Opie, 2010). While the quantitative research approach has been regarded

as the only “true” reflection of the truth. Qualitative research has been viewed as an assault on the search for “truth” (Neumann 2011). Punch and Oancea (2014) adds that the approach may be all quantitative, all qualitative or it may be a combination of both. In the light of the above perceptions, this study adopted a mixed method research approach which incorporated the elements of both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

The core assumption of mixed methods was that the combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches provided a more complete understanding of a research problem under study. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2010) mixing quantitative and qualitative for data collection enables the researcher to solicit different views from different data sources to give adequate insights into the issues being studied. An apparent weakness of quantitative research was that it has been perceived and seen to be weak in understanding the context or setting of the participants. This view caused quantitative approach to be seen as deficient, because of the personal interpretations and the involvement of the researcher that might have led to biasness. Therefore, mixed method research provided a more comprehensive evidence for studying a research problem than either qualitative or quantitative research alone. Mixed method research assisted the researcher and the participants to freely use relevant skills and thinking to address a research problem. Hence, the researcher was able to solicit views from different participants for a better understanding of the phenomenon under study. The use of the mixed methods approaches allowed the researcher to seek clarity and deeper understanding by finding convergence and corroboration of the results from a variety of data sources. Both qualitative and quantitative methods were used in order to gain the most accurate insight in assessing the teaching capacity of novice teachers in primary schools.

3.4. Research Design: Congruent Triangulation.

A research design is the overall strategy that one chooses to integrate the different components of the study in a coherent and logical way, thereby, ensuring what will effectively address the research problem; it constitutes the blueprint for collection, measurement and analysis of data (Clark & Creswell. 2009). According to Clark and Creswell (2008), mixed methods paradigm consists of four major types of mixed methods designs, namely: concurrent/triangulation, embedded, sequential explanatory and exploratory designs. These designs are employed to address various research objectives and timing of qualitative and quantitative methods employed in the study. These designs also explicate how the qualitative and quantitative methods are integrated in a single study.



3.4.1. Concurrent Triangulation

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Concurrent triangulation design is the most common approach in mixed method research. It helps the researcher to understand the research problem and involves methods of collecting and analysing qualitative-quantitative data concurrently. In this design, two or more data are combined to understand better the research problem that is under the study (Clark & Creswell, 2008). Therefore, in the process of mixing data, the emphasis can be given to a particular design and equal give status to both qualitative and quantitative design.

Research design for the study was concurrent triangulation. Concurrent design refers to the time order decision in which data are mixed. The concurrent triangulation design is the most common approach in mixed method research. It helps the researcher understand the research problem and involves methods of collecting and analysing

quantitative-qualitative data concurrently. In this design, two or more data are combined to understand better the research problem that is under the study. This then means that, in the processes of mixing data; the emphasis can be given to a particular design and equal status given to both qualitative and quantitative designs. On one hand, the concurrent mixed method of data collecting strategies can be employed to validate one form of data with the other form. On the other hand, it can be utilised to transform data comparison, or to address different types of questions. Therefore, qualitative and quantitative data were collected during the same phase of the research process. The purpose was to understand or develop in-depth understanding of the problem by obtaining different complementary data that would validate the finding of the study (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2017). The researcher's intention was to bring together differing strengths and non-overlapping weakness of quantitative methods with those of qualitative methods (Creswell, 2014). These attributes assisted the researcher in developing a more complete understanding of the nature of the phenomenon under study and the selection of the sample.

3.5. Sampling and Sampling Procedure

Sampling involves the selection of a workable number of participants from the research population under investigation (Babbie, 2012). Due to time and cost constraints it is seldom possible to include the entire population in a study (Maree, 2015). A sample of the participants is a representative of the population to be studied. A population is the larger group about which a generalization is made and a group of individuals who have the same characteristic (Creswell, 2014). Johnson and Christensen (2008) assert that a population is a large group to which a researcher wants to generalise his or her sample results. Furthermore, Best and Kahn (2016)

define a population as any group of individuals with one or more characteristics in common and that are of interest to the researcher. While McMillan and Schumacher (2010) view a population as a group of individuals with common elements, objects, or events that conform to specific criteria and to which researchers intend to generalize the results of the research. Creswell (2014) describes population as that group which the researcher is interested in gaining information and drawing conclusions from. Babbie (2012) views that a research population does not always refer to people but any collective phenomenon selected to form the focus of research, whether it is possible, settings, artefacts, events, behaviours or social processes. Two common types of sampling known are probability and non- probability sampling.

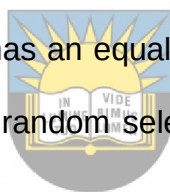
3.5.1. Probability Sampling



Probability sampling refers to the method of selecting a workable number of participants from a population whereby the exact number and location where the population elements are known to and reachable by the researcher (Babbie, 2012). The main aim of probability sampling is to select a set of characteristics in a way that portrays and the actual parameters that exist within the overall population represented (Babbie, 2012). Probability sampling makes use of random selection process. With this each member of a population has an equal chance of being selected to be part of the sample (Maree, 2015). With probability sampling, concerns are more on statistical accuracy. Probability sampling includes random sampling, systematic sampling, cluster sampling and multiphase sampling. From this list, the research used random and purposive sampling for this study. Sixty foundation phase teachers from three primary schools were purposively selected.

3.5.1.1 Random Sampling.

The techniques used in quantitative research include random selection of research participants from study population in an unbiased manner. In addition, the standardized questionnaire or intervention they receive, and statistical methods used to test predetermined hypotheses regarding the relationship between specific variables. Sixty novice teachers and six mentor teachers were randomly selected for quantitative research. Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006) contend that the larger the sample, the more reliable and valid the research findings will be. In terms of this rationale, the samples used for this study would validate the research findings as this study was situated within the pragmatic paradigm. During random selection process each member of the population has an equal chance of being selected to be part of the sample (Maree, 2015). With random selection, concerns are more on statically accuracy.



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3.5.2.2. Purposive Sampling

According to Roberts (2016), purposive sampling is a commonly used procedure for focus group interviews. It is an approach that is frequently used as a method of extending knowledge by deliberately selecting sample participants who are known to be rich sources of data (Ibid). An advantage of using purposive sampling for interviews is that individuals who have experienced the phenomenon of interest are invited to participate, contributing a wide range of domain descriptors and construct dimensions (Kristjanson, 2010). Therefore, random sampling and purposive sampling are two techniques of sampling utilised in this research work.

3.5.3. Sample Size

For this study, the targeted population was foundation teachers in primary schools of East London Education, focusing on novice teachers and mentor teachers in primary schools of East London Education District. The study focused (Grade 1, 2 and 3) teachers and mentor teachers in Foundation phase classrooms. Sixty foundation phase teachers were randomly and purposively selected as the participants from three primary schools (urban, semi-urban and rural) in East London Education district. Six novice teachers were purposively selected from three primary schools (two novice teachers per school).

3.6. Data Collection Methods



Research data, evidence and rational considerations shape knowledge (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2017), and, researchers will collect information on instruments based on measures completed by participants or researcher recorded observations. The use of both qualitative and quantitative methods assisted in providing a clearer understanding of the data (Creswell & Plano-Clark, 2017). Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2006) identify the following rationales for mixing qualitative and quantitative approaches: participant enrichment, instrument fidelity, treatment integrity, and significance enhancement. The researcher utilised different approaches and techniques to give different dimensions of the research process. At the same time the researcher used alternatives from the different dimensions in combination as deemed appropriate for the study. Generally, the incorporation of both qualitative and quantitative approach was employed throughout the process of collecting and analysing the data, integrating the findings and drawing inferences within this single study. The process helped to

improve the accuracy of data to produce a more holistic picture of the phenomenon under investigation. This included a particular set of research questions and the focus on specific approaches and techniques in order to concentration mixed methods strategy.

3.6.1. Qualitative Data Collection Methods

Qualitative inquiry involves employing multiple data gathering methods, especially participant interviews, and uses an inductive approach to data analysis, extracting its concepts from the mass of certain detail which constitutes the data base (Babbie, 2012). Qualitative methods include direct observation, document analysis, participant observation, and open-ended interviewing. These methods are designed to help researchers to understand the meanings people assign to social phenomena and to elucidate the mental processes underlying behaviours (Neumann, 2011).



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3.6.1.1. Semi-structured Interviews

The interviews can be classified as structured or semi-structured (Oyoo, 2009), depending on the types of questions the interviewer poses to the respondent. Creswell (2012) also points out that there are different types of interviews such as problem focused interviews, group discussions, narrative interview, and participatory interview and “one on one” interview. Henert (2008), alludes that these types make it possible for an interview to get a deep insight of the respondent’s system of beliefs and knowledge. Semi-structured interviews are open and allow the researcher to bring in new ideas during the interview depending on the interviewee’s responses, aims and objectives of the study. In this study, therefore, this interview method for data collection

was used to expand the data collected through the use of the Interview Schedule. For the qualitative part of this research study, the researcher drew up an Interview Schedule as one of the method of gathering information.

Interview schedules are usually viewed as a more objective research tool that can produce generalizable results and evidence of patterns amongst large populations and samples (Harris & Brown, 2013). A set of leading questions was drawn up to guide the interview process. For the qualitative part of the study the researcher used individual interviews with purposive sampled novice teachers and mentor teachers. Interview schedules were suitable for this study because they provided participants a chance to freely give their responses without the interference of the researcher. The questions that were asked by the researcher related to assessing novice teachers teaching capacity through mentoring in Foundation phase classrooms.



3.6.1.2 Classroom Observations

The qualitative researcher may make observations either as a relative outsider or, especially in the case of an ethnography, as a participant observer (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Unlike observations conducted in quantitative studies, observations in qualitative study are intentionally unstructured and free flowing. The primary advantage of conducting observation in this manner is flexibility: the researcher can take advantage of unforeseen data sources as they surface (Ibid). While, a disadvantage about observation is that the research won't always know what things are most important to look for, especially at the beginning, and so may waste considerable time observing trivialities while overlooking entities that are more central to the question (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). Therefore, as the study focuses on assessing the

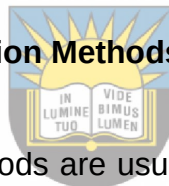
teaching capacity of novice teachers, the researcher saw it necessary to undertake classroom observations. Classroom observation was intended at assessing if the novice teachers had the capacity to put theory into practice. Sometimes, teachers lesson reflects theory and the teacher fails to put it to practice. The researcher as a non- participant observer observed novice teachers teaching in the presence of mentor teachers. A classroom observation checklist was used to collect and record data on lesson planning, utilisation of LTSM, lesson management and assessment of learning. Non-participant observation of lesson delivery of novice teachers was undertaken as means to validate findings of interviews, and documents.

3.6.1.4. Documents

Document analysis is a systematic procedure for reviewing or evaluating documents, i.e. both printed and electronic materials (Bowen, 2009). Like other analytical methods in qualitative research, document analysis requires that data be examined and interpreted in order to elicit meaning, gain understanding and develop empirical knowledge (Corbin & Strauss 2008). Documents contain text and images that have been recorded without a researcher's intervention and may be used for systematic evaluation as part of a study has taken a variety of forms (Ibid). According to Bowen (2009) documents include advertisements, agendas, attendance registers, minutes of meetings, manuals, books, diaries, event programmes, letters, files. Also, Goldstein and Reiboldt (2009) view documents as containing information that can suggest some questions that need to be asked and situations that need to be observed as part of the research. Another advantage of documents is that they provide supplementary research data (Bowen, 2009).

