

**EFFECT OF ORGANISATIONAL POLICIES ON SCHOOL
MANAGEMENT TEAMS' JOB PERFORMANCE AT MALUTI DISTRICT,
EASTERN CAPE, SOUTH AFRICA**

PAULOS DIPHOLO LEBOEA

May 2016

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Submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (PhD): EDUCATION

in the

School of General and Continuing Education

FACULTY OF EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE (UFH)

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May 2016

ABSTRACT

Most school management teams (SMTs) do not do their tasks either due to lack of time or inability to fulfil this obligation. Should this be true for South African schools, it would reflect negatively on the SMT job performance. This led to undertaking research in order to ascertain the fit between organisational policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision and the SMT job performance by way of establishing the effect of organisation policy on SMTs' job performance. The research adopted a descriptive survey research design of the correlational type. Two sets of questionnaires, one for independent variables and the other for the dependent variable, were used to elicit information from the respondents. Some of the findings show that aspiring SMT members need some training so as to know what will be expected of them to do once they get selected as SMT members. It was further proven that common tests that are normally set at the provincial and district and/or school based levels are invariably not of the standard that the Department of Basic Education (DBE) prescribes nationally. The foregoing led to the conclusion that the SMT job practice is invariably not informed by the relevant organisational policies. Hence a cascade model of SMT training is recommended, as is the notion that training toward organisational policies under review should be done cohesively.

Key words: Senior Management Teams, Organisational Policies, Job Performance, Department of Basic Education

DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my high school mentor and teacher, the late Mr T K Tsiu, who always made the point that I have to study until I reach the pinnacle of success in my chosen education field; to Mr V E R Blankson, my college music lecturer, for his inspiration and to my wife, Esther Sellwane, and all our children for being tolerant of my long hours of work while not giving them enough attention.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my sincere gratitude and appreciation to:

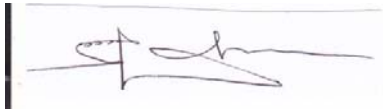
My supervisor, Professor E O Adu, for his positive and tireless guidance;

The Eastern Cape Department of Education, schools and their management team participants for allowing me to conduct research and agreeing to complete my questionnaires;

The Almighty God for seeing me through this whole project.

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this thesis, submitted for the degree Doctor of Philosophy (Education) at the University of Fort Hare, has not previously been submitted to any other university. I further declare that it is my own work both in conception and execution, with the exception of quotations and references which have been duly attributed to their authors and sources.

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read 'Paulos Dipholo Leboea', is written on a white background. The signature is stylized with a prominent vertical stroke on the left and a long horizontal stroke extending to the right.

Paulos Dipholo Leboea

SUPERVISORS' STATEMENT

This thesis has been submitted under my supervision and with my approval.

.....

Professor E. O. Adu (Supervisor)

.....

Date

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KEY ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS USED

CAPS	Curriculum Assessment Policy Statement
CATS	Common Assessment Tasks
COTEP	Committee on Teacher Education Policy
DBE	Department of Basic Education
ECDOE	Eastern Cape Department of Education
ELRC	Education Labour Relations Council
HOD(s)	Head(s) of Department(s)
HR	Human resource(s)
NDOE	National Department of Education
SACE	South African Council for Educators
SGB	School Governing Body
SMT(s)	School Management Team(s)

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 BACKGROUND

The apartheid era in South Africa brought about many changes in society. Those changes were based on the races found in the population strata of the country. Education did not escape that separatist arrangement and, as a result, it was racially meted out. Thus the then South African government consisted of four state departments of education, namely, the Department of Education and Training (DET) (for black learners); the Department of Education and Culture (DEC), Administration: House of Assembly (for white learners); the Department of Education and Culture (DEC), Administration: House of Representatives (for coloured learners); and the Department of Education and Culture (DEC), Administration: House of Delegates (for Asian learners) (Van Schalkwyk, 1993:76).

The thrust of the argument does not so much lie with the different education departments of the apartheid era in South Africa as it does with the differences with which the different education departments dealt with human resource development whilst they were within the same country. The inequality and lack of uniformity that characterised that era regarding readying personnel for their jobs are the ones that have led to the conception of this study. As if this fragmentation of the education ministry was not enough, there were additional education departments in the so-called Transkei,

Venda, Bophuthatswana and Ciskei, which were collectively dubbed the TVBC states for short.

Hence in all the above, it was only in the DET that there was a training manual for heads of departments (HODs) while none of the DEC's mentioned above had any. In the Transkei, Venda, Bophuthatswana and Ciskei (TVBC) states, another apartheid phenomenon, only the Ciskei Department of Education (CDE) provided prerequisite training for all personnel who had qualified to progress from post level 1 to post level 2 (HOD) and post level 3 (deputy principal). In the old Ciskei educators had to undergo training in preparation for eligibility to apply for a senior post as an HOD or deputy principal. A certificate was awarded after one had successfully completed the appropriate orientation course. This effectively meant that before one could apply for a senior post at school level one already had some knowledge of what was expected in case one got promoted. The above was just a nuance by one out of the many education departments in the country.

The above was consistent with international and national trends in that Grobler *et al.* (2006:207) opine that induction indicates the required behavioural patterns for effective job performance. This, in effect, points to saying that other than learning on the job, the new incumbent would be needing some practical criteria needed to do a certain job – in this case, that of becoming an effective senior teacher, HOD, deputy principal or even being principal of a school (the school management team). This further meant that applying for a school management team (SMT) job would not be an anomaly, or would not be as daunting as when someone applies for a senior job about which he is

clueless, as the applicant would be conversant with some of the job's requirements and expectations.

After the amalgamation of all departments of education in South Africa in 1994, no prerequisite training was made a mandatory requirement for all educators aspiring to assume positions higher than the entry level, which is post level 1 in South Africa. Bush and Middlewood (2006:143) strengthen the view of the necessity of prerequisite training by saying that no matter how thorough the process of recruitment and selection has been, it is only when the actual work begins that the realities of the nature of the work, the responsibilities and the organisation, are fully recognised. This, in effect, explains that winning an interview does not necessarily mean that one will be effective in the job that one applied for – as one will still need to be acclimatised in order to fit the SMT job profile practically.

The foregoing concern is corroborated by English (2006:661), citing Mullen (2001), who posits that many practitioners and scholars alike argue for adequate training opportunities for aspiring principals through longer, more rigorous internships, mentoring and shadowing practical experiences and instruction by model practitioners. 'Aspiring' actually refers to the fact that one is not yet an incumbent; instead one still hopes to apply should a vacancy exist. English (2006) further opines that studies have focused on the mentoring of pre-service and in-service teacher populations, with attention gradually accommodating prospective and practising administrators. Bush and Middleton (2006:162) add to the above by pointing out that training for prospective principals was introduced as early as 1984 in Singapore, which means that the erstwhile

departments of education who practised this were not engaged in an exceptional practice, but were following trends from abroad.

The absence of such training as a prerequisite for aspiring SMT members has set the researcher's mind thinking about how school management teams (SMTs) get trained for their jobs, and how they, in turn, do train, guide, induct, mentor and coach those directly under their supervision, in the light of the fact that only some erstwhile departments of education embarked on prerequisite training while others did not; and also in the light of the fact that in the unified Department of Education – currently referred to as the Department of Basic Education (DBE) – no prerequisite, apposite training has to be undergone by prospective school administrators or school management teams (SMTs). The latter have to ensure that organisational policies (policies of the DBE) are effectively implemented at the level of schools where they serve as managers. Such policies include, though not limited to, induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision, all of which constitute the mainstay of effective schools.

Furthermore, South Africa's curriculum has undergone various changes – drastically so when the outcomes-based education (OBE) was introduced and not so drastic when nuances were added as, and when, the education ministry welcomed a new incumbent as a minister. Conspicuous by its absence in those changes is how SMTs get trained for the job that encompasses the following organisation policies: supervision of curriculum implementation at school level, seeing to it that learners are appropriately assessed in line with set quotas and guidelines, and inducting and mentoring new members, and

even the old ones, in their departments. SMTs are also expected to spearhead staff development activities in their respective curricular departments (ELRC, 2003).

It is against the foregoing background that the researcher wished to explore the level of prerequisite, apposite training and acclimatisation for the SMTs both at the point of entry and when they are already engaged in their professional duties with specific emphasis on the policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision, as mentioned earlier. The level of training and acclimatisation would be determined by how well the SMT incumbents know what is expected of them regarding the organisational policies that are under review in this thesis. The researcher's understanding is that SMTs include heads of departments at school level, deputy principals and principals. The researcher has also noted that in the departments that were mentioned earlier as having had prerequisite training, the human resource (HR) aspect of training was not included. The foregoing background also shows that there are gaps that need to be closed in conceptualising a new SMT training manual or any mode of appraisal, whenever a need arises to have such a manual or appraisal document – the one that would encapsulate the human resource aspect of training.

Having supplied the background to the present study, what will now follow is the statement of the problem, which should provide the reason(s) why the researcher thought it necessary to conduct the study.

1.2 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Most personnel who have assumed supervisory positions as SMTs at various schools invariably do not do their tasks well, either due to lack of time or the inability to fulfil this

obligation (Grobler *et al.*, 2006:209). This becomes a problem which caused the researcher to be curious as to why some SMT members fail to do their tasks effectively – as observed by Grobler *et al.* (2006) above. This again becomes worrisome in that SMTs are expected to play a crucial role in the life of a school. A functional school equals a functional school management team, in that SMTs should control work done by colleagues in their departments, guide their colleagues in strategies of mediating skills, knowledge, attitudes and values to their learners (ELRC, 2003:C66 – 67). The present researcher believes that SMTs can do the foregoing effectively only if they have been trained accordingly, as pre-service training is generalist in nature, except for subject specialisation which the educator will need to have done in order to forestall having a knowledge gap.

SMTs are further supposed to strengthen the schools' policy on management issues that the principal may delegate to them as, and when, that becomes necessary. The management issues contextualised in this thesis are not the general management mandates, but they refer specifically to those management issues pertaining to the policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision. Again, as stated in the introduction section, SMTs need to coach and mentor their colleagues in junior ranks for effective implementation and management of all school-based activities. Whereas, in the past, entry level (post level 1) educators needed to do a short training course before aspiring to assume supervisory roles in the school, they now need just three, five and seven years respectively in the system to be eligible for applying for promotion posts as HODs, deputy principals and principals respectively. Once they assume their positions it is always reported of most that they

are incapable of manning their posts appropriately (Grobler *et al.*, 2006:209), whilst policies are not collapsed into a guiding manual for aspiring leaders. Some SMT incumbents end up just teaching and adding no value to the schools' work control policy, whilst they also enjoy having a fewer number of teaching periods than their post level 1(entry level) colleagues.

The foregoing corroborates what Grobler *et al.* (2006) posits as mentioned earlier in this section. The suspicion is that lack or absence of prerequisite, apposite training may be the cause for those who either cannot cope or are at a loss regarding some of the expected roles they have to play. Internationally, the above suspicion is corroborated by Guthrie (2003:1619), who posits that medicine offers supervised internships and residencies that allow the new practitioner to work under the guidance of a veteran, but education rarely provides such mentoring. He further warns that the absence of proper training invariably leads to new teachers leaving the profession early (Guthrie, 2003). Indeed educators do leave the system *en masse*, although the researcher did not delve into specific statistics regarding the number of educators who leave the system.

Nationally, Heystek (2002:185) is of the view that people need support to help them engrave new skills into their own basic skills. This is corroborated by Education Facilitators (2001:13) who state that failure to assist a new incumbent with guidance and communication can lead to a good teacher leaving the profession. This, in effect, means that new incumbents need induction, mentoring, and training to assess in line with curriculum prescripts as well as being empowered to supervise curriculum or being guided to implement it effectively, lest they should regard themselves as being ineffective and redundant.

Should the above be true for South African schools, it would reflect negatively on the SMT job performance, especially in the areas of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision. It is this kind of speculation and uncertainty that has prompted the researcher to have an interest in investigating whether SMTs do get trained for their jobs prior to their applying for those jobs, and whether they understand their roles fully, as well as to find out if the level of training they receive is sufficient to assist them to become fully functional and productive in their spheres of work.

Induction and mentoring are crucial for the SMTs in that they need to be trained therein, as a way of introducing them to their new work terrain. This helps the SMTs to be functional and productive in the institutions where they are employed. They, in turn, need to orientate/induct those under their supervision.

Likewise, the aspects such as curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision are more or less the main thrust of why there has to be an SMT component in each school. SMTs have to train and supervise their juniors in the setting of tests and tasks that conform to policy, as well as supervise the implementation of curriculum at school level. The researcher has suspected that there is a problem with regard to the SMTs' job performance, specifically in the foregoing areas of their roles and responsibilities.

1.3 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this research is to investigate if the SMTs are performing their role by utilising the organisational policy that encompasses induction and mentoring, adequate

assessment of staff and training staff to assess effectively (if correctly), and curriculum supervision if it should happen that appropriate, prerequisite training or development for aspirant as well as practising SMT personnel is absent.

1.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

To trigger off the study, the following research questions were asked. These questions also gave a framework to the present research in that the researcher believes that it is in the answering thereof that it will be deemed necessary to have undertaken it. Thus the following research questions were asked:

1.4.1 Major Research Question

- What is the effect of organisation policy on the SMTs' job performance?

1.4.2 Sub Research Questions

- What is the relationship between induction and the SMTs' job performance?
- What is the effect of mentoring on SMTs' job performance?
- How does assessment training affect SMTs' job performance?
- What is the relationship between curriculum supervision and the SMTs' job performance?
- How can the SMTs' job performance be improved in relation to the above variables?

1.5 RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

The following research objectives are envisaged being achieved at the conclusion of the study.

- To find out what effect organisation policy has on the SMTs' job performance;

- To determine the level of relationship between induction and the SMTs' job performance;
- To determine the effect of mentoring on the SMTs' job performance;
- To find out if assessment training has an effect on the SMTs' job performance;
- To ascertain the level of relationship between curriculum supervision and the SMTs' job performance;
- To suggest how SMTs' job performance can be enhanced with regard to the foregoing organisation policies.

1.6 HYPOTHESES

As the study deals with a relationship between the independent and dependent variables, the researcher thought it appropriate to advance null hypotheses to back it up. Thus the following null hypotheses were to be tested at .05 alpha level of significance.

- There is no significant relationship between induction and the SMTs' job performance.
- There is no significant relationship between mentoring and the SMTs' job performance.
- There is no significant relationship between assessment training and the SMTs' job performance.
- There is no significant relationship between curriculum supervision and the SMTs' job performance.

1.7 RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

The researcher believes that if training is done for all aspiring SMT members such training will enlighten them on the aspects of work they will deal with once they apply

and are selected for SMT positions. This training for aspirants as explained could always be entrenched through an on-going personnel development plan with specific thrust on the SMTs. This used to be the practice for some departments of education in the country, such as the Department of Education and Training (DET) and the Ciskei Department of Education (this was alluded to in the introduction to the study). The Ciskei Department of Education even issued graded certificates (with percentages of achievement) to all trainees, and trainees had to include them with all other certificates when applying for SMT positions. The researcher has such a certificate as proof of this practice.

The researcher's opinion is that the change of government in 1994 should not have thrown away the baby with the bath-water in overhauling the education system in South Africa. The researcher further believes that if aspiring SMTs have an idea of what will be expected of them if they should be given the opportunity to be appointed, this will stand them in good stead, as merely convincing the panel in the interview room sometimes depends on how eloquent one is in making one's points. The above is consistent with research; English (2006) opines that studies have focused on the mentoring of pre-service and in-service teacher populations with attention only gradually accommodating prospective and practising administrators – these administrators are actually school principals, who have the duty to spearhead SMT operations in their schools.

The researcher once sat on a panel where a computer literate administrative officer was needed for a certain school. The interview questions did not include sections where the interviewees would demonstrate their skills in using the computer. In the final analysis

when the panel deadlocked on who had actually won the position, the researcher suggested that all interviewees be subjected to a computer skills test. The one candidate whom the panel had not even considered in their finalising arguments beat all of them in the practical computer competence, while some of those who were eloquent could not even use a computer!

While the foregoing story is not necessarily part of the SMT work, it does, however, indicate that if employers are to rely on eloquence alone - which becomes the main feature of employee selection interviews nowadays - they may find themselves having to bear with an incumbent who does not meet the criteria of their job specifications. Labour regulations, on the other hand, do not approve of summarily laying off incumbents due to incapacity, especially if those incumbents were believed to have matched the requirements of their jobs when they were shortlisted, interviewed, selected and appointed.

1.8 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

- The study will hopefully highlight some of the deficiencies of manuals, if any, that are used to train personnel and what needs to be added to address such deficiencies;
- It may also add to the body of knowledge required for designing a training manual that will touch on some sections previously neglected in the training of SMTs or teachers aspiring to move up from the entry level;
- It is also envisaged that suggestions regarding a generic training or development manual for SMTs will be produced as a blueprint. The intended manual should be generic in that it will have to cover the training of SMTs of different subjects and the manual should be designed such that it is easily

adaptable to changes that may occur on an on-going basis. While such a manual will not claim to have all the makings of a complete manual, it is hoped that it will have closed some existing gaps in the material used in the training of SMTs with specific reference to the organisation policies being dealt with;

- The study could also influence policy direction in formulating staff retention strategies, so as to forestall the early departure of educators from the teaching profession (this compares fairly with what Guthrie, 2003 and Grobler *et al.*, 2006 have indicated in this regard).

1.9 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

To make the study manageable, it will only deal with the SMTs of high schools in the Maluti Education District with the hope that this will shed some light regarding the training of SMTs in the Eastern Cape Department of Education who, in turn, have a duty to train or orientate and supervise others who fall directly under their supervision – in order to ensure effective discharging of their duties, with specific reference to the organisation policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision.

1.10 DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following terms have been defined in the context in which they have been used in this research thesis. To avoid clouding the study with superfluous terminology, only those concepts that the researcher deemed to be central to the discourse of the thesis have received attention hereunder.

Organisation: The term ‘organisation’ refers to the Department of Basic Education, which is the new name for the department of education in South Africa. Although a

school has all the trappings of an organisation, it is dependent on policies that are designed by an even bigger organisation – the Department of Basic Education. That is why the term ‘organisation’, as in ‘organisation policy’ refers to the Department of Basic Education.

Policy: Policy refers to a course of action to be followed or what is expected to be done and the way it has to be done. This may further mean the ideal situation to be followed with regard to the running of an organisation, a framework from which members of an organisation need not deviate. In the current study, policy - as in organisation policy - refers to a set of policies that have been selected, namely, induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision.

Job Performance: This refers to the work-related activities expected of an employee including how well those activities are executed. In this case job performance refers to the ability of the SMT to discharge its duties, especially in the following organisation policies: induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision.

School Management Teams (SMTs): School Management Teams (SMTs) are a group of educators in promotion posts at school level. Their job is to supervise curriculum implementation at the level of the school at which they work. SMTs include senior teachers, HODs, deputy principals and principals of schools. In this study SMTs’ job performance is spotlighted with specific reference to their job performance in the policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision.

Mentor: Sometimes referred to as a ‘buddy’, a mentor is a person who is responsible for assisting new employees and novice personnel at work. In this study SMTs are perceived to be the ones who have to be at the helm of mentorship programmes by virtue of being supervisors who are supposed to understand the needs, strengths and weaknesses of personnel (educators) under their supervision in as far as the organisational policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision are concerned.

Mentee/Protégé: This refers to a person or persons whom mentors are charged with the responsibility for inducting, mentoring and coaching. Mentees/protégés refer to less experienced personnel who look up to their mentors and/or seniors for guidance. In the current study mentees/protégés refer to all educators who work under the supervision of the SMTs in carrying out their curricular and learner assessment duties.

Heads of Departments (HODs): These educators are at the second rung of management at school level. They are chiefly responsible for supervising curriculum and assessment activities in their departments, which consist of a number of educators who mediate lessons in a set of subjects under one head. They form part of the SMTs at school level. Together with other SMT members, they drive the implementation of policies such as those under scrutiny in the current study.

Deputy Principals: These are educators who deputise for principals in important meetings such as meetings with the officials of the Department of Basic Education, school governing bodies and other stakeholders. Deputy principals are part of the SMTs in any school. They are at the second rung of school-based levels of promotion. Deputy

principals also have to co-ordinate activities of the HODs, whom they also have to supervise, develop and evaluate.

Principals: Principals are educators who are at the helm of leadership and management in schools. They are overall managers in that they have to manage all sections of the Department of Basic Education at school level, such as curriculum implementation and supervision, curriculum management, managing the school nutrition programme where it features, accounting for income and expenditure and managing human resources. They are also leaders who have to be innovative so as to have a school culture that is unique to their management skills. Principals are chief accounting officers at school, discharged with interfacing policy with practice (implementation) at school level. Principals are members of the SMTs, whom they also lead.

Department of Basic Education (DBE): The DBE is now an acronym that is commonly used to refer to the Department of Education. In this study, the DBE is the organisation (as in 'organisation policy') whose policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision have been looked into vis-à-vis the SMTs' job performance in the current thesis.

Common Assessment Tasks (CATs): This refers to common assessment tasks which are set either by provincial departments or the DBE for assessment that cuts across all schools in a certain subject or in subjects. In this study, CATs include even assessment instruments that a certain district or circuit cluster may set to be administered commonly by all district or circuit cluster components, inclusive of the common time and time tables. These form part of the main features of curriculum assessment training.

Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS): This is a new syllabus which represents the latest curriculum changes and innovations since the inception of the outcomes-based education for the General Education and Training (GET) and the Further Education and Training (FET) phases. This new syllabus amendment is an embodiment of the curriculum and assessment policy for approved subjects, the national policy pertaining to the programme and promotion requirements on the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 and the National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12. It is administered by the Department of Basic Education (DBE) in South Africa. CAPS promulgates curricular and assessment policies to be followed by the DBE in the different subjects that are approved in South African schools.

Maluti Education District: Maluti is one of the current 23 education districts of the province of the Eastern Cape. Consisting of some 225 schools, Maluti lies to the north eastern side of the Eastern Cape. Of the above number, 28 are public high schools, while about three or four are privately owned high schools. The rest are primary and junior secondary schools. Maluti borders on the south eastern side of the Kingdom of Lesotho and shares a great deal of space and culture with the KwaZulu-Natal Province. Of the 225 schools mentioned, Maluti currently consists of nine education circuits. At the time of the current research, the Eastern Cape Department of Education is in the process of rationalising and re-aligning the districts such that in the end there may be a maximum of twelve (12) districts. In the face of the impending rationalisation and re-alignment, Maluti, like her sister districts in the province, will be likely to have lost its present character and constitution by the time the current study is completed. The

Maluti Education District is the one district that constituted the research site for the current study.

1.11 THE USE OF GENDER PRONOUNS

The researcher decided to use the gender pronoun 'he' and 'his' to refer to both male and female humans. This was done without any particular bias for or against any person, but it was done solely for the ease of communication to avoid 'he or she' and 'his or her' when writing generally about human beings. However, the researcher has taken extreme care not to refer to scholars indiscriminately. In other words, if a scholar is female, the pronouns 'she' and 'her' have been aptly used.

1.12 CONNECTING THE STUDY

Since scholars always refer to the golden thread of research, the present researcher has taken care to try and always connect sections and subsections of the research report, including transiting from one chapter to another. This has been done to demonstrate that albeit arranged into subsections, sections and chapters, the research report is still a unified written entity. The connection being referred to here will notably be seen when transiting to chapter 2 and from there to other chapters, subsections and sections of the research report.

1.13 CITATIONS AND REFERENCING TECHNIQUES

The researcher has decided to use the Harvard Referencing style. This is the referencing style that the researcher found himself comfortable with. That is why for citations years and pages have been rendered as (2012:20) respectively, instead of the

APA's (2012, p. 20). In the case of a citation where a number of authors have written a publication, Cohen *et al.* has been used instead of the APA's Cohen, Manion & Morrison. The full authorship of publications is supplied in the reference list. Lastly, in an instance where an author or authors have contributed a chapter in other authors' publications, the surname and initials of the contributor are written, as well as the explanatory 'in' so as to recognise the publication wherein the chapter was contributed, e.g. Schmeiser (in Brenner, 2006:315). The researcher has tried to use this referencing style consistently throughout the study so as not to confuse readers and examiners of the script.

1.14 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to highlight the background to the study, the statement of the problem, the scope of the study and the rationale thereof. Terms were defined according to how they have been used in the current study so as for them to be easily contextualised by readers. The use of gender pronouns was explained so as not to confuse the readers. Again, the researcher deemed it fitting to highlight the referencing style used in the study, namely, the Harvard Referencing Style, and why he used the style consistently. An attempt was also made to explain how the study is connected throughout, so as for it not to lose the character of being one research report or thesis.

In a nutshell, chapter 1 and its contents were looked into with a view to providing the research plan or blueprint of this study. This leads us to chapter 2, wherein both the theoretical framework and literature review are dealt with in depth.

CHAPTER TWO

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Now that the roadmap or blueprint has been provided in the previous chapter, attention has to be given to the material which provided the theoretical and literature frameworks on which the current study is hinged. According to Leboea (2005:11) a theoretical and literature framework affords any study:

- the background against which claims are made in the end by investigators/theorists;
- the respect that investigators bestow upon those scholars who researched issues being discussed or researched; and
- the recognition that the study was not done in a vacuum.

Thus, the theories and literature that provide relevant discourses for this study will now receive attention in this chapter, while care will be taken to ensure that only material having a bearing on policies under scrutiny are discussed. First, the theoretical framework will be conceptualised and discussed by referring to the theories that the researcher has deemed to be relevant to the study. This will then be followed by a literature review regarding the following policies: induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision.

2.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The following theories have been selected for illustrating the study:

1. Vroom's Expectancy Theory
2. Harley's the Real and the Ideal

3. Bloom's Taxonomy
4. Barrett's Taxonomy
5. Moseley's Taxonomy (The SOLO Taxonomy)

White (2002:8), citing Kerlinger (1979:64), defines theory as a set of interrelated constructs (variables), definitions and propositions that present a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables, with the purpose of explaining phenomena. White (2002:9) continues to say that independent and dependent variables based on different forms of measures are combined into hypotheses and/or research questions. Theory and research are, therefore, interrelated. White (2002) further opines that a theory might be defined as a series of 'if...then' statements which explain why the researcher would expect the independent variables to influence the dependent variables.

The foregoing view is shared by Monteith and Steyn (1999:2) who also state that theories are predictions in the form *if X increases then Y also increases* and that this presupposes a relationship between the X and Y variables. Lastly, Creswell (2012:120) posits that a theory in quantitative research serves to explain and predict the probable relationship between independent and dependent variables. The foregoing explanation reminds us, by the way, that the present study's independent variables are the policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision (aggregately referred to as 'organisational policies'), while the SMTs' job performance constitutes its dependent variable.

In line with the foregoing policy postulants, the study's independent and dependent variables are also interrelated and the researcher further believes that there has to be

some influence exerted by independent variables (organisation policy) on the one dependent variable (the SMTs' job performance) in the current study. Quantitative studies use theory deductively and place it toward the beginning of the research plan of a study, the objective of which is to test or verify, rather than develop it (theory) (White, 2002:9).

When one considers the foregoing discourse about theory and relationships, one concludes that quantitative studies are more in sync with theories than qualitative ones, since theories invariably lend themselves to hypotheses. We also need to note that relationships deal with correlations and vice versa. The current study is no exception in that it is designed in the form of quantitative research and, as such, will have hypotheses. It is with this thought in mind that the paragraphs below will focus on the theoretical framework of the current study.

Thus the researcher found Vroom's Expectancy Theory to be one of the relevant theories to the study that was to be undertaken. Thereafter, the fit between practice and theory was looked into by exploring the study wherein Harley refers to the 'Real' and the 'Ideal'. Whilst practice (the Real) equals the SMTs' actual job performance, theory (the Ideal) equals the organisation policies, which in the case of the current study refers specifically to the policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision.

Taxonomies on assessment were also explored under the theoretical framework, as the current researcher believes that such taxonomies can be regarded as theories, or even as sub theories, on which some assessment and measurement policies are based. The

taxonomies referred to include those of Bloom, Barrett and Moseley (The SOLO Taxonomy). The researcher found these taxonomies relevant to organisational policy regarding curriculum assessment training, as they are chiefly the ones that back up the assessment and examination guidelines that form part of assessment deliverables for the Department of Basic Education, to which the word 'organisation' – as in 'organisation policy' – chiefly refers in this study. First to receive attention hereunder is Vroom's Expectancy Theory.

2.2.1 Vroom's Expectancy Theory

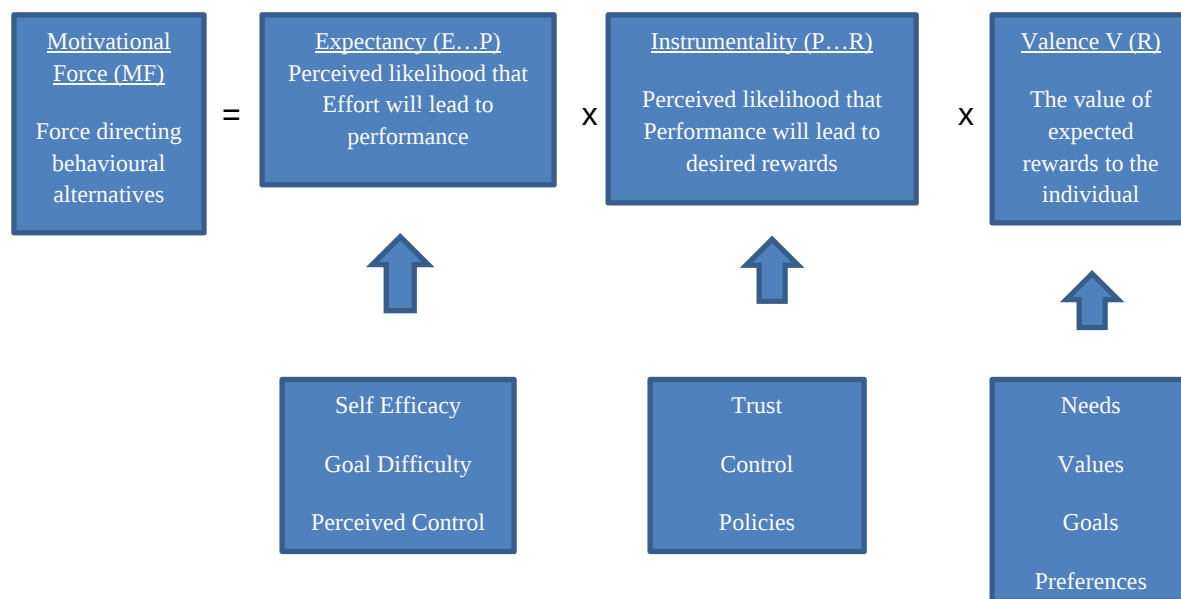
In his exposition of Vroom's Expectancy Theory, Scholl (2002) points out that this theory is one of many motivation theories. Motivation, Scholl claims, is a force that energises behaviour in that what determines one's effort in behaviour, or change thereof, is what one envisages to receive in behaving in a certain way. He goes on to say that motivation is a force that directs behaviour in that it makes individuals choose among competing behavioural alternatives. Lastly, Scholl says motivation is a force that sustains behaviour in that it (motivation) is behaviourally specific. An individual may excel in a certain job requirement necessarily because of being motivated in a certain way (Scholl, 2002:1).

Thus Scholl (2002:1) sees Vroom's Expectancy Theory as one of the process theories that constitute a model of behavioural choice. The Expectancy Theory explains why individuals choose one behavioural option over others. The theory does not seek to explain, however, what motivates individuals, but rather how individuals make decisions to achieve the end that they regard highly or value. In a nutshell, the theory propounds that there is a positive correlation between one's efforts and performance. We need to

note, as indicated under theory conceptualisation, that correlation deals with relationships and vice versa.

In expounding the expectancy model of behavioural choice, Scholl (2002) posits that Vroom propounded three components of the theory, namely, *Expectancy*, *Instrumentality* and *Valence*. He depicts the interaction of the above components graphically as follows:

Figure 2.2.1.1: Vroom's Expectancy Theory



(Scholl, 2002:1)

Explaining the diagrams:

Expectancy refers to the individual's perceived likelihood (belief) that **Effort** will lead to **Performance** (E....P), while Instrumentality is the individual's perceived likelihood (belief) that Performance will lead to the desired **Rewards** (P.....R). Expectancy and

Instrumentality are, therefore, attitudes or **cognitions**. Both cognitions (that is, Expectancy and Instrumentality) represent the individual's perception that effort will lead to performance and performance will lead to the desired outcomes. While performance involves **Self Efficacy**, **Goal Difficulty** and **Perceived Control**, the desired Rewards refer to the individual gaining *Trust*, having *Control* and being able to understand and follow *Policies*. **Valence** refers to the value that an individual may attach to the rewards (R) of an outcome, the influential factors of which will include one's Needs, Values, Goals and Preferences (Scholl, 2002:2).

Therefore, the belief that one's effort (E) will result in the attainment of the desired performance (P) goals is expectancy. The foregoing perception is based on an individual's past experience, self-confidence (self-efficacy), and the perceived difficulty of the performance standard or goal (Scholl, 2002:1). There are three variables that affect the individual's expectancy perception, namely, Self-Efficacy, Goal Difficulty and Control. Self-Efficacy refers to a person's belief regarding ability to perform a particular behaviour successfully; Goal Difficulty refers to the fact that if goals that are set are too high to attain or performance expectations are too difficult to attain, individuals experience low expectancy perceptions; while Control ordains that an individual's perceived control over performance is a crucial determinant of expectancy.

In line with this theory, the researcher is of the opinion that for expectancy to be high it needs an individual to believe that he has some degree of control over the expected outcome. In a nutshell, if an individual understands Policies then there will be a correlation between how he is going to perform and the outcomes or results of a performed task.

The relevance of the Expectancy Theory to the study

The study deals with the performance of SMTs with regard to discharging their roles and responsibilities subject to being adequately trained or developed to train their supervisees in the policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision. The Expectancy Theory postulates that if individuals have the effort to discharge certain duties then they will perform. It also goes on to postulate that performance will lead to rewards. From authorities that be, there will be trust that the individual is capable of performing certain tasks. Then, if personnel can win the trust of authorities, the organisation for which the workforce renders service stands to gain – even if it is only by way of running smoothly and implementing policies effectively.

The understanding of policies to be implemented leads to a correlation between performance and outcomes or results. In like manner, if SMTs know their roles well there will be an expectancy that their performance in discharging roles commensurate with the policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision will correlate with the outcomes (which will be the ability to understand and impart their practical knowledge to their supervisees).

Now that the expectancy theory has been discussed, together with its relevance to the study, a study that was undertaken by Harley and fellow researchers, which resulted in a theory known as the Real and the Ideal, will receive attention hereunder.

2.2.2 Harley's the Real and the Ideal

Education Facilitators (2001:149) refer to a policy study that was undertaken by Harley and fellow researchers, which is entitled *The Real and the Ideal*. The latter study was

triggered off by the fact that some researchers believe that in South Africa there is a 'dearth of knowledge' regarding the details and texture of daily activity in schools and classrooms. They thus decry the fact that sometimes policy development takes place without alignment with what is really happening in schools and classrooms (Education Facilitators, 2001:149).

Harley and fellow researchers clustered together four policy documents for the then National Department of Education (NDOE) and conducted research thereon. The four policy documents that they looked into were: COTEP Norms and Standards for Educators, SACE Code of Conduct, ELRC Manual for Developmental Appraisal and the NDOE Duties and Responsibilities of Educators, all of which have documented imperatives as to what educators are expected to do in terms of each one of them. In their study, which was hinged on the foregoing policies, Harley and fellow researchers asked the following key research questions:

- What does policy say that educators should be doing? (Compare this with the prescripts of the policies of induction, mentoring, assessment training and curriculum supervision as embodied in the discourse to follow in this chapter).
- What are educators actually doing? (Either in line or out of line with what policy promulgates for them to do).
- What is the 'fit' between policy and practice? (Education Facilitators, 2001:149).

The view held by The Real (practice) and the Ideal (policy) was that of interfacing policy with practice.

At the end of their study some of the conclusions that they arrived at were the following:

- That with regard to the role of educator as mediator of learning there was a good 'fit';
- That the policy – practice 'fit' was less apparent in the role of educator as lifelong learner and designer of learning programmes; and
- They also found out that assumptions about the context in which policy is applied are problematic, in that educator responsibilities were also affected in practice by contextual factors which prevailed from one school to another.

In a nutshell, the researcher believes that school-based education managers (school management teams) have to establish the 'fit' between 'theory (policies) and practice (job performance)'. This has to be done in the realm or field of the school. Managers also need to establish the appropriate educator competencies and roles in the envisaged 'fit', as well as to establish the correct 'fit' where the policy-practice 'fit' appears to be poor. It must also be borne in mind that policy alludes to a framework of legality, the overlooking of which may have dire consequences for both the system and individuals (SMT members) who are charged with the responsibility of implementing it. While policy may sometimes have unintended consequences, by and large it may fulfil the designers' intent – which is the smooth running of a system or programme.

Education Facilitators (2001:186) state that Harley and fellow researchers also realised that some tensions exist between policy and practice. This, they say, was found through empirical evidence in that Harley and fellow researchers conducted a field study in order to witness the educators' observable roles vis-à-vis what policy ordains. Some of the illustrative cases of policy-practice tensions were noticeable, especially with regard to: the teacher's role in the promotion of gender equality, participation in community development, enhancement of critical thinking and democratic practices; and discipline

among learners. Education Facilitators (2001:186) cite the following table in order to highlight some policy-practice tensions as some of the findings of the study called the Real and the Ideal. Hereunder follows Table 2.2, which illustrates the policy positions of the Real and the Ideal vis-à-vis practices.