Documents analysis is often used in combination with other qualitative research methods as means of triangulation and that is called combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon (Denzin & Lincon 2011). Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2010) define documents as artefacts, symbolic materials such as writing and signs, which tell the researchers about the inner meaning of everyday events and they may yield descriptions of rare and extraordinary events in human life. Documents such as teachers' portfolio files, Integrated Management System (IQMS) files, Personnel and Administration Measures (PAM) document were used to gain a better understanding of how novice teachers' teaching capacity develops. Therefore, this study analysed novice teachers' portfolios, lesson planning and work schedules.

3.6.2. Quantitative Data Collection Methods.



Quantitative data collection methods are usually viewed as more objective research tools that can produce generalizable results and evidence patterns amongst large populations and samples (Harris & Brown, 2013; Kendell, 2008). A disadvantage of data collection in the quantitative approach is that it may be labour intensive and time consuming. Quantitative data collection methods include structured interview questionnaires.

3.6.2.1. Structured Interviews.

Interviews enable modification to lines of inquiry. They also allow respondents to describe what is meaningful using their own words, and the researcher is able to observe interviewee's body language. In a structured interview, the researcher takes the lead with some guidelines, where the set of questions used is difficult with no

permission to divert (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Creswell, 2014). Use of structured interviews for data collection has some advantages such as: that structured interviews are useful for data collection because the responses highlight aspects that cannot be observed directly. Interviews allow for probing, thus increasing accuracy of response. They also ensure the correct or intended interpretation of questions. Although using interviews was time-consuming and requires considerable experience, the research administered questionnaires to the participants.

Johnson and Christensen (2008) describe a questionnaire as a self-report data collection instrument that each research participant completes as part of a research study. Questionnaires as instruments are usually regarded as a more objective research tools that can produce generalisable results and evidence of patterns amongst large population and samples (Harris & Brown, 2010). McMillan and Schumacher (2010) concur that it is the most popular technique for obtaining data from participants because it is considered to be relatively reasonable. According to Rule and John (2011), a questionnaire is good in saving time and money, and when a researcher wants to collect data from people simultaneously. At the same time, questionnaires can be distributed to many respondents simultaneously and large sample of population can be covered (Ibid). Therefore, the researcher regarded this technique to be convenient and efficient for obtaining data from a large sample of teachers and mentor teachers from different schools.

Questionnaires were developed based on the variable themes for the quantitative data collection. Questionnaires were used in this study to cater for the large samples of both teachers (sixty) and mentor teachers (six). The questionnaire had some advantages, such as simplicity to administer the questionnaire and less time-consuming. Although respondents completed questionnaires in their own time and in

a more relaxed atmosphere; the disadvantage of questionnaire was that the researcher lost opportunity to probe information further. Standard instructions were given to the respondents to respond exactly to the same questions. It is familiar to users and allows respondents to complete the questionnaire at their own convenience, while allowing some time to think about their answers.

3.7. Data Triangulation

Triangulation refers to “the process of using more than one tool to collect data, to get a complete picture of what is being studied and to cross-check information (Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2008). Leedy & Ormrod, (2010) call it the mapping of one set of data upon another, where multiple methods are combined to produce a more accurate representation. The researcher used triangulation, through corroborating evidence from more than one source, as a test for the validity of the results. The purpose was to measure the trustworthiness of the data collected. Information provided during focus groups was triangulated and validated with claims made during individual interviews. Triangulation is a powerful way of “providing validity to findings in qualitative research” (Creswell 2013:251). Making use of triangulation helps the researcher to compensate for the weaknesses of one method with the strengths of another, contributing towards a better understanding of the phenomenon. Ridenour and Newman (2008) explicate that triangulation is the combination of several data resources or collection strategies in the same design in order to enhance validity. Triangulation is used to verify or support a single perspective of a particular social phenomenon and allows for a greater validity through corroboration (Doyle, Brady & Byrne, 2009). Furthermore, Patton (2010) points out that triangulation helps the researcher to guard against the

accusation that the study's findings are simply an artefact of a single method, a single source or a single investigators' bias.

The study followed a triangulation design in which two or more data collecting methods were used. For the purpose of this study, assessing teaching capacity of novice teachers through mentoring, triangulation is defined as the mixing of data or methods so that diverse viewpoints cast light upon the research problem. By triangulation data, the researcher attempted to provide a confluence of evidence that breeds credibility (Bowen, 2009). By examining information collected through different methods, the researcher corroborates findings of information across data sets and thus reduce the impact of potential biases that might exist. Triangulation also allowed the researcher to seek clarity and deeper understanding by convergence and corroboration of the results from a variety of data sources. The collected data was mixed and triangulated while processing the data for interpretation.



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3.7.1. Credibility and Trustworthiness

Neumann (2011) sees credibility as criterion that ensures that the results in a study are believable from the perspective of participants. The credibility considers how congruent; how believable the findings are, based on the data obtained and conclusions drawn (Ibid). In this study multiple instruments were used to gather data for the purpose of credibility and trustworthiness. Denzin and Lincoln (2011), offer specific methods and strategies in which to accomplish credibility in qualitative research. Amongst these strategies are member checks, peer debriefing, prolonged engagement in the field and with the participants, persistent observation and implementation of an audit trail. Trustworthiness refers to the quality of an investigation

and its findings that make it noteworthy to its audience (Schwandt, 2007). In order to ensure trustworthiness of the data collected, the following measures were taken into consideration. The study generated the qualitative data from interviews and questionnaires, and quantitative data to increase the validity and trustworthiness of the research results.

Credibility: Flick (2009), refers to the accuracy of the documentation and reliability of the procedure of the documents as freedom from errors. Credibility is an indication that the conclusion from data in terms of interviews and observations are accurate (Flick, 2009). The credibility criterion ensures that the results are believable from the perspective of the participants in the study (Ibid). In other words, credibility in research serves as evidence free from error and distortion. In order to ensure credibility of the study, the researcher conducted member checks with the participants to ensure that the data collected is the true reflection of the participant's views. Member checking was also undertaken where the interview transcripts and voice recorder were taken to the participants so that they could determine whether their ideas and opinions were presented accurately. Prolonged engagements in the field was done through telephonic follow-ups to establish the patterns on the finding. The study was piloted to test the strength of the research instruments, theory and data collection methods.

Dependability was described as being focused on the process of the inquirer and inquirer's responsibility of ensuring that the process was logical, traceable and documented (Shwandts, 2007). According to Yin (2017) the emphasis is on doing same case over again, not on imitating results of one case by doing another case study. Therefore, dependability of this study was ensured by minimizing both errors and biasness in the study. The researcher ensured dependability by reading the themes over again to verify if they make sense. He also audited the entire data

transcripts as Seal (2012) emphasizes that auditing of transcript provides the opportunity to engage in self-critical account of the events.

Conformability: Multiple data sources were utilised to ensure the confirm-ability of data collected. Basson and Prozesky (2015), see confirm-ability as a side of qualitative-orientated criterion for which the objectivity that indicates the degree to which the findings in qualitative research as the product of the focus of the inquiry and not the product of the biasness of the research. Yin (2017) argues that confirmability is concerned with establishing the fact that the data and interpretation of an inquiry is not merely a fragment of the inquirer's imagination.

3.7.2 Reliability and Validity



Reliability is viewed by McMillian and Schumacher (2010) as an attempt to establish the consistence and accuracy of the tool by yielding similar results even if it could be administered to another set of samples with similar characteristics. It is therefore the degree to which research findings reflect consistency when repeated on several occasions in the same social setting. "Reliability in research refers to the degree of consistency with which instances assigned to the same category by different observers on different occasions reveal similar results". (Bryman, 2011; Leedy & Ormrod, 2010). To ensure the reliability of information, the researcher used the same questions for individual interviews and other questions for focus group sessions, although not necessarily in the same sequence. Questions for both interviews were based on the research questions. It is important to collect data from the people who suit the purpose of the study when aiming at reliability.

Validity is “the degree to which qualitative data accurately gauges what the researcher is looking for” (Denscombe, 2014:375). The researcher in ensuring validity selected a sample, consisting of novices who have been teaching for five years and less. Other measures of validity used were the collection of data from all the schools as planned, and not leaving any out. This gives one a feeling that whatever information is gathered will represent the situation the researcher wants to examine. While validity measures the truth. It measures the extent to which data and findings presented an accurate account of the events they claim to be describing (Silverman, 2009). While at the same time validity is generally acknowledged to be the key issue in research design. Validity in this study was created by the use of multiple methods of data collection.

3.8. Data Analysis



Data analysis is the process of systematically searching and gathering the interview transcripts, field notes and other materials that the researcher accumulates during data collection in order to increase his understanding of the phenomenon and ultimately to be able present what has been discovered to others (Bogdan & Biklen, 2008). Patton (2010) emphasises that the culminating activities of qualitative inquiry are analysis, interpretation and representation of the findings. According to Duff (2012) data analysis is the sifting, organising, summarising and synthesizing of the data so as to arrive at the results and conclusions of the research. The generation and analysis of the quantitative data placed research within a positivistic framework. Yet qualitative data analysis that aimed at understanding ‘social reality’ also placed this study within interpretative paradigm. Thematic analysis was adopted to concurrently analyse and interpret data that was collected. The use of a mixed-method approach assisted in providing a clearer understanding of the data generated.

3.8.1. Thematic Analysis

Qualitative data from semi-structured interviews and focus group discussions were analysed using thematic analysis. Leedy and Ormrod (2010) state that in qualitative research, the findings of a study are interpreted through words, expressions or numbers gathered from the participants. The meaning of interpretations was grounded on the participants' experience and shared perceptions. Throughout the analysis and interpretation process, data was also combined and compared to promote the most accurate representation of the findings as possible. Through this process, particular pieces of evidence led to meaningful wholes. Inductive analysis involved coding and categorization of data, observing patterns and themes, and making reasoned conclusions. Data analysis means to create meaning from raw data (Cresswell, 2014). Before arriving at findings and conclusions, the researcher tried to make sense meaning of the data collected. The processes of data collection and analysis in qualitative research are integral to the research process and take place concurrently. By analysing data immediately after collecting it guided subsequent data collection and helped the researcher to gain a better understanding of the phenomenon, as new interpretations emerge. A revision of data collection procedures and strategies is also possible as the researcher can effect changes to the research design. Maree (2011) asserts that early data analysis "enables the researcher to process large amounts of data, in ways that gives him confidence that what is reported represents the perspectives of the participants."

Data collected was transformed into typed text or transcripts. Before analysing data, the researcher read the transcribed data and field notes several times to get immersed

in the details. Neumann (2010) cautions researchers not to be so focused on research issues such that they miss what the data is telling them during analysis. Re-reading the data enabled the researcher to become familiar with it and making sense of the information contained in the data. Reading helped the researcher to first divide data into smaller units. The assigned codes in a form of descriptive phrases. Codes were assigned and given names to themes that have been selected because of their significance to the phenomenon under study. The relationships enabled the researcher to make interpretations and to arrive at the findings to be presented in the final report.