Table 2.2.2.1: Policy positions and practices

Policy positions	Practices
Gender equality is promoted	Gender equality is inconsistent with cultural values
Emphasis on human rights; corporal punishment is prohibited	Corporal punishment is practised on an agreed basis; in some instances it is negotiated with the local community
Emphasis on pupil activity and group work	Teacher-talk in whole class situation predominates in the teaching/learning situation
Critical/creative thinking is encouraged	Critical and creative thinking is not valued in communities which place a premium on 'culturally agreed' values and social consensus
Teacher involvement in community development is encouraged	'Community' is conceptually contested and the practicality of community development problematized

From the above it is clear that sometimes the 'fit' between theory (policy) and practice may not only be poor, but may show tensions. This becomes the hallmark of questioning whether or not there is always a 'fit' between policy and practice. Conversely, it may also be interesting to find out if there is always 'tension' between policy and practice. It was thus important to investigate whether there may be no other

causes that necessitate a poor 'fit' or even tensions between policy and practice other than those discovered by Harley's the Real and the Ideal theory. The policies in which the above were investigated were the following, which are the main thrust of the current study: induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision. If lack of training on the part of SMTs was among the causes of incorrect 'fit' or even tensions between policy and practice, it would prove the researcher's rationale for doing this study as indicated in chapter 1.

Relevance of Harley's the Real and Ideal theory to this study

The findings of the study called the Real and the Ideal are relevant to the current study in that it seeks to find out whether or not there is a 'fit' between what is expected of SMTs (policy) and what they actually do (practice) with specific reference to the following policies: induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision. The study further draws inspiration from especially the finding in Harley's the Real and the Ideal that whereas the 'fit' was good with regard to the role of educator as mediator of learning, it was however not apparent in the role of educator as a lifelong learner and designer of learning programmes. This presupposes that even with the impending research it may be expected that the 'fit' between what SMTs are expected to do in respect of organisation policies under review in the study, and what those policies postulate may vary from policy to policy, as well as within the policies.

The foregoing justifies this study's choice of a quantitative research approach, especially the correlational research design, which deals with relationships between phenomena. The 'fit' between policy and practice presupposes a relationship. The latter

will be the main thrust of chapter 3 – here; the researcher merely seeks to show the thread or synergy of the components of the current research project in line with theoretical constructs.

The above also strengthens the argument that an educator who knows and is good at teaching learners may not necessarily be good at assessing those learners according to policy imperatives. This, therefore, further strengthens the current researcher's belief that SMTs need to be appropriately trained for them to spearhead the implementation of the policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision.

The assumption of this study is that there could exist no relationship between what SMTs may expect their supervisees to do unless they themselves (the SMTs) are adequately trained in order to lead, supervise and train their supervisees to adhere to policy imperatives relating to the policies which are under review in this study – and, naturally, unless they themselves know those policies.

The foregoing discussion on the theories on which the study was hinged will now be followed by taxonomies which the researcher believes to be the theories or sub-theories on which assessment and measurement guidelines and policies of the Department of Basic Education (DBE) are mostly based.

2.2.3 Bloom's Taxonomy

According to Dreyer (2014:80) Bloom was an educational psychologist who wrote the Taxonomy of Educational Objectives in 1956, which became generally known as Bloom's Taxonomy. This taxonomy was published in a revised version in 2001. Bloom's

Taxonomy is a model of classifying thinking according to six levels of complexity. Citing Brookhart and Nitko (2008), Dreyer (2014:80) further posits that the taxonomy provides a two-dimensional framework into which one can classify learning and assessment targets. The two dimensions – learning and assessment targets – help educators to prepare better objectives and to derive appropriate measures of learned capability and acquisition of knowledge and skills.

Dreyer (2014:81), citing DBE (2012 and 2013), points out that the DBE promulgates that all assessment questions have to adhere to the following criteria, which are hinged on Bloom's Taxonomy:

- **Content:** Does content match the learning objective in the test plan?
- **Difficulty:** Is the item pitched at the right cognitive level according to the test specifications?
- **Relevance:** Is it relevant to learners in terms of use of language, graphics, NCS/CAPS requirements?
- **Translation (versioning) possibility:** Can this item be translated, versioned or adapted for learners with barriers and for other languages?
- **Bias:** Would this item disadvantage any group in terms of culture, gender, socio-economic status, rural versus urban dwellers or language preference?

The foregoing attests to the fact that the DBE has a complete buy-in into Bloom's Taxonomy for those subjects that lend themselves to the cognitive domain as it is unpacked hereunder. The following rendition on learning domains or Bloom's Taxonomy is derived from the internet, and it was an exposition by Randall (2011:1-9) who posits that Bloom expounded his taxonomy of learning by categorising them into the cognitive,

affective and psychomotor domains. Of the three it is especially the cognitive domain that will be discussed hereunder, seeing that it is the one that is relevant to this study.

Bloom's Cognitive Domain

Randall (2011:1-3) posits that the cognitive domain involves knowledge and the development of intellectual skills. The foregoing explanation includes the recall or recognition of specific facts, procedural patterns and concepts that serve in the development of intellectual abilities and skills as postulated by Benjamin Bloom. These intellectual abilities and skills are further subdivided into six major degrees of difficulty which follow one another from the simplest to the most complex degrees (compare this with the six levels of complexity as stated by Dreyer, 2014:80 earlier on).

Knowledge:

This refers to testing recall and recognition of data. Examples of requisite skills associated with this degree of difficulty are: the ability to recite a policy and quoting prices from memory to a customer. The key assessment words used with this degree of difficulty include defining, identifying, knowing and matching names or items. To this list Maynard (2013:1) adds what, when, where, how, how much, select, which and why. To them (Randall and Maynard), if learners are able to answer the above then they are able to display knowledge of what they have learnt. Knowledge as one of the levels of complexity is followed systematically by comprehension, which is discussed hereunder.

Comprehension:

This is the degree of difficulty that follows the ability to show knowledge. It involves the translation, interpolation and interpretation of instructions and problems, as well as stating a problem in one's own words. The learner should be able to comprehend, convert, distinguish, estimate, explain, generalise, give examples, paraphrase, interpret, infer, predict, rewrite, summarise and translate (Randall, 2011:2). To these abilities, Maynard (2013:1-2) adds that the learner should be able to show, indicate, tell what fits and does not fit, judge, justify, demonstrate and explain a graph or table.

It should be noted that both the knowledge and comprehension levels are regarded as basic and therefore constitute the low rungs (levels) of content difficulty in assessment or low order questioning. Comprehension is followed by application, which is discussed immediately after comprehension.

Application:

This involves the ability to use a concept in a new situation or even the ability to use an abstract concept without being prompted to do so. Furthermore, this can refer to being able to apply what was learnt in the classroom in the workplace. Examples of demonstrating skills that have been learnt include having to use a manual to calculate employee's vacation time and applying laws of statistics to evaluate the reliability of a written test. In giving answers to assessment questions in tests, tasks and assignment the learners apply, compute, demonstrate, discover, predict, produce, relate, modify, solve and use (Randall, 2011:2). As for predicting, Maynard (2013:2) says the learner may be able to suggest or tell what would happen if, what would result, as well as

identify the results of something. The difficulty level of application is followed by analysis, which is discussed hereunder.

Analysis:

This degree of difficulty involves the ability to separate material or concepts into component parts so that its organisational structure may be understood. So also is the ability to distinguish between facts and inferences. Examples of skills involved herein are abilities such as troubleshooting a piece of equipment by using logical deduction, recognising logical fallacies in reasoning, gathering information from a department and selecting the required tasks for training. In responding to assessment tasks, learners analyse, break down, contrast, draw diagrams, deconstruct, differentiate, discriminate, outline and illustrate (Randall, 2011:3). Learners are also able to see what is related to, extraneous to, and not applicable to, some item or other. Furthermore, learners may be able to assume someone's point of view, state their own point of view, differentiate between what is fact or opinion, draw conclusions, surmise themes and relationships as well as note literary forms, inconsistencies and fallacies (Maynard, 2013:3).

We need to note that both the application and analysis levels of difficulty constitute the middle rung (level) or middle order questioning. Analysis is followed by synthesis, which is discussed below.

Synthesis:

Reaching this degree of difficulty involves the ability to build a structure or pattern from diverse elements, or put parts together in order to form a whole. From what has been learnt people become able to write company operations or process manuals, design a

machine to perform specific tasks, integrate training from several sources to solve a problem, and revise and improve the efficacy of designs. In answering synthesis questions learners modify, organise, reorganise, plan, rewrite, rearrange, reconstruct and revise (Randall, 2011:3). Learners are also required to formulate, design, create, state rules, compose, propose alternatives and develop (Maynard, 2013:3).

When one looks at the expectations of the synthesis level, one rests assured that this level forms part of high order questioning. This level is systematically followed by evaluation, which is discussed below.

Evaluation:

This is the degree of difficulty that involves the ability to make judgements about the value of ideas or materials. Objectives of learning in this degree include the ability to select the most effective solution, hire the most qualified candidate as well as explain and justify a new budget. In a learning environment learners respond to evaluation questions by appraising, comparing, contrasting, concluding, evaluating, explaining, defending, interpreting, summarizing and relating (Randall, 2011:3). Maynard (2013:3) adds that at this level, learners also criticise, judge, find errors, tell the logical and the illogical apart, and determine the validity of statements or items and facts. Dreyer (2014:80) advises that incorporating various assessment questions is educationally sound, in that learners are not homogeneous in their abilities; and that many learners are compromised in formal tests and examinations due to language barriers, learning difficulties and other factors. Evaluation and synthesis are both at the highest rung (level) of questioning; that is, they both constitute high order questioning.

The foregoing discussion has a bearing on the roles of the SMTs, especially when it comes to training their supervisees in the aspects pertaining to assessment and measurement policies. Aspects of Bloom's Taxonomy will again be looked into when examples of questions will be analysed in this study, in order to determine the level of compliance by educators – who are under the guidance, mentorship and tutelage of SMTs. As the latter have to ensure that curriculum assessment policies are strictly adhered to, they also need to have been relevantly trained to undertake such an important task – that of evaluating the curriculum that has been implemented at school level.

In conclusion, the views espoused in this section find practical expression in the literature review section of this study that will be dealing with the SMT and curriculum assessment training. Suffice it to say that in Bloom's Taxonomy the first two levels (knowledge and comprehension) constitute the low order rung of questioning, the middle ones (application and analysis) constitute the middle order rung of questioning and the last two (synthesis and evaluation) constitute the high order rung of questioning.

Relevance of Bloom's Taxonomy to this study

Boom's Taxonomy is used by the DBE in certain sections of language assessment and in most content subjects such as Accounting, Business Studies, Economics, Agricultural Sciences, to name but a few. Thus the researcher finds the taxonomy relevant to this study as it also streamlines cognitive levels of difficulty in questions that are scaffolded to differentiate between low (knowledge and comprehension), mediocre (application and analysis) and high (synthesis and evaluation) achievers within the same measurement

instrument (test/task/assignment). As mentioned earlier, the DBE has an assessment policy that percentiles the content-cognitive distribution in learner achievement.

SMTs are supposed to ensure that learners are appropriately assessed by their educators in order to meet the correct grading in terms of the DBE's assessment policy. They need to acquire the skill of training their supervisees to correctly grade the learners according to the different content – cognitive distribution levels, as desired by the DBE's policy on learner assessment. This is quite comparable to the rationale behind Barrett's Taxonomy. Further reference will be made to Barrett's Taxonomy in the literature review section that will be dealing with curriculum assessment training in this study.

This brings us to unpacking the discourse regarding Barrett's Taxonomy hereunder.

2.2.4 Barrett's Taxonomy

The following information on Barrett's Taxonomy has been extracted from an internet-generated document. The researcher found it useful in shedding some light with regard to expounding the taxonomy itself, and aligning the information with curriculum assessment in the relevant section hereunder. The source is a document entitled *The Complete Barrett Taxonomy*, which the researcher obtained from the Department of Basic Education (DBE), (2012:1-14).

In his taxonomy, Barrett postulates five cognitive levels that can be engaged in, in trying to balance content knowledge with the levels of cognitive difficulty in which a learner can be assessed to have acquired in responding to assessment or measurement tasks and tests. The levels are listed in ascending order as literal comprehension,

reorganisation, inferential comprehension, evaluation and appreciation. Considered one by one, the following has been briefly extracted from the document which the researcher obtained under the auspices of the Department of Basic Education (DBE).

Literal Comprehension:

Literal comprehension deals with ideas and information that is stated in an assessment task or in source material that forms part of an assessment task. While literal comprehension is the lowest level of cognitive difficulty, it may range from simple to complex. An example of a simple task may be the recognition or recall of a fact or incident, while a more complex one might be the recognition or recall of a series of facts or sequencing in a reading extract or source material. A learner may be required to recognise details such as the names of characters, the time of the story, the place of the story or any detail that requires literal comprehension. A learner may also be required to recognise main ideas by identifying an explicit statement in, or from, a selection which is a main idea of a paragraph. In trying to recognise sequencing, the learner may be required to locate or identify the order of incidents or actions that are stated explicitly in the selection.

Under this level of difficulty, a learner can be required to locate or identify likenesses and differences in characters, times and places that are clearly stated in the selection or extract as a way of recognising comparisons. However, if a cause and effect relationship exists, it has to be provided for in the next higher level of the taxonomy (Department of Basic Education, 2012). The next lower difficulty level in Barrett's Taxonomy is reorganisation.

Reorganisation:

In this difficulty level, a learner is asked to analyse, summarise, synthesise, and organise information that is clearly stated in the selection or extract. A learner may be required to classify people, things, places or events into categories. Unlike in the literal comprehension stage, things or items have to be ordered into categories as against merely recognising them. Learners may further be asked to organise facts into main headings and sub-headings to form an outline, or divide a story into parts, for instance. In assessing the learners' skill to summarise, they may be required to condense what they were reading, using direct or paraphrased statements from the extract. Synthesising involves learners being asked to consolidate ideas or information from more than one source. The intention of the taxonomy at this level is to assess the ability of learners to consolidate information coming from different sources into one correct answer. It follows, therefore, that questions that learners have to respond to have graduated a little (Department of Basic Education, 2012). The next cognitive level of difficulty is inferential comprehension.

Inferential Comprehension:

When learners are able to use ideas and information clearly stated in the selection or extract, are able to use intuition or personal experience as a basis for conjectures and hypotheses, then they have reached the inferential comprehension stage. While inferences drawn by learners may be convergent or divergent, learners may be asked to give reasons for inferring certain conclusions regarding the text or extract being dealt with. At this difficulty level educators may demand thinking and imagination that go well

beyond the printed page. Prior knowledge constitutes an integral part of inference, irrespective of where or what the source thereof is. Responses required of learners are not explicitly stated but have to be inferred or deduced from stated information. Items of assessment could include inferring sequences, inferring comparisons, inferring cause and effect relationships, inferring character traits, interpreting figurative language, and predicting outcomes. All questions asked in this category are regarded as middle order questions (Department of Basic Education, 2012). The next, penultimate difficulty level is evaluation.

Evaluation:

At this level, responses elicited from learners must indicate that they have made an evaluative judgement through comparing ideas presented with external criteria, that is, those criteria that are not from the selection or extract. These may be from the educator, the internal criteria provided by the reader's experiences, knowledge or values. Qualities that need to be focused on hinge on those of acceptability, accuracy, desirability, worth, or probability of occurrence, while judgements made may be those of reality or fantasy, fact or opinion, adequacy and validity, and appropriateness. Determining whether a certain character was right or wrong, judging whether something is appropriate for milieu and evaluating an author's standpoint are just a case in point at this cognitive level of difficulty. Questions set in this category require of learners to analyse and evaluate a piece of writing on the basis of the knowledge they have on the subject as well as to analyse and evaluate the author's intent for making a certain value judgement or judgements in his writing. This level constitutes part of high order questioning of learners. The last category is appreciation.

Appreciation:

This level deals with the psychological and aesthetic impact of the extract or selection on the reader, who is necessarily the learner. Appreciation involves learners emotionally and artistically. This necessarily involves both the knowledge of literary techniques as well as the emotional response thereto. Questions asked at this level are pitched such that educators or assessors may elicit emotional response to the content being reviewed (such as in instances where learners have to verbalise their feelings, boredom, interest, fear, hate and amusement), identification with characters or incidents (where learners may demonstrate sensitivity to, sympathy for, and empathy with characters, occurrences and ideas portrayed by the author), reactions to the author's use of language (as in appreciating the author's skill and craftsmanship in selecting and using words – denotative and connotative meanings of words) and imagery (mental pictures that the author may create to cause the reader to visualise, smell, taste, fear or feel something). Suffice it to say that emotions are inherent in the cognitive level of appreciation (Department of Basic Education, 2012).

Relevance of Barrett's Taxonomy to this study

As Barrett's Taxonomy is used by the DBE in certain sections of language assessment, the researcher finds the taxonomy relevant to this study; it streamlines cognitive levels of difficulty in questions that are scaffolded to differentiate between low, mediocre and high achievers within the same measurement instrument (test/task/assignment). Thus the DBE has an assessment policy that percentiles the content-cognitive distribution which SMTs must be familiar with, so as to meet the demands of curriculum assessment training when they orientate their supervisees.

The foregoing information has to be learnt by aspiring and incumbent SMTs if they are to ensure that learners are appropriately assessed by their educators in order to make the necessary grade in terms of the DBE's policy with regard to assessment. This is a skill in which SMTs should be trained in, and in turn train their supervisees in, in order to ensure compliance with policy. It is worthy of noting that the levels of literal comprehension and reorganisation are regarded as referring to questions that are pitched at a low level, inferential comprehension refers to questions that are pitched at a middle level, while evaluation and appreciation are regarded as referring to those questions that will tell high achieving learners apart from mediocre ones. This is roughly comparable to the thinking behind Bloom's Taxonomy. Further reference will be made to Barrett's Taxonomy in the literature review section that will be dealing with curriculum assessment training in this study.

This takes us to unpacking the discourse relating to Moseley's Taxonomy, or the SOLO Taxonomy.

2.2.5 Moseley's Taxonomy (The SOLO Taxonomy)

Data Fiend (2013:2) regards Moseley as one of a number of proponents of the Structure of the Observed Learning Outcomes (SOLO) Taxonomy. The SOLO Taxonomy maps the complexity of a learner's work by linking it to one of the following phases: little or no understanding (Prestructural), then move to a simple and gradually to a more developed grasp of the topic (Unistructural and Multistructural), to the ability to link the ideas and elements of a task together (Relational); and finally to understand the topic on their own

(Extended Abstract) and going beyond the initial scope of the task (Biggs and Collis, 1982). In their later publication, Biggs and Collis (1991:64) referred to the SOLO Taxonomy as a multimodal learning that afforded learners an increase in the structural complexity of their responses to a task.

Data Fiend, an internet document that has been very useful in providing this information (2013:1, citing Smith and Colby, 2007; Black and William, 2009), regards the SOLO Taxonomy as an integrated strategy to be used in lesson design, task guidance and formative and summative assessment. Furthermore, the taxonomy uses constructive alignment in encouraging both educators and learners to be more explicit when creating learning objectives that focus on what the learner should be able to do and the level at which they can do it (Data Fiend 2013:2, citing Biggs and Tang, 2009) (compare this with *Bismarck here, Bismarck there and Bismarck everywhere*, which will be alluded to under curriculum assessment training), where learners cannot explicitly scaffold as to what they should specifically say about Bismarck). To illustrate the foregoing point, Clauser *et al.* (in Brennan, 2006:708) posit that while essay questions are easier to develop than contextual items, questions should be very clear so as to ensure that learners answer the question that is intended.

The SOLO Taxonomy can therefore be used to scaffold an in-depth discussion, which will encourage learners to 'develop interpretations, use research and critical thinking effectively to develop their own answers, and write essays that engage with the critical conversation of the field' (Linkon, 2005:247, cited in Allen, 2011). Moseley *et al.* (2005:306) advocate the use of the SOLO Taxonomy as a framework for developing the quality of assessment that is easily communicable to learners. Hattie (2012:54) adds

that this taxonomy outlines three levels of understanding, namely, surface, deep and conceptual. This allows for 'a development of breadth of knowledge as well as depth' (Data Fiend, 2013:3, citing Campbell *et al.*, 1992). Quoting Nuckles *et al.* (2009:262), Data Fiend (2013:2) posits as follows:

Cognitive strategies such as organisation and elaboration are at the heart of meaningful learning because they enable the learner to organize learning into a coherent structure and integrate new information with existing knowledge, thereby enabling deep understanding and long-term retention.

Relevance of Moseley's Taxonomy (the SOLO Taxonomy) to this study

This taxonomy is relevant to this study because it is the one taxonomy that talks explicitly about writing clearly organised, coherent essays. In some subjects higher order thinking skills are assessed through the writing of well-thought out, well-structured pieces of writing wherein learners scaffold their responses that develop from the 'surface, deep and conceptual', thus allowing for 'a development of breadth of knowledge as well as depth' (Data Fiend, 2013:3, citing Campbell *et al.*, 1992). Educators and their supervisors (SMTs) who teach subjects such as History and Economics, where not only contextual items but also essay questions are included, can find useful guidance from this taxonomy in conjunction with Bloom's taxonomy.

Having discussed the theories and educational taxonomies that this study subscribes to, what now follows hereunder is an exposition of the literature framework of the same study.

2.3 LITERATURE REVIEW

White (2002:26) posits that a literature study or review is not just an annotated bibliography or a list of sources. It is, in fact, a contributor to shape the researcher's frame of reference. If a literature study is done thoroughly it demonstrates that the researcher is duly knowledgeable about related research as well as the intellectual traditions surrounding the study being undertaken. Quoting De Vos (2000:65), White (2002:26-27) further expatiates on the merits of the literature review as follows:

- The literature review may disclose that another researcher has already done essentially the same research, in which case the new researcher has to look for another topic and start afresh, or replicate the study by applying it in a new setting;
- It gives a substantially better insight into the dimensions and complexity of the problem. As research is a source for building a knowledge base, learning about previous thinking on the topic is an essential step;
- A literature review empowers the researcher with a complete and thorough justification for the subsequent steps he undertakes, as well as provides a realisation of the importance of undertaking the study itself.

Connor and Hearn (in McMillan and Schumacher, 2014:85) posit that a literature review is essential throughout the research process. These two scholars advance two reasons to justify their convictions, namely:

- That the review establishes important links between existing knowledge and the research problem being investigated, which enhances significance; and
- That the review provides very helpful information about methodology that can be incorporated into a new study.

All in all, Connor and Hearn are of the conviction that almost every question regarding doing new research can be answered by knowing what others have done and reported

on. They conclude that the purpose of the literature review is to relate previous research and theory to the problem being investigated (Connor and Hearn in McMillan & Schumacher, 2014:85).

Furthermore, McMillan and Schumacher (2014:85-87), citing McMillan (2008), list six more specific purposes for doing a literature review:

- **Refining the research problem**

- The literature review becomes a starting point so that more specific research questions are eventually formulated. The previous literature helps in narrowing down the topic to these specific questions. This is even truer in the case of quantitative research. Variables become clarified on the basis of how other researchers have operationalised them previously (McMillan and Schumacher, 2014:85). This then seeks to clarify why it also became necessary for the present researcher to do a literature study.

- **Establishing a conceptual and theoretical framework**

- Placing one's research into a conceptual framework or theoretical orientation provides a rationale for research questions. It is this framework that justifies the selection of subjects, variables and the research design. This framework also becomes essential in applied quantitative studies, especially when dealing with studies that have been engaged in extensively. Lastly, the conceptual framework helps to describe the scholarly perspective in which the research problem is embedded (McMillan and Schumacher, 2014:86).

- **Developing significance**

- Basing the study on what has been reported makes a stronger case for its significance. It then becomes best to indicate how the results will expand, or how will they be significant in building or adding to what has already been researched. Furthermore, findings from the previous research can be used to interpret the results, thus making conclusions and

recommendations of a study more meaningful (McMillan and Schumacher, 2014:86).

- **Identifying methodological limitations**

- One of the best ways of justifying the significance of a study is to focus on the methodological limitations of previous research. The foregoing involves an analysis of the literature, which goes beyond simply reporting on what others discovered whilst researching a phenomenon. The said analysis will, in effect, help researchers to identify methods related to sampling, measurement procedures and interventions that are useful in designing their studies, as well as avoid pitfalls and mistakes of past researches. Methodological limitations constitute the basis and rationale for conducting replications in research (McMillan and Schumacher, 2014:86).

- **Identifying contradictory findings**

- The review of literature may uncover contradictions in findings of various researches. This is common and acceptable in the enterprise of research in that it becomes an excellent justification for designing new research that would alter methodologies with a view to dealing with, and resolving, the contradictory results. The change in methodologies will necessarily have a bearing on variables used, selection of subjects and measure (McMillan and Schumacher, 2014:86-87).

- **Developing research hypotheses**

- Not only specific research questions, as mentioned earlier, but also good research hypotheses – especially those used in quantitative research – are based on what has been suggested in previous research. Similar research may presuppose that certain results are likely, in which case hypotheses would be consistent with those findings. In cases where there are few previous empirical studies on a specific topic, existing theories

should be used to justify hypotheses – hence the need for the use of both a literature review and specific theories to respectively provide literary and theoretical frameworks for studies being undertaken (McMillan and Schumacher, 2014:87).

In the light of the foregoing, compelling, scholarly exposition regarding the merits of a literature review, the researcher of this study, likewise, deemed it fitting to engage in a literature review. Thus the literature that will heretofore be reviewed will entail a discussion of the roles expected of the SMT with specific reference to the policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision.

2.3.1 Induction

2.3.1.1 What is Induction?

The National Department of Education (NDOE) (2000:30) defines induction simply as the process of introducing new staff members into a school, and further states that a good school should have a carefully planned induction programme which is run at the beginning of each academic year.

The formal part of the induction process should be similar for all new incumbents at the beginning of each year; the formal induction part should actually be very intensive for the first week while it actually has to stretch over not only the first term but indeed over the whole of the first year (NDOE, 2000:30). The informal part of the induction process is better realised in social occasions at which new incumbents meet the existing staff at the school as well as other newcomers – regardless of positions they will be holding (NDOE, 2000:30).

Heystek (2002:125), citing Castetter (1986), defines induction as a systematic organisational effort to assist personnel to adjust readily and effectively to new assignments, so that they will be able to contribute maximally to the work of the system while not forgetting to realize personal and position satisfaction. He further indicates that a school may recruit personnel, select them, place them, replace them and transfer them, but of cardinal importance is for personnel to adapt fully to the job they have to perform within a certain environment and to the colleague with whom they have to co-operate (Heystek, 2002:126).

In defining induction, Grobler *et al.* (2006:207) opine that it is precisely the process of introducing new employees to the goals of the organisation, its policies and procedures, its values and the co-workers, as well as the activities related to the tasks to be performed and the equipment to be used. These scholars further note that as the pool of potential employees in South Africa is increasingly becoming more diverse with regard to age, language and cultural background, it is mandatory that proper attention be paid to induction.

The above definition actually encompasses a whole lot of activities associated with induction which we seldom see in South African schools if at all it is ever practised. It is also very true that in South Africa, especially in the education field, there is an influx of potential educator employees. These will need to be properly inducted on being employed. Again, being a newcomer in an organisation cannot be confined only to educators who come to teach for the first time, but must also refer to seasoned educators who join a school either on transfer or promotion. This, in effect, means that even educators who join the SMT must undergo induction regarding how the new

school operates. This will in turn enhance their supervision activities to those junior to them in rank. The researcher believes that being inducted will also prepare the SMT members for mentoring those in their department with astute capability. Compare this with what English (2006:661) says regarding productive synergy under mentorship.

Bush and Middleton (2006:142-143) define induction by categorising it into three elements, namely socialisation, achieving competent performance and understanding organisational culture.

Under induction as socialisation they state as follows:

- Accepting the reality of the organisation; this means knowing the do's and don'ts regarding individual behaviour in an organisation;
- Dealing with resistance to change;
- Learning how to work realistically in a new job, in terms of having to cope with too much or too little organisation and too much or too little job definition;
- Dealing with the boss and understanding the reward system, which encompass knowing the amount of autonomy given and what the organisation defines as high performance; and
- Locating one's place in the organisation and developing an identity, which is, understanding how an individual fits into the organisation. (Bush and Middleton, 2006:142).

In defining induction as achieving competent performance, Bush and Middleton (2006:143) are indebted to Kakabadse *et al.* (1987) for the following sub-elements:

- Getting used to the place, that is, overcoming the initial shock and immobilisation of the new organisation and job demands;
- Relearning, which presupposes recognizing that new skills have to be learned, or, how learned skills have to be reapplied;

- Becoming effective, which means consolidating one's position in the organisation by applying new behaviours and skills, or integrating newly formed attitudes with ones held from the past.

Lastly, in defining induction as understanding organisational culture, Bush and Middleton (2006:143) posit that this is the transfer of loyalties to the new organisation and they further stress that until this happens, the new incumbent will never become committed to the success of the new place of employment and this may hamper optimum level of performance.

Guthrie (2003:1619) claims that induction programmes 'are blossoming throughout the country as one strategy' of helping teachers to transit from being student teachers to being professional teachers. Put in context, this means that induction is a process that involves operationalising programmes that are geared towards welcoming novice teachers into the teaching profession. This opinion transcends the mere definition of induction in that it also presupposes the rationale thereof. Having discussed what induction is, what follows below is a discussion of the course of induction.

2.3.1.2 The Course of Induction

Heystek (2002:126) is indebted to Rebore (1991) in suggesting that the induction process must have specific goals, which are to:

- make the educator feel secure and welcome;
- help the educator to become part of the team, which is the staff group;
- inspire the new educators towards excellence in performance;
- help the educator to adjust to the work environment;
- provide information about the community, school system, school building and learners; and

- help the educator to become acquainted with the colleagues.

Naidu *et al.* (2008:97) suggest that while various teams may be involved in the process of induction, it is expedient that a head of department or a more senior employee at school should be at the helm of the process by being its organiser. This in effect seeks to say that SMT members should be in charge of the induction programme and process. Peers could be appointed to provide collegial support at the tutelage of the SMT (Naidu *et al.* (2008:97). Furthermore, citing Coleman (2001:157-158), Naidu *et al.* (2008:97) advise that the course of induction should include the following framework for it to be effective:

- Opportunities to meet teaching and support staff in order to understand their roles;
- An introduction to the provision of resources;
- Opportunities for observation and to be observed;
- Knowledge of the locality, including link (feeder) schools;
- Knowledge of the community aspect of the school, including pastoral systems, parents and support services;
- Understanding the core values of the school;
- Becoming familiar with the practical arrangements for pupil learning, such as assessment and record-keeping; and
- Appreciation of the quality of teaching, which includes planning, preparation, classroom management and evaluation.

The NDOE (2000:27) promulgates that it is important to have an induction programme for newcomers at the school. Newcomers include any newly-appointed person who has to learn about the new job, about his new colleagues and about the culture of the school; the Department also goes on to elaborate that a good induction helps the new educator to know exactly what is expected of him.

In corroborating the above view, Education Facilitators (2001:15) suggest four phases of the induction programme as follows:

Phase 1: Before assumption of duty

Education Facilitators (2001:15) are indebted to Mentz and Van der Westhuizen (1992) for providing Hunt's induction programme, in which he believes that the mentor has an important role in the school's induction programme during this phase, namely:

- That the novice can be introduced to new colleagues;
- A tour of the school can be undertaken;
- The novice's duties can be explained;
- The school policy and other information can be provided; and
- Background information about the community can be provided (Education Facilitators, 2001:15).

Phase 2: Initial orientation

This phase is quite relevant during the first few days of the new school year. This phase necessarily deals with aspects such as the timetable, register, stock control, classroom preparation and the opening of the school (Education Facilitators, 2001:15-16).

Phase 3: The first term

This induction phase preoccupies itself with subject content. Thus the mentor has to orientate the novice in the following aspects: classroom management, subject didactics, grouping learners, dealing with individual learners, evaluation (assessment), homework, discipline, school and subject policy and auxiliary services (Education Facilitators, 2001:16).

Phase 4: The first six months

When the novice is familiar with all the aspects mentioned in phase 3, the following can be emphasised: team teaching, improving classroom participation by learners, discussing teaching methods and analysis of the novice's teaching skills with a view to assisting with his improvement and development (Education Facilitators, 2001:16). The idea of the induction programme being divided into phases is further shared by Heystek (2002:129) who points out that these phases should cover at least the entire year, the initial stage of which may be an official programme started by the Department of Education for a group of educators in a school district, or for new principals in a province.

It is important to note that the above job can best be done by the SMT, especially those SMT members who are not new in the organisation – as new ones will also need to undergo proper induction before they engage in inducting educators who are junior in rank to them.

The NDOE (2000:30) further promulgates that the school principal has to delegate a senior member of staff the task of being induction organiser. The appointee has to be a member of the SMT and should arrange special induction activities at the beginning of the year. The organiser should also not miss the point of meeting all new members of staff on their arrival at the school, after which he has to organise two induction meetings. In the first meeting all the staff members need to be welcomed back while new staff members have to be introduced (NDOE, 2000:31). The second meeting

should ensure that new staff members are introduced to the members of the School Governing Body (SGB), who then need to welcome them to the school.

At a special induction meeting, new staff members have to be given general information about the school. The information provided should be in writing, such as availing and going through the general information file, whose contents would depend on the size of the school. The file could give information regarding, inter alia, the full name of the school, physical and postal address, the physical plan of the school, the school's brief history, the school's mission statement, a copy of the school calendar and contact and extra-mural timetables (NDOE, 2000:32).

What could then follow in the course of induction would be availing job descriptions and positions to all the new teaching staff members. This should entail vital information such as a list of duties performed by different personnel, such as class teachers, stock controller, sports organiser and duties performed by other personnel (NDOE, 2000:33).

Education Facilitators (2001:13) corroborate the foregoing by pointing out that most induction programmes include activities that are designed to do the following:

- Provide assistance with personal problems. New educators will invariably need help with basics such as locating suitable places of abode;
- Provide a familiarisation with personnel, offices and programmes that are offered by the region that they fall under. This also involves becoming familiar with key staff and the local education offices so as to know whom to contact as and when the need arises;
- Provide social activities to make newcomers feel at home. Social activities facilitates that new educators should meet others and thus become an integral part of their school staff and communities more quickly;

- Help new educators to adjust to the teaching profession. Adding to the individualised assistance offered by the supervisory staff, the opportunity to work on selected committees and teaming with a 'buddy' educator, new educators also need to be encouraged to join and work with professional organisations; and
- Provide follow-up activities that determine whether or not the induction programme has achieved its goals. Many schools evaluate their induction programmes by having follow-up activities during which new educators evaluate the programme and make recommendations for the following year (Education Facilitators, 2001:13).

For Heystek (2002:134), citing Bush and Middleton (1997), the course of induction should be triggered off by selecting mentors for each one of the new staff members. Normally, mentors should be senior or more experienced educators whose roles in the induction process will be, but not limited to:

- orientating new members in subject related matters; and
- introducing new members to socialisation and acculturation activities.

The criteria for selecting suitable mentors who will effectively drive the mentor activities during the induction process alluded to above will be dealt with under the correct slot in the mentoring policy that is still to follow in this section of the study. Now that the course of induction has been discussed, what follows hereunder are the results of induction, which should give credence as to why it is necessary to implement the organisation policy of induction.

2.3.1.3 The Results of Induction

The NDOE (2000:30) posits that the induction process should help each newcomer to have a clear understanding about the ethos, values and practices of a school, including how newcomers fit into a school.

Naidu *et al.* (2008:97) are of the view that schools, like all other organisations, should have induction and orientation processes to help reduce the chances of “sinking”. The above presupposes the benefits of induction in that the same scholars add that induction includes:

- Providing information about the job;
- Being introduced to staff and learners; and
- Learning about the systems and culture of the school (in defining induction as *understanding organisational culture*, Bush and Middleton, 2006:143 posit that this is the transfer of loyalties to the new organisation and they further stress that until this happens the new incumbent will never become committed to the success of the new place of employment and this may hamper optimum level of performance).

Grobler *et al.* (2006:209) maintain that an effective induction programme reduces the adjustment problems of new employees by creating a sense of security, confidence and belonging for them. They (Grobler *et al.*, 2006) also outline the following results or benefits of induction:

- Higher job satisfaction;
- Greater commitment to values and goals;
- Higher performance as a result of faster learning times;
- Fewer costly and time-consuming mistakes;
- Reduction in absenteeism;

- Improved manager/subordinate relationships; and
- Better understanding of company policies, goals and procedures.

The benefits mentioned above can be obtained if effective induction programmes are designed and put into operation in schools and other organisations. This in effect suggests that there must be demerits associated with poor or the absence of such programmes. Furthermore, in the same way as Guthrie (2003:1619) opines that some of the educators who leave the teaching profession cite isolation as one of the causes of their departure, Bush and Middleton (2006:141) also posit that albeit it is difficult to ascertain whether there is a causal link between an effective induction process and the consequent ability for an organisation to retain its employees, there is strong evidence to suggest that persons who have been afforded a poor start in a school or college will not stay long.

To the benefits of induction, Bleach (1999:19) adds the following:

- that inductees become able to take responsibility for implementing school policies and practices; and
- that they also become able to take responsibility for their own professional development, setting targets for improvement, and taking action to keep up-to-date with research and developments in pedagogy and in the subjects they teach.

Conversely, while the implementation of an effective induction programme may have benefits as outlined earlier on, there are however factors that can hinder the effectiveness thereof in schools and other institutions. Grobler *et al.* (2006:209-210) advance the following reasons that may account for the absence of effective induction:

- The supervisors responsible for the task either lack the time or ability to fulfil this obligation;
- Organisations regard effective recruitment, selection, training and development as substitutes for induction (This view is corroborated by Bush and Middleton, 2006:143, who claim that no matter how thorough the process of recruitment and selection has been, it is only when actual work begins that the realities of the nature of the work, the responsibilities and the organisation are fully recognised);
- Where induction programmes are introduced, the key components are lacking;
- Induction is aimed at encouraging new employees to adhere to organisational practices and procedures while little attention is paid to instilling loyalty and commitment to the organisation;
- Employees who are transferred or promoted within the organisation are not subjected to induction programmes;
- Induction programmes are not followed up, that is to say that there are no mechanisms to determine the success of such programmes; and
- Induction programmes often concentrate on promoting the image of the organisation.

The researcher is of the opinion that the above discourse actually ordains that the recruitment and selection of relevant educators may not in themselves ensure maximum job performance. Furthermore, the researcher believes that the eloquence often displayed by interviewees before interview panels does not necessarily mean that they will perform their duties par excellence. In line with the literature that has been explored, the researcher also believes that everybody, including the adequately and highly qualified, needs to be subjected to an intensive induction programme if they come to a new place of work or assume higher positions within the same organisation.

The same goes for SMT members who come to assume duties at a new school. We also need not forget that once SMT members have effectively undergone an appropriate induction programme, they will in turn successfully spearhead the induction of new and novice educators under their supervision. This points to a relationship, if correlation, between policy (as in organisation policy) and practice (as in the SMTs' job performance).

Having discussed what induction is, its course and the results thereof, attention will now be given to mentoring.

2.3.2 Mentoring

2.3.2.1 What is Mentoring?

Bleach (1999:7) opines that there are different definitions relating to mentoring and that definitions depend on the different models of mentoring that are used. He further notes that mentoring, in essence:

- exists in an organisational context;
- is an adult relationship;
- invariably involves an element of power dependency;
- is concerned with on the job practice;
- is a means of promoting the new educator's involvement in professional learning; and
- emphasises progression from guided to independent practice.

Naidu *et al.* (2008:97) define mentoring as a general process in which an experienced person assists and guides a less experienced person. These scholars further regard mentoring as a relationship between two persons. Quoting Fourie and Meyer (2004:2), they further posit that this relationship can be effective in the education arena if it is

dynamic and reciprocal, in which case 'a more advanced and wise career incumbent (mentor) helps a less experienced person – who has development potential (mentee) in some specified capacity' (Naidu *et al.*, 2008:97).

Taking the relationship definition of mentoring forward, the following key elements come to the fore:

- The mentoring relationship is dynamic and not static;
- It is reciprocal – the impetus comes from both sides;
- The relationship takes place in the work environment;
- The mentor is a wise career incumbent;
- The mentor helps the mentee to develop; the mentee is less experienced but has the potential to develop; and
- The mentee is developed in some specified capacity (Naidu *et al.*, 2008:98).

The foregoing points to the SMTs at school in that they will have been educators for a number of years before applying to assume supervisory positions in the school and therefore form the core of mentoring personnel to their less experienced colleagues. The researcher's view is that the SMTs should therefore have been suitably and relevantly trained in order for them to effectively guide and supervise others. The merit of this assertion is that the mentees will reap the benefits of being guided by mentors who know the ins and outs of what they are doing.

Corroborating Naidu *et al.* (2008) as mentioned earlier, Education Facilitators (2001:11) quip that mentoring is one approach that seeks to improve the transfer of experience and skills from master and experienced educators to novices. They further suggest that the mentor-beginner educator relationship should focus on the first year of new

employees' work in the organisation, which – in our case – is at a school. Moreover, Education Facilitators continue to refine their definition of mentoring by actually defining the mentor, who, they say, is a person who perceives himself as being co-responsible for the professional development of another person. They are indebted to Jones and Walters (1994) for their definition.

In defining mentoring, English (2006: 660-661) posits that it is a work policy that is often used interchangeably with assisting, guiding, teaching, learning, readiness, compensation, support and socialisation. He further says that mentoring can be divided into traditional and alternative conceptions. On the traditional conception he is of the opinion that mentorship involves training in skills building and knowledge acquisition, both inside and outside education. He calls traditional mentorship a relationship which is guided by experienced persons in schools, universities or other professional domains. These latter mentioned personnel transfer understanding and knowledge to apprentices. This is a unidirectional process wherein the most experienced person teaches while the neophyte or novice learns.

English (2006), however, criticizes the traditional mentorship conception by saying that because of its uni-directionalness it is a transmission model that does not focus on sustaining professional development, lifelong learning or relationship building. It further stifles critical reflection and feedback as authoritative knowledge is mediated, and satisfaction and recognition is derived from the protégé's (mentee) accomplishments (this compares fairly well with the definition sponsored by Naidu *et al.*, 2008:98, regarding mentoring as a relationship – this was cited previously under the definition of mentoring).

Conversely, the same scholar, English, offers alternative mentorship conceptions. Contemporary counterparts to the traditional conception include co-mentoring, which is a proactive force that unites the mentor and mentee (protégé) in a reciprocal, mutual exchange that creates a context for the learning relationship. Co-mentoring, English (2006:661) further claims, is a relational value that seeks to transcend status and power differences, while bringing about a collaboration that fosters equality among individuals of various statuses and ability levels with a view to enhancing productive synergy. The concept of equality mentioned also encompasses bringing women and minorities into the mentorship network (English, 2006:661).

The difference in the foregoing definitions of mentorship seeks to say nowadays mentorship should be bi-directional (as in co-mentoring), instead of being uni-directional (as in the traditional or transmission conception of mentorship). This difference becomes even more important in that neophytes join the teaching fraternity with a new, fresh outlook in the education dialectic, which may be opposed or even more diversified than that of their seniors who may have studied a long time ago and may have therefore forgotten or may not have come across that kind of knowledge during their tenure as students. The researcher's view is, therefore, that a learning relationship between the mentor and mentee may stand both in good stead and may assure a successful productivity rate on the part of the mentor, which, for the purpose of our study, refers to an SMT member.

Carrel *et al.* (1995:413-414) add to the above discourse by defining mentorship as a relationship between a junior and an experienced manager, with the latter's job being to provide and facilitate the former's professional and personal development. These

scholars further posit that mentorships are formed in two ways, namely, formally and informally. Formal mentoring relationships are set up as vehicles for promoting affirmative or orientation efforts, while informal mentoring relationships seem to have always existed, which emphasises that mentorship has, of necessity, to be an on-going process and not a once-off one. They further suggest that both formal and informal mentorship relationships cut across the gender spectrum, as research indicates that there is now little difference in the mentoring relationships between the genders if males and females have the same education (Carrel *et al.*, 1995:414).

The definition offered by Bush and Middleton (2006:158) is that mentoring refers to a process whereby a more experienced person assists someone who is less experienced. They, however, argue that some of their colleagues regard the mentoring interaction between the mentor and mentee as not necessarily that of senior and junior, and to this end these scholars are indebted to Daresh and Playko (1992) in saying that mentorship can be defined in many ways. Thus, quoting the latter, Bush and Middleton (2006) state as follows:

Mentoring is an ongoing process wherein individuals in an organisation provide support and guidance to others so that it is possible for them to become effective contributors to the goals of the organisation. Unlike many other views of mentoring, we do not necessarily believe that a mentor must be an older person who is ready, willing and able to provide all the answers to those who are newcomers (Daresh and Playko, 1992:3, as quoted verbatim by Bush and Middleton, 2006:158).

The foregoing scholars' perception regarding the mentorship that cuts across the gender spectrum is shared by English (2006) as cited previously. This is relevant in the education dialectic in that educators across the gender spectrum do aspire to become SMT members, so that they spearhead the mentoring programmes of both males and females in their schools. The researcher still considers that it is necessary for people who supervise others to be trained to undertake the mentoring duties adequately and with the astute capability required of personnel in management positions.

Guthrie (2003:1618) sees mentoring as an activity where a mentor or veteran teacher is assigned to a new one. He further posits that the mentor's number of years' experience is not necessarily specified, but in the same vein says that he (a mentor) must have a minimum of three years for him to be a mentor. In our South African system this actually refers to the requirements for one to apply as an HOD, which is a position that is at the first rung of the SMT.

Having looked into the different scholarly definitions of mentoring, we need to check if mentoring is indeed necessary for aspiring SMT members. Naidu *et al.* (2008:97) point to the necessity of mentoring by noting that current pre-service training has a limited preparation component for actual in-service practice. They further claim that as the demands of the education profession become more complex, mentorship becomes more necessary in order to provide development support to staff and principals in schools. However, they caution that it is essential that professionals handling mentoring and coaching programmes must be given comprehensive training in those areas (mentoring and coaching). In this study, the professionals alluded to include SMT members. The above is corroborated by Bush and Middleton (2006:163), quoting

Daresh (1995), in saying that mentoring is a critical component of pre-service leadership development programmes for beginning administrators. Administrators are what we refer to as SMT members in this study.

The researcher's take is that the foregoing thought seeks to say that before aspiring SMT members apply for higher positions as senior teachers, HODs, deputy principals and principals, they need to be trained and to receive mentoring, so that as soon as they apply and meet shortlisting and selection criteria they do not rely only on their eloquence in convincing interview panels that they are the best personnel for the advertised positions. This can also ensure that all people who apply for SMT positions become competitive enough to be thought of as best choices when they are ultimately selected.

Bush and Middleton (2006:163) further acknowledge their indebtedness to Daresh (1995) by adding as follows to the necessity of mentoring for school-based education leaders (SMT members):

- The main rationale for mentoring is that the role of a leader is a lonely effort, and that having the ability to relate to peers concerning personal and professional concerns is a way to reduce that sense of isolation;
- Mentoring enhances university-based programmes by linking participants with colleagues in the real world who can provide practical solutions to problems faced in the field (this alludes to bringing theory and practice into conversation);
- Both mentors and mentees (protégés) appear to benefit from mentoring (this view is corroborated by Heystek, 2002:135, who points out that while the new educator or member will learn the tricks of the trade faster in the presence of a mentor, the latter can also develop professionally); and

- That mentors hold the key that mentees (protégés) need to unlock their professional expertise. Through the mentorship process mentees (protégés) are able to reflect and think about why they do what they do and how to go about doing it.

In Singapore the necessity for training prospective principals was introduced as far back as 1984 when the Ministry of Education and the National Institute of Education collaborated to develop the Diploma in Educational Administration which took off with an annual intake of 50 vice-principals from primary and secondary schools. In the programme mentees practised a range of skills negotiated with their mentors for eight weeks (Bush and Middleton, 2006:162-163).

In the present study the researcher does not necessarily posit that there should be a formal course of study to mentor prospective SMT members, but that in implementing mentoring as a policy the SMTs should have undergone some relevant orientation and coaching for them to effectively orientate and coach their supervisees at school.

Having looked into the definitions of mentoring, and into what the necessity thereof is, focus will now shift to what actually happens, or has to happen, in the course of mentoring.

2.3.2.2 The Course of Mentoring

During the course of mentoring, three parties are involved, namely, the manager, employee and the mentor. The mentoring that is engaged in is determined by policy framework. Mentors may be nominated or they may volunteer. Mentoring relationships are formed through matching. Goals, objectives and tasks associated with mentoring are documented (Naidu *et al.* 2008:100).

The above seeks to say that the SMT members have to match mentors and mentees with their expertise in mind. For instance, a Mathematics novice or neophyte educator may be matched with an HOD who has the know-how about Mathematics so as to ensure that the novice will steadily become adept in teaching the subject. This, in effect, becomes fertile ground for a succession plan in that if the veteran transfers to another school on either promotion or for operational reasons, his protégé will have gathered enough knowledge and experience to be at the helm of the Mathematics Department. This will in turn enable him to assist others. The same goes for a situation where the mentor vacates the post through attrition.

The course of mentoring is further alluded to by Education Facilitators (2001:11) when they suggest that a formal mentor programme is a recommended component of a formal induction plan. Citing Jones and Walters (1994:141), Education Facilitators (2001) suggest the following reasons for the necessity of such a programme:

- It builds a strong relationship between the beginner educator and the mentor;
- It gives the beginner educator a knowledge base of essential resources, policies and procedures;
- It helps beginners to understand effective classroom techniques; and
- It makes the new educator aware of expectations (Education Facilitators, 2001:11).

Bleach (1999:8-9) posits that some approaches put more stress on subject mentoring, in which case the effective teaching of a subject takes the centre stage. He further states that help with developing subject teaching skills is an obvious concern of new educators; hence in his definition of mentoring, in the previous section, he alludes to

mentoring as a means of promoting the new educator's involvement in professional learning (Bleach, 1999:7, as cited previously). He then explicitly states that subject mentors in secondary schools are likely to be heads of departments (Bleach, 1999:9), who constitute part of the SMTs. To this end, the course of mentoring involves:

- subject knowledge and application;
- class management;
- assessment and recording of learners' progress; and
- further professional development (Bleach, 1999:12).

Furthermore, citing Jones and Walters (1994:143), Education Facilitators (2001:12) table the following criteria for selecting educator mentors:

- Mentors should be committed to the subject matter;
- They should have expertise in the subject matter;
- Mentors should be able to convey enthusiasm for the subject to learners;
- They should be competent in teaching learners with varying ability levels;
- Mentors should also be selected on the basis of their engagement of appropriate learner evaluation techniques (this compares fairly with what Haertel in Brennan, 2006, says with regard to designing appropriate assessment instruments further down under assessment training; and Bleach, 1999);
- Appropriate mentors should recognise the professional status of their jobs; and
- Appropriate mentors should show respect for their colleagues (compare this with what Naidu *et al.*, 2008, opine with regard to the ethical considerations for curriculum supervisors in monitoring the effective implementation of curriculum at school).

Alluding to the course of the mentorship relationship, Zachary (2000:50-51) posits that mentoring is punctuated by four mandatory phases, namely, the preparing, negotiating,

enabling and coming-to-closure phases. On the preparing phase she says that both the mentor and the mentee have to prepare individually and in partnership for a successful course of mentoring. She further posits that while the negotiating phase may not be confined to making an agreement, the latter is an important integral part of this phase – she actually equates this mentoring phase to a business agreement, where partners begin by developing ground rules. This phase also has to do with creating a shared understanding about assumptions, expectations, goals and needs relevant to the mentoring relationship. Suffice it to say that the negotiating phase is the one during which the mentor and mentee set up a rapport of engagement in their mentorship relationship.

The next phase is the enabling phase, which actually takes longer to complete than the other three phases. This constitutes the implementation stage of the learning relationship because it is during this phase that mentoring partners meet the most, as they engage in the process of maintaining a sufficient level of trust to develop the quality of the mentoring relationship. Furthermore, the enabling phase affords both partners the opportunity to monitor the learning progress with a view to ensuring that the mentee's learning goals are met (Zachary, 2000:52).

The coming-to-closure phase is the last mentoring phase, which involves evaluating, acknowledging and celebrating achievement. Both mentors and mentees stand to reap the benefits of closure if closure is seen as an opportunity to evaluate personal learning (Zachary, 2000:52). This is corroborated by Naidu *et al.* (2008:98) on the benefits of mentoring.

However, Bleach (1999:14) laments that while mentoring is supposed to be an activity wherein mentors supervise the development of mentees (protégés) into reflective practitioners, mentors are invariably faced with how to bridge the perceived gap between 'theory' and 'practice' (this compares fairly with Harley's the Real and the Ideal in the theoretical section of this discourse). The foregoing challenge is sometimes necessitated by the hectic nature of a school day, the pressures of curriculum and examination teaching and lack of ample time to do all these policy-related issues (Bleach, 1999:14). Zachary (2000:59) attests to the foregoing when she mentions time as one of the constantly mentioned causes of the failure of mentoring activities.

Having looked into the course of mentoring, what follows below is a discourse on the results of mentoring.

2.3.2.3 The Results of Mentoring

In outlining the possible merits or benefits of mentoring, Carrel *et al.* (1995:414) conclude as follows:

- The mentor may advance the career of the mentee (protégé) by nomination for promotion or sponsorship of membership;
- The mentor may provide the protégé visibility in the organisation or profession through joint efforts (compare what English, 2006:661, says about co-mentoring as a contemporary conception of mentorship);
- The mentor may protect the protégé from controversial situations and provide coaching by suggesting work strategies;
- The mentor may provide counselling about work and personal problems; and
- There is a better job performance and longer service with the organisation from protégés (mentees) who develop more skills and self-confidence.

Guthrie (2003:1619) adds that since mentoring programmes are a promise of support, they are one benefit that school districts can offer.

Naidu *et al.* (2008:98), citing Fourie and Meyer (2004), tabulate the benefits of mentoring as follows with regard to its role players, namely, mentors, mentees and the organisation:

Mentor benefits

- Opportunity to develop and apply leadership skills (Bush and Middleton, 2006:160, posit that mentoring has the potential to foster leadership development for new heads);
- Self-fulfilment in seeing mentees perform;
- Learn from mentees;
- Improved credibility;
- Building relationships;
- Tangible evidence of performance management;
- Utilise their invaluable experience and expertise, and
- Expand opportunities for dialogue at all levels of the organisation. Naidu *et al.* (2008:98)

Mentee benefits

- Learn from experienced people;
- Acquire skills for career progression;
- Disadvantaged employees are empowered;
- Adapt more quickly in new jobs and roles;
- Develop networks;
- Obtain evidence for recognition of prior learning (compare what the researcher indicated in chapter 1 regarding the rationale for the study, that apposite certificates were made available for all who had successfully

undergone training to assume duties as SMT members provided they had applied and met selection criteria);

- Enhance interpersonal skills; and
- Enhance professional development (Naidu *et al.*, 2008:98).

Organisational benefits of mentoring

- Pool of talent for professional and management jobs is increased;
- Effective transfer of skills;
- Future leaders of the organisation are shaped;
- Supports fast-tracking;
- Achieves employment equity targets;
- Image of the organisation is enhanced;
- More structured personnel development;
- More co-operation between staff and departments;
- Improves management of performance;
- Attains organisational goals, such as cost efficiency;
- Increases the flow of information across organisational lines;
- Encourages and supports cross-functional learning; and
- Assists with succession planning (Naidu *et al.*, 2008:98).

Taking this view further, Naidu *et al.* (2008:99) opine that mentorship can be used to improve practice and performance, transfer organisational processes, share new challenges and ideas as well as to build staff morale and collegiality.

The results and benefits of mentoring also encompass the necessity thereof in that many educators who decide to leave the profession cite the feelings of isolation and lack of support as critical determinants. Teaching is one of the few professions where new graduates are expected to perform as well as seasoned ones (Guthrie, 2003:1619).

The latter scholar further posits that the educational tradition of 'sink or swim' that leaves new educators on their own is no longer a viable option for schools, especially in

the light of the fact that new and old are expected to uplift their production levels (Guthrie, 2003:1619).

However, Zachary (2000:59) laments that lack of time is the most frequently mentioned cause for the failure of mentoring relationships. Zachary (2000) continues to point out that time, therefore, needs to be adequately afforded in the preparation stage, honoured and monitored during the enabling stage, adhered to in the near-closure stage (this compares fairly with Bleach, 1999:14, cited earlier, in corroboration). The foregoing points to the fact that SMTs need to plan before engaging in their mentoring activities, or even before assigning mentors to mentees. This is not strange at all in that planning is the hallmark of all activities in the teaching and learning sphere. It also follows that mentoring needs skilful engagement, in which case SMTs need to have been trained before embarking therein.

Now that mentoring has been discussed, what follows will be a discourse on curriculum assessment training.

2.3.3 Curriculum Assessment Training

The section on curriculum assessment training forms the bulk of this chapter because it is one part of the policies under review (others being induction, mentoring and curriculum supervision) which constitutes the hallmark of the relationship between itself (policy) and SMTs' job performance (practice), in that educator performance in developing compliant assessment and measurement instruments rests thereon. The same goes for learner performance in tests, assignments, tasks and examinations. The assumption is that if the foregoing assessment items are developed such that they are

in sync with policy (subject assessment guidelines and examination guidelines) as embodied in syllabus documents for different subjects, then learner performance may be enhanced. This assumption goes further to point out that, even if educators teach well, if their assessment skills are not in congruence with policy by subjecting learners to assessment products that have no bearing on the end-of-the-year standardized assessment and measurement instruments, the learners will surmise that they were not well taught – which may not necessarily be the case.

To illustrate the above one excellent History teacher once taught a lesson that was based on the statesmanship of Otto von Bismarck, one of Prussia's finest statesmen, in relation to his (Bismarck's) international policy. Albeit the lesson had been taught very well, a problem was noticed when learners wrote a test on the subject. The question that learners were supposed to answer was: *Bismarck here, Bismarck there, and Bismarck everywhere. Discuss [50 marks]*. Performance in that test was extremely bad. The HOD for Humanities thereafter commented that the question that was set for learners was both not clear and unfair in that it did not detail what the learners were actually supposed to write about. The point is that the HOD had not trained the teacher on how to assess properly, nor had the teacher shown the assessment to the HOD before it was written by learners. More examples from different subjects could be advanced but there would be a shortage of space to bring them all to the fore. Suffice it to say that the thrust of this study is that good teacher performance in setting compliant assessment items rests with SMTs who were trained in the assessment policies and who had, in turn, trained their supervisees to follow suit.

2.3.3.1 What is Assessment Training?

Before we embark on explaining what assessment training is, we need to understand the term 'assessment' in the educational context. After curriculum has been delivered to the recipients, the learners, it is important to check to what extent they have accumulated and mastered the knowledge and skills that were imparted or taught. This would not check only the quantity of knowledge that learners have acquired, but in assessment it would also be necessary to tell low, mediocre and high achievers apart. This can best be done through proper assessment.

In expounding the educator's role as assessor, Killen (2000:191) contends that the educator has to understand the crucial role played by learner assessment in the education process and, as such, he has to be able to integrate assessment appropriately in his teaching (Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan, 2006:309). In other words, the educator has to ensure that assessment is wholly part and parcel of the education process, and should not be treated as just an appendage to the process. Hence learners would have been taught before being assessed properly. Proper assessment would involve sticking to the policy requirements for assessing the different subjects taught at school.

ECDOE (Undated:49) states that assessment is planned at different levels: the macro level (school), meso level (phase) and micro level (class). The best way for SMT members to manage assessment at all three levels is to develop an assessment policy, which should consider the following factors, among others:

The assessment policy should be formulated according to the guidelines provided by the Department (that is, DBE):

- the way assessment is planned and implemented;
- how record books are to be kept, their accessibility and security;
- supervision of assessment – how and when supervision will be done;
- the assessment code is determined by national and provincial departments of education;`
- internal verification of assessment;
- how moderation is done at school;
- the frequency and method of reporting;
- the monitoring of all assessment processes; and
- the training of staff in areas of assessment (ECDOE, Undated:49).

Furthermore, the ECDOE (Undated:49) directs that the key principles underpinning assessment should form part of the assessment policy, and those principles should be:

- transparent and clearly focused;
- integrated with teaching and learning;
- based on predetermined criteria and context (compare cognitive levels further down in the discourse);
- varied in terms of method and context; and
- valid, reliable, fair, learner paced and flexible enough to allow for expanded opportunities (this compares fairly with Kane in Brennan, 2006:17 further down in this discourse) (ECDOE, Undated:49).

The foregoing brings us to the concept of assessment training. Some school subjects are failed not necessarily only due to lack of skill by mediators, but also because even good subject mediators may not be good at setting policy compliant assessment tasks and tests. This does not mean that educators are always not adequately trained, as some of those who cannot assess properly were top learners and students of their class

at school and university respectively. This means that while those educators know what to teach they may, however, lack the learner assessing skills when they set tasks and tests. It is the researcher's take that the SMTs are the ones who need to spearhead the training of educators under their supervision to assess learners appropriately by using assessment instruments that are subject-specific compliant to assessment or measurement requirements.

The two ingredients or qualities of assessment that immediately come to the fore are the validity and reliability of measurement or assessment instruments, namely, tasks, tests and assignments, experiments and practicals – all of which are geared towards measuring or assessing learner achievement at school. In expounding more about the concepts of validity and reliability of testing, the researcher relied on the work of earlier scholars. Thus, the input of Michael T. Kane of the National Conference of Bar Examiners (in Brennan, 2006) will be extensively quoted in dealing with the validity of measurement or assessment instruments. The input of other scholars regarding the validity of measurement will also be built into the discourse.

Validity of testing/measurement/assessment

Mulder (1993:215) claims that in general terms validity in a test refers to the degree to which a test succeeds in measuring what it has set out to measure. He goes on to illustrate what he means by an example: an aptitude test for Mathematics must succeed in measuring aptitude for Mathematics; in like manner an intelligence test must succeed in measuring intelligence. This view is corroborated by McMillan and Schumacher

(2014:189) who regard test validity as a judgement of the appropriateness of a measure for specific inferences or decisions that result from scores generated; in other words validity is a 'situation-specific concept' that is assessed depending on the purpose, population and environmental characteristics wherein measurement or assessment occurs.

Kane (in Brennan, 2006:17) states that validity is derived from validation, which seeks to closely check the viability of using certain instruments of measurement in evaluating the rationale or argument for the claims being made. He calls this a form of standardisation "which tends to control irrelevant sources of variability by standardising the tasks to be performed, and the criteria used to interpret the results". This further involves focusing on the kind of evidence needed to evaluate the inferences and assumptions being made (Kane in Brennan, 2006).

Kane (in Brennan, 2006:18-20) further divides validity into the following categories, namely, criterion validity, content validity and construct validity and then explains as follows about each category:

Criterion validity

This validity category or model is used to validate how well a test estimates the criterion, which could invariably be defined in terms of performances of the actual task. In other words, this category defines validity in terms of the correlation between the actual test scores and the true criterion score. The criterion model can further be subdivided into the concurrent and the predictive versions. While concurrent validity studies employ criterion scores that are obtained at the same time as the test scores, and may be used

to validate a proxy measure that could be 'cheaper, easier or safer than the criterion', predictive validity studies employ a criterion of future performance, which was not available at the time of measurement. Mulder (1993:216) adds that in concurrent validity the criterion is immediately available, while in predictive validity the criterion can only be administered at a later stage.

The limitation of the criterion model is the difficulty in obtaining an adequate criterion. Furthermore, it becomes difficult to implement a criterion that is actually better than the measurement or test itself. Once one scholar starts questioning some criterion or other, clearly all criteria become questionable.

Despite the foregoing, the criterion model's usefulness can better be seen in validating secondary measures of an attribute or characteristic, assuming that there may be some way of validating the criterion itself at some point in the measurement procedure. Another advantage of using this model is that in many applications criterion-related evidence is actually relevant to the plausibility of proposed interpretations and uses. Lastly, Kane argues that the criterion model of validity is quite objective to a great extent (Kane in Brennan, 2006:18).

Content validity

The content model of validity gives an interpretation of scores based on a sample of performances in some activity as an estimate of overall performance therein. In other words, we are able to find out how well a person can perform a task by evaluating samples of his performance on the given task. This model can be applied to more broadly defined measures of achievement. In content validity, a content domain is

outlined in the form of a test plan or blueprint which may be divided into different cognitive dimensions which may consist of content *per se* and item types that are created to match assessment specifications. Simply put, Mulder (1993:217) states that content validity refers to how well a test succeeds in covering the field with which it is concerned.

The limitations hereof include the accusation that content-based validity evidence tends to be subjective. To corroborate this, Mulder (1993:217) says this type of validity is not established statistically – it is not objective. This model further creates problems when it is applied to argue for the validity of claims about cognitive processes or even other theoretical extracts. Lastly, Kane (in Brennan, 2006) quotes Cronbach (1971) as follows:

Judgements about content validity should be restricted to the operational, externally observable side of testing. Judgements about the subject's internal processes state hypotheses, and these require empirical construct validation (Kane in Brennan, 2006:19).

Construct validity

The construct validity model works on the assumption that there exists a well-defined theory from which the users thereof can derive empirical predictions. This seeks to say that if the theoretical predictions agree with the observations (the empirical), then confidence in the theory increases; whereas if theoretical predictions do not agree with the observations (the empirical) confidence in the theory decreases. Furthermore, the

construct validity model is an integrated model in that it encompasses both the criterion and content models. Moreover, construct validity takes a test from its starting point and divides it into a substantive component, a structural component and an external component. A substantive component focuses on a theory-based analysis of the content of the test; a structural component focuses on the internal structure of the test in relation to that of the target construct, while an external component focuses on relationships to other test and non-test variables and on the potential sources of error (Kane in Brennan, 2006:20, citing Loevinger, 1957).

Thus using validation methodology became especially useful in designing tests for prospective employees. Potential employers would use the criterion model to validate selection and placement decisions; they would use the content model to validate achievement tests and the construct model would be used for theory-based explanations (Kane in Brennan, 2006:21). In the context of designing assessment and measurement instruments, SMTs must ensure that such instruments are valid in that they measure what educators intend to measure within the scope of the content that has been mediated. To validate tests, tasks and assignments that educators set for learners, SMTs also need to have trained their supervisees in the art of the validity of tests so that learners are not found wanting when responding to assessment and measurement instruments that have been nationally developed, that is, that are not school-based.

Reliability of testing/measurement/assessment

Haertel (in Brennan, 2006:64) contends that the theory of reliability begins with the idea that the observed score of the examinee (the learner or student being examined or tested) on a test is the realisation of a random variable, which may be a draw from some distribution of possible scores that might have been obtained for that particular examinee by using parallel forms of the test, giving the test on different occasions or even having the test paper marked and scored by different raters. He further adds that any of these possible scores would have served the purpose of measurement equally well, although they (the scores) would not necessarily be identical (Haertel in Brennan, 2006).

This is where the concept of reliability of testing comes in, because if the test scores are more or less consistent this will attest to the reliability thereof, while the converse would prove otherwise. This seeks to deepen the researcher's view that SMTs need to engage their supervisees in assessment training. Haertel (in Brennan, 2006:73-74) further points out the following with regard to scaffolding tests and other learner achievement measuring/assessing instruments: that for a test consisting of several separately scorable units, there may be quite a number of different ways to partition the total test into two separately scored parts in order to estimate its reliability.

Haertel further postulates two principles to be followed in determining how a test or task should be divided. Firstly, the two halves should be as near to parallel as possible in content, difficulty and in other respects. This first principle also stipulates that one of the requirements for parallel forms is that tests and/or tasks must share the same test specifications. The reason for this is that the ideal of equal true scores for each

examinee and of equal error variances can be best approximated if two half-tests are as similar as possible in content and difficulty. Again, if the test items are arranged in order of increasing difficulty or into a series of distinct subsections the best ordering choice is that of arranging the items into the even-odd ordering.

The second principle postulates that groups of test items referring to some common stimulus should, as a general rule, be kept together. The argument for doing this is to minimize measurement error. The argument goes further to point out that if items pertaining to a particular set reading passage, for instance, are divided between two parts then the consequent passage-specific effects will contribute to the variances of the part tests, but not to their covariance. In a nutshell, this second principle moves from the premise that even in the same piece of measurement/assessment material the examiner should ensure that related stimulus material should be kept together – including in a case where that assessment is divided into parts (Haertel in Brennan, 2006:73-74).

Haertel (in Brennan, 2006:77), citing Jaratnam, Cronbach and Gleser (1965), further talks about *stratified coefficient alpha*, as one of the processes that can be utilised to design measurement/assessment items that bear specifications to educational achievement tests. These refer to specifications that distinguish several content categories together with distinct processes that tests, assignments and/or tasks are supposed to elicit – like factual recall, problem-solving and the like, for instance. The assumption is that part tests designed to stratified coefficient alpha specification will largely be congeneric. This is because the intercorrelations within content categories become higher than item intercorrelations across different categories. The converse

becomes true of tests that do not follow the above design in that the alpha reliability coefficient will underestimate reliability if true-score variances differ among part tests or if part tests are not congeneric (Haertel in Brennan, 2006:77).

Sharing the same sentiments regarding test validity, McMillan and Schumacher (2014:195) posit that test reliability can be conceptualised as the extent to which measures are free of error. They further say that test reliability is determined empirically through several types of procedures, with each type being related to the control of a particular kind of error and is usually reported in the form of a reliability co-efficient (McMillan and Schumacher, 2014).

What the researcher understands by this is that the foregoing argument should be taken into consideration when educational achievement tests, tasks, assignments and any other measurement instruments are designed. While most educators may be good at mediating content in subjects that they have specialised in, they may be found wanting in designing measurement/assessment instruments that meet policy requirements. Worthy of noting is the fact that policies on assessment change every time that the syllabus is changed, or as and when nuances are added to the syllabus that is in place. This places an extra burden on the shoulders of the SMTs in that they do not only have to ensure that learners have been assessed but they also have to quality assure the measurement/assessment instruments that educators use on learners. The argument here is that they will not fully meet the specifications of this job if they themselves were not in some way trained or socialised in the nitty-gritties thereof. Now that the question as to what curriculum assessment training is has been adequately answered, the course of curriculum assessment training will follow below.

2.3.3.2 The Course of Assessment Training

The course of assessment training should embody a number of considerations which the SMT should bear in mind in training their supervisees to develop policy compliant assessment instruments. Thus a number of considerations will be looked into when designing tests and other assessment instruments. When SMTs assume their supervisory roles at school they should of necessity have been trained in developing assessment instruments, the better to afford them the proficiency of training their supervisees.

The researcher is indebted to Schmeiser and Welch (in Brennan, 2006:307-351) for the following input regarding test/task/assessment instrument development. They postulate the following good considerations or criteria before an assessment instrument is designed: test philosophy, test purpose, intended examinee/learner population and administrative constraints. These scholars further sub-categorise administrative constraints into administrative time, delivery platform, location of administration and administrative model. From other sources, the researcher deemed it necessary to add benchmarking and test/assessment/measurement fairness to the above list. Thus, all the above considerations or criteria for good tests will be discussed hereunder.

Test Philosophy

Before the examiner/test developer takes a decision about designing an assessment/measurement instrument, he has to affirm the philosophy that will serve as the foundation for the test. In this context 'philosophy' refers to a clear linkage between the test purpose and the criterion that defines the domain of the test – that is, 'what will

and will not be measured in the test'. Breaking down test domain further, it refers to the various attributes that are used to define what a test should measure, such as content topics, tasks, cognitive skills and situational context. Failure to locate the test philosophy may result in the examiner/test developer defining the test domain in 'unintended, uncontrolled, and/or ambiguous ways' (Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan, 2006: 308).

Test Purpose

Schmeiser and Welch (in Brennan, 2006:309), citing Bloom, Hastings and Madaus (1971), suggest a three-part categorization scheme of assessment progression that is based on assessing while mediating knowledge and skills, namely: initial evaluation used to diagnose strengths and weaknesses, formative evaluation used to evaluate progress during teaching, which then leads to prescribing the next steps of lesson progression, and summative evaluation which is intended to summarise learner attainment after the completion of a course or a course of study.

Owing to the diversity of purpose regarding educational tests, Schmeiser and Welch further posit that no single categorising scheme is universally accepted. However, all categorisation schemes have certain dimensions in common in that all require the test developer to specify the type of decision to be made and the context for that decision (Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan, 2006:308). The foregoing, therefore, presupposes that it is up to an assessment authority (the DBE, for example) to prescribe its own categorising schemes which may be collapsed into a policy that has to be complied with in order to meet the assessment authority's requirements.

Intended Examinee/Learner Population

Needless to over-emphasise, another important consideration of test design and development is to state for whom the test is meant – this refers to the examinee/learner population. The examinee/learner population considerations include aspects such as age, the level of education (the class or grade that is to be tested), experience in taking tests on paper or computer, test format and test delivery. The foregoing considerations having been looked into, test developers need to design tests that embody:

- sufficient lower-level content in order to diagnose academic weaknesses (for instance, the DBE has set an assessment policy that prescribes content-cognitive level difficulty as a ratio that is 40:40:20 for the comprehension section in both home and first additional language levels – with the ratios denoting *low order*, *middle order* and *high order* respectively, as will be demonstrated under question analysis further down in the curriculum assessment discourse);
- sufficient high-level content for learners who are at a higher level of academic achievement (this compares fairly well with Haertel in Brennan, 2006:73-74, with regard to content and difficulty);
- larger print for younger learners and an easy-to-follow layout on paper or computer; and
- a minor modification –if needs be – for visually challenged learners, which might involve providing the same test in braille or loud dictation (Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan, 2006: 309-310).

The above points are crucial in that educators should pitch assessment or measurement questions at a suitable level for a particular age group, subject group(s) and grade. In other words, it would not be fair to pitch questions at the same cognitive level of difficulty regarding a certain concept for both Grade 6 and 11, for instance, in

those subjects that teach concepts concentrically. For instance, in Geography concepts such as climatology and geomorphology may be in the syllabus for Grades 6 – 12 learners, with their depth being considerate of the age and the grade differences. The depth of assessing or measuring knowledge and application of a particular concept should, therefore, balance with the grade for which assessment is meant.

Especially educators in the Eastern Cape must take cognizance hereof when they set assessment or measurement tasks, assignments and tests, because in the whole country they are the ones who mostly do multi-grade teaching due to an endemic shortage of educators who are provincially assigned to schools as per the educator-learner post provisioning norm that is used. It takes a well-trained cohort of subject specialists at school level (SMTs) to train their supervisees to adhere to correct assessment setting and administering policies so as to ensure that assessment is fair and valid.

Administrative Constraints

As stated earlier, administrative constraints are further subcategorized into administrative time, delivery platform, location of administration and administrative model.

Administrative time

The following administrative realities are tabulated by Schmeiser and Welch (in Brennan, 2006:311).