3.8.2. Descriptive Statistical Analysis



Data generated from the questionnaires was coded and analysed using descriptive statistical analysis. Quantitative data analysis was done using descriptive statistics by calculating frequencies, percentages and means. Results were presented in tables, graphs and charts. Coding began with reading the data in each data set and identification of frames of analysis (Creswell & Creswell, 2017). Quantitative information from questionnaires of both novice teachers and mentor teachers was used to support and triangulate the qualitative information gathered from the interviews. The methods were conducted concurrently and the mixing of the qualitative and quantitative methods occurred during the interpretation of the data.

3.9. Ethical Consideration

Ethics is a philosophical term derived from the Greek word “ethics”, meaning character or custom and connotes of a social code that conveys moral integrity and consistent

values. Babbie (2012) is of the opinion that the ethics are concerned with what is wrong and what is right when conducting research. Ethics plays a major role in judging qualitative research because qualitative researchers spend a great deal of time with participants and should treat them with dignity (Silverman, 2009). Bryman (2011) maintains that ethics increase credibility of a study. All ethical measures were taken into consideration which includes informed consent, freedom to withdraw, confidentiality and anonymity, privacy and empowerment and finally caring and fairness.

Before any action could be taken, the researcher applied for Ethical clearance from the University of Fort Hare. This therefore served as licence for the research to seek permission from the Department of Education as the custodian of the research site which were primary schools (see Appendix A).



3.9.1. Gaining Entry: Access to Research Sites

It is not ethically sound to conduct research in sites before acquiring permission to do so was of paramount important. The researcher therefore set out to obtain permission from the Department of Education, Eastern Cape Province to access the selected school in the East London District. A written application to conduct research to the University Ethical Clearance Committee as well as ECDoE (see Appendix A) prior to conducting the study. Ethical clearance certificate was attached onto the application to the Department of Education. The results thereof were the awarding of the Ethical Clearance Certificate (see Appendix B) The researcher further received permission from the gatekeepers (principals), before entering research sites, to maintain the level of cooperation. The school principals of selected schools were presented with letters

giving consent to the researcher to do research in selected schools and to gain local permission to the sites and the participants.

3.9.2. Access to Research Participants

3.9.2.1. Informed consent

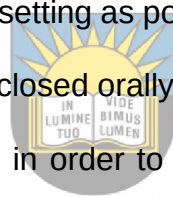
Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011:78), define informed consent as “the procedure in which individuals choose whether to participate in an investigation after being informed about facts that are likely to influence their decisions”. Firstly, the research sought appointment with all the principal of the selected research sites. The purpose was to explain what the research was about. Also the rights of the research site and the participants. It was explained that confidentiality would be maximised. Another reason was also to inform that both the principal and the participants had some rights to refuse and withdraw from participating any time they feel not comfortable. each research site was issued Informed consent forms for the basis of trust and confidence and also for building relationships. To build relationships of trust with the participants, the researcher visited the research sites to meet the participants in person before the interviews. Such meetings were aimed at personalising the invitations and stressing the importance of their participation in the study. Even after gaining access to the sites from the gatekeepers, the researcher deemed it necessary to continue negotiating further access by developing trusting relationships with the novice teachers. Novice teachers were made to understand the necessity of the research and were asked to be open about their experiences and that was going to be achieved once such a relationship of trust is established. Meeting novices beforehand created the opportunity for the researcher to answer any questions that participants may asked.

Consent was sought from all participants and they were informed of the purpose of the study. During the meeting participants were assured that their identities and their responses would not be mentioned or revealed in this study. Pseudonyms were used to report findings. The settings and participants were disguised so as to appear similar to several possible places and code names were given to people and anonymity was maintained. A dual responsibility was undertaken to protect the individual's confidence from other persons in the setting and informants from the general reading public.

To gain permission, participants signed protocol for informed consent. Informants selected interview times and places so as to establish trusting relationships that enabled them to handle the dialogue. The time required for participation was non-interfering and was in the natural setting as possible (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

The purpose of the study was disclosed orally and in writing to the participant, prior to their signing of the consent form in order to avoid participants feeling deceived. All participants were then given a consent form, which elaborated on their voluntary participation, anonymity and confidentiality of information (see Appendix C). "Consent encompasses more than signing a form" as people need to understand why they are expected to participate and on what basis they are participating (Denscombe, 2014).

The same letter informed participants of their right to refuse and to withdraw at any time. Silverman calls this "process consent" which is a better way to safeguard participants than a once and for all informed consent (2010:159). After discussions and further explanations, participants voluntarily signed the consent forms. The consent form also included information on the voluntary nature of the study and was explained to participants. Furthermore, their attention was drawn to the right to refuse or draw participation from this study. The participants were told that they would be given an opportunity to check if their responses were captured and interpreted correctly.



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3.9.3. Anonymity and Confidentiality

To further assure the participants of their safety in taking part, the researchers kept all identities and information provided by the participants confidential throughout the study. Confidentiality ensures that no harm is done to the participants as a result of taking part in the study. To adhere to issues of anonymity pseudo names were given to the research participants as follows: NT1-NT6 for novice teachers and ET1-ET6 for mentor teachers. The privacy of participants was safeguarded by keeping information confidential and their identities anonymous. The consent form for participating in focus groups included a non-disclosure agreement as a means to enforce confidentiality. The researcher also sought permission from the participant to use a tape recorder during interviews.



3.9.4 Protection from Harm

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The participants were assured that their confidentiality would be protected during and after the study. The anonymity of individual was maintained and protected by using codes on the interview instead of participants' names. Open discussion and negotiations were carried out to promote fairness to the participants and to the research inquiry. The research participants were informed that they would be free to withdraw from the research study at any time without penalty. Negotiation was done with participants so that they understood the power they had in the research process. Caring and fairness was part of the researcher's thinking actions and personal morality in the research (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). To establish honesty and trust, the informed consent form had the name of the researcher and the reason for the study clearly explained.

3.10. Conclusion

The chapter on research methods outlined how the study selected pragmatism research paradigm, mixed methods research approach and concurrent triangulation design. Sampling and sampling procedure was discussed followed by data collection methods and data-gathering instruments. Data analysis, triangulation and ethical considerations were highlighted.



CHAPTER 4: DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTEPRETATION

4.1 Introduction

The chapter presents, analyses and interprets data collected for the study, “Assessing teaching capacity of novice teachers through mentoring in primary schools of East London Education district”. Findings and themes that emerged from data analysis are highlighted followed by discussion of findings.

4.2 Profiles

Profiling included profile of the sampled research site and sampled research participants.



4.2.1 Profile of research sites

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Three research sites were sampled from East London Education District for the purpose of collecting data and making field notes. To protect the identity of the sampled research sites; 3 primary schools were given pseudonyms namely School A, School B and School C.

Table 1: Profile of research sites

Pseudo names	District	Location	Quintile	Number of FP classrooms	Number of FP Teachers	Number of Mentor	Number of Novice
A	EL	Rural	1	13	13	9	4
B	EL	Township	2	14	14	11	6
C	EL	Urban	3	14	14	8	6

Table 1 indicates the profiling of research sites sampled for this research study. The schools are all public schools in East London Education District. The public schools are in different Quintile 1, 2 and 3 (quintile refers to how public schools in South Africa are categorised) and located in urban rural and township areas. Although all the research sites are in different quintiles; they are all primary schools. All the research sites begin from grade R to grade 7 with a varying number of Foundation phase classrooms. However, the study focused on the Foundation phase, grade 1 to 3.

4.2.2. Profile of the Participants

For quantitative data 60 participants were randomly selected for questionnaires and 6 participants purposively chosen for qualitative data. Questionnaires were administered to 60 selected participants while semi-structured interview's responses were solicited from 6 sampled participants. The population and the unit of analysis were novice teacher of Foundation Phase primary schools in the East London Education District.

Table 2: Profiles of mentor teachers

Pseudonym	Race	Sex	Age	Educ. Qual.	Grade Taught	Work Experience	Phase Taught
ET1	African	F	45	JPTD	1	17	FP
ET2	African	F	44	PTD & B.Ed (Hons)	2	17	FP
ET3	African	F	51	JPTD & B.Ed (Hons)	3	26	FP
ET4	African	F	53	PTC & FDE	1	29	FP
ET5	African	F	51	STD & ACE	3	29	FP
ET6	African	F	52	JPTD & BA (Hons)	2	26	FP

Table 2 shows the profile of six mentor teachers that were purposely selected to voluntarily participate in the study. All the mentor teachers were Africans teaching in urban, township and rural areas. To adhere to ethical issues of anonymity they were given pseudo names ET1; ET2; ET3; ET4; ET5 and ET6. All the participants are female teachers in Foundation Phase classroom teaching various grades. All the participants obtained professional teaching certificates and diplomas and 3 of the participants obtained Honours degree. The participants' teaching experience varies from 17 years to 29 years. They reported that their selection for mentorship was based on their qualifications and work experience. Although the participants teach in different

grades, in different classrooms they were all in the Foundation Phase under the guidance of the Grade and Phase Heads.

Table 3: Profiles of Novice Teachers

Pseudo Names	Race	Sex	Age	Highest Qualification	Grade Taught	Work Experience	Phase Taught
NT1	African	F	28	B.Ed (FP)	2	1 Year	FP
NT2	African	F	26	B.Ed (FP)	1	1 Year	FP
NT3	African	M	25	B.Ed (FP)	1	1 Year	FP
NT4	African	M	29	B.Ed(FP)	3	2 Years	FP
NT5	African	F	31	B.Ed(FP)	2	2 Years	FP
NT6	African	M	29	B.Ed(FP)	3	2 Years	FP

Table 3 shows the profile of 6 sampled novice teachers that were purposively selected to participate in this research study. The six novice teachers, two from each school, were purposefully selected. All the novice teachers were Africans teaching in urban, township and rural areas respectively. The study revealed that, the majority of the respondents in this category were graduates who obtained undergraduate studies. Notably, commonality amongst them was their qualification- Bachelor of Education (B. ED) in Foundation Phase (FP). Their ages and teaching experience varied from 25 to 31 and from 1 to 3 years respectively. Although they taught different grades in the same phase; two male teachers were placed in grade 3 whilst four female teachers

shared grades 1 and 2. The researcher assumed that the males and females would approach the phenomenon from different perspectives; gender is viewed as one variable which would influence the respondents' views and actions. As a result of the researcher attempted to strike a balance between the number of males and females without success. The findings also revealed that the participants all have different educational backgrounds and it was clear that they also have different amounts of work allocated to them at the different schools. All of them were either in their first or second year of teaching. Their subjects were selected from across the spectrum of the curriculum offered at their respective schools.

4.3 Data Presentation



4.3.1. Responses from Interviews

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The research participants responded to the leading questions that were asked. On being asked the meaning, understanding and conception of what mentoring is all about and how it is experienced; **NT1** responded as follows:

"Mentoring is the support and guidance provided to novice teachers by the school administrators in their early years of teaching to encourage them to learn new skills they need to become effective and knowledgeable teachers."

The majority of the participants were able to explain their understanding of the concept of mentoring and their definition of this phenomenon was mostly in line with the literature.

For instance, Novice teacher **NT5** explained that:

“Mentoring is a type of early career support and training given as a preparation upon taking a new post to gradually bring a new teacher on board with the necessary guidance and assistance in order to enable the new teacher to meet the new challenges in the teaching profession”

In their responses, all novice teachers recognised mentoring as a crucial administrative element and an on-going process in their orientation which started upon appointment into the teaching profession with the aims of acclimatizing the new teacher to his new environment. Although the faculties of education attempt to prepare teacher candidates for this complexity, students enrolled in initial teacher education programmes often feel that they have not been adequately prepared for their teaching careers and as a result frequently question the validity of their education. To an extent they therefore saw school-based mentoring as a means of supplementing what the universities could not offer them. This also pointed out that irrespective of whether these teachers themselves were inducted or not, they are aware that they have to undergo mentorship for them to be fully fledged teachers.

Novice teacher **NT2** contended that:

“Mentoring to me is a means of bringing me closer to the culture, norms and standards of the school that appointed me as one of their own”.

With regards to how they experienced mentoring in the respective schools; the novice teachers said:

“I was introduced to my phase HoD and phase teachers after I had been given my class.” “Nothing happened after that.” “I asked for assistance from my grade colleagues (NT6)

“I was introduced to my HoD and told that she would guide and give support when and where necessary which she didn’t. She just ignored me as I went from pillar to post asking for help.” (NT1)

“My HoD sat with during submission of my work for moderation, she would guide me on how to use CAPS policy document and addressed the areas that she identified as problematic.” (NT3)

“Mentoring was done as corrective exercise when I submitted my work for moderation of assessment tasks.” (NT4)

Novice teachers lacked relevant information at the time they start the first year of teaching. Findings indicate that novice teachers were sometimes not given any information when they came to schools at all. **NT5** also confirmed that received no help during her first week in school as she remarked: *“I didn’t receive orientation; I didn’t get anything. And I got little support from management”*

However, **NT2** explained: *“I received mentoring on how assessment was carried and on how to account about curriculum coverage.” During submission of assessment tasks for moderation, my HoD sat down and gave me feedback.” The same happened after the submission of curriculum coverage.”*

Research has indicated that newly qualified teachers have not always received adequate preparation during the training (Dube 2008). Inadequate training received from teacher training institutions made them anxious when they came to schools, as they were not clear about what to do. For Ingersoll (2012:47) “Pre- employment teacher preparation is rarely sufficient to provide all the skills and knowledge needed by novices for successful teaching”. These assertions from the novice teachers indicated that they recognized that a newcomer to a system needs be mentored in

order to get the best out of him. The participants therefore affirmed that although introducing new teachers to the school structure provided opportunity for novice teachers to quickly settle in the teaching structure of the school; it was not as easy as it sounds.

NT6 went further to comment that:

“To avoid a state of confusion in the early years of a novice teacher a mentoring programme has to be drawn to clarify roles and responsibility”.

This points to the fact that novice teachers are in need of school based mentoring besides the preservice training they undergone in the universities. Seemingly it is therefore imperative to introduce novice teachers to mentoring programme as early as during the initial years of teaching.



Based on their experiences, **NT1, NT3 & NT5** indicated that they were introduced to Foundation Phase Heads, Foundation phase teachers and Grade Heads as professional who would mentor them in terms of building their teaching capacity. **NT3** had this to say:

“I was told HOD would guide and give support when and where necessary”.

NT6 & NT2 also claimed that guidance was given as a corrective measure when they were submitting work for control and moderation of assessment task. While **NT2, NT4 & NT6** indicated that they were given learners to teach without and proper direction of who was responsible in terms of guidance, coaching and support. They reported that they were called in staff meeting and introduced as new teachers who have joined the teaching profession. It was not clearly explained who was the mentor, neither their roles nor responsibilities. Seemingly the novice teachers were confused and not sure

of what was expected from them. Novice teachers “have legitimate learning needs” which can only be grasped inside the context of teaching (Feiman-Nemser 2012:26). Novice teachers realised their challenges and shortcomings with regards to teaching resulting in a lack of competence. **NT3** explained that *“During School Experience we were not equipped with enough skills and knowledge necessary to teach in the Foundation Phase. What we learnt in theory is totally different from what is taking place on the field therefore we definitely need handholding.”*

Despite the fact that novice teachers went through phases of practice teaching while undergoing teacher training, their schooling experiences were not adequate enough to survive the real teaching process. Although initially overjoyed by the prospect of having their own classes, novice teachers soon realised that teaching is a job with too much responsibilities.



Teachers are not only responsible for teaching, but they also carry out administrative tasks related to their jobs. Novice teachers often have limited knowledge about policies, documents, norms and traditions in the school and possess no skills on how to carry out some of these administrative tasks. When in schools, novice teachers are confronted with new information, which results in reality shock for them. When these administrative tasks are added to novice teachers on top of teaching loads, they experience information overload. Novice teachers in this study were also found to experience other problems related to day-to-day administration, including a lack of knowledge about which documents to use besides CAPS which they were familiar with.

NT3 reported that the support she received was on *“administrative issues only not on teaching responsibilities”*. She further commented:

“I was told about the school’s timetable, code of conduct, school policy, dress code, extra-mural and extra curricula activities. Then I was given grade 2 to teach without proper guidance.

There is much empirical evidence on the overloading of novices with too many responsibilities (Dube 2008:100). Besides their teaching loads, novice teachers are frequently burdened with extra-curricular activities and other responsibilities, irrespective of their lack of experience upon entering the teaching profession.

Although **NT2** displayed optimism about the heavy teaching load; that there were extra mural and extra-curricular activities on top of teaching workload made her feel stressed. He stated: *“I have no choice but to accept everything I am told to do. At times there is no supervision and sometimes I am unsure whether I am doing the right thing with those learners.”*



Thus overloading novice teachers with work results in stress and anxiety which then leads to inefficiency. Seemingly, novice teachers are pressured to take on whatever is asked of them, for fear they won't be perceived as team players.

With regards to the role of mentors in mentoring novice teachers; the general perception in this regard was that school-based mentoring is the responsibility of the school itself. In this area, all novice teachers, with the exception of **NT5**, responded almost in unison in recognising that school-based novice teacher mentoring is the responsibility of the school administration. The school administration as noted by the novice teachers is inclusive of the principal, the Head of Department, Phase Heads, Grade Heads and other education stakeholders. All the participants felt that both the school and the education district should be involved in their becoming of fully fledged

professional teachers. Furthermore, the participants all agreed that every staff member has a key role to play in teaching novice teachers how to teach.

NT1 stated that:

“The School Management Team is supposed to prepare the novice teachers in terms of acclimatising themselves with the school culture of teaching and learning.”

NT6 said:

“I expect to be mentored, coached, guided and assisted in everything that concerns teaching as an entity by the more knowledgeable other.”

NT3 added: *“I experienced negative attitudes from the HOD and some other grade teachers as it was not easy for me to ask for help from them.” “Furthermore, I did not know how to support the learners with learning difficulties.”* He commented that *“The school principal need to appoint mentors for us who will demonstrate lesson planning and delivery; assessment strategies and how to manage the classroom”.*

NT2 summed up by saying:

“The mentors should be experts in their subjects or field of specialisation. It’s better to learn the right information from the right person from the beginning to ensure effectiveness and efficiency in teaching”

NT4 & NT5 reported that they experienced mentoring differently from the above perceptions. On assuming teaching duties **NT4** was left alone in the classroom she taught to fend for herself. She reported that she would asked for assistance from her grade colleagues who were less helpful as they claimed to be busy with their own

work. **NT5** concurred with **NT4** citing that “*the Phase and the Grade Heads only gave instructions and a quota of work to be submitted*”.

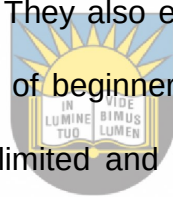
Mentoring programmes practised in schools

All novice teachers confirmed that they attended workshops organised by the Department of Education’s curriculum section. Notably the workshops were not meant solely for novice teachers but in attendance also were experienced teachers. However, at the workplace they all agreed that they were workshopped for Baseline Assessment in Integrated Quality Management Systems (IQMS). IQMS provided a platform for novice teachers to identify areas of strength and weakness, threats and opportunities (SWOT) analysis for professional development. All the participants viewed IQMS to be the relevant programme that could afford an opportunity for mentoring. Yet, IQMS is likely not to be done in the early months of the year but towards the end of the year. Beside SWOT analysis, its aim at allowing teacher to develop Personal Growth Plans (PGP) which will inform School Development Plan (SDP). In the light of the above perception all the six participating novice teachers saw the need of ongoing mentoring as solution to some of their challenges. Except for **NT4** & **NT5**, all other participants indicated that there were mentoring programmes in place in their respective schools.

NT1, NT2, NT3, NT6 confirmed that they received CAPS documents for the subjects they were teaching; NECT documents; DBE learner workbooks and blank teaching portfolios. Support was received in terms of how to utilise CAPS; lesson planning and materials development. However, novice teachers claimed that they did not know how to use Department of Education’s workbooks. To that end they used the workbooks as teaching guides. Thus, their teaching skills derived from these workbooks that only

have activities with no content. The use DBE-workbooks without reference to the National Curriculum documents can be misleading because of the lack of in-depth content to be covered in teaching a particular grade. Although **NT3 & NT6** indicated that the Foundation Phase Team demonstrated lessons; what was learnt in a team was not followed up. In the classroom they were not sure if the curriculum or lessons demonstrate were correctly implemented. Thus was a gap between theory and practise. The claim they needed more time and space to practise on their own before there were evaluated by Phase Heads.

NT4 & NT5 are of the opinion that the current mentoring programmes at schools are not fully comprehensive to meet the aspirations of the novice teachers and to help them to settle in their new jobs. They also expressed that the programme was not holistically relevant to the needs of beginner teachers. **NT5** stated that the kind of support she received was very limited and that she has practically taught herself survival skills in order to make it in teaching.



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She stated that:

“I was visited in class by a now retired teacher to listen to my lesson presentations and that was it”. No feedback.

NT4 said that during submission of her assessment task, HOD would sit and take policy document and show the requirements that particular assessment task has to meet. Yet without any workshop on how to develop and use rubric, they were expected to have used them without proper education.

The notion above gave the impression that mentoring in **NT4's** workplace did not contribute enough in her personal and professional development as it was practised

in a non-systematic manner. Such a scenario closely relates to the literature that new recruits are often left on their own to succeed or fail within the confines of their own classrooms. Novice teachers learn a great deal from observing each other, from observing experienced teachers and from interpreting classroom experiences.

NT4 noted that:

“The mentoring programme is not as effective, as mentors assumed novice teachers to know it all and that the novice teachers learnt theory and practise during School Experience whilst at the university.

NT1 affirmed:

“It is true that as student teachers we were taught to be teachers, but in teaching there are some things that you can only learn at school rather than at the university. Also we discovered during School Experience that things are done differently in schools. Schools seem to be more updated in teaching than what we learn in those modules”.

The study reveals that lack of necessary assistance, support and guidance especially during the first few months of teaching has the potential to derail the progress of novice teachers in their career. As to whether the school-based mentoring received was relevant, **NT2** had this to say:

“Yes, it helped me to settle into a difficult environment where I had to learn to survive. It made me feel at ease, especially when we had to meet as Foundation Phase teacher to plan every Fridays for following week”.