- Test purpose: Measuring achievement in depth over a broad domain or a large number of standards will require more testing time than a survey measure of the same domain;

- Technical quality of test scores: Ensuring that test scores will meet minimum requirements for reliability and support the inferences to be made from them requires that the test be sufficiently long to obtain a precise estimate of examinee/learner achievement;
- Age of examinees/learners taking the test: Generally, the younger the learner, the shorter the testing session should be;
- Test length: test length is a function of the accuracy needed in the scores and by the domain coverage required to support the intended test-score interpretations;
- Practical characteristics of the testing setting: delivering the test during the school day will require that it be designed around school periods, as compared to administering it in a separate, out-of-school setting;
- Likelihood of fatigue affecting test scores: the amount of likely fatigue depends on how the test is delivered (computer or paper), the item formats administered (longer, more complicated formats induce fatigue more quickly), and the time of day when testing takes place (end-of-day testing induces fatigue more quickly than testing done at the start of day);
- Cost: generally, the longer the test, the more expensive it will be to produce and deliver (delivering the test on computer may reduce testing time but the unit cost for test delivery is likely to be higher);
- Item formats: item formats with shorter stimuli are usually quicker for learners to answer because they require less reading than more complicated or stimuli-rich item formats. On the whole, constructed-response items take longer to administer than selected response items; and
- Domain: larger, more complex domains will require more test items for adequate coverage and take longer to administer, depending on test purpose and delivery platform (Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan, 2006:311).

Delivery platform

Under this subcategory of administrative constraints, Schmeiser and Welch (in Brennan, 2006: 311) posit that the choice as to whether the test should be delivered on paper or on computer depends on the following factors:

- Test purpose: is the technology consistent with the purpose of the test and can it add value to the information obtained?
- Availability of computers: are there sufficient computer workstations and World Wide Web access (if the test is Web-delivered) for the learners who will be taking the test? It should be noted that at the time of writing this thesis there is a dire shortage of computers in most schools in the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa, large parts of which are rural. The Maluti District, from whose schools data for this study was collected, is no exception to the above concern.
- Item formats: can computer technology be leveraged to improve item formats?
- Individual or group administration: does the test need to be administered to all learners at the same time for test security reasons, or can learners take the test consecutively if computer workstations are limited?
- Cost: who is responsible for paying for the test, and what is the range of realistic costs for test?
- Urgency of feedback: since computers can provide immediate feedback, how important is it that the test results be immediately available after testing? (Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan, 2006:311).

Location of administration

Schmeiser and Welch (in Brennan, 2006:311) opine that the choice of whether to administer the test in a school during or outside the school day or in dedicated test centres outside the school will by and large depend on the following factors:

- Test purpose: lower-stakes tests (such as diagnostic tests) are more amenable to in-school administration and may not be administered under

the same level of standardised conditions that are mandated for higher-stakes tests;

- Cost: in-school test administrations supervised by school personnel tend to cost less than dedicated test centres (it should be noted that in the South African context dedicated test centres refer to centres that are registered and approved by the Department of Basic Education and its Provincial Education Departments, and that such centres are given registration certificates and may or may not charge any fees for allowing learners to take tests from thence);
- Availability of test centres: in-school test administrations are usually more convenient than administrations in dedicated test centres, depending on the location, availability and accessibility of dedicated test centres;
- School periods: in-school test administrations need to work around class periods and bell or siren schedules: if the bells or sirens are not synchronized with the test timing, examinees/learners can get confused; and
- Security: independent test centres consist of a broad range of security as dedicated centres designed and built for testing typically reflect state-of-the-art security, whereas classrooms tend to be less secure. (Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan, 2006:311). (May it be noted that this does not necessarily pose much of a concern in the assessment training process that needs to be meted out to aspiring SMTs and SMTs in turn training test administrators at their schools. Albeit so, security concerns can still be taken into consideration when personnel are trained in assessment procedures, as learners or examinees also need to acknowledge the seriousness of assessment and thus prepare for it with the understanding that it may be a make or break process for future career-pathing).

Administrative model

Schmeiser and Welch (in Brennan, 2006:312) state that if tests are standardised, test administrators need to be carefully trained in order that they may take informed cognizance of the following factors:

- They need to have the knowledge of ensuring that conditions are standardised for examinees/learners such that most or all extraneous factors that might negatively affect learner performance are eliminated;
- Tests that are intended to be administered to a group require 'simple and clear instructions and item types that do not require special instructions';
- High-stakes test timing is crucial in that it does not only ensure a standardised test administration, but it also affords examinees/learners ample time to demonstrate their achievement levels; and
- Whether the test is administered to a group or individuals, the test developer must ensure that procedures for administration are carefully explained and that training materials for the administrators are effective in the quest of guaranteeing standardised testing procedures (Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan, 2006:312).

The foregoing, in effect, suggests that the SMTs need to train their supervisees to not only differentiate the purposes for which assessment is done, but also to adhere to the administrative constraints that are peculiar to the kind of testing that is to be meted out. On the other hand, if SMTs are the ones who have to set such standardised tests at school, they will still need to have trained those who will administer such tests to comply with the set requirements. To the researcher, this all stands to reason that test developing requires a skill, and not just that by virtue of one being a qualified educator one can automatically know how to assess learners relevantly, adequately and effectively.

We further need to ask ourselves what it is that SMTs should be trained in, and should also train their supervisees in, in order to set policy-compliant standardised tests. That is why we will look into the following considerations that need to be taken cognizance of during the actual design of tests and other measurement/assessment instruments, namely, content domain, cognitive skills, distribution of content and cognitive skills, and item types. Schmeiser and Welch (in Brennan, 2006:315-318) point out as follows regarding these issues:

Content domain

Test developers need to specify content topics to be included in a test so as to ensure adequate control of all elements of the content domain. Specifying the content should be based on the purpose of the test (this compares fairly with considerations before developing assessment/measuring instruments mentioned earlier in this section). If, for instance, the test specification is 'reading', the assessment instrument should include content items that will measure or assess reading skills. True to form and structure, the test developer must define the content domain such that he understands the structure of the content domain and how topics within the domain relate to one another. The test developer should also understand how learners build their knowledge over time, which in essence means that there should be a hierarchical build of the content being tested (Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan, 2006:315).

To illustrate this point further, Mathematics has a hierarchical order, for instance, with learners usually developing a sense of whole numbers before they deal with rational numbers. In a language, for instance, learners may broaden their vocabulary, use complex sentence structures and learn to convey their thoughts in more analytical

frameworks over time. This seeks to explain that test developers need to understand how content domains are structured and then take those structures into account when specifying the content domain (Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan, 2006:315).

In a nutshell, the content domain in a test or any assessment instrument should scaffold learners from the very simple to the moderate to the more complex in that hierarchical order, rather than bombard examinees/learners with the complex and the compound even before asking the simplest of questions first. This takes us now to looking into the cognitive skills below.

Cognitive skills

Equally important is for test developers to specify the cognitive skills, which are the critical thinking skills that learners have been taught to use within the context of the content domain. This alludes to educational taxonomies, some of which will be looked into later in this section of the discourse. Taxonomies, by and large, ordain that when designing assessment specifications, test developers have to identify skills that are pertinent to the content domain and the proportion of items measuring each skill within each major content topic area (Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan, 2006:316).

In assembling tests, the process of selecting and organising a particular set of items that will constitute a given form of a test has to be included. It also has to be borne in mind that test form assembly requires expert-level knowledge which includes an understanding of the relationships between the characteristics of the items in a test as well as the test measurement properties. Even though test assembly is guided by test specification, it however requires a test developer who understands the relevant

measurement (and assessment) principles (Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan, 2006:331). To this end the Department of Basic Education (DBE) is confident that nationally set examinations cover the full range of cognitive levels (DBE, 2016:6).

The foregoing strengthens the researcher's conviction that SMTs need to be expert test developers for them to train their supervisees in the appropriate testing and assessment strategies as embodied in examination guidelines and policy documents. It can also not be overemphasised that assessment/measurement is a skill in its own right that does not only depend on the educator's knowledge of the discipline which he teaches, but largely on being trained to develop tests that are compliant with syllabus and examination guidelines requirements. Now that cognitive skills have been discussed, attention turns to the distribution of content and cognitive skills.

Distribution of content and cognitive skills

Schmeiser and Welch (in Brennan, 2006:316) posit that after the content domain and the cognitive skills pertaining to an assessment or measurement instrument have been specified in line with the purpose of the assessment, each content topic as well as cognitive skill needs to have a weight assigned to it in the test specifications that represent the relative emphasis to be placed on the topic or skill in a test or item pool. They further opine that judgements about the emphases to be assigned to content topics and skills can be based on the survey data that pertains to what is actually being taught. On the other hand, emphasis can be assigned based on the definition of what should be taught as defined by state standards or curriculum frameworks.

This discourse goes on to warn that, if the distributions of content and cognitive skills are not specified, test and assessment formats will vary widely in their composition and that the test scores resulting from multiple test forms will not have comparable meaning. Furthermore, if the content and cognitive skills distribution is neither specified nor weighted, assessment developers may come up with tests that are not correctly streamlined, where the assessment might be testing only rote memorisation of information without the desired, apposite application of knowledge (Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan, 2006:316).

The table that follows hereunder (Table 2.3.1) serves to illustrate the weighting for content and cognitive levels. Albeit it is based on Psychology it has been used as a reference point when some sample question papers will be analysed to check their compliance with assessment policies laid down by the Department of Basic Education.

Table 2.3.1: Content – cognitive balance

Content Weight			Cognitive Level Weight	
			Comprehension	Application
1.	Foundations of Counselling			
	A. Models of counselling	1%	1%	0%
	B. Purpose and objectives of counselling	2%	1%	1%
	C. Ethical and legal considerations	2%	1%	1%
	D. The counselling team	1%	1%	0%
Category Total		6%	4%	2%
2.	Individual Counselling			
	A. Goals of counselling	2%	1%	1%
	B. Theories of counselling	5%	2%	3%
	1. Psychoanalytic	(1%)	(1%)	(0%)
	2. Trait and factor	(1%)	(0%)	(1%)

	3. Client centred	(1%)	(1%)	(0%)
	4. Gestalt	(1%)	(0%)	(1%)
	5. Behavioural	(1%)	(0%)	(1%)
	C. Counselling skills	7%	1%	6%
	D. Process of counselling	6%	1%	5%
Category Total		20%	5%	15%
3.	Group Counselling			
	A. Functions of a group leader	8%	3%	5%
	1. Organising the group	(2%)	(1%)	(1%)
	2. Facilitating the group	(2%)	(1%)	(1%)
	3. Guidelines for group interaction	(2%)	(1%)	(1%)
	4. Mobilising group process	(2%)	(0%)	(2%)
	B. Advantages and limitations	2%	2%	(0%)
Category Total		10%	5%	5%
4.	Career Development			
	A. Career development theories	6%	3%	3%
	1. Trait and factor	(1%)	(1%)	(0%)
	2. Roe's theory	(1%)	(1%)	(0%)
	3. Holland's theory	(1%)	(1%)	(0%)
	4. Ginzberg's theory	(1%)	(0%)	(1%)
	5. Super's theory	(1%)	(0%)	(1%)
	6. Decision theory	(1%)	(0%)	(1%)
	B. Career counselling information	14%	10%	4%
	1. Delivery systems	(3%)	(3%)	(0%)
	2. Types of information	(3%)	(3%)	(0%)
	3. Sources of information	(4%)	(3%)	(1%)
	4. Evaluating and selecting Information	(4%)	(1%)	(3%)
Category Total		20%	13%	7%
		...	...	...
Test Total		100%	42%	58%

Adapted from Schmeiser and Welch (in Brennan, 2006:317)

Providing both content and cognitive level percentages is very important when developing assessment and measurement instruments because whoever moderates

the instrument (an SMT member) will be in a position to check if the test items are fairly spread over a stipulated chunk of content to be covered at the time of a particular assessment period. This will ensure that assessment and measurement do not stifle syllabus coverage. On the other hand, a template of this nature prevents the test developer from concentrating assessment on the section of the syllabus that he likes the most at the expense of sections that he likes the least. The researcher is of the opinion that if the latter can be allowed, learners may find it difficult to answer externally developed assessment items as they will have been spread across all the work that learners are supposed to have covered at the end of a particular academic year. At this point item types have to be looked into, and this happens below.

Item types

Following the specification of test content and cognitive skills, Schmeiser and Welch (in Brennan, 2006:318) advise that test developers should now do the following:

- Test developers should identify the type of items to be developed;
- They should necessarily define the item features that are required by the content and skills specifications as well as specify the item types that possess those features; and
- They then need to comparatively evaluate each item type in order to identify those that might be preferred for reasons of coverage, economy, precision, response time, development and scoring costs, delivery constraints or feasibility.

It is the researcher's take that the foregoing is done in order to identify item types that will meet the content and skill specifications and that are administrable through the test delivery platform as well. Thus, more than one item type might be necessary if the content and skill specifications are multifaceted. In a nutshell, the test developer needs

to provide item types that are most consistent with, and are likely to provide, the best measures of content and cognitive skills specifications.

Finally, test developers should bear in mind that item formats have direct implications for the skills that can be measured, coupled with the fact that such formats, including the stimulus materials attached thereto, will necessarily be affected by the delivery platform. In other words, if a test is to be delivered on a computer the developer has to ensure that factors such as the screen resolution, navigational interface and the screen layout will work well with test formats. On the other hand, formats that may work better on paper should not be superimposed on computer, since this may compromise both delivery and the purpose of assessment (Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan, 2006:318).

The researcher thinks that the foregoing needs to be seriously considered during the training of SMTs to conduct assessment in such a way as to comply with state standards and curriculum frameworks. If educators simply apply for SMT positions when they were not trained in assessment requirements they may seriously compromise the delivery of assessment in that they will be shoddy in moderating assessment instruments developed by supervisee educators. Moreover, they will not be able to give remarks and advice that would go a long way towards developing educators under their supervision to improve such assessment instruments such that they would then be delivered in their compliant forms.

The researcher's take is that further implications of the above are that even learners would not be relevantly assessed well enough to afford them more opportunities in writing tests that are developed by the state, nationally, such as final grade

examinations, that is, Grade 12 examinations in South Africa – if assessment and/or measurement instruments are not delivered in their policy compliant forms. Again, for learner promotion and progression to the next grade, appropriate assessment or measurement cannot be over-emphasised, as the appropriateness of promotion assessment instruments will necessarily go a long way towards preparing learners who are promoted to the next grade for more challenging work that is commensurate with a higher grade. Benchmarking of assessment is as important as the foregoing discussion on the considerations of developing tests and other measurement and/or assessment instruments, and will receive some attention below.

2.3.3.3 Benchmarking

In trying to fully understand whether or not the units (the different schools under the Department of Basic Education) of an organisation set assessment and measurement instruments in sync with organisational policy, test developers need to do benchmarking. According to the National Treasury Performance Indicator Handbook (NTPIH) (2011:40), benchmarking involves measuring the organisation in terms of the best practice within the industry. This becomes important in assessing if the organisation's performance is on par with what is expected in the sector or area of operation. Benchmarking, therefore, identifies a realistic sense of the capability of the organisation.

The NTPIH (2011:40) continues to highlight that organisations can also choose to benchmark their performance informally by selecting areas of comparison with other organisations, or between units internally – especially those aspects that are relevant to

the activities and performance of the organisation. In this study it is especially the *internal* benchmarking that seems relevant in assessing whether the organisation (Department of Basic Education) and its units (provinces, districts and schools) are in sync regarding outputs in the form of assessment instruments developed nationally, provincially and at district and/or school levels.

Of course the assumption is that they are not all in sync, that is, there lacks a 'fit' between organisational policy and practice (this compares fairly with Harley's the Real and the Ideal discussed earlier on in this chapter) with regard to developing assessment and measurement instruments. The suspicion is strengthened by the fact that the researcher has noted that there is normally a huge disparity among the nine provinces in South Africa regarding the performance of Grade 12 learners, who would have been subjected to common, countrywide assessment and measurement.

In other words, if there was no big margin of difference among them the assumption would be that all provinces, districts and schools do adhere fully to the curriculum assessment policy of the DBE, which would then be informing a uniform mechanism for training SMTs. Since the latter are the drivers of the curriculum supervision and assessment policies at school level, whatever training they would have received would cascade down to educators – the immediate supervisees of the SMTs. As measurement fairness is also crucial, it will receive some attention below.

2.3.3.4 Test/Assessment/Measurement Fairness

The researcher's opinion is that akin to benchmarking is the criterion of fairness regarding measurement instruments. Camilli (in Brennan, 2006:221) opines that while there are many aspects of fair assessment, the general agreement is that tests should

be developed with the view of being reasonable and equitable for all learners in mind. Quoting Holland and Thayer (1988:130) verbatim, Camilli (in Brennan, 2006:221) argues as follows:

The performance of two groups may be compared in terms of a test item, a total test score, or a prediction regarding success on a criterion. The focal group (or group F), which is sometimes called the protected group, is of primary interest. This group is to be compared to a second group, labelled the reference or base group (or group R). The previous terminology of minority and majority groups is no longer used.

The above definition attests to an assessment balance regarding the different abilities of learners writing a test or a task. The researcher is reminded that in the past South Africa used a syllabus that was coded as NATED 550. According to it, telling learners of different abilities apart (that is, low, mediocre and high achievers) was done by means of allowing learners to choose between doing subjects at a Standard Grade and a Higher Grade. Student entry at university level was always streamlined for learners in that there would, for instance, be a requirement for them (students) to have passed a subject at either 50% (symbol D) on Higher Grade or 60% (symbol C) on Standard Grade. With the advent of the outcomes-based education, the NCS and now CAPS, all learners have to sit for the same examinations.

Thus, each examination instrument should cater for all learners by having certain percentages of content-cognitive balance in order to cater for different groups in terms of their cognitive abilities – that is, lower order, middle order and high order streamlining. This, in effect, means that any test that does not maintain this balance according to assessment stipulations per subject in the CAPS documents becomes

unfair, as it will tend to be only low, or only medium or only high order without any regard for the different cognitive abilities in the same class. The SMT members should, therefore, be knowledgeable about this so as to effectively guide their supervisees to scaffold assessment for learners appropriately.

At this juncture, the content – cognitive level balance that was mentioned earlier on (cf. Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan, 2006:317) - will be put to test by analysing extracts from some of the national, provincial, district and/or school level assessment and measurement instruments in some subjects. A close scrutiny will be done considering both the content-cognitive balance as specified in both the CAPS documents and the examination guidelines of the different subjects that will be sampled. Hereunder will follow such analyses:

Assessment Analysis of some Assessment Instruments as extracted from some subjects at the National, Provincial, District and/or School levels.

The Department of Basic Education has adopted and adapted Barrett's Taxonomy as one of its assessment theories in developing tests and tasks for measurement purposes (Barrett's Taxonomy was discussed in the section on the theoretical framework earlier on in this chapter). Assessment sub-theories attached thereto must be understood and implemented by educators as means of continuously assessing learners so that they will be better equipped and prepared for externally or nationally set measurements such as Annual National Assessment (ANA) tasks, common assessment tasks (CATs) and Grade 12 final examinations. Hereunder follows an adaptation of Barrett's Taxonomy by the DBE for Home and First Additional Languages.

Cognitive levels for assessment: DBE. 2011. National Curriculum Statement (NCS): Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement – Further Education and Training Phase (Grades 10 – 12) First Additional Languages, p. 79. This does not change with regard to the Home Language. Thus, to avoid having to translate extracts from various language examinations, the researcher will use the English First Additional Language assessment as a case in point regarding all languages. The table hereunder (Table 2.4.1) has been adapted from the same document alluded to earlier:

Table 2.3.3.4.1: Barrett's Taxonomy

Cognitive levels	Activity	Percentage of task
Literal (level 1)	Questions that deal with information explicitly stated in the text. ▪ Name the things/people/places/elements ... ▪ State the facts/reasons/points/ideas ... ▪ Identify the reasons/persons/causes ... ▪ List the points/facts/names/reason ... ▪ Describe the place/person/character ... ▪ Relate the incident/episode/experience ...	(low order)
Reorganisation (Level 2)	Questions that require analysis, synthesis or organisation of information explicitly stated in the text. ▪ Summarise the main points/ideas/pros/cons ... ▪ Group the common elements/factors ... ▪ State the similarities/differences ... ▪ Give an outline of ...	Levels 1 and 2 40%
Inference (Level 3)	Questions that require a candidate's engagement with information explicitly stated in the text in terms of his/her personal experience. ▪ Explain the main idea ... ▪ Compare the ideas/attitudes/actions ... ▪ What is the writer's (or character's) intention/attitude/motivation/reason ... ▪ Explain the cause/effect of ...	(middle order)

	▪ What does an action/comment/attitude, etc. reveal about the narrator/writer/character ... ▪ How does the metaphor/simile/image affect your understanding ... ▪ What, do you think, will be the outcome/effect, etc. of an action/a situation ...	Level 3: 40%
Evaluation (Level 4)	These questions deal with judgements concerning value and worth. These include judgements regarding reality, credibility, facts and opinions, validity, logic and reasoning, and issues such as the desirability of and acceptability of decisions and actions in terms of moral values. ▪ Do you think that what transpires is credible/realistic/possible ...? ▪ Is the writer's argument valid/logical/conclusive ... ▪ Discuss/Comment critically on the action/intention/motive/attitude/suggestion/implication ... ▪ Do you agree with the view/statement/observation/interpretation that ... ▪ In your view, is the writer/narrator/character justified in suggesting/advocating that ... (Substantiate your response/Give reasons for your answer.) ▪ Is the character's attitude/behaviour/action justifiable or acceptable to you? Give a reason for your answer. ▪ What does a character's actions/attitude(s)/motives ... show about him/her in the context of universal values? ▪ Discuss critically/Comment on the value judgements made in the text. These questions are intended to assess the psychological and aesthetic impact of the text on the candidates. They focus on emotional responses to the content, identification with characters or incidents, and reactions to the writer's use of language (such as word choice and imagery).	(high order) Levels 4 and 5: 20%
Appreciation (Level 5)	▪ Discuss your response to the text/incident/situation/conflict/dilemma. ▪ Do you empathise with the character? What action/decision would you have taken if you had been in the same situation?	

	▪ Discuss/Comment on the writer's use of language ... ▪ Discuss the effectiveness of the writer's style/introduction/conclusion/imagery/metaphors/use of poetic techniques/ literary devices ...	
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The foregoing adaptation corroborates Schmeiser and Welch's input (in Brennan, 2006:316) regarding content and cognitive level balance of tests and other measurement instruments which was cited earlier on. In essence it means that unless assessment measurements strike the prescribed balance as policy prescript they cannot be regarded as standardised. If SMTs understand this and implement it in the training of their supervisees it can be fair to conclude that final assessment and measurement tasks will never be strange to candidates at the end of the year.

As explained earlier in this section, the content – cognitive level balances also stand learners writing assessment and measurement tasks in good stead because if only higher order questions are set, learners of mediocre ability may fail those tasks dismally. Conversely, if an assessment task concentrates on the low order and middle order questions without higher order questions, it will fail to train learners in fully maximising their academic abilities which would help them in solving some real life problems. Lastly, a balanced test affords learners of various cognitive abilities to score some marks in every task or test that they have to write (compare with Test Fairness, Camilli in Brennan, 2006:225 discussed earlier).

In order to conceptualise all educational taxonomies referred to in this study, the analysis of examination extracts will take the following form:

Barrett's taxonomy will be conceptualised by taking extracts from Grade 12 English First Additional Language gleaned from papers that were set on three levels in 2014, namely, the national, provincial (Eastern Cape Trial Examinations) and district level. The analysis of the extracted portions will be used to represent all DBE subjects that involve the use of Barrett's Taxonomy. The same order will be used in conceptualising Bloom's Taxonomy by using a section of the Economics Paper 2 paper from all the three sections as mentioned. The last analysis of papers that will be done representatively will be essay questions from History, in order to conceptualise the SOLO Taxonomy (Moseley's Taxonomy). It should be borne in mind that all taxonomies alluded to here were discussed in the section for the theoretical framework of the current study, which appears in the same chapter. The researcher proposes to do it in the above manner since it will be impossible to deal with all subjects and extracts in this portion of the study.

Notwithstanding this, the analyses will have served to point to the possible disjuncture between papers set at the different levels for the same grade. This will hopefully help to demonstrate that indeed SMTs need to be trained in order to appositely train their supervisees to assess and measure learner performance in ways that are congruent to the policy prescripts as set out in the CAPS documents and examination guidelines attached thereto.

**The National Paper 1: English First Additional Language, November 2014
Comprehension test (NB: the DBE promulgates the use of Barrett’s Taxonomy for
this section).**

TEXT A

	PHELOPHEPHA – SOUTH AFRICA’S TRAIN OF HOPE
1	In the rural communities of countries with limited resources, health care clinics are often scarce. Many people have to travel long distances to access even the most basic health care for themselves and their families.
2	Transnet Limited, South Africa’s biggest state-owned freight transportation and logistics company, saw the need to provide access to basic health care services. In 1993, they provided three coaches to be used as a clinic that travelled across the country offering only eye care to rural communities. On one of her trips on the “Eye Train”, Dr Lynette Coetzee, head of Transnet’s Social Corporate Investment Department, saw more than 2000 people waiting for hours to receive glasses. She then decided that what was needed was a fully-fledged hospital train and convinced her boss to invest millions in the Phelophepha project.
3	The name Phelophepha is derived from Sesotho and Setswana meaning ‘good, clean health’. It began operating as a full-scale mobile primary health care clinic in 1994. Phelophepha is owned and operated by Transnet and brings together many diverse stakeholders from the private and public sectors.
4	One of its kind in the world, the Phelophepha Hospital train has 18 coaches and a dedicated staff of passionate professionals. The health care staff includes close to 40 student volunteers preparing for careers in a variety of health-related fields. For two decades now, the train has helped over 5,5 million people.
5	Phelophepha provides facilities to conduct general health, dental and eye checks and to dispense medicines for diagnosed conditions. In addition to these essential health services, individual counselling sessions and group workshops are offered. These workshops help people to cope with mental issues such as stress and depression.
6	South Africa’s second state-of-the-art clinic on wheels, Phelophepha 11, hit the tracks in 2012, equipped with the latest medical and information technology. The second train

	operates simultaneously with Phelophepha 1. With the introduction of Phelophepha 11, Transnet has more than doubled the number of people who benefit from the facility. An estimated 375 000 people now receive vital health care annually.
7	The trains currently travel 38 weeks a year and are only able to visit most of the communities on their route once. It is therefore important that the positive effects of the trains last for much longer than the week for which they stop at each station. As a result, there is a strong emphasis on education and empowerment in all of Phelophepha's activities.
8	Phelophepha 1 and 11 are giving more people an opportunity to live healthy, quality lives. Whole communities welcome the train as though it is an old, familiar and trusted family friend. Every year the Phelophepha eye clinic dispenses thousands of pairs of glasses to adults and children at a nominal cost.
9	Dr Lynette Coetzee remembers when an 87-year-old grandmother from KwaZulu-Natal visited the mobile clinic. The grandmother was hoping to receive a pair of glasses so she could see the letters in her Bible, even though she was unable to read. Her eyes were tested, the glasses were made, and a young optometry student fitted them carefully on her face. 'You look beautiful in these,' he told the grandmother. She sat in silence for a while, and then she started crying. The student was worried that there was something wrong with the glasses, but the woman was only crying because she was happy. She was able to see the world clearly for the first time in years.
10	As a driving force of Phelophepha, Dr Lynette Coetzee says, 'The health services that we offer on board the train are only part of the story. The broader mission of Phelophepha is that its message and its good work will continue, that healthy individuals will build healthy families and communities, and that healthy communities will build a healthy nation.' [Adapted from www.roche.com/phelophepha and www.trainofhope.org]

DBE. 2014. English First Additional Language/Paper 1, pp. 3-4.

Be it noted that the cognitive range that appears per each question has been determined according to the discourse that was used to expound Barrett's Taxonomy under the theoretical framework of the study (compare with sub-section 2.2.3.2 above).

Questions based on the comprehension passage:

NO	Content/Question	Mark	Cognitive Level
1.1	Give TWO reasons why it is difficult for people in rural areas to get health care easily?	(2)	literal
1.2	How did Transnet first try to provide health care?	(2)	inference
1.3	Explain why the train is named Phelophepha.	(2)	literal
1.4	Apart from providing primary health care, how does the Phelophepha project contribute to youth development?	(2)	inference
1.5	1.5.1 Choose the correct answer to complete the following sentence. In the context of the passage, the term 'state-of-the-art' means... A technologically advanced. B highly creative. C famous artworks. D visually appealing.	(1)	inference
	1.5.2 Explain the meaning of the expression 'hit the tracks' AND say why it is suitable in this passage.	(2)	inference
	1.5.3 State TWO ways in which Phelophepha 11 has improved health care in South Africa.	(2)	literal
1.6	Give THREE reasons why the communities regard the train as 'an old, familiar and trusted family friend'.	(3)	literal
1.7	1.7.1 Give TWO reasons why the writer decided to include the story of the grandmother.	(2)	literal
	1.7.2 How does the story of the grandmother make you feel? Explain the reason for your answer.	(2)	inference
1.8	In the title of the passage, Phelophepha is called 'South Africa's Train of Hope'. Fully explain how the train brings hope to South		

1.9	Africa.	(2)	reorganisation
	In your view, how can the services offered by Phelophepha be improved? State TWO points.	(2)	appreciation
		24 marks	

DBE. 2014. English First Additional Language/Paper 1

TEXT B

This text was the continuation of the comprehension passage, but was based on a visual stimulus. Due to space limitation, the researcher will continue with analysing only the questions asked.

1.10	What does each of the following pictures represent?		
	1.1.1 The man wearing the white coat.	(1)	inference
	1.1.2 The lady holding the bags.	(1)	inference
1.11	Why does the artist show one side of the scale as higher than the other in each of the illustrations?	(2)	evaluation
	The artist has used scales to convey information on household spending. Do you think it would have been more effective to use statistics (numbers) rather than the illustrations of the scales? Discuss your view.	(2)	evaluation
		6 marks	
Total for Text A and Text B		30 marks	

DBE. 2014. English First Additional Language/Paper 1

Analysing the Content-Cognitive balance using Barrett's Taxonomy

COGNITIVE LEVELS (in ascending order)			Percentage	Marks
5	Appreciation	HIGH ORDER	20%	2
4	Evaluation			4
3	Inference	MIDDLE ORDER	36.7%	11
2	Reorganisation	LOW ORDER	43.3%	2
1	Literal			11
TOTAL MARKS FOR COMPREHENSION			100%	30

QUESTION: Were questions based on the comprehension passages a FAIR TEST?

ANSWER: The ideal ratios should be **40:40:20** (low/middle/high order). This one is **43.3:36.7:20** (compare this with Haertel in Brennan, 2006:73-74, with regard to content and difficulty). Although the percentile balance was slightly skewed in favour of low order questioning, the test was still fair in that the correct percentage for high order was maintained and not skewed. Again, this means that a larger group of learners (under achievers and average achievers) would still have scored fairly well, while the group with high cognitive skills was also afforded the opportunity to think independently (compare this with Camilli in Brennan, 2006:221 regarding striking a balance between groups).

What follows hereunder are the comprehension passages and questions set at the Provincial (Eastern Cape) level during the Grade 12 Trial Examination of 2014:

The Provincial Paper 1: English First Additional Language, September 2014 Comprehension test (NB: the DBE promulgates the use of Barrett's Taxonomy for this section).

TEXT A

	WALKING TO HEAL A WARPED HEART
1	A Cape Town woman, Charlotte Steyn, is walking the talk in her venture to raise money for charity. Charlotte is taking her idol Nelson Mandela's book title Long Walk To Freedom and turning it into a 532 km walk for nine charities.
2	Her quest, called Hearts in Motion, is to walk through South Africa in the shape of a heart, and it began after she quit the corporate world. "I resigned from my job, as a training and development manager, in September last year and I took a break overseas just to clear my head. Then in December, I was at the hairdresser getting my Christmas hairdo and I kept asking myself what's missing. I closed my eyes for a second and I got this vision in my mind of the outline of South Africa and a heart shape in it. I just dismissed it and put it out of my head but it kept coming back to me," she said. Unable to shake the vision, Steyn then printed out a map of South Africa and a heart – and the walk was born from that.
3	"The vision of the heart just kept coming back to me and when I printed it the heart didn't want to fit onto the shape of the map. Then when I warped the heart it did and it hit me South Africa has a warped heart and we all need healing. The heart is the core of our moral being and we need to heal it," she said.
4	Steyn has spent 136 days walking and covered just over 4 500 km to date. She started the walk in Blouberg in the Western Cape and it has seen her go into towns like Calvinia in the Northern Cape, Lichtenburg in the North West and other towns in Gauteng, Limpopo, Mpumalanga, KwaZulu-Natal and now the Eastern Cape. She walks in Vibram Five Finger shoes which separate the toes of the shoes to create barefoot walking experience.
5	Although she does have a backup driver who joins her on some parts of the route, she largely travels alone and walks most of the route through the veld and not on the highways. For the coastal legs of the walk, she has followed the coastline. "Of course there have been some safety concerns but I can say I have walked right through South Africa without incident and for me that's incredible. There are so many ways to express how this has been and if I had to choose two words to describe this, the words would be 'absolutely magnificent'. The weather, the sands and the gorges have been part of it and they complete the journey. It is tougher at the river mouths because of the tides and I do have a backup vehicle in case something goes really wrong but it's been a wonderful adventure.

6	Steyn said although the people in her life expressed reservations about her ability to finish the walk within the prescribed time, her tenacity keeps her going. “Many people react to things differently and some people were telling me I need more time or I need more resources but to me the word no does not exist and one has to change your approach until you get to the yes and I am doing it right now.”
7	“When I get back home, this will not be the end of it. I am going to set up an online auction to keep raising funds and I am going to set up a facility to help people to set up their businesses to make a better life for themselves. For me, this is just the beginning.”
8	Steyn will arrive in Knysna on September 26 and leave on September 28. From there she will walk to George and arrive on September 30. The final leg of her walk will see her go through Oudtshoorn, Worcester and Paarl before arriving at her final destination in Cape Town on 20 October.
[Adapted from an article by Neo Bodumela, <i>LaFemme</i> , 18 September, 2013]	

ECDOE. 2014. English First Additional Language/Paper 1, pp. 3-4.

Questions based on the comprehension passages:

NO	Content/Question	Mark	Cognitive Level
1.1	1.1.1 In which city does Charlotte Steyn live? 1.1.2 What is the purpose of this venture of hers? 1.1.3 Explain the expression ‘is walking the talk’. 1.1.4 Charlotte implies that the book Long Walk to Freedom inspired her with her adventure. What does the title of Nelson Mandela’s book and Charlotte’s venture have in common?	(1) (1) (2) (2)	literal literal inference inference
1.2	1.2.1 In your OWN words, state what the purpose was of Charlotte’s overseas holiday. 1.2.2 Choose the correct answer to complete the following sentence. The passage states that Steyn was unable to shake the vision. This means that she ... A could not see properly. B could not dismiss this image. C could not easily remove this image.	(1)	reorganisation

	D could not see at all.	(1)	inference
1.3	1.3.1 'South Africa has a warped heart'. Is this sentence used literally or figuratively?	(1)	inference
	1.3.2 Explain what is meant by this sentence in the context of the paragraph.	(2)	inference
1.4	1.4.1 In which province did Steyn start her walk?	(1)	literal
	1.4.2 Quote FOUR consecutive words that imply that she was in another province when this article was written.	(1)	literal
	1.4.3 Why does Charlotte use Vibram Five Fingers shoes?	(1)	literal
1.5	1.5.1 Give a reason why Steyn chose to travel through the veld rather than on the highways.	(1)	literal
	1.5.2 List THREE things that contributed to Charlotte's journey being magnificent.	(3)	literal
1.6	Is the following statement TRUE or FALSE? Quote to prove your answer. Charlotte's relatives and friends believed that she would be able to complete her walk in the allocated time.	(1)	inference
1.7	According to this paragraph (paragraph 7), how will Charlotte continue to do good after she has completed her walk?	(2)	inference
1.8	Explain what is meant by: 'The final leg of her walk'.	(1)	inference
1.9	After reading this passage, would you regard Charlotte as a role model? Discuss your view.	(2)	appreciation
		24 marks	

ECDOE. 2014. English First Additional Language/Paper 1.

TEXT B

This text was the continuation of the comprehension passage, but was based on a visual stimulus. Due to space limitation, the researcher will continue with analysing only the questions asked.

1.10	In which two cities will the premiere of the movie Long Walk to Freedom be shown?	(2)	literal
1.11	Quote a SINGLE word from the extract that means, "the first public showing of the movie".	(1)	literal
1.12	What evidence, in the text, suggests that there is an age restriction attached to entering this competition?	(1)	literal
1.13	Study the picture. How does the picture convey the message that freedom has been achieved? In your answer consider Mandela's body language and the fact that his back is turned.	(2)	appreciation
		6 Marks	
Total for Text A and Text B		30 marks	

ECDOE. 2014. English First Additional Language/Paper 1.

Analysing the Content-Cognitive balance using Barrett's Taxonomy

COGNITIVE LEVELS (in ascending order)			Percentage	Marks
5	Appreciation	HIGH ORDER	13.3%	4
4	Evaluation			
3	Inference	MIDDLE ORDER	40%	12
2	Reorganisation	LOW ORDER	46.7%	1
1	Literal			13
TOTAL MARKS FOR COMPREHENSION			100%	30

QUESTION: Were questions based on the comprehension passages a FAIR TEST?

ANSWER: The ideal ratios should be **40:40:20** (low/middle/high order). This one is **46.7:40:13.3**. This was not a very fair test in that the content-cognitive balance is skewed in favour of low order. The reorganisation level only has 1 mark, which means most of the low order questions fall on the literal level. The fairness of the middle order questioning is evident in that 40% of the questions were inferential, which is the middle order according to Barrett's Taxonomy. Again, there is no fair balance as far as the high order questions are concerned, because they do not only fall short but those that appear both fall on the appreciation level – none is evaluative (compare this with Camilli in Brennan, 2006:221, regarding striking a balance between groups).

The third comprehension passage that will be looked into was extracted from an examination that was set at district level as a CAT for all schools doing English First Additional Language. Worthy of noting is that such tests are invariably set by SMT members who supervise the teaching and assessment thereof at school level.