NT4 agreed with NT5

“Through school-based mentoring programme, I managed to settle easily in my school system. I was mentored together with another new teacher because we started the same day and did not struggle to settle because I could relate easily with the new teacher. We became friends and learnt from others as well as from each other.

NT6 also confirmed the assistance she received through school based mentoring programme she is still applying the knowledge accumulated even today. She commends the collegial support from all Foundation phase teachers who at times consulted her for a *“one on one mentoring”*.

Mentoring, through school-based programmes appears to hold promise as a possibility to encourage learning amongst novice teachers and in improving leadership opportunities at schools. School based workshops were also cited as very helpful in solving problems and answering question raised by beginner teachers. Through school-based workshops, participants relate freely with each other and get an opportunity to learn how things are done in a more relaxed atmosphere.

NT1 noted that:

“I gained a lot of confidence from the workshop I attended in and out of school. Those workshops were the best opportunities to mingle with other teachers from other schools and to freely speak my mind and listen to advices”.

Thus, organised workshops, one on one mentoring, teams and collegial support seem to be the best the best practices for mentoring that induct novice teachers into the teaching profession. The impact of school-based mentoring on novice teachers seems

to be mostly positive and significant in the sense that most novice teachers have a positive outlook on their respective school. **NT1 & NT3** claimed that they felt frustrated, anxious and worried, especially when they learnt that they would be alone with their own classes, working with other teachers helped them developed confidence. **NT3** noted that she was very anxious and scared to be alone in her classroom; the reality of being the new teacher was frightening thanks to the deputy principal for being my mentor during the time of need. She further said when she was feeling stuck, she would not hesitate to sneak a minute and go and seek clarity from others.

Five out of the six mentor teachers claimed they voluntary mentored the novice teacher out of pity and love of teaching. They confirmed that they were also victims of the education system on their first years of employment. Contrary to the five experienced teachers, ET4 said mentoring was not one of her responsibilities and she never involved herself in mentoring exercise. She agreed that novice teachers did experience challenges and became concerned but offering help would add to her teaching load. Mentor teachers ET1; ET2; ET3; ET5 and ET6 all agreed to have used one-on-one mentoring strategies when that particular novice teachers had come for help. They also used demonstration and modelling during grade or phase planning meeting. ET1; ET; ET3 ET4 ET5 and ET6 pointed out that the diversity of learners in classes is of one the challenges that novice teachers have to deal with. The other challenge is teaching for learning, curriculum interpretation and assessment.

4.3.2. Responses from Questionnaires

Questionnaires were distributed to sixty novice teachers in the East London Education District. Of the 60 questionnaires distributed and collected from sampled schools, only

40 of them returned, resulting in a return rate of 80%. Participants were asked to respond to structured questions which required close ended-questions. The biographical information sought included questions on their nationality; age; sex; qualifications, teaching experience and grades taught in the Foundation Phase. The structured questions administered to the participants were the same questions that appeared on the semi-structured interviews.

4.3.3. Classroom Observation

Lessons of six purposive selected novice teachers were observed during classroom observation. Lesson presentations of five novice teachers lacked learner centredness although lesson plans had planned learner activities.

One novice teacher's lesson presentation showed good understanding of learner involvement.



Four novice teachers' lesson plans show poor understanding of learner assessment.

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All the six novice teachers did not reflect after they presented their lessons.

4.4. Findings

4.4.1. Findings from Interviews

With regards to what mentoring is all about and how novice teachers experienced it; the study found that all participants knew the meaning of mentoring. They all agreed that mentoring is all about coaching, guiding and supporting newly appointed persons to a professional job. Novice teachers were found to have felt anxious to start full time teaching job. Being new in the classroom class and exposed to teaching were perpetuating feelings of isolation and loneliness. The novice teacher had expectations

in the form of guidance as they were new to teaching job and school environment. Novice teachers were open to any kind of help they could get. They, therefore expected to be supported and guided on teaching and dealing with diverse learners in the classrooms. It was reported that mentoring was experienced in different ways by different novice teachers. There was assumption that novice teachers would automatically fit into the school's culture and know what and how to teach. 10% participants claimed that mentoring was experienced as a fun, enjoyable journey of self-discovery in the teaching profession. However, two of the participants complained about the negative attitudes of the mentor teachers towards them and mentoring as a concept. There were claims that mentor teachers were not paid extra money to teach novice teachers how to teach. Furthermore, mentoring was not part of their teaching duties or responsibilities. In addition, the mentor teacher reported that they did not receive any form of training for mentoring but it was their teaching and work experience that helped them in carrying out mentoring. Also, mentoring was seen as an extra workload without remuneration. For mentoring, mentor teachers used PAM documents that specifies their teaching responsibilities without any mention mentoring. As a result, such mentor teachers played minimal role in terms of assisting and supporting novice teachers in their teaching workload. Although CAPS document, teaching guides, lesson plans and NECT lessons were given to all participating novice teachers; the actual lesson delivery seemed to be the challenge. Developing resources and producing materials that supports learning was another challenge. Assessment was also reported by all novice teachers as the greatest challenge. Other challenges were on teaching pace setters and curriculum coverage; lesson management and classroom control. As a result, mentoring was perceived as the platform to break the barriers. To that end, constant help was sought from SMT, Phase



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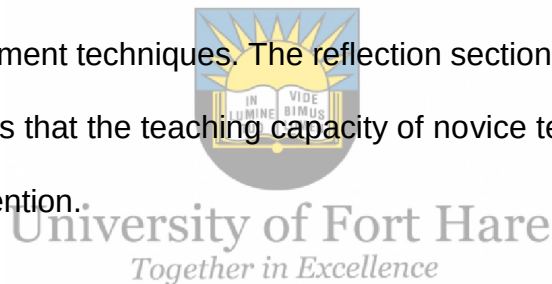
and Grade Heads. Novice teachers were required to produce evidence of the intervention to support the learner with learning difficulties. Records of remedial work, records of meetings between the novice teachers and the parents of the learners were some of the challenges faced. The novice teachers claimed that the help received from mentor teachers built their confidence in dealing with basics of teaching. All this was gained through collaboration with mentor teacher during Phase and Grade meetings.

Despite much support given, the mentor teachers themselves displayed that they did not at times have the necessary skills and information. Neither were they experts nor specialists of certain subjects or grades. These areas included utilisation of a variety of teaching methods, assessment strategies and feedback. Thus, the study found out that mentoring of novice teachers was not ignored as a requirement for developmental purposes. The SMT members identified the challenges and the need of mentoring during classroom control, monitoring and moderation of work. Beutel and Spooner (2009) endorsed mentoring as a key strategy for assisting beginning teachers to successfully navigate their way into the teaching profession.

4.4.2. Findings from Classroom Observation

The researcher as a non- participant observer used the Classroom Observation Sheet to observe lessons taught by novice teachers. Classroom observations included classroom organisation, lesson planning, lesson management, teaching strategies, utilisation of LTSM, assessment and feedback. The observation revealed weaknesses on learner centred approaches; assessment techniques and also reflection section was left unattended. This signalled lack of teaching capacity of novice teachers without

mentoring. A lesson observed in the presence of mentor teacher was on “Listening and Speaking.” The lesson had a good introduction. A story was told and some learners listening attentively. There were few learners that were not paying attention. Assessment was well integrated according to the plan. Instead of implementing assessment as per plan, mentor teacher jumped to the introduction or building of a new phonic. The lesson presentation showed lack of the necessary skills for effective teaching. Yet, the demonstration of lessons by mentor teachers with skills of teaching has potential of showing skill that might be learnt more effectively through modelling as the modelling has a potential of having new teachers emulating the mentor teachers (Maphalala, 2013). Much time was supposed to be given to listening but instead, a new lesson was introduced. The observation revealed weaknesses on learner centred approaches; assessment techniques. The reflection section was left unattended. This signalled some areas that the teaching capacity of novice teachers were still needing some mentoring attention.



4.4.3. Findings from Document Analysis

Document analysis was undertaken using novice teachers and mentor teachers' portfolio. The files contain a lot of documents such as work schedules; lesson plans; lessons; assessment tasks; analysis of results and subject improvement plans. It was found that work schedules, lesson plans, lessons and trackers were supplied by the government. Included in the lesson plans were skeletons of informal assessment tasks and complete set of formal assessment tasks with their rubrics marking tools. The importance of informal assessment as tool to monitor learning during learning was undermined. Both novice teachers and mentor teachers struggled to develop assessment tools such as rubrics and checklists. There is evidence that Curriculum

Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) is not clearly understood nor effectively implemented. As the Department of Education was also aware of the challenge around CAPS implementation, National Education Collaboration Trust (NECT) was introduced.

NECT provides Work schedules, Lesson Plans, Lessons, Assessment plans and Pacesetters. Despite, this effort there seemed to be still a challenge of separating teaching from remedial. On the analysis of NECT documents, checking curriculum coverage was done against pace setter, novice teachers and mentor teachers were behind time, they paid more attention on learners that were struggling. This was revealed by tracker, they recorded repeating the lesson because of being delayed by learners who did not understand the lesson. The delay had to be covered by Subject Improvement Plan (SIP). Reflections after the lesson has been taught was not done. Tracker is included for accounting or monitoring the amount of curriculum covered at given time. With regards to trackers of curriculum coverage it was found that less curriculum was covered due to lack of capacity to teach and poor mentoring strategies.

Integrated Quality Management Systems (IQMS) files for Novice teacher were also considered for documents analysis. Novice teachers did well their baseline assessment and summative assessments were also done by their Developmental Support Groups (DSGs). DSGs confirmed the novice teachers' claims of their strength and weaknesses. Personal Growth Plans (PGPs) were in place or drawn. There was no sign of implementation the PGPs. Implementation of PGP is shown by comment on progress achieved and DSG members sign it off. These areas were not completed and that indicated that the PGPs were not taken serious because PGPs should inform areas attention for teaching capacity.

4.5. Discussion of Findings

4.5.1. Lack of capacity in mentoring novice teachers

Capacity building is an intervention that strengthens an organization's or individual's ability to fulfil the organisation's mission by promoting sound management, strong governance and persistent in achieving results (Beesley & Shebby, 2010). Capacity building of novice teachers was expected to have focused on teaching capacity of novice teachers and that should be through mentoring as they are being acclimatised to their teaching job. Teaching capacity is a process of equipping novice teachers with skills of keeping learners on task; developing effective lessons for learning; utilising appropriate questioning techniques; adjusting classroom activities to learners' interest; cultivating a positive classroom environment and establishing a successful classroom management (Ingersoll & Strong, 2012). While, Turmo, Elstad and Knut-Andreas' (2013) defines teaching capacity building programme as a broad content which can be related to quality teaching, teacher effectiveness and teacher behaviour in the classroom or in the school. Hobson et al., (2009) recommend mentoring as an important and effective in supporting the professional development of beginning teachers. The study refers to inexperienced staff members as novice teachers who have a teaching experience of 0-3years and they are put on probation for certain period.

Callahan (2016) claims that the inexperienced teachers need the guidance of experienced teachers to guide them through the probationary period by observing their activities and providing instructional support, which according to Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998, is one of the duties of an HOD. This is consistent with the

findings of the study in line with Kiggundu & Nayimuli, (2009) who see mentoring as a means to guide and support new teachers to ease them through difficult transitions. Regarding the transition from student teacher to teaching the students; novice teachers require assistance and support for their continued professional learning as they are given the same responsibilities as experienced teachers. While, Feiman-Nemser (2010) describes teacher education in the form of mentoring as a process of equipping new teachers with critical knowledge and skills about teaching and fostering an understanding of learning in and from. Beutel and Spooner-Lane (2008) see mentoring as key strategy for assisting beginning teachers to successfully navigate their way into teaching profession hence some of the most significant aspects of teaching are only learnt in the workplace when they actually commence teaching. Turmo, Elstad and Knut-Andreas' (2013) mention the areas such as teaching capacity that mentoring to ensure that novice teachers have the necessary ability to deliver quality results.

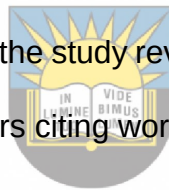


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4.5.2. The role of mentor teachers

A number of studies suggest that at the early stages of mentoring process, mentors should seek to help mentees to identify and interrogate critically with their conceptions of teaching and learning to teach (Hobson et al., 2009). Kent, Green and Feldman (2012) say training effective mentors and fostering school culture of inclusion are largely influenced by the school's principal. Ultimately, it is the principal who provides the environment to support the development of the productive relationships between mentor and mentee by creating a culture that supports the teacher-mentoring process (Ibid). In turn, school principal delegate curriculum management duties to Heads of Department (HODs). (Mckimm et al., 2007 Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998,

describes Head of Department as educator heading the department (i.e. subject, learning area and/ phase. The aim of the job is to engage with teaching and be responsible for effective functioning of the department and organise relevant/related extra-curricular activities so as to ensure that subject, learning area or phase and the education of learners is promoted in a proper manner. In support of the above argument, Lave and Wenger (1998) proposed that managers should foster informal horizontal groups across organisational boundaries to increase mentors. Seemingly it is the responsibility of SMT of ensuring the novice have the necessary teaching capacity. The above definitions assume that SMTs are skilful and experienced enough to serve as role model teachers who can sponsor, encourage, counsel and befriend less skilled teachers for the purpose of promoting the latter's professional and/or personal development. However, the study revealed that Phase and Grade Heads are not keen to mentor novice teachers citing work overload.



Mentor teachers have been seen by novice teachers as “critical friends”. A critical friend is someone who can be trusted, asks provocative questions, provides data to be examined through another lens, and offers critiques of a person's work as friend (Hobson, 2009). Critical friends have been used to describe collaborative group meeting processes that help teachers have ongoing, focused conversations about the quality of their work. The “critical friends” were reported as making recommendations or suggesting solutions for improvement of the work to the presenting teacher (Ibid). Kiggundu & Nayimul (2009) perceive a critical friend as someone whose constructive criticism is “relevant, argumentative, well documented and instructive”. However, it was noted that some teachers may not have skills in offering constructive criticism, as this has rarely been part of their training or experience. The other role of mentor teachers was perceived as facilitators, presenters or foundation Phase group member.

As facilitators, mentor teachers led discussions, presented lessons, clarified questions from the group, managed time for the team. However, it was observed that not all mentor teachers were skilled in facilitation. Facilitating critical feedback among novice teachers was experienced as sometimes not a comfort-able role for mentor teachers. Therefore, ongoing support for such facilitators seems to be critical. Critical Friends proved to have the potential to offer a powerful means for space for learning, feedback and reflection unlike Foundation Phase Teams that are structured and adhere to certain prescribed rules.

Expert Coaching: In some content areas, novice teachers experienced difficulties in implementing new assessment methods without the assistance of a mentor teacher. In such instance the role of the mentor teachers was seen as an expert “coach.” Teachers may need to see a particular assessment approach modelled and need coaching as they try out the strategies learned in training. An expert coach can be a critical listener or observer, who asks questions, makes observations, and offers suggestions that help other teachers confront difficult problems of practice (Feiman-Nemser, 2011). The expert coach is likely to use the mentoring model, in which one veteran teacher worked closely with one novice teacher (Ibid). Like the learning team approach, the goal of expert coaching is to aid educational institutions in improving classroom practice

4.5.3. Effective utilisation of Mentoring programmes

Capacity building programme which is described to have a broad content which can be related to quality teaching, teacher effectiveness and teacher behaviour in the classroom or in the school (Turmo, Elstad & Knut-Andreas, 2013). Principals have the

opportunity to impact the mentoring programme by allowing the mentor and beginning teachers to choose each other based on shared content areas, learning styles, age, gender culture and personality variables (Long, 2010). Therefore, it is likely that novice teachers' lack of capacity to teach stems from poor leadership and management of the curriculum. If the school leadership has no mentoring programme of novice teachers in place; therefore, quality teaching cannot be guaranteed. In support of this, Ingersoll and Strong (2012) also believes that mentoring programmes advance the professional growth of new teachers, making them more effective in a shorter period, improving student learning and reducing the attrition rate of new teachers. Mckimm, Jollie and Hatter (2007) also allude that the period of transition can be stressful as well as challenging as new demands are made upon individuals who are seeking to consolidate their skills. To manage the challenges of transition period, mentoring programmes have to be in place (Kent et al., 2012). Mentoring programmes afford new teachers with the ability to perform at a higher level of teaching aspects such as keeping students on task, developing effective lesson plans, utilizing appropriate questioning techniques, adjusting classroom activities to meet students' interests, cultivating a positive classroom environment and establishing successful classroom management (Ingersoll and Strong, 2012). This clearly shows that novice teachers need serious intervention in being assisted with their teaching capacity. Furthermore, novice teachers might have entered the teaching profession under-prepared, overwhelmed and under supported, resulting in frustrated teachers who become burn out (Sundli, 2007). Thus mentoring can have an impact on the development of capabilities and classroom management skills and ability to manage the time and workloads. DoE (2016) emphasises that a programme must be developed to support learners who do not perform at an expected level for the next grade. Therefore,



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progressing a learner who does not meet progression requirements would be failing education system, as the school's primary goal is to deliver quality education to the learners at all times (DBE, 2014) and that needs good teachers. Helping novice teachers to become good teachers can be accomplished by dedicating the first year of teaching as a year of phase in learning to teach and surround novice teachers with a professional culture that supports teacher learning (Feiman-Nemser, 2010).

DBE (2016) expects teachers to engage in class teaching which fosters purposeful progression in learning and which is consistent with learning areas and programmes of subjects and grades as determined. School has three tools or systems in which is collected, analysed and evaluated. These tools are Teachers Appraisal System (IQMS); South African School Assessment and Management System (SASAMS) and Data Driven District (DDD). Integrated quality management system (IQMS) is system that enables an organisation to meet the challenge to drive operational efficiency and improved overall compliance. The system is aimed at assessing and evaluating the teachers and the organisation and also aimed at affirming the new teachers that are placed on probation. For effective application of IQMS, the teachers have to undertake baseline assessment.

A number of studies suggest that at an early stage of mentoring, mentors should seek to help mentees to identify and interrogate critically their conceptions of teaching and learning (Hobson et al., 2009). IQMS has been reported as a programme that was in place that exposed novice teacher to a sort of mentoring. During IQMS baseline assessment, the study revealed novice teachers' areas of weakness and areas where they require support. Consequently, Personal Growth Plans which in turn inform School Development Plan were developed. This is in line with IQMS purpose of capacity building and teacher appraisal (DBE, 2016). For effective use of information

generated through IQMS, South African Schools Administrative Management Systems (SASAMS) captures every data about the school. It is system that comprises of many modules of which one is curriculum module. In curriculum module analyses of subject marks and schedules are produced displaying all the information needed to know how to perform and areas the needs intervention. It was noticed that using school data was a tough exercise and Data driven District tool for collecting, measuring and analysing data at the learner, school, district or provincial level was introduced (Dell and Dell, 2012).

DDD initiative improves the way education data is collected and used to help school succeed. The DDD initiative developed an easy to use dashboard that allows education officials from school level to the upper levels of the Education department to visualize SA-SAMS data immediately and graphically. This has aided a combination of high quality submission controls, immediate feedback, and measured and reported data scores has given administrators renewed ownership of their education data (Ibid). The results from the assessment of teaching capacity of novice teachers showed that the schools are either underutilising or not using data all from these three tools. If the schools were using the school data, things would have projected positive results about the teaching capacity of novice teaching through mentoring. In addition, National Education Collaboration Trust (NECT) (2016) developed lessons that guide teachers how to go about in realising the DBE's expectation. These lessons integrate formal and informal assessment as per CAPS requirements. All the above named school programmes require intensive labour hence there is a need for mentoring of novice teachers in their first years of employment.

4.5.4. Mentoring strategies

DBE (2016) expect the teachers to recognise that learning is an active process that needs teachers to be prepared to use a variety of strategies to meet the outcomes of the curriculum. Maphalala (2013) believes that the demonstration of lessons by mentor teachers are the skills of teaching that will be learnt more effectively through modelling as the modelling has a potential of having new teachers emulating the mentor teachers. Mckimm, Jollie and Hatter (2007) point out that an individual may have a variety of support, for a variety of reasons, including more than one mentor, at any one time and mix of support may vary over a period of time. Yet, some Heads of Department distanced themselves from being responsible for the mentoring of novice teachers. In contrast PAM document indicates that HODs have to provide and co-ordinate guidance of inexperienced staff on the latest ideas on approaches to the subject, methods, techniques, evaluation, aids in the field and effectively conveying these to the staff member concerned (Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998). ELRC, (2003) also alludes to mentoring of novice teachers through Developmental Appraisal where strengths and weakness of the novice teachers are identified and programmes to empower and support are developed.

One on one Mentoring: Community of practice (Wenger, 1998) is the theory that underpins this study as it contextualises and gives guidance of how mentoring of novice teachers should go about. The discussion starts by looking at both definitions i.e. CoP and mentoring. Community of practice is defined as a process of socialising learning that occurs when people who have a common interest in a subject or area collaborate over an extended period of time, sharing ideas and strategies, determining solutions and build innovations. Mentoring is defined as one-on-one support of a

novice or less experienced practitioner by more experienced practitioner, designed primarily to assist the development of the mentee's expertise and facilitating induction into the culture of the profession and into specific local context. Looking at the two definitions, it is noticeable the CoP promotes two-way process, emphasises common interest in subject, learning should be a process not event to provide solutions and build innovation. However, the thrust of the two definitions is to build capacity of a novice practitioners.

Mentoring has an element of superiority or seniority of the experience practitioner, while CoP takes an element of being senior and promotes the sharing of ideas. Collaboration must be a two-way process where the less experiences is understood to be knowing something. The recognition of a novice teacher as being full of knowledge, is visible on the feature-based definition of CoP. This states that learning is not a property of individual and the representation in the heads of CoP members, but rather a more rational property of individuals in context and in interaction with one another. This might give rise to relationship that coheres through sustained mutual engagement on an indigenous enterprise and creating common repertoire (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

4.5.4.2. Foundation Phase Team (Learning Team approach)

A learning team is defined by Wenger (2011) as “a group of individuals who establish group goals and values for working and learning collaboratively.” Through the process of collaborative learning, organised around learning teams, an educational institution can address and potentially improve the organization's capacity for change by promoting system-wide thinking and by creating systems for capturing and sharing

organizational memory (Ibid). The study reveals that the work of the mentor teachers and novice teachers has evolved to include learning teams to support improving the teaching capacity of teachers. The learning team approach lead by Phase and Grade Heads led to teacher professional development. Grade Heads utilized small groups of teachers generally 2-6 teachers to manage their teaching and learning. The impact of learning teams has been reported as positive in spite of the challenges experienced. Although FP teams are structured teams providing opportunities to plan programmes and lessons yearly, biweekly, weekly, and daily planning according to CAPS requirements. The study revealed that FP teams met once a week on Fridays to prepare for the following week lesson planning and assessments.