The District Paper 1: English First Additional Language, June 2014 Comprehension test (NB: the DBE promulgates the use of Barrett's Taxonomy for this section).

1	<i>(Jane Goodall is a scientist interested in the behaviour of chimpanzees. Here she describes some of her early experiences when trying to study the 'chimps' in the wild.)</i> I remember feeling very excited when I first came across a group of chimpanzees feeding in a large tree. But I was also very disappointed, for although they remained there for two hours while I crouched, cramped and hardly daring to breathe I saw little except an occasional glimpse of a hairy arm reaching out from the thick foliage and pulling branches of fruit out of sight. When I tried to move nearer, the large males hooted in a hostile way and shook the branches aggressively while the whole group climbed down and vanished into the forest.
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2	In the days that followed, I searched constantly for the chimpanzees. However, the undergrowth was often thick, and, while the noise of the streams certainly drowned any noise I made, it also effectively obliterated the sounds which might have told me of the whereabouts of chimps. Those which I did see were usually so close by the time I came upon them that they fled instantly. I can well imagine, now, how many times they must have seen me coming and silently disappeared without my even being aware of their presence. The more I thought about the task I had set myself, the more despondent I became. Because I always wore similar, dull-coloured clothes and because I never tried to follow or harass them, the chimps began to realise that I was not, after all, so terrifying.
3	Then the rainy season came and the grass shot up until it was over four metres high in places. When I left the tracks which I had used previously – if, indeed, I could now find them at all I could not tell where I was going, and had to stop every so often and climb a tree to get my bearings. Also, when I came across a group of chimpanzees, I was no longer able to sit down wherever I happened to be or wherever was convenient, for usually my view would then be totally obscured by grasses. I have never been able to work with binoculars for long periods of time while standing, so I had either to bend down hundreds of grass stems or else climb a tree. This was unsatisfactory for I lost time both in the whole, I preferred the rainy season.
4	Gone was the heat which distorted my long-distance observations. I have always loved to feel myself as much a part of nature as the animals. In the dry season the crunching of my feet on the crackling leaf carpet of the forest floor bothered me. But when the leaves became soft and damp during the rains, I could move through the trees as silently as the animals, catch more than fleeting glimpses of the shyer chimpanzees, and continually learn more about their behaviour, so I found that I could usually get closer to a group of them when it was cold and wet; it was as though they were too fed-up with the conditions to bother about me.
5	One day I was moving silently through the dripping forest, with the rain pattering overhead and pungent smell of rotting wood and wet vegetation around me. I could feel the water trickling through my hair and running warmly down my neck. I was looking for a group of chimps I had heard before the rain began. Suddenly, only a few yards ahead, I saw a dark shape crouched on the ground with its back to me. I hunched down myself: the chimp hadn't seen me. For a few minutes there was silence except for the rain and then I heard a slight rustle and a soft 'hoo' to my right. Slowly I turned my head, but I saw nothing in the thick undergrowth. When I looked back, the shape that had been in front of me had vanished.

	Then came a sound from above. I looked up and there saw a large male directly overhead – I recognised him as one I had seen before and named 'Goliath' because of his huge size. He stared down at me with his lips tensed and very slightly shook a branch. I looked away, for a prolonged stare can be interpreted as a threat. I heard another rustle to my left and could just make out the outline of another chimp behind a tangle of vines. When I looked ahead I saw two eyes staring towards me and a large hand gripping a hanging creeper. There was another soft 'hoo', this time from the rear. I was surrounded.
6	All at once Goliath uttered a long-drawn-out 'wraaa' and I was showered with rain and twigs as he threatened me, shaking the branches. The call was taken up by other dimly seen chimps. To me it was one of the most terrifying sounds of the forest. All my instincts urged me to flee, yet I forced myself to stay there, trying to appear unconcerned and absorbed in eating roots from the ground. The end of the branch above me hit my head. With a stamping and slapping on the ground, a huge shape charged through the undergrowth, veering away from me at the last minute and running off at a tangent into the forest. I think I expected to be torn to pieces. I do not know how long I crouched there, tense and horrified, before I realised that everything was still and silent again. Cautiously I looked round. The hairy hand and the glaring eyes were no longer there; the branch where Goliath had been was deserted; all the chimpanzees had gone. Admittedly my knees shook a little when I got up, but so there was that sense of exhilaration that comes when danger has threatened and left one unharmed and the chimpanzees were surely less afraid of me now.

Maluti District Department of Education. 2014. English First Additional Language/Paper 1, pp. 2-3.

Questions based on the comprehension passage:

NO	Content/Question	Mark	Cognitive Level
1.1	Why was Jane 'hardly daring to breathe'?	(2)	Literal
1.2	State one reason why Jane was unable to see the chimpanzees clearly.	(1)	literal
1.3	Choose the best answer and write only the letter of the correct answer next to the number. The word <i>hostile</i> in paragraph one suggests that the chimpanzees: A were happy to see Jane. B ignored Jane's presence. C were unfriendly towards Jane. D tolerated Jane's presence.	(1)	inference
1.4	From paragraph 2 identify a synonym for the word <i>drowned</i> as it is used in the passage.	(1)	literal
1.5	The 'noise of the streams' (paragraph 2) was both a hindrance and a help to Jane. 1.5.1 How did it hinder her? 1.5.2 How did it help her?	(2) (2)	literal literal
1.6	Jane always wore 'similar, dull-coloured clothes'. What advantage did this have for her?	(2)	inference
1.7	Mention four reasons why Jane preferred the rainy season. From paragraph 5 explain in your own words why Jane looked away from Goliath.	(4) (2)	literal reorganisation
1.8	Quote four consecutive words from paragraph 6 that prove that Jane could not see the other chimpanzees clearly.	(2)	literal
1.9	Indicate whether the following statement is TRUE or FALSE . Quote FOUR CONSECUTIVE WORDS to support your answer: When surrounded by the chimpanzees Jane was actually affected		

	by their presence (paragraph 6).	(3)	inference
1.10	Explain the difference in meaning between 'still' and 'silent' as used in the last paragraph.	(2)	inference
1.11	Jane had a sense of exhilaration when she realised that the chimpanzees had left.		
1.12	1.12.1 Explain what this statement means.	(2)	inference
	1.12.2 Give two reasons why she felt this exhilaration.	(2)	literal
1.13	Provide a suitable title of not more than SIX WORDS for this passage.	(2)	inference
Total for comprehension		30 marks	

Maluti District Department of Education: Common Paper, June 2014.

Analysing the Content-Cognitive balance using Barrett's Taxonomy

COGNITIVE LEVELS (in ascending order)			Percentage	Marks
5	Appreciation	HIGH ORDER	0%	0
4	Evaluation			0
3	Inference	MIDDLE ORDER	40%	12
2	Reorganisation	LOW ORDER	60%	2
1	Literal			16
TOTAL MARKS FOR COMPREHENSION			100%	30

QUESTION: Were questions based on the comprehension passages a FAIR TEST?

ANSWER: The ideal ratios should be **40:40:20** (low/middle/high order). This one is **60:40:00**. This means that the bulk of the questioning technique covered mostly

learners on the lowest rung of achievement, followed by mediocre learners. No question sought to differentiate higher achievers from under achievers and average achievers. This assessment, therefore, is not compliant with the assessment precepts as outlined in the CAPS document. The questions were not a fair, policy-compliant test (cf. Camilli in Brennan, 2006:221 regarding striking a balance between groups and Haertel in Brennan, 2006:73-74, with regard to content and difficulty, as cited earlier in this section). Furthermore, the district-based comprehension test was the only one which did not embody two texts, namely, a prose text and a visual one.

However, Barrett's Taxonomy is not the only taxonomy used by the Department of Basic Education. Bloom's Taxonomy is also used by the DBE with regard to other subjects than languages. The content-cognitive level balance of 40:40:20 in streamlining percentages of low order, middle order and high order skills respectively is applicable in languages and it does not necessarily cut across all subjects.

Having dealt with examples of sections of language that involve Barrett's Taxonomy, the researcher deems it necessary to analyse a section that was measured nationally, provincially and at district or school levels from subjects that involve Bloom's Taxonomy. For instance, in Accounting, the DBE's policy with regard to content-cognitive level balance is 30:40:30 to streamline the percentages of low order, middle order and high order skills respectively. While some sections of language assessment use Barrett's Taxonomy, most content subjects use Bloom's Taxonomy.

With regard to Economics, the DBE (2011:34) has determined the percentages at which content questions must be pitched as in the following table, which has been adapted

mutatis mutandis for the purposes of illustrating cognitive levels in this section of the study:

Table 2.5.1: Blooms Taxonomy

Cognitive levels	Activity (content)	Percentage of task	Question level
Knowledge and comprehension Levels 1 and 2	Basic thinking skills (e.g. factual recall, low level comprehension and low level application)	30%	Low Order Thinking Skills
Application and analysis Levels 3 and 4	More advanced application, interpretation and low level analysis	40%	Middle Order Thinking Skills
Synthesis and evaluation Level 5 and 6	Advanced analytical skills, evaluation and creative problem-solving	30%	High Order Thinking Skills

(This compares well with Schmeiser and Welch's input in Brennan, 2006:316)

In the above table, the first and the last columns have been added by the researcher to enhance the logic of the table.

In the document for Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) Final Draft for Economics, the DBE (2011:33-34) posits that formal assessment provides educators with a systematic way of evaluating how well learners are progressing in a grade, as well as in a particular subject. The DBE further promulgates that formal assessment tasks must cater for a range of the cognitive levels and abilities of learners. This, in essence, means that any formal task that only caters for low order questions, for example, is not compliant with the organisational assessment policy with regard to Economics and will therefore not prepare the learner adequately for the end-of-the-year, final, external assessment and measurement. The same goes for setting only middle order or high order questions. Not only that, but the Economics educator also needs to

check percentages which each level of questioning embodies so as to set an assessment paper that is in congruence with assessment prescripts.

The onus rests with the SMT members to train educators in their respective departments to set assessment instruments that are policy-compliant. The researcher will, therefore, use Economics as an example that will represent all subjects that use Bloom's Taxonomy in determining cognitive levels.

Hereunder will follow an analysis of a section from the Economics Paper 2 set **nationally** for Grade 12 in November 2014:

National: DBE Economics P2: November 2014: Question 2: Microeconomics

NO	Content/Question	Marks	Cognitive level
2.1	Answer the following questions: 2.1.1 State two characteristics of monopolistic competition. 2.1.2 What will happen if one firm in the perfect market decides to increase its selling price?	(2) (2)	knowledge comprehension
2.2	Study the extract below and answer the questions that follow. TOLL ROADS – WAS THIS THE BEST DECISION? There are major debates surrounding toll roads in South Africa, with many consumers unhappy and undecided whether it will really benefit the economy. The major question is whether the government has examined all the positives and negatives regarding toll roads. [Adapted from <i>Business Times</i> , May 2013] 2.2.1 Explain the term <i>toll</i> . 2.2.2 What method can the government use to ensure that the introduction of toll roads is the best decision? 2.2.3 How can toll roads lead to market failure? 2.2.4 Argue in favour of the implementation of toll roads.	(2) (2) (2) (4)	comprehension synthesis synthesis analysis

2.3	(Based on a graph that could not be drawn into this frame.) 2.3.1 Indicate the profit maximisation point of the monopolist. 2.3.2 How many units will be produced at the maximisation point? 2.3.3 Determine whether business is making an economic profit or an economic loss. Show all calculations. 2.3.4 What favourable conditions may the monopolist enjoy in comparison to other market structures?	(1) (1) (4) (4)	comprehension knowledge application knowledge
2.4	Explain how the immobility factors of production can cause market failure.	(8)	application
2.5	Explain how SASOL can compete in an oligopolistic market with other petrol-selling companies in South Africa.	(8)	Evaluation
		40 marks	

DBE. 2014. Economics: Paper 2: Grade 12 NSC Examination.

Analysing the Content-Cognitive balance using Bloom's Taxonomy

COGNITIVE LEVELS (in ascending order)			Percentage	Marks
6	Evaluation	HIGH ORDER	30%	8
5	Synthesis			4
4	Analysis	MIDDLE ORDER	40%	6
3	Application			10
2	Comprehension	LOW ORDER	30%	5
1	Knowledge			7
TOTAL MARKS FOR MICROECONOMICS			100%	40

QUESTION: Were questions based on microeconomics a FAIR TEST?

ANSWER: The ideal ratios should be **30:40:30** (low/middle/high order respectively). Even this one is 30:40:30 (knowledge-comprehension/application-analysis/synthesis-evaluation). According to the stipulations of the Economics CAPS document quoted earlier, this question was fair and compliant with policy. There is a balance of cognitive levels (compare this with Camilli in Brennan, 2006:221 regarding striking a balance between groups). On the basis of the above, it may be concluded that national test developers are adequately trained to adhere to the DBE's assessment policies so as for them to develop compliant examination papers. There is a good 'fit' between policy and practice (this compares fairly with the Real and the Ideal discussed earlier on in this section).

The next segment to follow is an analysis of a section from the Economics Paper 2 set **provincially** for Grade 12 in September 2014:

Provincial (Trial) Economics P2: September 2014: Question 2: Microeconomics

NO	Content/Question	Marks	Cognitive Level
2.1	2.1.1 List two types of inefficiencies.	(2)	Knowledge
	2.1.2 Briefly explain what a <i>cartel</i> is.	(2)	comprehension
2.2	(Based on a graph that could not be drawn into this frame.) 2.2.1 What type of market is represented by the graph above?	(2)	knowledge
	2.2.2 Explain why the MR curve lies below the AR curve.	(4)	application
	2.2.3 Calculate the profit/loss of the above producer, and show all your calculations.	(4)	application
2.3	Study the extract below and answer the questions that follow. PERFECT MARKETS The attribute of perfect markets has profound political and economic implications. As many participants assume or are taught that the purpose of the market is to enable participants to maximise profits, it is not. The purpose of the market is to efficiently allocate resources and to maximise the welfare of consumers and producers alike. The market therefore regards excess (economic) profits and economic rents as a signal of inefficiency. [Adapted from the internet:2013]		
	2.3.1 Define <i>perfect markets</i> .	(2)	knowledge
	2.3.2 State two purposes of perfect markets as indicated in the extract.	(4)	knowledge
	2.3.3 Give the meaning and implication of excess profits.	(4)	comprehension
2.4	Distinguish between <i>merit</i> and <i>demerit goods</i> as causes of market failure.	(8)	analysis

2.5	With the aid of a graph explain the shutdown point of a firm under perfect competition.	(8)	analysis
		40 marks	

ECDOE. 2014. Economics P2: September 2014: Question 2: Microeconomics

Analysing the Content-Cognitive balance using Bloom's Taxonomy

COGNITIVE LEVELS (in ascending order)			Percentage	Marks
6	Evaluation	HIGH ORDER	0%	0
5	Synthesis			0
4	Analysis	MIDDLE ORDER	50%	16
3	Application			4
2	Comprehension	LOW ORDER	50%	10
1	Knowledge			10
TOTAL MARKS FOR MICROECONOMICS			100%	40

QUESTION: Were questions based on microeconomics a FAIR TEST?

ANSWER: The ideal ratios should be **30:40:30** (low/middle/high order respectively).

This one is **50:50:00** (knowledge-comprehension/application-analysis/synthesis-evaluation). According to the stipulations of the Economics CAPS document quoted earlier, these questions were both unfair and non-compliant to policy. There is no balance of cognitive levels. In fact, all the questions are huddled in the low and middle order, without a single question that requires learners to synthesise and evaluate (compare with Camilli in Brennan, 2006:221 regarding striking a balance between groups).

The foregoing was a provincially set test. If a test that is supposed to have been developed by provincial experts does not comply with policy, it becomes worrisome as

to how the district and school-based ones should fare. Test developers from both the province and district levels are invariably experts drawn from the pool of seasoned SMT members. This strengthens the researcher's view that being an excellent educator does not turn one into an excellent test developer. Therefore, aspiring SMTs need apposite training in the assessment policies so as to set policy compliant measurement and/or assessment tools, which will in turn afford them the prowess in training their supervisees.

The last segment to follow is an analysis of a section from the Economics Paper 2 set at a **district level** for Grade 12 in June 2014:

District-based Economics P2: June 2014: Question 2: Microeconomics

NO	Content/Questions	Marks	Cognitive Level
2.1	Choose the correct word from those given in brackets.		
	2.1.1 When a business' total costs exceed total revenue, the firm makes an economic (profit/loss).	(2)	application
	2.1.2 Product development and (price/advertising) play an important role in non-price competition.	(2)	application
	2.1.3 Fixed costs are also known as (direct/indirect) costs.	(2)	application
	2.1.4 Public parks and swimming pools are examples of a (demerit/collective).	(2)	applications
2.2	List three features of public goods.	(6)	knowledge
2.3	DATA RESPONSE (Based on a graph that could not be drawn into this frame.) Which of the above graphs are associated with ...		
	2.3.1 Loss?	(2)	knowledge
	2.3.2 Normal profit?	(2)	knowledge

	2.3.3 Economic profit?	(2)	knowledge
2.4	2.4.1 Define <i>normal profit</i> .	(3)	comprehension
	2.4.2 Identify the profit maximisation point in graph B.		
	2.4.3 Calculate the total economic loss as reflected in graph C. Show all calculations.	(3)	application
2.5	Mention four characteristics of perfect competition.	(6)	application
		(8)	knowledge
		40 marks	

Maluti District Department of Education. 2014. Economics P2: June 2014:
Question 2: Microeconomics

Analysing the Content-Cognitive balance using Bloom's Taxonomy

COGNITIVE LEVELS (in ascending order)			Percentage	Marks
6	Evaluation	HIGH ORDER	0%	0
5	Synthesis			0
4	Analysis	MIDDLE ORDER	42.5%	0
3	Application			17
2	Comprehension	LOW ORDER	57.5%	3
1	Knowledge			20
TOTAL MARKS FOR MICROECONOMICS			100%	40

QUESTION: Were questions based on microeconomics a FAIR TEST?

ANSWER: The ideal ratios should be 30:40:30 (low/middle/high order respectively).

This one is 57.5:42.5:00 (knowledge-comprehension/application-analysis/synthesis-evaluation). According to the stipulations of the Economics CAPS document quoted earlier, these questions were both unfair and non-compliant to policy. The low order questions are concentrated on level 1 (knowledge) at the expense of level 2 (comprehension), and level 1 was percentiled incorrectly and out of balance. On the

other hand, the middle order questions were all concentrated on level 3 (application) while none touched on level 4 (analysis) – the middle order questions were also percentiled incorrectly. To crown it all, there were no top-rung (high order) questions at all. There was no balance of cognitive levels (this compares fairly with Camilli in Brennan, 2006:221 regarding striking a balance between groups).

It becomes easy for district or school-based assessment tools to flout policy prescripts if those developed by a higher structure are also not in sync with policy. It comes as no surprise, therefore, that the above test has been proven to be unbalanced, unfair and not fit to prepare learners for a national test.

Examination Guidelines for History (DBE, 2014:8) stipulate that when History essay questions are asked, phrasal descriptors such as ‘Critically discuss ...’, ‘Comment on ...’, ‘Explain to what extent ...’, ‘Assess ...’ and the like should be used; essays demand of learners to produce coherent and balanced pieces of writing. This is in sync with what Data Fiend (2013:1, citing Smith and Colby, 2007; Black and William, 2009), says regarding the SOLO Taxonomy in stating that it is an integrated strategy to be used in lesson design, task guidance and formative and summative assessment. Furthermore, the taxonomy uses constructive alignment in encouraging both educators and learners to be more explicit when creating learning objectives that focus on what the learner should be able to do and the level at which they can do it (Data Fiend 2013:2, citing Biggs and Tang, 2009).

National Paper: History Paper 2: November 2014

Discuss to what extent both the Congo and Tanzania were successful in bringing about economic development and political stability after attaining independence from colonial rule.

The above was very clear for learners who would have chosen to respond to this question. It is scaffolded well in that learners were explicitly required to deal with the extent of the economic and political successes of the named states after gaining independence. This is in sync with policy and shows a ‘fit’ between policy and practice (compare with the *SOLO Taxonomy*, the *Real and the Ideal* discussed earlier in the theoretical framework of this study and the stipulations of the History Examinations Guidelines; and Clauser *et al.* in Brennan, 2006:708, regarding the requirements of essay questions).

Provincial Paper: History Paper 2: September 2014

“The Black Power movement was based on the philosophy that African Americans should shape their own destiny and culture. In pursuing this goal they were prepared to use violence as a means to an end.”

Critically discuss this statement by making specific reference to the key role that Malcolm X and Stokely Carmichael played in the Black Power Movement in the 1960s.

Even in the provincially set essay question there seems to be a ‘fit’ between policy and practice. On the basis of the preamble to the question, learners were aware that they had to critically discuss the roles of certain activists with regard to the struggle that was at hand and the forms of violent activities they had to engage in so as to meet their goal (compare with the *SOLO Taxonomy*, the *Real and the Ideal* discussed earlier in the theoretical framework of this study, the stipulations of the History Examinations Guidelines and Haertel in Brennan, 2006:73-74 with regard to content and difficulty; and Clauser *et al.* in Brennan, 2006:708 regarding the requirements of essay questions).

District Paper: History Paper 2: June 2014

Using the following information from the sources and your own knowledge, write an article for your local newspaper explaining why the apartheid government and the ANC were left exposed by the collapse of the Soviet Union.

The researcher is not sure whether the question was accessible for the intended group (Grade 12) (compare this with Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan, 2006:307-351, especially with regard to the intended learner/examinee population discussed earlier in this section). Moreover, Examinations Guidelines for History do not include essay questions that are phrased in this manner (Kane in Brennan, 2006:20, citing Loevinger, 1957, regarding construct validity – discussed earlier in this section). An instance where the researcher saw questions like this from both the national and provincial papers was in the instances where, after answering source-based/contextual questions, learners were required to sum up the information from sources (the given maps, cartoons and extracts) in not more than six lines. The researcher, therefore, notes a poor ‘fit’ between policy and practice with regard to the district paper (compare with Haertel in Brennan, 2006:73-74, with regard to content and difficulty; and Clauser *et al.* in Brennan, 2006:708, regarding the requirements of essay questions).

These essay questions have proved the researcher’s suspicion that while the DBE policy is supposed to cut across the nation, province and districts, there is, however, no synergy between what is done at the different levels by the education personnel. It is worrisome that especially the district level is the one that is grossly not in sync with policy, as districts are at the grassroots level where learners receive tuition. Also worthy of noting is the fact that district common assessment tasks (CATs) are invariably set by

educators who are at the SMT level, as they are deemed to be sufficiently experienced and believed to have expert knowledge regarding all education-related matters since they are the ones who are charged with the responsibility to train, induct and mentor their junior colleagues at school level.

There is a saying that goes '*if golde ruste, what will irone doe?*' (This is Middle English for: if gold rusts, what will iron do/what will happen to iron?) (Caxton, 1483). Conceptualising the foregoing statement to our argument, this seeks to say if the SMTs cannot set policy-compliant tests, assignments or tasks, how much more should their supervisees not be able to comply with policy? Simply put, aspiring SMTs should receive apposite training that is related to their core duties even before they apply and get appointed so that they will in turn be capacitated to train their supervisees (post level one or entry level educators) (compare this with the notion that the understanding of policies to be implemented leads to a correlation between performance and outcomes or results, Scholl 2002:1, as embodied in Vroom's Expectancy Theory).

2.3.3.5 Marking Guidelines

Learner assessment and measurement are not complete without ensuring how the marking of tasks, assignments and tests given is done. Marking needs to be standardised especially in cases where learners have written assessment and measurement items so as to progress to the next class. The DBE does not only organise marking guideline discussions in respect of Grade 12 but also trains provincial representatives who will lead marking sessions in their subjects in respective marking centres and provinces. In the marking training organised for 2014 marking preparation meetings, Phonela (DBE 2014) emphasised the following:

- Marking is not an exact science; therefore, it is expected that differences will exist between a marker and a moderator with regard to their mark allocations;
- However, the differences noted must be within a narrow tolerance range (TR);
- In marking, judgement is made about the standard of evidence provided by the learner;
- Intellectual judgement is based on expertise, experience, content knowledge, and will vary from one marker to another;
- Therefore, to ensure reliability, markers' judgement must be validated by a reviewer based on the same measuring tool – that tool is actually the marking guidelines or memorandum (Phonela, DBE 2014).

Further to the above, the DBE also trained would-be Provincial marking leaders by giving each of them a dummy script (this was a common script that had been photocopied). The script was marked question by question, and at the end of marking each question discussions were held to check uniformity and unanimity in handling the script. The same process was followed until the 6th script was marked. After the marking of the last script the variance that had hitherto been noted with markers was bridged to the acceptable 2 – 3% tolerance range at the most.

The researcher's take is that even educators who are good at content knowledge are not necessarily good at assessment, and that they may not necessarily be the best markers. We should take cognizance of the fact that provincial representatives who attend the pre-marking discussions and training are believed to be experts in those subjects for which they represent their respective provinces. Now, if experts are to bridge their differences in marking the same scripts and have to be trained to come

closer to one another by way of meeting the tolerance range, how much more is training necessary for novice educators at school level?

The foregoing training was a macrocosm of what the DBE expects with regard to standardising the marking of Grade 12 candidates. The microcosm of that scenario is at school level, especially if the SMTs wish to minimise progression problems associated with internally administered assessment instruments. The foregoing becomes even more appropriate in the case of schools writing Common Assessment Tasks (CATs) like district examination papers in some grades, and provincial question papers in Grade 11 in the Eastern Cape. Invariably, if learners have to apply for re-marking, such a task is referred to learning facilitators or subject advisors.

Due to lack or absence of training with regard to dealing with externally set assessment instruments, the marks obtained by a learner after being marked by a marker from the district office is normally far different from the educator's mark, either negatively or positively – and is in excess of the accepted 2-3% tolerance range. In the light of this the researcher shares the same sentiment with regard to marking standardisation, that SMTs must not only train and mentor educators in setting assessment and measurement according to policy, but should also go an extra mile by checking and training them how to mark. Failure to train educators to mark appropriately may either advantage undeserving learners while disadvantaging the able, deserving ones. Having discussed the course of curriculum assessment training, what will now follow below are the results of assessment training.

2.3.3.6 The Results of Assessment Training

Among various results of proper curriculum assessment training, the following are relevant, especially with regard to monitoring, assessment, reporting and accountability. Curriculum assessment trainees become able to:

- assess achievement of learning objectives and use in order to improve aspects of teaching;
- mark learners' work, give constructive oral and written feedback and set targets for progress;
- assess and record learner progress through observation, questioning, testing and marking in order to:
 - check whether work is understood and completed;
 - monitor strengths and weaknesses for intervention in learner' learning;
 - inform planning;
 - check that learners make clear progress in subject knowledge, skills and understanding.
- be familiar with statutory (policy) assessment and reporting, and write informative parent reports;
- recognise levels of learners' achievement and assess against attainment targets;
- know how assessment data can be used to set targets for learner achievement; and
- use a variety of assessments for different purposes (Bleach, 1999:18).

In a nutshell, the researcher's take is that the foregoing results can be elicited only from the SMTs who know their roles thoroughly with regard to the policy of curriculum assessment training. Since curriculum assessment training and the knowledge of the curriculum itself are interwoven, it is no use for SMTs to have a one-dimensional know-how regarding curriculum and assessment training.

The last independent variable to be discussed in this chapter is curriculum supervision, which has been done below.

2.3.4 Curriculum Supervision

Curriculum supervision is a management task of ensuring that all is in place for the school-based implementation of curriculum. It comprises aspects such as curriculum leadership, monitoring and evaluation. Whilst the management of curriculum supervision lies with the principal of a school, as the most senior manager at school, most of the supervision devolves to the co-managers, the SMT members, as they are actually tasked to drive curriculum implementation and supervision at school. In expounding the role of educator as mediator and designer of learning programmes and materials Killen (2000:190) points out that the educator has to interpret the learning programmes that he is provided with correctly. The educator has to further identify requirements for a specific context of learning, as well as to prepare suitable resources. These efforts are accompanied or supported by curriculum supervision.

Education Facilitators (PND 501, 2000:39) cites six types of curriculum and explains them as follows:

- **recommended curriculum:** this refers to the curriculum that is recommended by scholars, professional organisations and state departments of education;
- **written curriculum:** this is the curriculum that appears in locally produced documents, such as district scope and sequence charts, district curriculum guides, educators' planning documents and curriculum units;
- **taught curriculum:** the taught curriculum is that which educators actually deliver day by day;

- **supported curriculum:** this type includes those resources that support the curriculum, such as textbooks, software and other media;
- **assessed curriculum:** this one is the curriculum which appears in tests and performance measures such as state tests, district tests and teacher-made tests (this is corroborated by Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan, 2006: 308); and the
- **learned curriculum:** this refers to the bottom-line curriculum, the one that learners actually have to assimilate.

Proponents of the above view emphasise that all the types indicated have to be aligned for the whole curriculum perspective to be successful in a school. The school principal has to note all these types and take the fore-front in aligning them. It is in the principal's quest for proper alignment of the different curricula that he has to solicit the help of his SMT colleagues, of whom he is the leader, to supervise the implementation thereof. This brings us to the discussion in the next sub-section of what curriculum supervision is.

2.3.4.1 What is Curriculum Supervision?

The Eastern Cape Department of Education (ECDOE) (Undated:25) directs that the management of curriculum is the most important function of the SMT, and that all other management functions are there to ensure that the goal of quality teaching and learning is realised. It is, therefore, the duty of the SMT to work out plans that will ascertain that the school becomes a 'dynamic learning environment for both learners and teachers' (ECDOE, Undated: 25).

Delving deeper into the curriculum supervision discourse, the ECDOE (Undated:29) cites the Employment of Educators Act (1998) in emphasising some of the curriculum management responsibilities of the SMT, which are the following:

- the leadership and management of the curriculum;
- overseeing the planning of the curriculum in the school;
- developing and managing assessment policies;
- ensuring curriculum policy interpretation and implementation;
- ensuring that relevant curriculum policies are available in the school;
- ensuring that teaching and learning time is used effectively;
- ensuring that classroom activities are learner-paced and learner-centred;
- promoting team planning and teaching strategies;
- engaging in quality assurance processes;
- creating an environment that promotes effective teaching and learning;
- realising the school's vision and mission through the implementation of the curriculum;
- managing resources such as time, space, textbooks and learner support materials;
- guiding and mentoring educators;
- enhancing the professional competence of educators through supervising their work; and
- promoting the professional growth of educators through the Integrated Quality Management Systems (IQMS), Developmental Appraisal System (DAS) and Norms and Standards for Teacher Education (ECDOE, Undated:29).

If the ECDOE views curriculum management in the light of the points listed above, it is clear that competent SMTs are the only ones who can deliver school curriculum implementation through an informed, innovative supervision process. The latter involves planned, time-to-task and collegial engagement of supervisees.

Wise and Bushner (2001:124) posit that there will always be a need to provide leadership in developing and implementing a curriculum, especially in South Africa where curriculum has undergone changes. Citing Coleman (2003:83), Naidu *et al.*

(2008:190) further point out that while curriculum leadership is often identified with the school principal, the level that is likely to have the greatest impact on teaching and learning in the classroom is necessarily that of 'the curriculum- or middle-manager' as this position is between senior staff and class teachers.

Going on to cite Wise and Bushner (2001), Naidu *et al.* (2008:190) submit that learner achievement becomes higher when the role of curriculum managers is not only clearly identified but also when they ensure that curriculum is effectively implemented. Curriculum managers, as a prerequisite for them to supervise the implementation and the course of curriculum effectively, are supposed to establish good relationships with staff members as well as create a culture of learning and teaching. Curriculum supervision includes the following aspects, according to Naidu *et al.* (2008:190):

- Strategic direction and development of a subject or a learning area;
- A professional role as an educator in the classroom, setting examples for effective teaching and learning, leading and managing staff;
- Efficient and effective use of staff and resources; and
- A personal role (Naidu *et al.*, 2008:190).

For curriculum managers to perform the foregoing curriculum supervision roles, it depends on their individual personality, characteristics and certain skills (Naidu *et al.*, 2008:190). To this end Wise and Bushner (2001:124) posit that curriculum managers and supervisors require developing the following skills:

- Acting as a bridge between the senior management and the teaching staff: this is transactional leadership with senior staff, colleagues and learners;
- Creating social cohesion: transformational leadership to create a shared vision and collegial culture;

- Mentoring: improving staff and learner performance (a lot has been said about mentoring in earlier sections of this chapter);
- Creating professional networks: liaising with district officials in obtaining and understanding knowledge of new government policies; and
- Using power: this refers to expertise in using 'referent, reward, coercion and legitimate power' as a means of ensuring that educators and learners achieve the required outcomes (Wise and Bushner, 2001:124).

Furthermore, Naidu *et al.* (2008:191) contend that in their bid to help their colleagues improve the quality of teaching and learning curriculum supervisors need to understand:

- The relationship of a subject or learning area to the revised curriculum as a whole;
- The statutory curriculum requirements for assessment, recording and reporting learner achievement;
- The characteristics of high-quality teaching and the strategies required for improving and sustaining a high standard of teaching and learning;
- How to use their subject or learning areas to develop learners' literacy, numeracy and comprehension skills; and
- How teaching can promote learners' moral, spiritual, social, cultural and mental development (Naidu *et al.*, 2008:191).

Vermeulen (1998:67-68) suggests the following in implementing curriculum:

Create a climate for change:

Curriculum implementers should take cognisance of the fact that educators are familiar with the existing knowledge regarding curriculum implementation, teaching plans and materials, and that they may be skilled and knowledgeable in handling the above. However, it should be borne in mind that they always have doubts if they will succeed in teaching a new curriculum (or successfully considering changes that are added every

now and then or as and when it becomes necessary) and developing appropriate material in line with the changes alluded to above.

The foregoing strengthens the fact that at school level there has to be constant curriculum supervision so as to factor in what is new as well as strengthening what educators already know (policy) and implement (practice). The onus rests with the SMT members to ensure that there is always apposite training of supervisees to ensure adherence to policy imperatives.

Communication:

The second point that Vermeulen (1998) makes is that of communication, which he says is of utmost importance during the curriculum implementation stage. The type of communication that Vermeulen alludes to involves dealing with educators through workshops, small group meetings, bulletins and hand-outs.

The researcher agrees with the above, but further wishes to point out that the workshops and meetings alluded to have, of necessity, to be done by the SMT members, in that they lead as HODs for the respective departments that are in their schools. Conversely, one needs to be constantly developed in order to add value in one's mission to carry out one's task effectively. This does not leave the SMTs out of the equation of training – so that they may become effective in inducting, mentoring and supervising educators in their respective departments to adhere to policy as they try to implement (practice) policy imperatives regarding curriculum implementation at school level (this compares fairly with what Education Facilitators opine regarding the findings of the study called the Real and the Ideal by Harley and fellow researchers).

Staff development:

Another point, which still emphasizes the previous one, is that stated by Vermeulen (1998): staff development. He claims that once a new curriculum has been promulgated, in-service training should be done to prepare educators on aspects of the curriculum. The in-service training envisaged should be embodied in the grand plan, which means that it should not be an afterthought. To this, Taylor and Vinjevold (1999:182) add that curriculum material should take into account the depth and breadth of the educators' current subject knowledge, and should bridge the gap between their existing knowledge and the needs of the curriculum.

Adding more dimensions to aspects of staff development that correspond with curriculum supervision, Badenhorst (1993:99) points out that instructional supervisors (SMTs) should:

- create more opportunities for staff performance;
- recognise quality work and good ideas;
- infuse personal and occupational development;
- create an environment where supervisees experience work as being important, interesting and meaningful; and
- allow for greater responsibilities for their protégés.

The researcher deems the above as part of what the SMTs should be doing in supervising curriculum implementation and progression at school level. There is, therefore, more to preparing oneself to be part of a school's SMT than to merely apply for that position, get shortlisted, be interviewed, selected and appointed. If the scenario persists, as in the latter statement, there should arise a question as to what should happen to the new incumbent. Furthermore, it becomes worrisome as to how long after

assuming duties will the incumbent be trained regarding the performance of the duties that are commensurate with the new position (compare with Grobler *et al.*, 2006:209 cited earlier on, regarding SMTs that cannot perform their duties).

Carl (1995:166) adds the dimensions of *development* and *participation* as factors that are crucial towards successful curriculum implementation and supervision. About *development* he opines that educators must be supported during curriculum implementation by means of continuously addressing their problem, practice-oriented training should be given and that assistance should be continuously available when necessary (compare this with what Vermeulen says on staff development above). About participation, Carl (1995) deems active involvement of stakeholders as crucial. Stakeholders referred to at this juncture are educators, and SMTs as curriculum supervisors at school level. The point of educator participation is corroborated by Malcolm (in Jansen and Christie, 1999:79). Having supplied a scholarly answer to what curriculum supervision is, the researcher will now deal with the course of curriculum supervision below.

2.3.4.2 The Course of Curriculum Supervision

Ornstein and Hunkins (2009:267) posit that curriculum implementation must be supervised and monitored, as the manner of teaching and the content being addressed need oversight. They further point out that supervisors provide guidance and ensure that educators have the skills to carry out curriculum change, as the case may be. These scholars further maintain that supervisors have a duty to:

- help the total faculty to articulate education's purposes and monitoring professionals so as to ensure that they adhere to those purposes in delivering the programme;
- provide instructional leadership; and
- keep channels of communication open within the school and between the school and the community (Ornstein and Hunkins, 2009:267).

The first point alludes to the work that SMTs are supposed to do at school level, that of monitoring 'professionals' in order to ensure that they comply with policy. The second point actually refers to the core responsibility of members of the SMT in that they lead, supervise and check work done by their junior colleagues in their respective departments. The researcher still maintains the point that if there was no initial orientation of SMT members before they assumed their duties there could be lack of compliance, and even shoddiness, in the execution of their duties (cf. the statement of the problem in chapter 1). The last point is relevant to the South African situation in that education is regarded as a societal issue in South Africa.