Mentor teacher and novice teachers helped each other design and try out different teaching strategies. However, the study found teams to have heavy reliance of novice teachers upon mentor teachers. At times they seemed reluctant to initiate planning, material production and assessment in the absence of their mentors. While learning teams explored new assessment strategies or methods, the quality of implementation of mentoring was perceived by novice teachers as weak. Reasons such as teachers not possessing enough content key background experiences were cited. Thus team learning or learning from a team shifts away from the one-on-one mentoring structure in order to encourage professional dialogue among groups of teachers in non-evaluative, non-threatening environment.

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter dealt with data presentation, analysis and interpretation of data collected for the study. It emerged from the findings that novice teachers in the foundation phase

experience teaching challenges and SMT members and experience teachers were aware of the teaching challenges of novice teachers.



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CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH.

5.1 Introduction

The chapter presents summary of findings, conclusions, suggestions and recommendations for further studies based on the study “Assessing teaching capacity of novice teachers through mentoring in primary schools of East London Education District.”

5.2 Summary of Findings

The summary of findings highlights the role of mentor teachers in capacitating novice teachers; the teaching capacity of novice teachers, utilisation of mentoring programmes and strategies of applied in mentoring novice teachers.



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5.2.1. The role of Mentor Teachers

PAM document indicates that HODs have to provide and co-ordinate guidance of inexperienced staff on the latest ideas on approaches to the subject, methods, techniques evaluation, aids in the field and effectively conveying these to the staff member concerned (Employment of Educators Act 76 of 1998). ELRC, (2003) also alludes to mentoring of novice teachers through Developmental Appraisal where strengths and weakness of the novice teachers are identified and programmes to empower and support are developed. On the positive note, the study found out that mentor teachers played the roles of being expert coach; critical friend, guide and support. On the negative note the study found mentor teacher to be unwilling, negative and unsupportive towards mentoring and capacitating novice teachers. Feelings of

inferiority and envy towards novice teachers who had degree qualifications were highlighted. Therefore, in such environments mentor teachers downplayed their roles and demanded extra remuneration for extra workload.

5.2.2. Teaching capacity of Novice Teachers

Seemingly, the novice teachers entered their new teaching professional job equipped with the skills and knowledge gained from the teacher training institutions. Yet, the reasons for the introduction of mentoring at schools is twofold: it helps new teachers develop teaching capacity and help revitalise the practices of more experienced teachers on the school staff (Beutel, 2009). Clearly, the teaching capacity of novice teachers was neglected, and in turn that might impact negatively on learners who will likely not have solid foundation that could carry them through their schooling levels. The novice teachers who had an exposure to mentoring, resources and centres of learning were capacitate to become quality experienced teachers.



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5.2.3. Utilisation of Mentoring Programmes

In teaching profession seemingly there are no apprenticeship programme in place for novice teachers. The study results show that the schools did not have a plan to capacitate novice teachers in teaching responsibilities through mentoring. Neither were formalised mentoring programmes at school level for novice teachers to learn the art of teaching from the More Knowledgeable Other (MKO). Although district-based mentorship included workshops; those were attended by both novice and mentor teachers. None were reported as meant for newly qualified teachers. The school-based level mentoring included IQMS which entailed teacher Appraisal Staff

Development Plan and Personal Growth Plan. IQMS baseline assessment provided a platform for mentoring of novice teachers through lesson observations by SMT. Furthermore, SASMS provided a platform alongside IQMS of capacitating teachers to administrative and management tasks necessary to run a classroom.

5.2.4. Strategies of Mentoring

The strategies of mentoring that had been identified to have been more popular comprised of one on one mentoring; Foundation Phase Team learning; school based mentoring and Peer-group Mentoring. Although mentor teachers indicated that they did not receive any formal training; novice teachers were confident and satisfied with the support given. Other participants reported that no formal mentoring took place and they had to learn their way through trial and error. In some instances, the study indicated poorly coordinated or ineffective mentoring for novice teachers.



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5.3 Conclusions (Implications for practise)

Mentor Teachers

It takes 3 to 7 years for a new teacher to become an experienced teacher enough to be considered highly qualified (Long, 2010). Hughes (2012) is of the opinion that experienced teachers are better teachers, able to produce higher rates of student achievement. The benefits for mentors include encouraging reflection on their own professional knowledge, beliefs and practices; and developing their own teaching potential (Pitton, 2006). Mentor teachers feel revitalized as they learn new skills such as observing, providing feedback on teaching, counselling and facilitating adult learning (Beutel, 2009). This study therefore, concludes that the unavailability of

mentoring of novice teachers imply that the quality of experienced teachers deteriorates and become less productive. As Beutel, (2009) puts it, once staff members settle in the school they become stale and complacent as there are few opportunities for promotion or other leadership positions. This, in turn tends to weaken the mentor teachers in terms of being freely available to mentor novice teachers. The study thus concludes that mentor teachers' willingness and negative attitudes towards the concept of mentoring stifled novice teachers' development and growth.

Novice Teachers

Collective agreement number 8 of 2003 emphasises that successful education outcomes depend upon empowering, motivating and training of teachers in order to improve their teaching capacity (DoE, 2003). Research studies have shown that mentoring afford new teachers the ability to perform at a higher level aspects of teaching such as keeping students on task, developing effective lesson plans, utilizing appropriate questioning techniques, adjusting classroom activities to meet student interests, cultivating a classroom environment and establishing successful classroom management (Ibid). If this teaching capacity of novice teachers is left undeveloped, students might not benefit much from teaching and learning as Shaw and Newton (2014) stress that teacher success in the classroom is one benefit of new teacher participation in mentoring. The research results demonstrated that novice teachers' teaching capacity was not formally developed at schools where they were employed and there was no formal mentoring for novice teachers. If there was no formal mentoring for ensuring that novice teachers are empowered, thus they were demotivated and lacked confidence in their teaching capacity. On one hand the results of the study found out that novice teachers commended the support, encouragement

and guidance they received from the SMT and their respective mentor teachers. On the other hand, the findings of the study showed little improvement on the teaching capacity for some novice teachers. According to Kent et al., (2012) neglected novice teachers might remain frustrated for a long time as they would continue experiencing teaching challenges such as feeling unable to affect student achievement in a positive way and not being able to contribute to school's culture.

Mentoring Programmes

The study concludes that schools do not make mentoring part of their programmes. It has been found that no formal mentoring programme was in place for the transition of novice teachers from university to the full time teaching of learners. To that end, Callahan (2016) emphasises the training of experience teachers in order for them to become to mentor teachers. At district or provincial level, an organised workshop would not be targeting novice teachers. It would have been organised for every teacher in the phase, as result, the novice teachers' challenges would not always be addressed. At school level mentoring of novice teachers did take place through one on one mentoring, Foundation Phase teamwork or school-based mentoring although it was not formally coordinated. Sometimes mentoring was per request of individual novice teachers. Furthermore, the mentor teacher would only address the area identified during monitoring or moderation of work.

Strategies on mentoring

Research has suggested that mentoring advances the professional growth of new teachers, thereby making them more effective in a shorter amount of time and improving student learning (Ingersoll & Strong, 2011). The study concludes that the non-existence of formal mentoring programmes implies that novice teachers would

rely on trial and error strategies. Different mentoring strategies were applied to capacitate different novice teachers in their respective schools. This implies that schools have at their disposal mentor teachers who employ their work experiences and translating it as mentoring. Some mentor teachers utilised their experience as experts of particular subjects to transfer their knowledge and teaching skills to novice teachers. Other mentor teachers preferred private one on one sessions. By implication, mentoring strategies are not standardised, measured and thus might be ineffective and inefficient.

5.4 Suggestions

Department of Basic Education



The Provincial department must put in place training programmes for the training of mentor teachers. For this purpose, experienced teachers with expertise and retired teachers must be identified and be sent for mentor teacher training. The use of experienced teachers will serve two purposes; one will be to offer onsite mentoring when the need arises, while the second purpose will be to continue serving as mentor teacher even after retirement. The use of retired teachers will ensure that there are available mentors who are not in the classroom and will be able to cluster novice teachers per area to establish Community of Practice. Community of Practice needs to be coordinated for monitoring and ensuring of progress. It also means that the Department of Education will not fully realize its objective of ensuring quality public education for all and constantly improve the quality of learning and teaching.

Eastern Cape Department of Education

Seeing that practice teaching is not always taken serious by host teachers, the provincial education department must develop a training programme of host teachers. A workshop for mentor teachers by department officials must be held where they will be taught what is expected of them when capacitating novice teachers on teaching. An information-sharing session must be between department officials, mentor teachers and novice teachers to put everyone at the same level of understanding. This will help to make the teaching practice programme transparent. It will also help to deal with misconceptions some of the novice teachers might have about the teaching profession and practice.

Education District Officials



District Education officials must help the schools by ensuring that novice teachers receive mentoring during probation period. They must offer supervision and monitoring and demand progress reports with evidence. They must also form part of final assessment session of affirmation recommendation. Despite having a collective agreement number 8 of 2003, Integrated Quality Management Systems, it has been found that the agreement is not implemented to empower novice teachers through mentoring. It might be possible that lack of trained mentor teachers might be one factor that causes a failure to facilitate mentoring of novice teachers.

School Management Team

Schools are an extension of the Department of Education and the principals are Departmental officials who have to live and carry the vision, aspirations and objectives of the Department of Education. As the Department has the responsibility of providing

facilities and resources to support learning and teaching, in turn schools or principals have responsibility to empower and nurture human resource (teachers). The principal must establish strong working relationships with the district office and teacher training institutions in order to have a productive teaching practice. Schools must demand to know the role they are expected to play during mentoring and that might not only help mentor teachers, also schools might benefit as novice teachers have good theory. Schools must make use of the available programmes such as IQMS to establish strong mentoring for novice teachers. Schools must take advantage of novice teachers' willingness and eagerness to learn and develop their teaching capacity.

Mentor Teachers

Mentor teachers know if which areas need strengthening as that might be supported by reflections and reports compiled by novice teachers. If teaching practice can be treated with the seriousness it deserves by the schools, it might provide mini apprenticeship programme which might afford the novice teachers with an opportunity to learn some of critical elements of teaching which are only learned at the workplace.

Novice Teachers

When the novice teachers know that their affirmation depends on being satisfied that they have the necessary teaching capacity, they might become committed to a programme that might be aimed at building their teaching capacity and during the process the learners might be benefiting from quality teaching. Once a novice teacher has some successes during mentoring, she or he might want to remain up there (quality teacher) and that might benefit the school by having quality teachers. Schools must also identify experience teachers with expertise to undertake training for mentor

teachers as this will also benefit experience by keeping the abreast with latest issues of teaching.

5.5 Recommendations for Further Research

The study “Assessing teaching capacity of novice teachers through mentoring was limited to the foundation phase in some selected primary schools of East London Education District. It is recommended that further study can be conducted to assess teaching capacity of novice teachers through mentoring in intermediate phase and/or high schools. The researcher also recommends the following for further research:

Policy Makers

Policy makers need to research ways of making mentoring less cost effective so as to afford novice teachers more opportunities for collaboration. Novice teachers come with more variie levels of preparation and career aspirations (Feiman-Nemser, 2010). The new generation of teachers differs from the retiring generation in ways that we cannot afford to ignore (Ibid).

Principals

Principals are encouraged to conduct research on whether more personalised sessions of mentoring for novice teachers may not have more positive impact on novice teachers’ education and development. Callahan (2016) claims that principals are the right people to create a conducive environment for mentoring of teachers.

Further research needs to be conducted on how to make Heads of Department (HOD) more effective on mentoring of novice teachers despite their workload.

5.6 Conclusion

The study assessed the teaching capacity novice teachers received through mentoring. Therefore, this chapter presented summary of the findings; implications for practice; suggestions and recommendations.



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APPENDICES

Appendix A: Letter of Permission to conduct research

78 Kathryn Road
River Glen Estate
Amalinda
5247
8 November 2017

To: The University Research Ethics Committee

Application for Ethical Clearance

I, Tanduxolo Nicholas Mthi, Master in Education (M. Ed) student number 201112482, hereby apply for ethical clearance that will allow me to engage in all research related activities, including activities aimed at human research, the gathering of research information, such as the conduct of interviews, the processing of and analysis of research data, and reporting of research findings.

Attached herewith, to support this application, please find the following documents:

1. Application for ethical clearance: Humans
2. University Research Ethics Committee checklist
3. Curriculum Vitae
4. Consent to participate in the study
5. Consent to request form/letter to participate in the study
6. Researcher's declaration and conflict of interest declaration
7. Supervisor's declaration
8. Full proposal

Should you have any questions about the study, please contact me at 0833620229, or via email at mthitn.4@gmail.com. You may also contact my supervisor. Dr Ganqa, NH, at 0719200588

Yours Sincerely
TN Mthi



Appendix B: Ethical Clearance Certificate

Document approved by UREC: 11 August 2015, VOI



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

REC-270710-028-RA Level 01'

Certificate Reference Number: GAN021 SMTHOI

Project title: Assessing teaching capacity of novice teachers through mentoring in primary schools of East London Education District.

Nature of Project: Master's in Education

Principal Researcher: Tanduxolo Nicholas Mthi

Supervisor: Dr N.H Ganqa

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 abovementioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorisation? 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 Pumla Dineo Gqola
Dean of Research

05 March 2018



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EASTERN CAPE
EDUCATION

Appendix C: Permission Letter of DoE

EAST LONDON DISTRICT

Dr. WB Rubusana Building, NIJ I Mdantsane, Private Bag X9007, East London, 5200

REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA, Website: www.ecdoe.gov.za

Ref. No. MR. T.N. MTHI

Tel.: 0832272329

Enquiries: MR. D.A. HANEKOM

Fax: 0866540028

01 February 2019

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

Re: Mr. T. N. MTHI



Permission is hereby granted to Mr. T. N. Mthi to conduct research at a public school situated in the Buffalo City Metro District. The schools are all in Circuit 12. The following pre-conditions exist:

- 1 No impact is made on teaching and learning time
- 2 Educators or learners will not be utilised during school teaching time
- 3 Prior permission has been obtained from the principal of the school with a clear guideline as to how the research will be conducted.
4. All ethical and moral obligations be upheld with respect to the content of the questionnaires

Regards

Mr. D. A. Hanekom

Circuit Manager: Circuit 12

Elfin Glen Road, Nahoon Valley Heights, East London 5200



To whom it may concern:

This document certifies that the dissertation whose title appears below has been edited for proper English language, grammar, punctuation, spelling and overall style by Rose Mashaa member of the Professional Editors' Group whose qualifications are listed in the footer of this certificate

Title:

**ASSESSING TEACHING CAPACITY OF NOVICE TEACHERS THROUGH
MENTORING IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF EAST LONDON EDUCATION
DISTRICT**



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

Author

TANDUXOLO NICHOLAS MTHI

Date Edited:

05 January 2019

Signed

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Dr. Rose Mashaa", enclosed within a faint, light-colored diamond-shaped border.

Dr. Rose Mashaa

Appendix D: Informed Consent Letter

If possible, our organisation would like to come back to this area once we have completed our study to inform you and your community of what the results are and discuss our findings and proposals around the research and what this means for people in this area.

INFORMED CONSENT

I hereby agree to participate in research regarding I understand that I am participating freely and without being forced in any way to do so. I also understand that I can stop this interview at any point should I not want to continue and that this decision will not in any way affect me negatively.

I understand that this is a research project whose purpose is not necessarily to benefit me personally.

I have received the telephone number of a person to contact should I need to speak about any issues which may arise in this interview.

I understand that this consent form will not be linked to the questionnaire, and that my answers will remain confidential.

I understand that if at all possible, feedback will be given to my community on the results of the completed research.



.....
Signature of participant

Date:

I hereby agree to the tape recording of my participation in the study

.....
Signature of participant

Date:

Appendix E: Interview Schedule for Novice Teachers

Section A: Demographic data for Novice Teachers:

Nationality:.....,

Race:.....

Gender:.....

Age:.....

Education Qualifications:.....

Work

Experience:.....

Section B: Research Questions

1. In your view, what is mentoring?



.....
.....
.

2. How do /did you experience mentoring?

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.....
.....
.

3. What role was played by your mentor teacher in building your teaching capacity?

.....
.....
.

4. Which mentoring programme was used to build your teaching capacity?

.....
.....
.

5. Which mentoring strategies were utilised?

.....
.....

Appendix F: Interview Schedule for Mentor Teachers

Section A: Demographic data for Mentor Teachers

Nationality:

.....
.....

Race:

.....
.....

Gender:

.....
.....

Age:

.....
.....

Education Qualifications:



.....
.....

Teaching Experience

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.....
.....

Grade Taught:

.....
.....

Section B: Leading Questions

Role of as mentors	(a) What is your understanding of mentoring? (b) Did you receive any training in the form of mentoring after assuming your duties as a teacher? (c) Was it a once off or ongoing programme? (d) How did you learn about your role and your responsibilities? (e) Which roles did you play on capacitating novice teachers?
Areas for capacity building of novice teachers.	(a) Specify in details, the activities or areas on which novice teachers are capacitated. (b) Why and how do you mentor novice teacher? (c) Which strategies do you use in capacitating novice teachers (d) Are there mentoring programmes in place? If yes or no, please give reasons (e) How effective are the mentoring programmes on building novice teachers' teaching capacity?



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Appendix G: Questionnaire for Novice Teachers

Please indicate your response with an (X) in the appropriate box below;

Section A:

1. Gender

Male	Female

2. Age

25 years and below	26-30 years	31-35 years	36-40 years	41-50 years

3. Education Qualifications

Matric	PTC	JPTD	SPTD	STD	DEGREE	HONOURS

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4. Working Experience

35-30 years	30-20 years	20-10 years	10-5 years	5-3 years	3-0 years

5. Grade Taught

5	4	3	2	1	R

Section B:

The questions are all ranked on a scale of "(5) Strongly Agree; (1) Strongly Disagree". Please select the most appropriate response and indicate by (X).

<u>Mentoring during early years of teaching</u>					
	5	4	3	2	1
(a) I feel lonely/ isolated/ confident in teaching a class of my own					
(b) I lack the understanding of the school's culture, and teaching methods to meet specific needs of the school setting.					
(c) I rely on guidance, support and handholding by mentor teachers					
(d) My colleagues are always accessible, ready and willing to assist.					
(e) The SMT works hand in hand with Phase and Grade Heads in assisting me with my teaching duties and responsibilities.					
<u>Mentoring programme</u>					
(a) I am happy with personal guidance given by mentor teachers					
(b) I adhere and understand the mentoring programme devised by or for the school.					
(c) Sessions are created for discussions, self-reflections and feedback.					
(d) Mentoring programmes allow collaboration between theory and practice.					

(e) There are workshops, seminars or support group gatherings that I benefit from					
Roles of Mentors					
(a) I believe I have a right to be inducted and mentored in my school					
(b) My expectations are met by mentor teachers					
© My mentor is skilled and knowledgeable in his/her field of study.					



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Appendix H: SAMPLE OF RESPONSES OF NOVICE TEACHERS

(a) How do you experience mentoring? <i>No mentoring received. I was introduced to my HOD for guidance. No one mentors me. No mentoring. I think it is necessary because putting my theory into practice is a new thing. No areas of mentoring were identified.</i>	Do you receive any mentoring as a new teacher who has recently joined the teaching for profession? (b) Were you given a special person to guide / mentor you about the career (c) In which areas did mentoring take place? (d) Do you think mentoring is necessary for you? If yes, why? If no, why? How were these areas (e) identified?
(b) What benefits do novice teachers experience during mentoring? <i>I was very anxious and a bit scared to be all alone in the classroom. Now I am better after learning on the ropes. I found that the reality to be too different from theory. Yes. Discipline of the class. Time management and delivery of content. Also assessment techniques. I gained nothing because I was never mentored. I benefited nothing because there were no mentoring.</i>	(b) How did you feel about teaching before mentoring? (Are you still feeling the way you felt now?) (c) Is there any relationship between what you learnt at the university and the real teaching situation? (d) Did you experience any challenges during the transition, when entering the teaching profession from university? If yes, what were the challenges? What benefits did you gain from the mentoring program? If yes, what were the positive attributes about mentoring programme?
(c) What challenges do novice teachers experience during the mentoring	(a) Did the mentoring sessions address your needs or was the

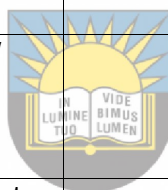
programme? Yes, during IAMS. Yes, it was a two way discussion. Yes, but were not informed by the baseline, only organised by the department. for its routine, to some extent, they helped but not always spot on. No challenges as there were no mentoring. No challenges were to be addressed as there was no mentoring.	(b) Did you undergo baseline assessment to identify strengths and weaknesses? (c) Were the sessions a two-way discussion or were you also an active participant where your ideas were heard? (d) Were there external programmes organised, that also helped you to develop as a teacher? (e) Did these programmes help? (f) What challenges did you experience during mentoring? (g) What suggestions do you have to address these challenges?
--	--



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Appendix I: CLASSROOM OBSERVATION CHECKLIST

List of Items	Yes/No	Comments
1. Term teaching plan		provided
2. Lesson preparation/Planning		provided / logical tearable & sc.
3. Assessment Plan	Yes	especial inf. but not data
4. Assessment Tasks and Marking tools		Informal assessment to correct administered Some informal assessment check lists. Marking
5. Recording Sheets / Mark Sheets		Displays all the required information Summaries - averages
6. School based Assessment/ School moderation.		Only done for compl → No Comments for Co
7. Learning & teaching support Material		Materials that has been mentioned in the lesson plans
8. Intervention Strategies		No Intervention strategies ~ yet there is a need for
9. Analysis of results and improvement plan	Yes No-Impr	as per Recording/Mark Yes Here is analysis for compliance improvement plan



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