There are a handful ways in which curriculum supervisors can carry out their responsibilities, such as being engaged in classroom observation, demonstration teaching, supervisor-educator conferences and staff development meetings (Ornstein and Hunkins (2009:267). To the above list of curriculum imperatives, Kruger (in Van Deventer *et al.*, 2003:251) adds that the principal can use the curriculum supervision team to assist him in improving the educators' teaching as well as in developing their abilities. The team in question, consisting of deputy principals, heads of departments or educators acting as subject heads can undertake tasks such as:

- Conducting subject/learning area meetings;

- Engaging in the interpretation of syllabi;
- Unpacking subject/learning area policies;
- Engaging in subject/learning area control (or subject monitoring, according to Badenhorst, 1993:99); and
- Doing class observations (compare with Ornstein and Hoskins, 2009:267 cited above).

To the above list, Badenhorst (1993:98) adds the following curriculum supervisory duties for the SMT:

- Providing sufficient curriculum instructors (educators);
- Giving attention to time allocation;
- Drawing up fixed rules; and
- Rotating different tasks among educators so that potential education leaders may gain experience of the whole spectrum.

The course of curriculum supervision entails two important management or supervision tools, namely monitoring and evaluation. Citing Rist and Kusek (2009), STP HRD Consulting (2011:17) sees monitoring as an integral part of day to day operational management to assess progress against objectives. To expatiate on their view, they advance the following points:

- Monitoring involves the tracking of inputs, activities, output and outcomes against indicators, and the modification of these processes and activities as and when necessary;
- Monitoring is essential in supporting effective management and supervision through reports on actual performance against what was planned or expected (monitoring is planned supervision);
- Monitoring tools are essentially used for the early identification of problems and the solving of these problems as and when they occur;
- Monitoring is based on information collected before and during the operations; and

- Accuracy of information collected for monitoring purposes, and ways to assess the accuracy of the information, are important aspects of monitoring (STP HRD Consulting, 2011:17).

Coupled with monitoring is evaluation, which STP HRD Consulting (2011:21) sees as a more episodic supervision tool than monitoring in that it is facilitated by monitoring but uses additional sources of information. Evaluation focuses on specific questions related to the effectiveness and impact of monitoring in order to influence programmes or services.

It stands to reason that in pursuit of effective curriculum supervision, the SMT (curriculum managers and supervisors) must utilise the supervision tools of monitoring and evaluation for ensuring effective curriculum implementation at school level. This will in turn project positively on learner achievement at the end of each term and in the final examinations, provided all is done in sync with the set prescripts of organisational policies involved.

STP HRD Consulting (2011:27) further provides the following salient points with regard to monitoring and evaluation:

- The monitoring and evaluation system generates information that is shared within an organisation.
- Good monitoring focuses on results and follow-up. It looks at what is going well and what seems not to be progressing well in terms of intended results.
- Good monitoring depends on good design. If a project is poorly designed or is based on false assumptions, even the best monitoring is unlikely to ensure success.

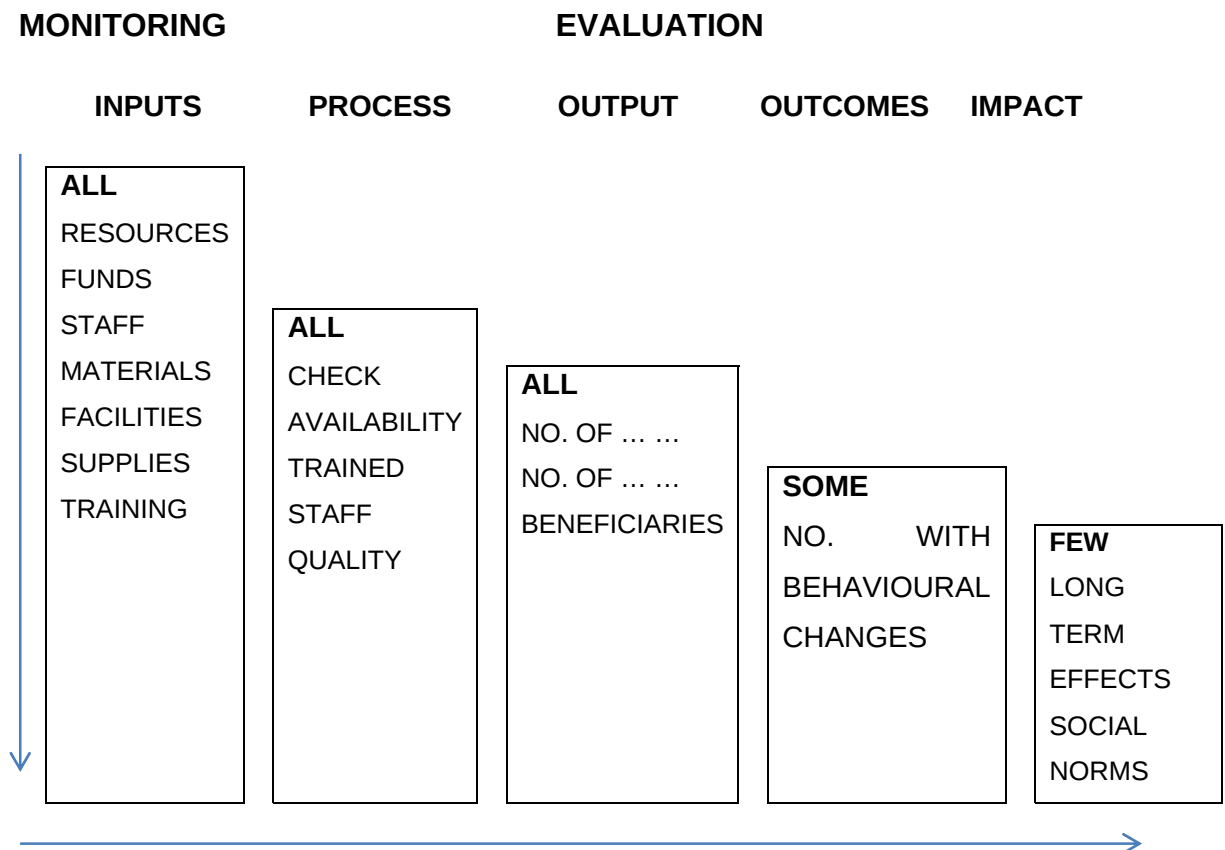
- The monitoring and evaluation system should be integrated with existing management and decision-making systems.
- The system has to fit with the organisational structure.
- It has to include an inventory of the institution's current monitoring and evaluation systems, describe their current status and how to improve the current practice.
- The system should encompass the organisation's approach to implementing programmes. The optimal organisation structure for monitoring and evaluation will differ from organisation to organisation (or from school to school), but this does not endorse the fact that some schools may not comply with the DBE's policy prescripts.

The foregoing points actually emphasise that supervision should be a planned activity that should take place on an on-going basis. It should be part of the master plan of monitoring and evaluation, and should therefore not be an appendage to any supervision programme that has to be implemented. The same goes for curriculum supervision. The SMTs should embody supervision and its intervals in their master plan for monitoring and evaluating the appropriate implementation of the school-based curriculum by their supervisees/educators in their respective school departments.

The researcher's take is that the above, in effect, presupposes that if SMTs do not include monitoring and evaluation in their curriculum supervision schedules they will not have supervised the school-based curriculum implementation effectively. Simply put, monitoring and evaluation is what SMTs should be doing to ensure that they are effective in doing the task of curriculum supervision.

STP HRD Consulting (2011:28) provides the following diagram (Table 2.3.4.2.1) to illustrate the interaction of monitoring and evaluation as tools of supervision:

Figure 2.3.4.2.1: Levels of monitoring and evaluation efforts



LEVELS OF MONITORING AND EVALUATION EFFORTS

In Figure 2.3.3.2.1 above, the flow of the processes of monitoring and evaluation is shown. If we collapse it to the role of the SMTs in the curriculum supervision policy, we realize that they must ensure that they procure resources in the form of funds, staff or personnel (which refers to supervisees), facilities that are necessary for their departments, supplies and doing training for their supervisees or staff in their departments. All these would constitute the SMTs' inputs toward readying their departments for implementing curriculum at school level. After procuring elements of the

SMTs' inputs would follow checking the quality of their inputs, including the availability of trained staff, who would co-facilitate the training of personnel as well as operationalising the inputs into a process.

Then the boundary of monitoring would be reached, as it were, moving forward to evaluation. Evaluation would start at the point of checking the output of training, which involves looking into the number of resources (inputs) utilised, and the number of people who would have benefitted from the process of operationalising resources (inputs). The SMTs would then need to ascertain the number of trainees (supervisees) who would display behavioural changes – such as the ability to carry out school-based curriculum imperatives in the subjects that they (trainees/supervisees) teach. This would then be the outcome of the process of monitoring curriculum implementation. Then the impact of monitoring and evaluation would have long term effects in that well-trained, mentored, inducted personnel would go a long way towards contributing to a cohort of knowledgeable personnel in curriculum implementation – personnel who would not just rely on expertise gained during their pre-service educator training.

Naidu *et al.* (2008:191-192) opine that monitoring the curriculum helps schools, departments or individuals assess how well they are doing. Curriculum monitoring further allows schools to assess if they are achieving targets and teaching standards as well as show where improvement will be necessary. These scholars further suggest the following as key elements for monitoring curriculum:

- Planning the monitoring process;
- Routinely collecting and organising factual data;

- Gathering information by listening to staff members, parents and learners about what is really happening vis-à-vis what managers and supervisors might think is happening or what they would like to see happening in class; and
- Checking without making value judgements – this requires an open mind (Naidu *et al.* (2008:192).

The following questions are crucial when curriculum supervisors plan to use monitoring as a supervision tool:

- Which aspects of school life are to be monitored?
- Do these include all the curriculum areas, teaching in class, the learning process and administration (assessment, planning, and preparation)?
- Where should emphasis lie (should it be on staff inputs, resources or the planning of the teaching programmes and activities)? (Naidu *et al.*, 2008:192).

The principals are a cog in the wheel for spearheading orientation that precedes curriculum implementation at school level in that they are leaders of curriculum supervision and supervisors at school. Ornstein and Hunkins (2009:268) identify the following roles that are attached to principals as part of their curriculum functions:

- Developing an orientation programme for new educators;
- Developing a clear set of goals and objectives;
- Involving individual departments in curriculum development;
- Encouraging communication among schools within the district;
- Handling controversial issues involving curriculum;
- Spending time visiting educators in their classrooms;
- Planning staff development programmes;
- Rewarding curriculum innovation;
- Encouraging educators to effectively use library and media services; and

- Modifying the school environment in order to improve instruction.

Of importance to note is the fact that it is impossible to monitor everything. That is why Naidu *et al.* (2008:192) further say that monitoring the curriculum should be limited to specific focused and target specific priority objectives which are both achievable and manageable. The same scholars continue to advise that monitoring can best be done by routine collecting and analysing of factual data which could include attendance registers, stock lists for equipment and data for assessment. Other than that, curriculum supervisors could also gather the necessary data by:

- interviewing learners, preferably informally;
- actually observing teaching in action;
- monitoring educators tools, such as lesson planning and preparation; and
- holding regular meetings to discuss curriculum delivery aspects (Naidu *et al.*, 2008:192).

Of cardinal importance again is that the rationale behind the curriculum supervisors' monitoring should not so much be to find faults and reprimand supervisees as to praise their efforts and encourage them to improve. Monitoring should be a process of growth on the part of supervisees. Whatever faults and shortcomings that may be found to have occurred should be addressed professionally, while the outcomes of monitoring should not be lost sight of. It should also offer credible judgements that are backed by findings and evidence (Naidu *et al.*, 2008:193).

Naidu *et al.* (2008:193) offer the following points as ethical guidelines for effective monitoring:

- Curriculum supervisors should observe protocol by ensuring that all the relevant personnel have been consulted;
- Supervisors should involve all participants;
- Negotiations should be held with those who will be involved in the process;
- Curriculum supervisors and managers should also be dependable enough to maintain confidentiality;
- Supervisors and managers should also be wary of intruding; and
- They should avoid all forms of bias (Naidu *et al.*, 2008:193).

According to the National Department of Education (2000:28), monitoring and evaluation are sensitive issues; in that they can help schools learn, develop and grow without judging any individuals. Furthermore, monitoring and evaluation help people realize that they have to take responsibility for what they said they would do. This then helps pave a way forward by way of planning for the future (NDOE, 2000:28).

The researcher's opinion is that if monitoring and evaluation are sensitive issues, as posited by the Department of Education, we need to note that curriculum supervision is equally important; its implementation therefore requires close monitoring and evaluation for it to succeed at the level that the policy pertaining thereto does ordain. Therefore, SMTs should include the dual supervision skills of monitoring and evaluation for them to effectively oversee curriculum implementation at school level.

In concluding this chapter, the researcher wishes to note that the avalanche of information provided might spark off some resistance to those SMTs who have never been introduced to it, in that it will be a form of change. Van der Westhuizen and Theron (in Van der Westhuizen, 2007:221) cite Corbet *et al.* (1987) in noting that teachers have a 'reputation' for regarding change as difficult to accept. They go on to point out that the

intensity of their resistance normally depends on what phenomenon has to be changed. The resistance referred to involves an individual or individuals who wish to cushion themselves against the results of change (Van der Westhuizen and Theron in Van der Westhuizen, 2007: 221).

The researcher's take on the above is that if teachers have a reputation to resist change, it should be borne in mind that the SMT members are also teachers who happen to share in the management and supervision responsibilities in a school. If they are not adequately trained before assuming their roles as SMT members, they may resist having to do their jobs to the letter and within the spirit of policies that they have to be at the fore-front in implementing, while their supervisees may in turn follow suit if they perceive their supervisors as not being adequately knowledgeable in ways of mentoring them. In the same vein, we must not lose sight of the fact that SMTs are supposed to be change agents, and as such they lead in instances of educator job redesign – if needs be. It stands to reason, therefore, that SMTs should manage change instead of being the ones resisting it. It should further be borne in mind that the act of assuming duties in a promotion post does in itself presuppose change, as the new incumbent has to adjust to the realities of the new post's requirements – for job satisfaction.

Furthermore, the researcher believes that if constant on-the-job training is embarked upon, all personnel involved in induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision will embrace change as a way of life at the workplace, and not as part of malicious compliance – doing some work just so as to be seen to be working in adherence to policy.

The erstwhile Department of Education may have done a lot of harm by doing away with prerequisite training for aspirant SMT members. In trying to unify the various education departments in the country they threw the baby out with the bathwater, as it were, by not embracing some of merits that could be obtained through copying some of the sound SMT training efforts of past dispensations. In a nutshell, while rigorous training within the job for SMTs may meet with some resistance, as it may be a form of change to those who have been doing things differently from what policy ordains, it has to be done in the quest to improve their practice in the field of education.

Be that as it may, the next chapter will deal with the nitty-gritty issues of the research that was undertaken in this study. We hope to see whether or not participants will have shown signs of resistance in responding to certain sections of the questions by pretending to know everything – albeit being unaware thereof! Conversely, we may also note that other participants may regard responding to questions of the study as an invaluable learning curve that will enlighten them about their shortcoming, if any, in discharging roles and responsibilities of policies that have been reviewed in this chapter. The foregoing discussion will now be followed by the results of curriculum supervision hereunder.

2.3.4.3 The Results of Curriculum Supervision

With regard to proper planning, the results of curriculum supervision may include the fact that supervisees will be able to:

- plan their teaching to achieve progression in learning through:
 - identifying clear teaching objectives and content;

- setting class, group and individual tasks which challenge learners (this overlaps with results for curriculum assessment training);
 - setting appropriate and demanding expectations;
 - setting clear learning targets based on prior achievement;
- provide structured lessons with pace, motivation and challenge;
 - set clear targets for improvement of learner achievement, monitor learner progress towards those targets and use appropriate teaching strategies in the light of this;
 - plan effectively in order to ensure that learners have the opportunity to meet their potential, regardless of their differences in gender, race and levels of achievement (academic abilities);
 - secure a good standard of learner behaviour in the classroom;
 - plan effectively to meet the needs of learners with special education needs (LSEN); and
 - take account of ethnic and cultural diversity to enrich the curriculum and raise achievement levels (Bleach, 1999:17 and19).

With regard to teaching and class management, proper curriculum supervision may result in supervisees being able to:

- Ensure effective teaching of whole classes, groups and individuals;
- Ensure sound learning and discipline;
- Establish a safe learning environment;
- Use teaching methods that keep all learners involved through:
 - stimulating intellectual curiosity;
 - matching approaches in a manner that is suitable to subjects and learners;
 - structuring information well as the lesson progresses;
 - presenting key ideas, using specialist vocabulary and appropriate examples;
 - giving clear instructions and well-paced explanations;

- effective questioning to provide pace and direction;
 - spotting and remedying learners' errors and misconceptions;
 - listening to, analysing and responding well to learners;
 - selecting and making good use of textbooks, ICT and other resources for learning;
 - providing opportunities to consolidate and develop the learners' knowledge;
 - improving the learners' literacy, numeracy ICT and study skills;
 - contributing to the learners' personal, spiritual, moral, social and cultural development; and
 - relating learning to real and work-related examples.
- Ensure that learners gain subject knowledge, skills and understanding; and
 - Evaluate one's teaching critically (Bleach, 1999:17).

The researcher's opinion in this regard is that if SMTs try their hardest to embrace changes that constantly tamper with their induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment and supervision, they will be in a position to manage resistance to change. In doing so they will have to understand the nature of resistance and identify the true sources thereof; they will have to create a trusting relationship between themselves and their supervisees; they will have to infuse education and communication (compare this with what Vermeulen, 1998 posits regarding staff development together with curriculum implementation and supervision).

Furthermore, SMTs can adopt critical, yet objective monitoring processes regarding all organisational policies discussed and, by applying their skill of persuasion and influence (Van der Westhuizen, 2007:235-237), they can manage to even become innovative in

developing, supporting, training and supervising educators in their respective departments.

2.4 CONCLUSION

Chapter 2 looked into two aspects of the study, namely, the theoretical framework and the literature review. The theoretical framework dealt with the conceptualization of theory, namely, Vroom's Expectancy Theory, Harley's the Real and the Ideal, Bloom's Taxonomy, Barrett's Taxonomy and Moseley's Taxonomy, sometimes referred to as the SOLO Taxonomy.

The literature review touched upon the definition, course and results of induction; the definition, course and results of mentoring; curriculum assessment training, which included definition, validity, reliability, test development, test fairness, analysis of extracts of questions from various levels of the DBE, benchmarking marking guidelines and the tolerance range (TR). The last aspect that was dealt with under the literature review was the definition, course and results of curriculum supervision.

Now that the theoretical and literature frameworks of the study have been explored, chapter 3 will attend to how the study was undertaken.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 RESEARCH QUESTIONS AND HYPOTHESES

This chapter is a sequel to chapter 2 wherein theoretical and literature frameworks were discussed adequately with regard to the variables at play in this thesis. Mouton and Marais (1990:18-20) posit that in the pursuit of research, ontological assumptions (the physical realities) give rise to epistemological assumptions (making objective inquiry that also informs the type of study to be undertaken). White (2002:11) adds that the quantitative researcher believes in an objective reality which can be explained, controlled and predicted by natural (that is, cause-effect) laws. These in turn give rise to methodological considerations (quantitative or qualitative paradigms or both, literature study and sampling procedure or selection of cases) (Mouton and Marais, 1990:18-20). The foregoing will be the main thrust of this chapter.

The purpose of this study is premised on the following research questions, as highlighted in the research plan in chapter 1:

- What is the effect of organisation policy on the SMTs' job performance?
- What is the relationship between induction and the SMTs' job performance?
- What is the effect of mentoring on SMTs' job performance?
- How does assessment training affect SMTs' job performance?
- What is the relationship between curriculum supervision and SMTs' job performance?

- How can the SMTs' job performance be improved in relation to the above variables?

The researcher's purpose was to report his findings from participants who would have willingly agreed to be respondents to research instruments that embody the foregoing research questions. Based on the research plan (chapter 1) and on the theoretical and literature frameworks that were discussed extensively in chapter 2, the research paradigm, design and methodology guided the data collection method, as well as population and sample sizes.

Furthermore, since the study has chosen the quantitative research paradigm, it was also premised on null hypotheses. Vermeulen (1998:21) sees a hypothesis as a statement that purports that there is a relationship between concepts that have been identified in the problem that informs undertaking the study. Monteith and Steyn (1999:2) add that hypotheses are always formulated in declarative form. White (2002:34) extends this view by adding that hypotheses are not only declarative statements but they are also testable and indicative of expected results. This feature distinguishes hypotheses from research questions, since the latter are definitely formulated in the form of questions. The researcher has followed the foregoing trend in formulating hypotheses which he deemed to be relevant to the current study.

Furthermore, Monteith and Steyn (1999:7), citing McMillan and Schumacher (1989:349), state that research hypotheses cannot be proven directly by available statistical or quantitative procedures. They continue to opine that owing to the foregoing problem, research hypotheses have to be translated into what is called null or statistical hypotheses. The latter will then lend themselves to the maxim that there is no

relationship (or effect) between variables. Maree (2003:97) corroborates this view by adding that the null hypothesis postulates that no relationship exists between variables, or that there is no effect of one variable on another. Thus, they conclude that a null hypothesis “states the opposite or a negation of what the researcher expects or predicts” (Monteith and Steyn, 1999:7). In the light of the latter definition of a null hypothesis, it follows that ‘null’ actually means negative or zero. On the other hand, ‘statistical’ in statistical hypothesis explains that null hypotheses can best be tested using numerical data analysing procedures.

Apart from hypotheses, variables are worthy of mention in the present study. White (2002:8) regards variables as an interrelated set of constructs that constitute a theory. Variables at play in the present study were both the independent and dependent ones. Education Facilitators (1999:41) claim that independent variables are those that the researcher chooses to study and often manipulates so as to assess their possible effect on other variables; dependent variables are those that the independent variables are presumed to be having an effect on, or presumed to be affecting.

Thus, in the light of the foregoing discourse regarding hypotheses and variables, the researcher advanced the following null hypotheses that would be tested at .05 alpha level of significance to back up the study. The .05 alpha level of significance, write Monteith and Steyn (1999:8), affords the researcher the possibility that if the null hypothesis is rejected while being at that alpha level (.05), there is still a 5% chance of it being true. It is worth noting that some scholars prefer using ‘not supported’ to ‘rejected’ when it comes to null hypotheses, since they can neither be accepted nor rejected unequivocally (Cohen *et al.*, 2012:608-609). Furthermore, the latter scholars also point

out that it is advisable to test null hypotheses to a .05 alpha level of significance in order to avoid *type 1 error*, where one might not support the hypothesis while it is in fact true, as well as *type 2 error*, in which case one would support a hypothesis that is in fact false (Cohen *et al.*, 2012:616). The foregoing should then be enough to explain why the current researcher adopted the above level of significance in formulating the following null hypotheses:

- There is no significant relationship between induction and SMTs' job performance.
- There is no significant relationship between mentoring and SMTs' job performance.
- There is no significant relationship between curriculum assessment training and SMTs' job performance.
- There is no significant relationship between curriculum supervision and SMTs' job performance.

As Creswell (2012:150-151) advises, research questions and hypotheses consist of variables, and identifying such variables will determine what data need to be collected. In the light of this explanation regarding variables, induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision are the independent variables in this study, while the effect they are presumed to be having is upon the SMTs' job performance, which is the dependent variable. It should further be borne in mind that the theoretical and literature frameworks that were the main thrust of chapter 2 were also based on information pertaining to the same variables as found in our research questions and hypotheses. Suffice it to say that all other variables which the researcher deemed to be extraneous to the study as conceptualised have not received attention in our discourse.

The null hypotheses, as bulleted above, would be tested simultaneously with the research questions that were asked earlier. What follows now is the discussion of the methodological approach or research paradigm that was followed in trying to have the research questions answered and the null hypotheses tested, which is the quantitative or positivist research paradigm.

3.2 RESEARCH PARADIGM AND APPROACH

The research paradigm followed in this study is the positivist paradigm or, simply put, positivism. This naturally follows from the fact that null hypotheses have been used, as indicated in the previous slot. Furthermore, it is for the same reason that other paradigms than the one used have not been accorded any space in our discourse.

Vermeulen (1998:11) opines that positivism is an epistemological doctrine that holds the view that the physical and social reality is independent of those who observe it. He further posits that positivist researchers develop knowledge by collecting numerical data (Vermeulen, 1998:11), whilst Cohen *et al.* (2011:7-9) state that the meaning of positivism derives from accepting that natural science is a paradigm of human knowledge, and that the paradigm allows for quantification of data that may be elicited through identifying and classifying ‘functional relationships among phenomena’.

Since the current study follows the positivist research paradigm, it follows that numerical data were collected in order to develop knowledge regarding the effect of organisation policy on the SMTs’ job performance, which is embodied in the title of this research report. This already presupposes a relationship between phenomena, in line with the above discourse. The phenomena whose relationship is presupposed in the study are

the following variables: organisational policies (independent) and the SMTs' job performance (dependent).

The positivist research paradigm operates best when used with the quantitative approach (compare with quantification of data, Cohen *et al.*, 2011 as cited earlier on). According to Gall *et al.* (1996:767) the quantitative research approach is an inquiry that is grounded in the assumption that features of the social environment constitute an objective reality that is relatively constant across time and settings. They further point out that the dominant methodology used in this kind of inquiry is to describe and explain features of this reality by collecting numerical data and subjecting such data to statistical analysis. This kind of methodology also involves the testing of hypotheses and, since this is done statistically, the results thereof are believed to be objective.

In corroborating the above, Vermeulen (1998:14-15) is indebted to Denzin and Lincoln (1994), and describes the quantitative research paradigm in depth as follows:

- It is an inquiry that assumes an objective social reality;
- It assumes that the social reality is relatively constant across time and settings;
- It views casual relationships among social phenomena from a mechanistic perspective;
- It studies populations or samples that represent populations;
- It takes an objective, detached stance toward research participants and their settings;
- It studies behaviour and other observable phenomena;
- It studies human behaviour in natural or contrived settings;
- It analyses social reality into variables;

- It uses preconceived concepts and theories to determine what kind of data will be collected;
- It generates numerical data to represent the social environment;
- It uses statistical methods to analyse data;
- It uses statistical inference procedure to generalize findings from a sample to a defined population;
- It prepares impersonal, objective reports of research findings;
- Its procedures are highly formalised;
- It is more explicitly controlled;
- It uses a deductive form of reasoning: collects data to assess preconceived models, hypotheses and theories;
- It tests hypotheses that the researcher triggers off his study with;
- When using quantitative research paradigm, observations are systematically undertaken in a standardised manner;
- Its concepts are in the form of distinct variables;
- Data are presented by means of exact figures elicited from precise measurement;
- The researcher's role is that of an objective observer;
- The research is standardised according to fixed procedure and can be replicated;
- Studies are focused on specific questions or hypotheses that remain constant throughout the investigation;
- Data collection procedures and types of measurement are constructed in advance and applied in a standardised manner; and
- Measurements are focused on specific variables that are quantified through rating scales, frequency counts and other means.

White (2002:11-12) verifies the above by saying that the ideal quantitative researcher is detached from the study to avoid bias. This enables the researcher to be objective as the researcher never influences the study. Nor is he influenced thereby. White (2002:12) further posits that in quantitative studies an experimental or correlational

design is used in order to reduce error, bias and to dull the effects of extraneous variables. This, in effect, contrasts with the qualitative research which was not utilised in the current study – and will therefore not be discussed. Nor will research paradigms pertaining to qualitative research be discussed.

Thus, the current researcher's rationale for selecting the quantitative approach was with a view to tapping into the above, numerous merits in a bid to conducting research in an objective, unattached manner, after which data would be subjected to numerical scrutiny and analysis in the quest for objective findings and generalisations at the completion of the study. Now that the research paradigm and approach to the current study have been explained, what follows is a discussion of the research designs that were selected, namely, the correlational and survey research designs.

3.3 RESEARCH DESIGN

Education Facilitators (1999:82) posit that a research design provides the study's general shape or structure. A research design is in essence a map that guides the researcher through his journey. This is a plan which describes "... when, where, what and how data" will be amassed to ensure that the researcher's questions are answered. A research design is therefore a 'blueprint' of how the study will be conducted (Education Facilitators, 1999). It is, in essence, an overarching plan of how research will be done.

Mouton and Marais (1990:32) corroborate the above by citing Selltiz *et al.* (1965) who posit that a research design is the arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner whose aim it is to combine relevance to the research purpose with

economy in procedure. Mouton and Marais (1990) further posit that design implies decisions that are taken beforehand in order to ensure that potential mistakes are limited. This still corroborates the fact that it provides a 'blueprint'. Design, therefore, implies that a study has been planned.

The foregoing definition of research design does not only collapse it to a blueprint or plan, but it also includes dimensions of relevance and economy – which are crucial in that they can make or break a study. About the dimension of relevance we can say it co-exists in a particular research question and a general research (problem) area. In other words, if it is relevant to try and find a solution to a problem, then it becomes relevant to investigate it. Researchers should view the concept of relevance with regard to theory (policy) and practice.

The relevance of theory applies if we find 'gaps' in the knowledge that we have about a phenomenon. This, in effect, means that researchers are relevant in seeking to find answers relating to theoretical gaps. The relevance of practice, on the other hand, applies if or when we find answers to existing gaps in that we will contribute to "more effective social policy or treatment interventions" (Education Facilitators, 1999:3). This means that the research design is irrelevant if it does not contribute to enriching the researcher's hypotheses.

On the dimension of economy, the researcher should determine the cost of equipment, travel, calculations, payment for experimental subjects and the like. He has to compare the probable length of time required for the completion of his proposed study within the time that he has available, having balanced everything with his family and professional

plans with his economic status and his zeal to solve the problem. However, it must be borne in mind that experimental designs are not the only ones that can be ascribed to quantitative or positivist research paradigms. Nonexperimental research designs also fall under the quantitative research paradigms. This research project is an example of positivist research that is nonexperimental.

The current study involved the correlational research design that adopted the survey research design in order to collect data. This means that a triangulation of research designs was utilised so as to facilitate the execution of the current study. White (2002:17-18) regards triangulation as an aspect that combines qualitative and quantitative approaches in research. White (2002), nevertheless, continues to state that several authors simply regard triangulation as cross validation of data sources so as to increase the reliability of the researcher's conclusion.

Education Facilitators (1999:5) caution that the meaning of a theoretical concept has to be more closely specified, as the definition thereof is invariably derived from the conceptual framework or theory within which it is used. White (2002:18) corroborates the foregoing by positing that a researcher has to indicate the meaning of triangulation as it applies to his research project. This therefore means that for the purposes of the current study triangulation simply acknowledges the fact that the present researcher used both the correlational and survey research designs, albeit both designs subscribe to the quantitative research approach. McMillan and Schumacher (2014: 30) categorise both designs as part of nonexperimental research designs that subscribe to the quantitative research paradigm. Both research designs will individually receive attention in the discourse that follows hereunder.

3.3.1 Correlational Research Design

Leedy and Ormrod (2010:183-184) point out that a correlational study examines the extent to which differences in one characteristic or variable are related to differences in one or more other characteristics or variable. In this type of design, researchers gather data about two or more characteristics for a group of people or other units of study. McMillan and Schumacher (2014:300) corroborate the above by positing that correlational research is concerned with assessing relationships between two or more phenomena, and that this kind of research involves a statistical measure of the degree of relationship – which is the correlation. Creswell (2012:338) summarises the above by indicating that one uses the correlational research design when one seeks to relate two or more variables to see if they influence each other. The latter explanation is closest to what the researcher had in mind when planning the current research project.

Suffice it to say that whatever the nature of the data, at least two different characteristics are measured so as to determine whether or not they are related, and in what way they might be interrelated. In the current study, the correlational or correlative design is the one that the researcher chose. Since the study sought to deal with relationships between certain independent variables vis-à-vis a dependent variable, the researcher found it fitting to employ the correlative research design. Independent variables are the policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision (collectively referred to as organisation policy) which were juxtaposed to the dependent variable, namely, the SMTs' job performance (practice). This leads us to discussing the survey research design hereunder.

3.3.2 Survey Research Design

Leedy and Ormrod (2010:187) point out that some scholars use the term 'survey research' broadly to refer to almost any form of descriptive, quantitative research. In a more restricted sense, however, survey research involves acquiring information about one or more groups of people by asking them questions and tabulating their answers, the ultimate goal of which being to learn more about a large population by surveying a sample of that population. Hence the survey research design might be called a descriptive survey or a normative survey.

Simply put, a survey is quite simple in design, as the researcher poses a series of questions to willing participants, summarises their responses with percentages, frequency counts or more sophisticated statistical indexes, after which he draws inferences about that population from the responses of the sample (Leedy & Ormrod, 2010:187). McMillan and Schumacher (2014:30-31) do not perceive a survey research differently, in that they opine that in a survey research the investigator (researcher) selects a sample of subjects and administers a questionnaire in order to collect data.

Creswell (2012:380-381) tabulates the characteristics of the survey research design as follows:

- Sampling from a population;
- Collecting data through questionnaires or interviews;
- Designing instruments for data collection; and
- Obtaining a high response rate (Creswell, 2012:380-381). These views are no different from those of Leedy & Ormrod and McMillan & Schumacher, as cited above.

The current study used the correlational research design, as stated earlier in this discourse, but it adopted the survey research as part of the grand design – the correlational research. In line with what scholars say a survey is (compare this with Leedy and Ormrod, 2010:187, and McMillan and Schumacher, 2014:30-31, as cited in the previous paragraph) the current study used two structured questionnaires to collect data from randomly sampled SMT members from the FET Phase (the secondary school) with a view to summarizing responses with percentages, frequency counts and other quantitative data analysing procedures. The questionnaires collected data relating to the policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision from SMT members of the high schools in the Maluti Education District in the Province of the Eastern Cape.

In a nutshell, the researcher preferred using the correlational research design as the current study lends itself to correlating the following phenomena: induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision (independent variables) with the SMTs' job performance (dependent variable). This was done so as to facilitate the answering of the research questions and as a way of trying to prove the null hypotheses that have been put forward as a means of directing the research action. Furthermore, since the researcher wished to survey the views of participants with regard to the independent variables of the study (induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision) vis-à-vis the dependent variable (the SMTs' job performance), he found it necessary to adopt the survey research design in the form of structured questionnaires, which, as mentioned in the earlier discourse of the current chapter, would ensure that all participants would have been subjected to responding to

identical research questions (this compares well with Vermeulen, 1998:14-15). Again, the above designs are consistent with the quantitative research approach, which the current study follows. They have been followed to reduce error, bias and to dull the effects of any extraneous variables, as indicated earlier in the discourse (compare with White, 2002: 12).

Having discussed the research designs that the study used and adopted, what now follows is an exposition of the population and sampling techniques that were employed in the current study.

3.4 POPULATION AND SAMPLING TECHNIQUES

3.4.1 Population

In research terms, a population is a group of elements or cases that conform to specific criteria that the researcher has determined for the purposes of his research. These may also include individuals, objects or events. Thus Vermeulen (1998:50) explains population as a term that determines the limits of the study units, which consist of individuals who have the characteristics which the investigator is interested in. Population is, therefore, that group about whom researchers wish to draw conclusions (Babbie, 1998:109).

The population also constitutes the basis of generalisation once the researcher has conducted and completed researching the problem that the study had identified for the purposes of the research project. Such a population can also be referred to as a target population in that it conforms to the kind of investigation that the researcher seeks to undertake (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014:143). White (2002:57) warns that in the case

of a research study population is not the aggregate number of people in a country, but that the term sums up the cases that meet our definition of the unit of analysis.

Since the study is about the training meted out or that is supposed to be meted out to SMTs in the Education District at Maluti, our population consists of all SMTs in the schools of the Maluti District of Education. The district consists of nine (9) educational circuits. With regard to age, this population may not necessarily be equal in that their points of entry to their ranks are not the same. This further means that their work experience will differ from school to school and individual to individual. To make this study feasible, the researcher only targeted SMTs in the Maluti District of Education high schools. This is explained in the next paragraph.

A population of 84 SMTs was envisaged in that invariably most schools have a minimum of 3 SMT members, while there are 28 high schools in the area. A population chosen from the same level of the education sector (high schools) would arguably have more characteristics in common than if the junior sector or primary schools were added to it (compare this with Vermeulen 1998:50, as cited earlier and Cohen *et al.*, 2000:92, to be cited under the sampling techniques in this section). Sampling techniques will now receive attention below.

3.4.2 Sampling Techniques

Welman and Kruger (1999:47) make the point that the size of the population often makes it impractical and expensive to include all the members thereof in a research project. Hence they posit that researchers need to rely on data obtained from a sample of the population. Cohen *et al.* (2000:92) indicate that factors such as expense, time and accessibility more often than not do not allow researchers to glean information from

the whole group and then they resort to a smaller group that is representative of the bigger one. Sampling refers to the procedure by which a given number of participants from a population is selected to represent that population (Monteith and Steyn, 1999:2); the sampling plan is an essential part of the research design (Education Facilitators, 2000:83).

The ideal is to study the whole population, but time, money and other resources may not permit such a move. That is why sampling has to be done, so as for the researcher to be in a position to generalise the findings in respect of the population as a whole. Maree (2003:36) confirms that sampling is a very common practice in society. He goes on to point out that the methods employed in sampling vary considerably. They can roughly be classified into:

- probability procedures; and
- non-probability procedures (Maree, 2003:36).

Probability procedures are the ones that will receive some attention hereunder, seeing that the current study lends itself thereto, since it is designed within the quantitative approach. On the other hand, non-probability procedures will not be discussed in this discourse, since they mostly lend themselves to qualitative research approaches, which have not been used in the current study.

Maree (2003:36) further points out that in a probability sample each element in the population has a known positive probability or chance to be included in the sample, whereas in a non-probability sample bias and subjectivity determine which elements will be included in the sample. Since this study has employed the quantitative research paradigm as indicated earlier, probability sampling was used to choose participants

therein. Simple random sampling is an example of probability sampling, and it is the one that was used in this study, since the researcher wanted every participant in the population to have an equal probability of being part of the sample. This also points to the quest for objectivity, in line with quantitative research (compare with what Vermeulen, 1998:14-15, says with regard to quantitative research, as cited in the research approach section above).

Creswell (2012:206) sees simple random sampling as directly contrasting with a qualitative study's purposeful sampling in that, whereas in the former all members of the population have equal chances of making the sample, the latter selects people or sites who best understand the phenomenon being investigated. Simple random sampling will now be discussed hereunder.

Simple random sampling

According to Maree (2003:36) simple random sampling originates when elements are drawn one by one, and when each element in the population has a chance of being included in the sample. He equates simple random sampling to a well-known lottery procedure, where one uses one or another chance mechanism.

Simple random sampling is the probability sampling technique that was used in constituting the representative sample of the study at hand. It is the one that talks to giving each member of the population an equal chance of being selected in the sample (Vermeulen, 1998:53). This technique was used to select a cohort of principals, deputy principals and HODs (SMTs) randomly in the high schools of Maluti Education District to form part of the sample for this study. The sample size will follow Stoker's guideline

(1985), as cited by White (2002:59) of the suggested percentages per population number:

Table 3.3.2.1: Stoker's sample guideline

Population	Percentage suggested	Number of respondents
20	100%	20
30	80%	24
50	64%	32
100	45%	45
200	32%	64
500	20%	100
1 0000	14%	140
10 000	4,5%	450
100 000	2%	2 000
200 000	1%	2 000

(Stoker, 1985)

Three SMT members per 28 public high schools constitute 84. The 29th public high school was used to pilot the research instrument. We should bear in mind that three is just an aggregated minimum as some schools will have about five to six members of the SMT, depending on the learner population in each school. Also worthy of mention is that some of the high schools in the area are privately owned institutions that, however, have the same characteristics as the public ones. They are all enrolled with the DBE for assessment quality assurance and certification – their school-based assessment,

syllabus and examination guidelines are the same documents used by the DBE (public) schools.

Since some of the privately owned schools may not take kindly to being sampled with public institutions, the fact that some schools have more than three (3) SMT members may stand our data collection in good stead regarding the sample. Since Stoker's table (1985) does not show 84, the researcher will take the percentage for a population of 50, which is 64%. This will give a sample of about 54 members out of a population of 84, which is proportionately larger. This is supported by scholars such as McMillan and Schumacher (2014:154-155) who advise that, as a general rule, quantitative research needs as many subjects as possible in order for the researcher to obtain a credible result.

In this regard, Vermeulen (1998:56) posits that the researcher can establish that the sample of his research is representative of the population "on critical parameters at an accepted level of probability". The above scholar continues to state that the probability level that he is referring to is called a confidence level and is normally set at 95% - which is the so-called .05 alpha level. He rounds off his argument by saying that the confidence level is sometimes set at 99% (the .01 alpha level) since the confidence level of 100% is always an overestimate – as no sample can ever be 100% representative (Vermeulen, 1998:56).

On the other hand the same scholars caution that while the above is a general rule, the researcher should also consider possible constraints such as finance, logistics and availability of subjects or participants (McMillan and Schumacher, 2014:155). White

(2002, citing De Vos, 2000) posits that larger samples enable researchers to draw more accurate conclusions and make more accurate predictions. Furthermore, this sample size is even more justifiable in that our study is designed as correlational research about which McMillan and Schumacher (2014:156) say there should be a minimum of 30 participants.

Suffice it to say that in the current study a sample of 54 participants who would have been randomly gleaned from a population of 84 SMT members was both sufficient for the chosen research design and feasible. In other words, the researcher found the study to be feasible with regard to the time at his disposal within which to finish the study, and the resources (White, 2002:37) as the study would not involve extensive travelling by the researcher. The population and sampling techniques having been decided, what follows hereunder is a discussion of the ethical considerations that the researcher had to bear in mind so as to ensure that the study could, by no means, infringe on the welfare of the sampled participants as well as give a bad name to academia.

3.5 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Strydom (in De Vos *et al.*, 2011:113) posits that research must 'be based on mutual trust, acceptance, cooperation, promises and well-accepted conventions and expectations' among all the people who are involved in a research study. Vermeulen, (1998:16) amplifies this by making the point that researchers and scientists of all disciplines have a moral responsibility for the nature and consequences of their research projects. He further posits that some ethical considerations should be taken into account in order to protect the human rights of participants. McMillan and

Schumacher (2014:23) corroborate the human rights issue regarding participants. They further include the dimension of protecting the welfare of subjects who participate in a study.

The current researcher believes that ethics are an important aspect of research. For instance, it would be unethical for a researcher to subject participants to a study that might jeopardise their health, life, as well as their well-being just so that he may have the gratification of having done research successfully. It is incumbent upon the researcher, therefore, to assess the risks involved for participants vis-à-vis the benefits, and his decision to conduct or stop conducting research should then be determined by whichever outweighs the other – the risks or benefits to the participants.

The current researcher also deems it not ethically acceptable for a study to be trivialized for the sake of precise completion, while it is advisable to break it down from being highly and unintelligibly abstract to being concrete enough to be clear. The last point further explains why the researcher decided to adopt the quantitative or positivist research paradigm in the current study. It is in the light of the foregoing, that in the study to be undertaken, the following ethical considerations were taken note of.

3.5.1 Anonymity

Participants in a research study have the right to remain anonymous. Vermeulen (1998: 17) posits that since information from individuals is often grouped into averages, individual participants cannot, therefore, be identified. Vermeulen (1998) further adds that numbers are often used to signify participants in a research study. According to McMillan and Schumacher (2014:133), anonymity implies that the researcher cannot identify the participants from any data or information that has been gathered.

McMillan and Schumacher (2014:133) continue to posit that anonymity can easily be achieved with the use of survey research, as there can be little or no identifiable information therein that can be linked to any of the participants, while the participants' responses are also objective. Even in the current study, participants were not required to write their names on the questionnaire that they had to respond to, and since there would be no one-to-one or any form of interview whatsoever, the participants' anonymity was guaranteed. Informed consent is another ethical consideration that will receive attention below.

3.5.2 Informed Consent

According to White (2002:85) obtaining informed consent implies the following:

- that all possible or adequate information on the goal of the investigation be known to participants;
- the procedures that will be followed in an investigation are tabled to participants;
- the possible advantages, disadvantages and dangers to which respondents may be exposed; and
- the credibility of the researcher be rendered to potential participants or their legal representatives.

In this regard, Strydom (in De Vos *et al.*, 2011:117) adds that researchers must place emphasis on accurate and complete information such that participants fully understand the details of the study so that they may make a voluntary decision about their possible participation. White (2002:85-86), citing Strydom (2000:25-26), further advises that accurate and complete information should be provided to participants so that they may be able to make a voluntary, thoroughly reasoned decision regarding their possible

participation. To this end Vermeulen (1998:18), quoting the Nuremberg Code of 1947, admonishes that the voluntary consent of human participants is absolutely essential.

However, White (2002:86) emphasises that the key element of informed consent is not necessarily the comprehensiveness of the information provided to participants, but rather that its relevance to the participants' decision is of vital importance. On the other hand, Leedy and Ormrod (2010:193) warn that if a researcher must reveal that he is collecting data for a thesis he ought to use the word *study* instead of thesis, as theses hold very little glamour in the everyday world, except for the world of the researcher and his promoter or supervisor.

Accordingly, the researcher informed the participants formally about the nature of the study, what the study was intended to do, the degree whose requirements the study was intended to satisfy, the researcher's promoter and that no participant would be coerced into participating – that is, participants had to fill in questionnaires out of their own volition. Letters requesting permission to administer the researcher's instrument were, therefore, written to schools wherein the researcher solicited for respondents to be willing participants. Ensuring that participants are protected from harm will receive attention hereunder.

3.5.3 Protection from harm

White (2002:85) posits that participants in a study must be protected from physical and mental discomfort, harm and danger, and that if there is a possibility for any of the foregoing to occur, the researcher must inform participants of any impending risk. The latter view is shared by Strydom (in De Vos *et al.*, 2011:114). White (2002) illustrates this further by stating that in educational research the most likely harm may be more

emotional than physical. McMillan and Schumacher (2014:131) add that protection from harm implies not “revealing information that may result in embarrassment or danger to home life, school performance, friendships, and the like, as well as direct negative consequences”.

In this study the paper embodying the questionnaire was a standard, A4 size type of paper that educators often used at school without any harmful chemicals. Participants were kindly asked to use their own pens whose ink would be guaranteed not to cause any harm to them. No grotesque, potentially dangerous equipment that could compromise the welfare of participants was involved or used in the execution of the current study. The privacy of participants is discussed below.

3.5.4 Privacy

This involves an individual participant’s right to decide whether they will participate in a research project or not, as well as, if participating, the right not to disclose any information about them (Vermeulen, 1998:17). The stance taken by Strydom is that under no circumstances whatsoever should a researcher use concealed media such as ‘video cameras, one-way mirrors or microphones’ without the knowledge and written consent of research respondents (Strydom in De Vos *et al.*, 2011:121).

Even in this study care was taken not to antagonise participants by asking them questions that would make them feel uncomfortable and participants themselves had to respond to the questionnaires in the privacy of their places of abode. Furthermore, the current study did not require any video, camera or mirror footage. As indicated in the previous ethical consideration, the researcher solicited the consent of participants and

the institutions where they serve. Confidentiality is another of the ethical considerations that were looked into, and it thus receives attention hereunder.

3.5.5 Confidentiality

Macmillan and Schumacher (2014:134) state that confidentiality can be ensured by making certain that any data collected cannot be linked to individual participants by name. The same scholars also make the following suggestions regarding the maintenance of confidentiality:

- Data have to be collected anonymously;
- The researcher can use an interim system of names that are linked to data and destroy those names later on;
- Participants can be asked to use aliases instead of proper names;
- The researcher can use a third party to link names to data and he can receive results without names; and
- The researcher can also report group instead of individual results (McMillan and Schumacher, 2014:134).

Vermeulen (1998:17) adds that questionnaires and data should be identified by means of numbers rather than names, and that data and questionnaires with responses should be destroyed at the conclusion of the research project, that is, after information has been used. Access to research data must be restricted at all times (Vermeulen, 1998:17). White (2002:87) adds that violation of privacy, the right to self-determination and confidentiality can be viewed as being synonymous.

Even in the current study care was taken not to attach names to returned questionnaires. Only the researcher and the supervisor had access to the research data including returned questionnaires. The questionnaires were to be destroyed after data

obtained therein would have been used and the research project concluded (compare this with what Vermeulen, 1998:17 says regarding this, as cited in the previous paragraph). The very act of using questionnaires points to the fact that data would be collected anonymously, while results would be aggregated per group as against individual participant's responses (compare with what McMillan and Schumacher, 2014:134 point out with regard to this, as cited above). This would further keep the data collected confidential. Professionalism also needs to be looked into, and this follows below.

3.5.6 Professionalism

Participants need to be treated with respect and utmost professionalism. This was even more crucial in this study in that all participants were human beings. White (2002:88) points out that no value judgements are to be made under any circumstances whatsoever on the cultural aspect of the community from whom participants are sampled. Akin to that they will need to be accorded the respect commensurate with their positions, as SMTs also occupy a higher professional status in the school than their post level one colleagues – whom they supervise.

One way of showing professionalism is to give the participants ample time to respond to the questionnaires. For instance, people who have consented to participate cannot be given questionnaires today and be expected to have responded by tomorrow. To those participants who will need a push before they respond, friendly reminders should be given without offending them – this can be done through liaising with heads of institutions where they serve. The researcher also believes that in the interest of

assigning credibility to academia, the aspect of plagiarism needs to be looked into, and this happens below.

3.5.7 Plagiarism

The researcher believes that the issue of avoiding plagiarism is one the most vital issues in ethics. If this is observed throughout the research, it ensures the professional and academic integrity of the researcher. To this end, McMillan and Schumacher (2014:136), citing the American Psychological Association (APA) (2001), posit that avoiding plagiarism is done in pursuit of two goals of ethical principles, namely:

- to ensure that scientific and scholarly (academic) knowledge is accurate; and
- to protect the rights pertaining to intellectual property.

The foregoing scholars (McMillan and Schumacher, 2014:136) further posit that plagiarism can be avoided by always giving credit to the contributions of other scholars and people, including organisations.

White (2002:28) illustrates the point regarding plagiarism succinctly by saying:

There's a branch of law known as intellectual property. This field is based on the idea that original work – speeches, publications, and artistic creations – is not free for the taking. Anyone who borrows from these works is obligated to acknowledge the work's creator. This is the purpose behind copyrights, patents and trademarks (White, 2002:28).

The present researcher has tried his hardest in this research project to acknowledge all the sources from which he gleaned all the information that seemed both useful and

relevant to the current research. This includes even peoples' presentations regarding the issues under review in the current study. That is why the researcher even acknowledged the work that originated from him when he was busy with his master's dissertation.

The ethical issues having been dealt with, the researcher believes it fitting that he should deal with the data collection techniques and mechanisms in the following discourse of this chapter.

3.6 DATA COLLECTION

This is a crucial stage which, if flawed, will render the researcher's work in the previous phases null and void. To circumvent such a problem, collecting data should be done extremely carefully, such as by planning, doing groundwork and making clear contracts with those in charge of the data that the researcher requires (Education Facilitators, 2000:84). The current study is no exception to the foregoing rule in that the researcher set about collecting data that would be analysed.

One way of collecting data, which was used in this study in chapter 2, was comparing and analysing a sample of questions extracted from assessment instruments (question papers) for 2014, which included the final examinations, trial examinations and examinations set at district and/or school levels. The researcher deemed doing this crucial in that the SMTs' input in district and/or school-based examinations would be gauged therein. Thus, the SMTs' input in setting district and/or school-based examinations was compared with both provincial and national papers in terms of cognitive and content balance as specified in the CAPS documents and Grade 12

examination guidelines for different subjects from 2014 henceforth. To this end, extracts from question papers whose CAPS documents and the 2014 examination guidelines (for Grade 12) could be raised by the researcher were analysed in the section dealing with curriculum assessment training in chapter 2.

Hence results of that comparison will constitute part of data analysis at the appropriate slot of the present research, since the present researcher is convinced that the level of non-compliance, or compliance to some extent, will strengthen the fact that SMTs need relevant training or development prior to their application and assumption of duties as principals, deputy principals, HODs and senior educators (that is, as SMT members), for them to adequately train and capacitate their supervisees with specific reference to the following organisational policies: induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision.

For reasons to be extensively spelt out below, the researcher also decided to use structured questionnaires as data collection instruments. Questionnaires fare better in collecting data for studies following quantitative research designs and paradigms. The current study, as stated earlier in this chapter, also followed a quantitative research paradigm. Thus, the instruments that the current study used for collecting data will receive attention hereunder.

3.6.1 Instruments

Correlational studies and survey research invariably use questionnaires to learn about people's behaviours, characteristics, attitudes and opinions, since these are often quite complex and not easily evaluated or quantified (Leedy and Ormrod, 2010:189). Since the study is designed around both the correlative and survey research designs, it is no

exception to what the above scholars posit. The data collection instruments that were used in this study were structured questionnaires. The merits of using a structured questionnaire as a data collection instrument lie with what STP HRD Consulting (2011:45-46) posits about it, which is tabulated hereunder:

- Structured data collection methods are useful when numeric information is needed. (This is particularly useful if a study uses the quantitative approach, like the current study.)
- Questions are asked in a standard way. (All respondents or participants answer the same questions in terms of content that is required, as well as in terms of the phrasing that has been used. A standard way of asking questions may support the authenticity of results.)
- All questions must be asked. (In the semi-structured or unstructured data collection methods this may not be possible and those methods may be time-consuming.)
- Most questions have pre-set possible answering options to choose from.
- In structured data collection methods results become straight forward to analyse.
- Structured data collection methods follow many of the same rules as in the use of questionnaires.

The present study used structured questionnaires to collect its data. The reason for using structured questionnaires was that, as in the above discourse, the researcher wished to ask as many relevant questions as possible to all participants who constituted the sample. The researcher also deemed it useful to standardise all questions so that participants would respond to identical questions. As scholastically presented in the bulleted points above, the researcher also found it fitting to use a structured questionnaire, because numerically analysed information was needed for the ease, convenience and objectivity of reporting. The researcher considered the closed-form

(structured) questionnaire of modified Likert scale responses from SA to SD that is, Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD) to be the best instrument for the current study because it would be easy to subject it to statistical analysis. The foregoing type of questionnaire was used to collect data relating to our study's independent variables, namely, induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision.

Another structured questionnaire was used to collect data relating to the SMTs' job performance or job satisfaction, which constitutes our dependent variable. The rating scale used in this case was still of the Likert scale format, although numbers ranging from 1 to 5 were used, with the numbers representing POOR, FAIR, GOOD, VERY GOOD and EXCELLENT respectively. Furthermore, all participants would have answered the same questions by the time the questionnaires are collected. In this type the participant can answer the items more quickly (McMillan and Schumacher, 2014:214). In this regard, the researcher believes that even though the questionnaires embody as many questions as are relevant to the null hypotheses and research questions formulated, participants would not be bogged down by discussions, hence the researcher deemed 15 minutes as providing ample, maximum time for all individual participants to complete both questionnaires. The pilot that was conducted to test the instruments vindicated the researcher with regard to the approximate time to be taken in responding to those questionnaires.

Leedy and Ormrod (2010:194-197) advise that the following guidelines have to be followed with regard to designing questionnaires. They are the same ones that the current researcher did his hardest to adhere to in designing the questionnaires for the

current study. Points in italics were cited verbatim, but explanations following each point were paraphrased according to the researcher's perception thereof:

1. *Keep it short*: the questionnaire should be as brief as possible so that it should require only the information that is relevant to the research project.
2. *Keep the respondent's task simple*: researchers should make the instrument as simple to read and respond to as possible. Open-ended questions that need a lot of discussion often discourage participants from assisting therewith.
3. *Provide clear instructions*: It should be clear how the researcher wishes participants to respond.
4. *Use simple, clear, unambiguous language*: The researcher's questions must communicate exactly what he wants to know from participants.
5. *Give a rationale for any items whose purpose may be unclear*: Since the researcher is necessarily asking participants to do him a favour by participating in his research, it is in his interest to give them a reason for them to do him a favour by making his purpose clear.
6. *Check for unwarranted assumptions implicit in your questions*: Questions must be direct and not assume any prior knowledge on the part of respondents, as it is the researcher who knows what he is looking for. In other words, the researcher's question must not be shoddy with the hope that the participant will easily infer what is being asked.
7. *Word your questions in ways that do not give clues about preferred or more desirable responses*: By leading the participant to some things that he has never tried, the researcher may be indirectly tempting the respondent to speculate rather than give facts.
8. *Determine in advance how you will code the responses*: The researcher has to develop a plan of how the participants' responses will be factored into re-coded themes that will allow him to statistically analyse the data.
9. *Check for consistency*: The researcher may check for consistency by repeating a certain question a long time after it was first answered. This will

ensure that if the first one was answered on the basis of being socially acceptable rather than being true, the second question has a greater chance of being true – even if the answer is now different from the first one (this may go a long way towards doing a member check, as well as increasing the validity, reliability and trustworthiness of responses given, especially where the same response will have been given).

10. *Conduct one or more pilot tests to determine the validity of your questionnaire:* This can invariably be done by the researcher giving a newly designed questionnaire to a number of friends and colleagues in order to determine if the questions are clear enough to elicit the desired information as well as to minimise or do away with errors.
11. *Scrutinise the almost-final product one more time to make sure it addresses your needs:* Ensure that every research question is essential for you to address the research problem.
12. *Make the questionnaire attractive and professional looking:* The researcher's final instrument should have clean lines, crystal-clear typing, which communicates that the researcher is a careful, well-organised professional who takes his work seriously and has high regard for the research participants.

As stated earlier, the researcher tried his hardest to construct questionnaires that were compliant to the above requirements by drafting, editing and checking their layout before trying them out in a pilot. The instrument was piloted before it was administered to those participants who had consented to respond thereto (compare with point number 10 advanced by Leedy and Ormrod, 2010, in the previous discourse). Cohen *et al.* (2011:402) concede to the merits of doing so. They cite Opperman (1992), Morrison (1993) and Wilson and McLean (1994) in positing that piloting the questionnaire serves:

- to check the clarity of the questionnaire items, instructions and layout;

- to gain feedback on the validity of questionnaire items, the operationalization of the constructs and the purposes of the research;
- to eliminate ambiguities or problems in the wording used;
- to gain feedback on the type of questions and their format such as rating scale, multiple choice, open or closed;
- to gain feedback on response categories for closed questions and for the appropriateness of specific questions or stems of questions;
- to gain feedback on the attractiveness and appearance of the questionnaire;
- to gain feedback on the layout, sectionalising, numbering and itemisation of the questionnaire;
- to check the time taken to complete the questionnaire;
- to check whether the questionnaire is too long or too short, too easy or too difficult, too un-engaging, too threatening, too instructive or too offensive;
- to generate categories for closed response-modes, such as rating scale items;
- to identify redundant questions, such as those questions which gain a total 'yes' or 'no' response;
- to identify commonly misunderstood or non-completed items; and
- to try out the coding and/or classification system for data analysis (Cohen *et al.* 2011:402).

The SMT members of two schools that did not form part of the sample were used to pilot the questions, so as to fine-tune the instrument before it could be applied to the sample. A pilot was, therefore, engaged in so as to be in sync with the above arrangements and to ensure the feasibility of administering the instruments (questionnaires) to the randomly selected participants (SMTs). The validity of instruments used also needs to be attended to. Hence the following discussion will focus on this aspect.

3.6.2 Validity of Instruments

Maree (2003:109) points out that the validity of a questionnaire refers to the degree to which it succeeds in measuring what it has set out to measure. In their general glossary of research terminology, Education Facilitators (1999:222), citing Sekaran (1992), explain validity as “the degree to which correct inferences can be made on the basis of results obtained from an instrument; it depends on the instrument itself but also on the instrumentation process and the characteristics of the group studied”.

The purpose of the structured questionnaires used in this study was to find out the effect of the organisational policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision (independent variables) on the SMTs’ job performance (a dependent variable). Questions were structured such that they embodied information pertaining to the above policies. This was designed to ensure that the structured questionnaire would measure what the researcher envisaged to measure so that it would then become a valid instrument. The same situation prevailed with the second questionnaire which was designed to collect data relating to the SMTs’ job performance. Content validity would be determined by giving the instruments (structured questionnaires) to experts in the Faculty of Education of the university under whose auspices the study was conceived. This leads us to looking into how the reliability of our data collecting instrument (the structured questionnaire) was ensured.

3.6.3 Reliability of Instruments

According to Maree (2003:108) reliability in research refers to the extent to which a test measures consistently that which it is measuring, be it two sets of data or product moment correlation co-efficient. Maree (2003:112) continues to posit that “reliability co-

efficient for the questionnaires have to be established to be satisfactory". In this regard, Education Facilitators (1999:221) explain reliability coefficient as "an index of the consistency of scores on the same instrument". They (Education Facilitators, 1999:221) continue to state that methods of computing reliability coefficient depend on the type of consistency and characteristics of the instrument being used. Harte (in Brennan, 2006:66) states that reliability is occupied with the 'replicability' of measurements. Corroborating all the above, White (2002:25) sees reliability as that integral part of validity that pertains to the consistency, or repeatability, of a measure.

The above seeks to say that findings that have been arrived at through using certain instruments can be pretty much the same, should the same instrument be used in another setting or environment. After looking into the results of the piloted questionnaires, they were filed so that they could be juxtaposed with those of the actual findings of this research report. Should the statistical analyses be comparable – though not necessarily identical – the researcher would conclude that the data collection instruments (structured questionnaires) were reliable. Thus, instrument reliability was measured using cronbach alpha in which if the coefficient is above 0.8 then the instruments (structured questionnaires) was deemed to be reliable. The foregoing concurs with Vermeulen (1998:61) who posits that a reliability of 0.8 or more is considered to be very good, while a reliability of 0.6 can be regarded as adequate.

3.7 METHOD OF DATA ANALYSIS

Data were analysed using statistics of percentage and standard variation. Inferential statistics of multiple regression analysis was used to correlate all the independent variables (organisational policies) with the dependent variable (SMT job performance).

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) programme was used to elicit percentile results as well as to test hypotheses. A correlation regarding the alpha level of significance was elicited using the same analysis software. Both tables and graphs were shown to give results, but the researcher chose to use tables throughout so as to avoid clouding the results with a volume of information that might tend to confuse both the researcher and the readers of this script. The actual presentation of data that were analysed is the main thrust of Chapter 4.

3.8 CONCLUSION

The purpose of this chapter was to deal with the following aspects, namely: research paradigm and approach; population and sampling techniques; ethical considerations; and data collection instruments: structured questionnaires.

In a nutshell, chapter 3 and its contents were looked into with a view to providing the research grounding of this study. This leads us to chapter 4, wherein results of the study will be presented question by question, since this is the chapter that follows the fieldwork relating to the data collection process of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

4.1 PRESENTATION OF RESULTS AND INTERPRETATION

Having dealt with the research approaches, designs, and the population and sampling procedures in chapter 3, chapter 4 leads the study into a new dimension, which is the presentation of all data gathered as a means of carrying out this study. It is in this chapter, too, that all data gathered will be analysed. Leboea (2005:65), citing Welman and Kruger (1999:225), posits that there is no sense in doing research if the results thereof are not presented. It is with this picture in mind that the results of the current study will be presented and interpreted.

As indicated in chapter 3, there were two questionnaires that were designed as instruments for collecting data. One was meant to collect data relating to the independent variables, whilst the other was meant to collect data relating to the dependent variable. The analysis will start with the first questionnaire, which was arranged into sections A – G, this way:

Section A dealt with the biographical data (Biodata) of all participants and included the following aspects:

1. SMT position with the options of principal, deputy principal and HOD.
2. SMT experience with the options of 1-5 years, 6-10 years, 11-20 years and 21 and above.
3. Age bracket with the options of 21-31 years, 32-42 years, 43-53 years and 54-60 years.

This was done in order to be informed of the profiles of all participants in the study. It also needs to be explained that Section A (Biodata) also served for the second questionnaire as the one and the same participant was required to respond to both questionnaires. In other words, there was no separate biographical data section for each questionnaire.

Section B dealt with the effect of organisation policy on the SMTs' job performance, which was the main question asked. This section was subdivided into two sub-questions.

Section C dealt with the relationship between induction and SMTs' job performance and was further divided into six sub-questions.

Section D dealt with the relationship between mentoring and SMTs' job performance and was further subdivided into six sub-questions.

Section E dealt with the relationship between curriculum assessment training and SMTs' job performance. This section was further subdivided into ten sub-questions.

Section F dealt with the relationship between curriculum supervision and SMTs' job performance and was subdivided into seven sub-questions.

Section G dealt with improving the SMTs' job performance in relation to the policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision. This section had four sub-questions.

What will now follow is the presentation of results pertaining to the first questionnaire which dealt with the independent variables of our study, namely, induction, mentoring,

curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision. As Creswell advises, one typical approach is to present results in response to each question or hypothesis 'one by one' (Creswell, 2012:195). This is exactly what we will endeavour to do in presenting the results of this study. First to be analysed will be the biodata information which constituted SECTION A of the first questionnaire, whose main thrust was on the independent variables of the study.

4.1.1 SECTION A: BIODATA

Table 4.1.1.1: SMT Position

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Principal	12	22.2	22.2	22.2
Deputy Principal	10	18.5	18.5	40.7
HOD	32	59.3	59.3	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

As the Table 4.1.1.1 above shows, the bulk of SMT participants who answered the questionnaires fall under heads of departments (HODs) at 59.3% (32 out of 54 participants), followed by principals at 22.2% (12 out of 54 participants). Deputy principals constituted the least of SMT participants at 18.5% (10 out of 54 participants). The reason for this imbalance is naturally that, whereas there is a principal for every institution, not all institutions have deputy principals. It is also common for schools to have a principal and about two HODs whilst it is currently not possible for a school to have a principal and a deputy without HODs. Whilst all these positions constitute the SMTs of schools, it is not necessarily mandatory for each school to have all these

positions, as the presence of a deputy principal or deputy principals and HODs depends on the number of learners enrolled by an institution in a given year.

Table 4.1.1.2 : SMT Experience

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
1-5 years	18	33.3	33.3	33.3
6-10 years	10	18.5	18.5	51.9
11-20 years	19	35.2	35.2	87.0
21 years and above	7	13.0	13.0	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Regarding another factor under biodata, the questionnaire sought to find out the number of years that participants had spent in the SMT position. As results in the table above show, 18 out of 54 participants (33.3%) had SMT experience of 1-5 years. In ascending order, 10 out of 54 participants (18.5%) had SMT experience of 6-10 years whilst 19 out of 54 participants (35.2%) had SMT experience of 11-20 years. Those with SMT experience of 21 years and above registered a total of 7 out of 54 participants (13%). The cumulative percentage is 100. This in effect means that the most participants had average SMT experience of between 18 and 19 years respectively for lower and middle experience categories.

This further means that if we were to cluster 1-6 years and 6-10 years SMT experience as for beginners we would have a total of 28 participants (51.9%) at the beginner level of the SMT position. Conversely, if the 11-20 years and 21 years and above could be clustered as the mature level that would constitute a total of 26 participants (48.1%). Therefore, there was a roughly comparable number of beginner and mature participants

who responded to our research instruments, since the variance is only 3.8%. The reason for this may lie in the fact that, as some SMT members opt out by way of retirement, resignation or even attrition, others fill the gap at the beginner level.

Table 4.1.1.3: Age bracket

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
21-31 years	2	3.7	3.7	3.7
32-42 years	14	25.9	25.9	29.6
43-53 years	31	57.4	57.4	87.0
54-60 years	7	13.0	13.0	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

On the age bracket factor, participants who were within the 43-53 year age bracket were numerically the most preponderant in that they constituted 57% (31 out of 54 participants). Not close to those yet second in rank were participants who were within the 32-42 year age bracket, who notched 25.9% (14 out of 54 participants). Last in rank were participants in the 54-60 age bracket at 13% (7 out of 54 participants).

From Section B to G participants had to choose responses from Strongly Agree (SA), Agree (A), Disagree (D) and Strongly Disagree (SD) as reflected on the questionnaire. This possible response arrangement had to be re-arranged to be sequenced as SD, D, A, SA which were numerically coded as 1, 2, 3 and 4 respectively when data was prepared to be factored into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) – the statistical analysis software which was used to analyse all data in this study.

Sections B – G also embodied sub-questions that were aligned to the research questions of this study. Thus, in presenting and interpreting results, the research questions pertaining to each section will be provided.

4.1.2 SECTION B: The effect of organisation policy on the SMTs' job performance

This section comprised two sub-questions which were coded as B1 and B2. These two were sub-questions that were intended to answer the main research question, which was question 1.

Research Question 1: What is the effect of organisation policy on the SMTs' job performance?

B1: You do believe that your knowledge of policy will have an effect on how you perform your duties.

Table 4.1.2.1 : Knowledge of policy affects how I perform

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Agree	17	31.5	31.5	31.5
Strongly agree	37	68.5	68.5	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

As Table 4.1.2.1 shows, all participants were in agreement. There were 37 out of 54 (68.5%) who strongly agreed with what was embodied in the question, against 17 out of 54 (31.5%) who just agreed. There were no responses in the categories of Strongly Disagree and Disagree.

This can therefore be interpreted to mean that all participants agreed that for them to perform duties (practice) optimally in relation to the policies of the DBE, they have to

know those policies (theory). This is supported by the Real and Ideal Theory in Education Facilitators (2001:149) and Scholl (2002:1-2) on Vroom's Expectancy Theory.

The implication is that if SMTs are not grounded in the theory pertaining to policies that they have to implement at school, they can scarcely perform optimally in relation to any policies under review.

B2: Your work in the SMT depends on any policies of the Department of Basic Education (DBE).

Table 4.1.2.2 : My work in SMT depends on DBE policies

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	2	3.7	3.7	3.7
Agree	2	3.7	3.7	7.4
Disagree	23	42.6	42.6	50.0
Strongly disagree	27	50.0	50.0	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

As Table 4.1.2.2 shows, most participants were in disagreement. There were 27 (50%) out of 54 who strongly disagreed with what was embodied in the question, against 23 (42.6%) out of 54 who just disagreed. There were 2 responses apiece in the categories of 'strongly agree' and 'agree', constituting a mere 7.4% of those in agreement with the notion that the SMTs' work depends on the policies of the DBE.

This can therefore be interpreted to mean that most participants believe that they can perform the DBE work independently of the policies of the organisation for which they work. To put it bluntly, most participants ignore policies of the organisation that employs

them. This finding negates the Real and Ideal Theory in Education Facilitators (2001:149) and Scholl (2002:1-2) on Vroom's Expectancy Theory.

The implication is that most SMTs in the Eastern Cape are not grounded in the theory pertaining to policies that they have to implement at school. This may further imply that they can scarcely perform optimally in relation to any of the policies under review in this study.

4.1.3 SECTION C: Induction and SMTs' job performance

This section had six sub-questions, which were coded as C1, C2, C3, C4, C5 and C6.

These sub-questions sought to answer question 2 of the study.

Research Question 2: What is the relationship between induction and the SMTs' job performance?

C1: You do believe that there is a relationship between induction and your job performance.

Table 4.1.3.1 : Relationship between induction and SMT job performance

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree	30	55.6	55.6	55.6
Strongly disagree	24	44.4	44.4	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

In Table 4.1.3.1 above, 24 out of 54 participants (44.4%) strongly disagree with the notion that there is a relationship between induction and the SMTs' job performance, while 30 out of 54 (55.6%) disagreed. This means that no response carried the view that there is a relationship between induction and the SMTs' job performance.

The interpretation hereof is that SMT members do not feel that they can do their job well even if they have not undergone any induction process. This perception is not in sync with policy in that the latter ordains that personnel must undergo induction when they assume duties at a new workplace, or at a workplace other than their previous workstation. In this regard Harley and fellow researchers point out that sometimes some tensions exist between policy and practice (Education Facilitators, 2001:186).

The implication of the above is that SMTs do not attach any importance to the policy of induction. This further implies that since they do not attach any importance to that policy then they do not induct novice educators as well as their SMT colleagues who join their institutions for the first time. To put it starkly, they leave their new supervisees and colleagues to their own devices.

C2: You were given training on inducting teachers under your supervision.

Table 4.1.3.2 : Educator induction by supervisor

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	6	11.1	11.1	11.1
Agree	15	27.8	27.8	38.9
Disagree	29	53.7	53.7	92.6
Strongly disagree	4	7.4	7.4	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Asked as to whether they were given training on inducting educators under their supervision, participants responded as follows: 4 (7.4%) participants strongly disagreed, 29 (53.7%) disagreed, while 6 (11.1%) and 15 (27.8%) strongly agreed and agreed respectively (see Table 4.1.3.2 above).

The interpretation that is attached hereto is that more participants disagreed that they were trained to induct their supervisees. The disagreement is aggregated as 4 plus 29 (33 participants), which cumulatively gives 61.1%, as against 6 plus 15 (21 participants), which cumulatively gives 38.9%, of participants who agreed that they were trained to conduct induction on their supervisees. Further interpretation of the above may be that in most schools SMT members are not trained to run induction workshops, nor do such schools induct new incumbents. They leave supervisees to their own devices. The finding is negated by Bush and Middleton (2006:141), Guthrie (2003) and Grobler *et al.* (2006:209).

The implication of the above result is that less SMT members received training on how to induct their supervisees. Of the few who answered that they had received training to conduct induction, 15 out of 54 just agreed. This may further imply that even the few who had received training to induct supervisees could not strongly agree to having undergone such training – amounting to not being effective in meeting that policy requirement. This may explain why most participants did not attach any relationship between induction and their job performance (compare this with the result regarding the relationship between induction and SMT job performance in Table 4.1.3.2 above).

C3: Your school inducts all new personnel irrespective of post or position.

Table 4.1.3.3 : Inducting all new personnel

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	4	7.4	7.4	7.4
Agree	13	24.1	24.1	31.5
Disagree	28	51.9	51.9	83.3
Strongly disagree	9	16.7	16.7	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Asked if their schools do induct all new personnel regardless of post or position, participants responded as follows: 4 (7.4%) and 13 (24.1%) strongly agreed and agreed respectively, while 28 (51.9%) and 9 (16.7%) disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively (see Table 4.1.3.3 above).

The simple interpretation hereof is that more participants' schools do not induct new personnel. This may further mean that many schools do not adhere to the organisation policy of induction. The finding is not supported by Bush and Middleton (2006:141-143), Guthrie (2003:1619) and Grobler *et al.* (2006:209).

The implication of this result is that new personnel are given the latitude to do things incorrectly before they can be corrected, or simply that even if they do things incorrectly nobody corrects them. This may have serious implications regarding the ability of schools in the Eastern Cape to implement the DBE's organisation policy of induction.

C4: *You are adequately equipped to conduct induction.*

Table 4.1.3.4 : Conducting induction adequately

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	2	3.7	3.7	3.7
Agree	18	33.3	33.3	37.0
Disagree	25	46.3	46.3	83.3
Strongly disagree	9	16.7	16.7	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.1.3.4 shows that when participants were asked whether they were adequately equipped to conduct induction they responded as follows: 2 (3.7%) and 18 (33.3%) strongly agreed and agreed respectively, while 25 (46.3%) and 9 (16.7%) disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively.

This can be interpreted to mean that only 20 (2 plus 18) participants thought they were adequately equipped to conduct induction, as against 34 (25 and 9) who did not think they were adequately equipped to conduct induction. Of the few who thought they were adequately equipped only two were confident enough, hence they strongly agreed. This finding is negated by Scholl (2002:1-2), Heystek (2002:125) and NDOE (2000:30).

The implication of the above is that more training workshops are necessary in order to adequately empower SMTs in the Eastern Cape to have the wherewithal to conduct induction.

C5: *You strongly believe that you were supposed to be orientated in induction before you became an SMT member.*

Table 4.1.3.5 : Induction before assuming SMT position

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	1	1.9	1.9	1.9
Disagree	22	40.7	40.7	42.6
Strongly disagree	31	57.4	57.4	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Asked whether they strongly believed that they were supposed to be orientated or inducted before they became SMT members, participants responded as follows: 1 (1.9%) participant strongly agreed, as against 22 (40.7%) and 31 (57.4%) who disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively (see Table 4.1.3.5 above).

The above result means that an overwhelming majority of participants felt that it is not necessary for them to be given an orientation/induction before they became SMT members. This may, in effect, suggest why most of them attested that they were not adequately empowered to conduct induction. Furthermore, this may explain why most SMTs responded that no induction took place at their schools. This finding negates the notion that it is necessary for new personnel to receive some induction to lessen the chances of sinking whilst doing their tasks, as noted in Grobler *et al.* (2006:209-210) and Naidu *et al.* (2008:97).

The implication of the above result is that the majority of SMT members do not know the necessity of induction. This may further imply that even those who happened to have

been used to train the few who seemed to have the know-how had not adequately done a good job of conducting induction with their trainees.

C6: The training you received in the policy of induction has an effect on your job performance.

Table 4.1.3.6: Induction training and effect on SMT job performance

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	3	5.6	5.6	5.6
Agree	12	22.2	22.2	27.8
Disagree	22	40.7	40.7	68.5
Strongly disagree	17	31.5	31.5	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Asked whether the training they had received in the policy of induction had an effect on their job performance, participants responded as follows: 3 (5.6%) and 12 (22.2%) participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively, while 22 (40.7%) and 17 (31.5%) participants disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively (see Table 4.1.3.6 above).

This can be interpreted in two ways, namely, either that the majority of participants had received an induction training that had no effect on their job, or that the majority of participants did not receive any training in the policy of induction. We must also remember that many participants may have said that the induction training had no effect simply because, by their own admission in the previous question, there had been no induction training at all (compare with results in 4.1.3.5). This finding is not supported by Grobler *et al.* (2006:207), Bush and Middleton (2006:142) and Naidu *et al.* (2008:97).

The implication is that the induction training that the DBE conducts in the Eastern Cape was either not related to the SMT job, or that the training that was meted out did not cover the length and breadth of the Eastern Cape Province.

4.1.4 SECTION D: Mentoring and SMTs' job performance

This section had six sub-questions, which were coded as D1, D2, D3, D4, D5 and D6.

These sub-questions were intended to elicit answers for research question 3.

Research Question 3: What is the effect of mentoring on SMTs' job performance?

D1: You do believe that mentoring does have an effect on your job performance.

Table 4.1.4.1 : Mentoring effect on SMT job performance

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	2	3.7	3.7	3.7
Agree	3	5.6	5.6	9.3
Disagree	19	35.2	35.2	44.4
Strongly disagree	30	55.6	55.6	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.1.4.1 shows that when participants were asked whether they do believe that mentoring does have an effect on their job performance they answered as follows: 2 (3.7%) and 3 (5.6%) participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively, while 19 (35.2%) and 30 (55.6%) disagreed and strongly agreed respectively.

The above can be interpreted to mean that the majority of participants, 19 plus 30, felt that mentoring has no effect on their job performance, while fewer personnel, 2 plus 3,

felt that mentoring does have an effect on their job performance. The foregoing finding is not supported by Bleach (1999:7) and Naidu *et al.* (2008:98).

The implication of the above is that, whereas the DBE has a policy of mentoring, most of the SMT members in the Eastern Cape Province do not attach any importance thereto. This may also imply that those SMT members who felt that mentoring had no effect on their job performance do not implement the policy at their various schools as they may feel that it is a waste of time.

D2: Your school does practise the policy of mentoring.

Table 4.1.4.2 : School and mentoring practice

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	2	3.7	3.7	3.7
Agree	11	20.4	20.4	24.1
Disagree	31	57.4	57.4	81.5
Strongly disagree	10	18.5	18.5	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Asked if their schools do practice the policy of mentoring, participants responded as follows: 2 (3.7%) and 11 (20.4%) strongly agreed and agreed respectively, while 31 (57.4%) and 10 (18.5%) disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively (see Table 4.1.4.2 above).

Simply put, according to the above result fewer schools do practice the policy of mentoring in the Eastern Cape, while the majority of schools simply ignore the policy. This finding is not supported since scholars and policy designers feel mentoring is

necessary. That mentoring is necessary enjoys support in Naidu *et al.* (2008:97) and Education Facilitators (2001:11).

The implication hereof is that most SMT members ignore the duty of being at the helm of the mentoring policy, so as to ensure that their supervisees receive the necessary professional development. Conversely, this means that fewer SMT members do offer the necessary assistance and coaching to their mentees or supervisees. Furthermore, this may imply that most educators at the entry level are left to their own devices, and when they apply for promotion posts they do so without any mentoring foundation learnt from their previous supervisors.

D3: *You are aware that you have to assign mentors for all supervisees.*

Table 4.1.4.3 : Awareness of assigning mentors to supervisees

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Agree	3	5.6	5.6	5.6
Disagree	37	68.5	68.5	74.1
Strongly disagree	14	25.9	25.9	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Asked if they are aware that they are supposed to assign mentors for all supervisees, participants responded as follows: 3 (5.6%) agreed against 37 (68.5%) and 14 (25.9%) who disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively (see Table 4.1.4.3).

This can be interpreted to mean that the bulk of SMT participants, 37 and 14 out of 54, are not aware that they are supposed to assign mentors to their supervisees. The question that should arise in this scenario is how they go about ensuring that their

supervisees do their work in congruence with policy prescripts and precepts. The above finding is not supported by Bush and Middleton (2006:158) and Bleach (1999:7-9).

The implication of the above result is that most SMT members in the Eastern Cape do not offer the necessary guidance and support to their juniors or supervisees. This then does not augur well for the level of policy implementation by SMTs in the province.

D4: You know what mentors should be doing in order to support mentees (those being supported).

Table 4.1.4.4 : Knowing mentors' support duties

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	3	5.6	5.6	5.6
Agree	4	7.4	7.4	13.0
Disagree	37	68.5	68.5	81.5
Strongly disagree	10	18.5	18.5	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

The above table shows that when participants were asked whether they know what mentors should be doing in order to support mentees, they responded as follows: 3 (5.6%) and 4 (7.4%) participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively. On the other hand, 37 (68.5%) and 10 (18.5%) participants disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively (see Table 4.1.4.4 above).

The above result can be interpreted to say that the bulk of SMTs, 37 plus 10 out of 54, have no knowledge of the duties of mentors, while very few, 3 plus 4 out of 54, claim to know the mentors' duties. Of those participants who agreed that they know the mentors' duties, only 3 out of 54 were confident in their knowledge in that they strongly agreed.

The notion of not knowing the mentors' duties is not supported by Carrel *et al.* (1995:413-414) and Guthrie (2003:1618).

The implication of the above scenario is that if beginner level educators in the Eastern Cape do receive mentoring, they are invariably mentored by supervisors who do not know what they are supposed to do as mentors. This may further point to saying that the bulk of SMT members still need training and orientation in the policy of mentoring of which they are expected to be the champions. This has serious implications regarding the implementation and practice of the policy of mentoring in the province.

D5: *Before becoming a supervisor (SMT member) you were orientated as to how you would conduct mentoring.*

Table 4.1.4.5 : Pre-SMT mentoring orientation

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	8	14.8	14.8	14.8
Agree	16	29.6	29.6	44.4
Disagree	26	48.1	48.1	92.6
Strongly disagree	4	7.4	7.4	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

When participants were asked whether they did receive orientation regarding how they would conduct mentoring, they responded as follows: 8 (14.8%) and 16 (29.6%) participants were in strong agreement and agreement respectively, leaving 26 (48.1%) and 4 (7.4%) participants respectively in disagreement and strong disagreement (see Table 4.1.4.5 above).

The above result simply means that 8 plus 16 (24) participants had received pre-SMT orientation on how to conduct the policy of mentoring. The above number was in the midst of 26 plus 4 (30) participants who had not been afforded such an orientation. The idea of not receiving pre-SMT training is not supported by Bush and Middleton (2006:162-163) and English (2006:660-661).

One implication of the above finding is that in the Eastern Cape Province we do have personnel who find it pertinent to provide mentoring orientation to would-be SMT members. Conversely, we also come to realise that such an orientation effort is not spread throughout the province, resulting in SMT members in the same district not being on par with empowerment.

D6: Mentoring benefits the mentor, mentee and the organisation.

Table 4.1.4.6 : Mentoring benefits

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	3	5.6	5.6	5.6
Agree	3	5.6	5.6	11.1
Disagree	20	37.0	37.0	48.1
Strongly disagree	28	51.9	51.9	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

When the questionnaire put it to participants that mentoring benefits the mentor, the mentee and the organisation, they responded as follows: 3 (5.6%) and 3 (5.6%) participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively to the notion, while 20 (37%) and 28 (51.9%) participants disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively to the notion (see Table 4.1.4.6 above).

The above finding means that the majority of SMT members (48) who participated in the research do not know that the policy of mentoring benefits mentors, mentees and the organisation – the DBE in this case. This may in part explain why most of them did not even know duties that are expected of mentors during the process of supporting their supervisees. The foregoing finding is not supported by Bleach (1999:14), Naidu *et al.* (2008:98) and Zachary (2000:59).

The implication of the above result is that, by and large, the majority of SMT members in the Eastern Cape scarcely understand the policy of mentoring, while policy dictates that SMTs should assign mentors to educators in their curriculum departments.

4.1.5 SECTION E: Curriculum assessment training and SMTs' job performance

This section had ten sub-questions, which were coded as E1, E2, E3, E4, E5, E6, E7, E8, E9 and E10, all of which were geared towards providing answers for research question 4.

Research Question 4: How does curriculum assessment training affect SMTs' job performance?

E1: *Curriculum assessment training does affect your job performance.*

Table 4.1.5.1 : Assessment training and effect on SMT job performance

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	4	7.4	7.4	7.4
Agree	3	5.6	5.6	13.0
Disagree	26	48.1	48.1	61.1
Strongly disagree	21	38.9	38.9	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Asked if curriculum assessment training does affect their job performance, participants responded as follows: 4 (7.4%) and 3 (5.6%) participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively, while 26 (48.1%) and 21 (38.9%) participants disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively (see Table 4.1.5.1 above).

This can be simply interpreted to say that only 7 participants (4 plus 3) out of 54 were of the opinion that the training that involves curriculum assessment does have an effect on their jobs as assessors of curriculum, while a resounding majority of participants, 47 (26 plus 21) out of 54, felt that curriculum assessment training has no effect on their jobs as curriculum assessors. This finding is not supported by Killen (2000:191) and Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan (2006:309).

The implication of the above result is that the majority of SMT members in the Eastern Cape do not care to peruse their assessment policies regarding the setting of tests, assignments and other tasks in the subjects wherein they are supervisors. This does not augur well for the implementation of the curriculum assessment policy, especially if they happen to be shoddy in the setting of measurement instruments.

E2: *Before becoming an SMT member you underwent training in the principles of assessment.*

Table 4.1.5.2 : Training on assessment principles

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	2	3.7	3.7	3.7
Agree	15	27.8	27.8	31.5
Disagree	27	50.0	50.0	81.5
Strongly disagree	10	18.5	18.5	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Asked if they underwent training in the principles of curriculum assessment prior to becoming SMT members, participants responded as follows: 2 (3.7%) and 15 (27.8%) participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively. Conversely, there were 27 (50%) and 10 (18.5%) participants who respectively disagreed and strongly disagreed to having received pre-SMT curriculum assessment training (see Table 4.1.5.2 above).

This simply means that fewer (17) participants received pre-SMT training in the principles of curriculum assessment, while the majority (37) claim not to have received such training. This further means that more participants became SMT members without any clue regarding how they are supposed to orientate their supervisees in the curriculum assessment policy. The foregoing finding is not supported by Bush and Middleton (2006:141), Guthrie (2003:1619) and Grobler *et al.* (2006:209).

The implication is that most SMT members in the Eastern Cape may not be fully conversant with one of the most crucial policies which should closely follow on all

chunks of the syllabus covered by educators in the different subjects that they teach. This further implies that more training is required for SMTs to get things right regarding curriculum assessment.

E3: Before you set questions you design a grid analysis for the planned assessment.

Table 4.1.5.3 : Designing a question grid analysis

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	3	5.6	5.6	5.6
Agree	9	16.7	16.7	22.2
Disagree	31	57.4	57.4	79.6
Strongly disagree	11	20.4	20.4	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

When participants were asked whether they design question grid analyses before setting questions for planned assessment, they responded in the following way: 3 (5.6 %) and 9 (16.7%) participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively that they do design question grid analyses for planned assessment. Conversely, 31 (57.4%) and 11 (20.4%) participants respectively disagreed and strongly disagreed (see Table 4.1.5.3 above).

A simple interpretation of the above result is that most participants do not design grid analyses for assessment/measurement units that they let learners write. As question grid analyses ensure that whatever planned assessment or measurement adhere to stipulated percentages of cognitive levels, it follows that assessment instruments set by most participants may not be compliant with the policy of curriculum assessment. This

finding is not supported by ECDOE (Undated: 49), Kane in Brennan (2006:17) and Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan (2006:316).

The implication of the above result is that most SMT members in the Eastern Cape need training in setting policy compliant assessment/measurement instruments. This may have far-reaching implications regarding why over a number of years the Eastern Cape has always been at the bottom of Grade 12 results' analysis.

E4: All your assessment instruments are compliant with the cognitive-content balance as applicable for the subjects that you teach.

Table 4.1.5.4: Assessment tools' compliance with cognitive-content balance

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Agree	4	7.4	7.4	7.4
Disagree	31	57.4	57.4	64.8
Strongly disagree	19	35.2	35.2	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

When participants were asked if all their assessment instruments were compliant with the cognitive-content balance that is required by subjects they teach, they gave the following responses: only 4 (7.4%) participants agreed, none strongly agreed, while 31 (57.4%) and 19 (35.2%) participants disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively (see Table 4.1.5.4 above).

The above result can be interpreted as saying that it is only 7.4% who set assessment instruments (tests, tasks, assignments) that comply with balancing the content with cognitive levels while 57.4% and 35.2% (a cumulative 92.6%) cannot. This further

means that assessment instruments that learners are made to write invariably do not help them reach the necessary achievement grading. This finding is not supported by Education Facilitators (2001:149) on Harley's the Real and the Ideal, Scholl (2002:1-2) on Vroom's Expectancy Theory and DBE (2012:1-14) on Barrett's Taxonomy.

This result implies that while the majority of SMTs in the Eastern Cape may be teaching correctly – if that be the case – their assessment instruments are not congruent with curriculum assessment policies. A further implication is that the majority of SMT members are failing the organisation for which they work (the DBE), as curriculum assessment is one of the policies thereof.

E5: *You do teach your supervisees how to design grid analyses.*

Table 4.1.5.5 : Supervisees and designing grid analyses

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	1	1.9	1.9	1.9
Agree	14	25.9	25.9	27.8
Disagree	31	57.4	57.4	85.2
Strongly disagree	8	14.8	14.8	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Asked if they do teach their supervisees to design grid analyses, participants responded as follows: 1 (1.9%) and 14 (25.9%) participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively, while 31 (57.4%) and 8 (14.8%) disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively (see Table 4.1.5.5 above).

The above result means that fewer SMT members teach their supervisees how to design grid analyses for questions that they set, while the majority do not teach them at

all. This result is not supported by Education Facilitators (2001:149) on Harley's the Real and the Ideal, Scholl (2002:1-2) on Vroom's Expectancy Theory, DBE (2012:1-14) on Barrett's Taxonomy, Data Fiend (2013) on the SOLO Taxonomy and Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan (2006:316).

The implication of the above result is that since most SMTs in the Eastern Cape do not design grid analyses for questions they set, they are in no position to teach their supervisees to do same (this compares fairly with responses for sub-questions E3 and E4 above).

E6: Your supervisees understand the Tolerance Range (TR) concept in marking.

Table 4.1.5.6 : Tolerance range in marking

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	2	3.7	3.7	3.7
Agree	11	20.4	20.4	24.1
Disagree	32	59.3	59.3	83.3
Strongly disagree	9	16.7	16.7	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Asked if their supervisees understand the tolerance range (TR) concept in marking, participants responded in the following manner: 2 (3.7%) and 11 (20.4%) participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively. Conversely, 32 (59.3%) and 9 (16.7%) disagreed and disagreed respectively (see Table 4.1.5.6 above).

This seems most participants are of the opinion that their supervisees do not understand the tolerance range concept of marking. This could be interpreted further to

mean that some SMTs know this either because they have not done their duty of training their supervisees or because they themselves do not understand the TR concept, hence the majority claim that supervisees do not understand the concept. The few who claim that their supervisees understand the TR concept may be those who have trained them. The foregoing finding is not supported by Phonela (DBE, 2014) and Kane in Brennan (2006:17).

The above result may imply that after assessment instruments have been meted out to learners to write, the range of awarding marks between the supervisor (SMT) and the supervisee (educator) may be so varied that it may impact either too positively or too negatively on the overall mark of the learner, since the TR marking concept is invariably not understood. On the strength of this result we may surmise that Eastern Cape learners mostly receive results which they do not deserve.

E7: Every year you do check the examination guidelines before assessing learners.

Table 4.1.5.7 : Exam guidelines and learner assessment

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	1	1.9	1.9	1.9
Agree	1	1.9	1.9	3.7
Disagree	24	44.4	44.4	48.1
Strongly disagree	28	51.9	51.9	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

On being asked whether they do check the examination guidelines every year before assessing learners, participants gave the following responses: 1 (1.9%) and 1 (1.9%) participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively. On the other hand, 24 (44.4%)

and 28 (58.9%) disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively (see Table 4.1.5.7 above).

The interpretation of the above result is that only two participants agreed to checking examination guidelines before assessing learners, while a whopping 52 out of 54 participants answered that they do not check those guidelines. We do know that they do assess learners because curriculum ordains that, but we equally know that the majority do not set assessment instruments to the specifications of examination guidelines. The latter are issued annually so as to guide educators on the requirements of all types of assessment to be followed, and how they should be followed during a particular academic year. This result is not supported by Education Facilitators (2001:149) on Harley's the Real and the Ideal, Scholl (2002:1-2) on Vroom's Expectancy Theory, DBE (2014), Haertel in Brennan (2006:73-74), and Clauser *et al.* in Brennan (2006:708).

The main implication of the above result is that most of the SMTs in the Eastern Cape set and administer assessment instruments that do not comply with the curriculum assessment policies of the DBE, the organisation they work for, and the one organisation whose assessment goals and objectives they should normatively champion and embrace. With the above picture in mind, it becomes curious to know the type of curriculum assessment guidance most SMTs give to their supervisees.

E8: *You always provide training in curriculum assessment.*

Table 4.1.5.8 : Providing training in curriculum assessment

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Agree	18	33.3	33.3	33.3
Disagree	26	48.1	48.1	81.5
Strongly disagree	10	18.5	18.5	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

When the participants were asked whether they always provided training in curriculum assessment, this is how they responded: 18 (33.3%) participants just agreed; none strongly agreed, while 26 (48.1%) and 10 (18.5%) respectively disagreed and strongly disagreed (see Table 4.1.5.8 above).

The above result means that 16 of the 18 participants who agreed that they do provide training in curriculum assessment do so without checking any assessment policies, especially if we remember that only two participants previously said they do check examination guidelines. It is also worth noting that none strongly agreed, meaning that even the few who claim they provide training may not be confident enough. It is scarcely surprising that the majority of participants attested that they do not provide any curriculum assessment training, as before they equally disagreed and strongly disagreed to looking into any assessment policies in their responses. This result is not consistent with Phonela (DBE, 2014), Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan (2006:308), Haertel in Brennan (2006:73-74) and Dreyer (2014:81).

The implication of the above result is that most SMTs in the Eastern Cape do not do their work to policy specification when it comes to implementing the policy of curriculum

assessment and training their supervisees to adhere thereto when they are engaged in assessment procedures. Against this finding, it would not be grossly unfair to suggest that why so many matric learners fail nationally set examinations at the end of the year may, perhaps, be due to the fact that learners come across policy-compliant assessment for the first time in the final examinations in the different subjects they do.

E9: *Knowing the content necessarily means knowing how to assess it.*

Table 4.1.5.9: Knowing content vis-a-vis assessing it

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	6	11.1	11.1	11.1
Agree	14	25.9	25.9	37.0
Disagree	15	27.8	27.8	64.8
Strongly disagree	19	35.2	35.2	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

When participants were asked if knowing the content necessarily meant knowing how to assess it, their responses were as follows: 6 (11.1%) and 14 (25.9%) participants respectively strongly agreed and agreed, while 15 (27.8%) and 19 (35.2%) participants disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively (see Table 4.1.5.9 above).

The above result means that 20 (6 plus 14) participants feel that knowing the content necessarily means knowing how to assess it, while 34 (15 plus 19) do not feel that way. It then becomes worrisome why most participants do not engage in activities pertaining to curriculum assessment policies (as attested by many responses above) whereas they know that even if they know the content of subjects they teach it does not necessarily mean that they know how to assess it. This result is supported by Education Facilitators

(2001:149) on Harley's the Real and the Ideal, Data Fiend (2013) on the SOLO Taxonomy, Moseley *et al.* (2005), DBE (2014), Clauser *et al.* in Brennan (2006:708) and Scholl (2002:1-2) on Vroom's Expectancy Theory.

The implication of the above result is that the majority of SMT members in the Eastern Cape engage in sheer dereliction of duty in as far as the policies of curriculum assessment are concerned. If educator supervisors (SMTs) do not do what is expected of them, one shudders to think about what and how they train their supervisees. The researcher's take is that if one fails to effectively assess what one has taught then no teaching has taken place.

E10: *Every educator, including SMT members, needs to undergo curriculum assessment training.*

4.1.5.10: Educator training in curriculum assessment

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree	11	20.4	20.4	20.4
Strongly disagree	43	79.6	79.6	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Asked if everybody, including the SMT members, should undergo curriculum assessment training, this is how participants answered: there were nil responses in the categories of strongly agreeing and agreeing. 11(20.4%) and 43 (79.6%) participants respectively disagreed and strongly disagreed (see Table 4.1.5.10 above).

The interpretation is that while all participants do not feel they need training in curriculum assessment, most of them do not adhere to any of policies pertaining to

curriculum assessment, as proven by their responses in all the preceding sections of curriculum assessment training. This finding is not supported by DBE (2016:6-7), Taylor and Vinjevold (1999:182) and Bleach (1999:18) as they believe that policy (theory) should inform job performance (practice).

The above result implies that SMTs in the Eastern Cape do not implement the policy of curriculum assessment in sync with what the DBE directs and mandates them to do.

4.1.6 SECTION F: Curriculum supervision and SMTs' job performance

This section had seven sub-questions, which were coded as F1, F2, F3, F4, F5, F6 and F7, and sought to elicit answers for question 5.

Research Question 5: What is the relationship between curriculum supervision and SMTs' job performance?

F1: There is a relationship between curriculum supervision and your job as an SMT member.

Table 4.1.6.1: Relationship between curriculum supervision and SMT job performance

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree	21	38.9	38.9	38.9
Strongly disagree	33	61.1	61.1	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Asked if there is a relationship between curriculum supervision and their SMT job, participants gave the following answers: there were nil responses for strongly agree and agree categories. On the other hand, responses were captured as 21 (38.9%) and 33 (61.1%) for disagree and strongly disagree respectively (see Table 4.1.6.1 above).

The above result can simply be interpreted as saying that all participants (only disagree and strongly disagree) felt that there is no relationship between curriculum supervision and their job. What is worrisome is that the SMT cohort in schools is technically referred to as school-based curriculum supervisors. This result that there is no relationship between policy and job performance is not supported by Killen (2000:190), ECDOE (Undated:25) and Wise and Bushner (2001:124).

The implication of this result is that all SMT members in the Eastern Cape, by their own admission, do not know their curriculum supervision policy.

F2: You do believe that your supervision duties include curriculum policy interpretation.

Table 4.1.6.2 : Supervision and curriculum policy interpretation

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree	24	44.4	44.4	44.4
Strongly disagree	30	55.6	55.6	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Participants answered as follows when they were asked if they believe that their supervision duties include curriculum policy interpretation: there were nil responses for strongly agree and agree categories; there were 24 (44.4%) and 30 (55.6%) responses for disagree and strongly disagree respectively (see Table 4.1.6.2 above).

The obvious interpretation for the above is that all participants do not believe that their curriculum supervision includes curriculum policy interpretation. The question is, if supervision does not include interpreting the policy that participants are supposed to supervise the implementation thereof, what mechanism do they have in place to ensure

that they supervise it effectively? The above result is not supported by Killen (2000:190), who points out that the educator has to interpret the learning programmes that he is provided with correctly, and ECDOE (Undated:29) talks of 'ensuring curriculum policy interpretation and implementation'. On the other hand, this finding is supported by Education Facilitators (2001:186) who posit that sometimes there are tensions between policy and practice.

The implication is that SMTs in the Eastern Cape, by their own admission, do not embrace interpreting the curriculum as including the supervision thereof. This further implies that they do not supervise curriculum implementation accurately, or according to organisational (DBE) directives.

F3: You need adequate training in order to effectively supervise curriculum implementation at your school.

Table 4.1.6.3: Adequate training and effective curriculum implementation

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Agree	1	1.9	1.9	1.9
Disagree	21	38.9	38.9	40.7
Strongly disagree	32	59.3	59.3	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Asked if they need adequate training in order to effectively supervise curriculum implementation at their schools, participants responded in the following way: 1 (1.9%) participant agreed while there were nil responses for the strongly agree category; 21 (38.9%) and 32 (59.3%) disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively (see Table 4.1.6.3 above).

The above finding means that all participants, except for one, felt that there was no need for training so as for them to effectively implement curriculum at school. Simply put, participants did not attach any importance to training in curriculum supervision. This finding is not supported by Naidu *et al.* (2008:190-191), Wise and Bushner (2001:124) and Vermeulen (1998:67-68).

The implication of the above result is that SMTs in the Eastern Cape are either not trained at all, or that when curriculum supervision workshops are organised they do not attend. Conversely, the above may imply that training workshops are shoddily organised and run, thus dampening the SMTs' eagerness to attend.

F4: *Whenever a new curriculum has to be implemented, you always worry about how you will supervise it.*

Table 4.1.6.4 : New curriculum implementation

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	1	1.9	1.9	1.9
Agree	12	22.2	22.2	24.1
Disagree	15	27.8	27.8	51.9
Strongly disagree	26	48.1	48.1	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

When participants were asked whether they always worry whenever a new curriculum has to be implemented, they answered in the following way: 1 (1.9%) and 12 (22.2%) participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively, whereas 15 (27.8%) and 26 (48.1%) participants disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively (see Table 4.1.6.4 above).

This can be interpreted to mean that the majority of participants (41), constituting a cumulative 75.9%, do not worry about new curricular developments while the minority (13), constituting a cumulative 24.1%, do worry when there are new curricular developments. We should note that a new curriculum means a new set of implementation and supervision policies which must be operationalised by all the DBE institutions – as policy is mandatory. This finding is not supported by Naidu *et al.* (2008:191) and Taylor and Vinjevold (1999:182).

The implication of this result is that most SMTs in the Eastern Cape may be having a feeling of nonchalance or apathy towards change, since they do not seem to adhere to policies anyway. The foregoing implication is based on the answering of a number of policy-related sub-questions, which proved that they do their job incongruously with policies related thereto.

F5: All the training you receive in curriculum supervision is always practice-related.

Table 4.1.6.5 : Curriculum training and practice

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Agree	8	14.8	14.8	14.8
Disagree	33	61.1	61.1	75.9
Strongly disagree	13	24.1	24.1	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Asked if all the training they receive in curriculum supervision is always practice-related, participants responded as follows: only 8 (14.8%) participants agreed, while there was nil response in the strongly agree category. Conversely, 33 (61.1%) and 13 (24.1%) disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively (see Table 4.1.6.5 above).

This can be interpreted to say while very few participants felt that training in curriculum supervision is related to practice, an overwhelming number of participants felt that curriculum supervision theory is not related to its relevant practice. This result is supported by Education Facilitators (2001:186) who posit that sometimes there is tension between policy and practice.

The implication of the above result is that an overwhelming majority of SMTs in the Eastern Cape engage in practice that is not informed by theory (policy). This is worrisome in that, ideally, theory must inform practice. That is, you have to learn how something is done before you attempt to do it – that is simple logic.

F6: You believe that you are adequately empowered to evaluate curriculum at your school.

Table 4.1.6.6: Empowerment and curriculum evaluation at school

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Agree	10	18.5	18.5	18.5
Disagree	32	59.3	59.3	77.8
Strongly disagree	12	22.2	22.2	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

When participants were asked whether they believed that they are adequately empowered to evaluate curriculum at their schools, they responded in the following way: there were nil responses for strongly agree, while there were 10 (18.5%) participants who just agreed. On the other hand, there were 32 (59.3%) and 12 (22.2%) participants who disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively (see Table 4.1.6.6 above).

The simple interpretation of the above finding is that a resounding majority of participants, 44, believe they do not have the skills of evaluating curriculum at their schools. This, in effect, tells us that they do not have the know-how of ascertaining that teaching and learning have effectively taken place at their schools. We should note that we get the know-how from policy (theory), which then informs how and what we should put into practice. This result is not supported by Ornstein and Huskins (2009:267) and STP HRD Consulting (2011:27).

The implication of the above result is that the majority of SMTs in the Eastern Cape need to be trained in the curriculum supervision policy so that they will be in a strong position to know whether or not curriculum practice in their schools has brought about the desired effect.

F7: As a curriculum supervisor you are able to monitor everything that is attached to curriculum.

Table 4.1.6.7 : Monitoring curriculum

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Agree	8	14.8	14.8	14.8
Disagree	30	55.6	55.6	70.4
Strongly disagree	16	29.6	29.6	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Asked if they are able to monitor everything that is attached to curriculum as curriculum supervisors, participants offered the following responses: there were nil responses in the strongly agree category, while 8 (14.8%) participants just agreed. On the other hand, those participants who responded in the disagree and strongly disagree

categories respectively registered 30 (55.6%) and 16 (29.6%) (see Table 4.1.6.7 above).

The above result can be interpreted as saying that the majority of participants cannot monitor everything that is attached to curriculum. This means that the majority of participants do not have the capacity to monitor curriculum. The foregoing result is not supported by Ornstein and Huskins (2009:267), STP HRD Consulting (2011:17) and NDOE (2000:28).

The above implies that the majority of SMTs in the Eastern Cape do not effectively implement and supervise curriculum due to lack of capacity.

4.1.7 SECTION G: Improving the SMTs' job performance in relation to the policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision

This section had four sub-questions, which were coded as G1, G2, G3 and G4. These sub-questions sought to elicit answers for question 6.

Research Question 6: How can the SMTs' job performance be improved in relation to the above variables?

G1: The ideal SMT training model should start with SMT aspirants, and continue even after appointment.

Table 4.1.7.1 : SMT training and SMT aspirants

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Disagree	26	48.1	48.1	48.1
Strongly disagree	27	50.0	50.0	98.1
Agree	1	1.9	1.9	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

When participants were asked whether the ideal SMT training model should start with those who aspire to it and continue even after appointment, they responded as follows: 26 (48.1%) participants disagreed, 27 (50%) strongly disagreed and only 1 (1.9%) agreed (see Table 4.1.7.1 above).

This result can be interpreted as saying that almost all participants do not think that SMT training should start before people actually become SMT members. This result is not supported by English (2006:661), Malcolm in Jansen and Christie (1999:79) and Heystek (2002:185) in that they contend that it is accepted practice internationally and nationally for prospective school managers to undergo some form of readiness training before they assume duties.

The implication of the above finding is that, while there seems to be a serious lack of relevant organisational policy knowledge, the bulk of SMTs in the Eastern Cape still maintain that there is no need for pre-SMT training which must continue even when personnel become employed in SMT positions.

G2: The SMT orientation training should be done only after SMTs have assumed duties.

Table 4.1.7.2: Orientation and SMT incumbents

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	9	16.7	16.7	16.7
Agree	20	37.0	37.0	53.7
Disagree	19	35.2	35.2	88.9
Strongly disagree	6	11.1	11.1	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

When participants were asked if the SMT orientation training should be done only after SMTs have assumed duties, they responded as follows: 9 (16.7%) and 20 (37%) participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively, while 19 (35.2%) and 6 (11.1%) participants disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively (see Table 4.1.7.2 above).

The above result simply means that 9 plus 20 participants (a cumulative 53.7%) agreed to after-appointment SMT training, against 19 plus 6 (a cumulative 46.3%) who did not think so. However, the danger of after-appointment training is that incumbents may not know how to start doing their duties before training is done. The foregoing finding is not supported by Bush and Middleton (2006:141), Guthrie (2003:1619) and Grobler *et al.* (2006:209).

The implication of this result is that at least some of the SMTs in the Eastern Cape do understand that training is necessary albeit not agreeable to such training taking place before aspirants actually assume their duties.

G3: Continuous training in the above policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision is the answer.

Table 4.1.7.3: Continuous training in induction, mentoring, assessment training and curriculum supervision

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Agree	4	7.4	7.4	7.4
Disagree	29	53.7	53.7	61.1
Strongly disagree	21	38.9	38.9	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

As Table 4.1.7.3 above shows, when participants were asked if continuous training in the policies of induction, mentoring, assessment training and curriculum supervision was the answer, they responded as follows: 4 (7.4%) participants agreed, while none strongly agreed. On the other hand, 29 (53.7%) and 21 (38.9%) participants disagreed and strongly disagreed respectively.

The above finding actually means that most participants do not feel that continuous training may be the answer to the problem of not fully understanding policies relating to their daily operations at work. What is worrying with this interpretation is that most participants seem reluctant to undergo continuous training, whereas it became clear that their understanding of crucial organisational policies is rather scanty, and thus may impact negatively on the effective implementation thereof. The foregoing result is not supported by NDOE (2000:30), Heystek (2002:126) and Grobler *et al.* (2006:207).

The implication of this result is that the DBE should devise a way of work-shopping SMTs in the Eastern Cape in a mode that may appeal to them, failing which many policies will be left unattended.

G4: An adaptable training manual needs to be developed for SMT orientation.

Table 4.1.7.4 : Adaptable SMT orientation and training manual

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Strongly agree	28	51.9	51.9	51.9
Disagree	25	46.3	46.3	98.2
Strongly disagree	1	1.9	1.9	100.0
Total	54	100.0	100.0	

Asked if an adaptable SMT training manual needs to be developed, participants responded as follows: 28 (51.9%) and 25 (46.3%) participants strongly agreed and agreed respectively, while 1 (1.9%) participant strongly disagreed respectively. There was no one in the agree category (see Table 4.1.7.4 above).

This simply means that most participants do think that an adaptable manual for SMT orientation and training needs to be developed. This, in effect, means that training models and manuals should always dove-tail on to previous ones so that new changes can be added and adapted to the operational one, except in cases where there is complete change altogether. This finding is supported by Guthrie (2003:1619), Heystek (2002:126-129) and Education Facilitators (2001:16).

The implication of this finding is that the Eastern Cape invariably wastes resources by designing all-new training manuals as and when there are changes to the curriculum or when amendments have to be effected on organisational policies followed.

Research Question 6: *How can the SMTs' job performance be improved in relation to the above variables?*

After analysing questionnaire results that pertain to research question 6, the answer pertaining to improving the SMTs' job performance follows hereunder in the form of a training model which will hopefully add to the body of knowledge regarding personnel orientation and training.

The Generic, Cohesive, Adaptable Model of Training for SMTs

The findings of the current study have led the researcher to suggest an SMT training model that can be followed in the orientation and training of SMTs in the organisation

policies that were under discussion so as to synergise practice and theory. This is corroborated by Education Facilitators (2001:149) on Harley's the Real and the Ideal and Scholl (2001:1-2) on Vroom's Expectancy Theory, and it is also part of research question 6, which alluded to an adaptable training model for SMTs, hence the researcher has not numbered it. The model that the researcher has come up with is not, and should not be regarded as a training manual *per se*, but a model blueprint on which an envisaged training manual for SMTs can be modelled and developed. As indicated under the significance of the study, the model cannot by any means be exhaustive.

The researcher prefers calling this model the *Generic, cohesive, adaptable model of training* (GCA Model of Training). The model derives its name from the following points:

- It is *generic* in that it may be used for training in all subjects with necessary adaptations regarding taxonomies, question grid analyses and the like.
- It is *cohesive* in that it envisages that DBE training on policy should take place across all the nine provinces in the country, and should embody common aspects of training, using more or less equally competent personnel for conducting SMT orientation and training. The researcher further deems it cohesive in the sense that it propagates that orientation and training on organisational policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision should not be mediated separately, but cohesively, so that they (organisation policies) can synergise the whole teaching and learning process, which is the core of the SMTs' job performance.
- It is *adaptable* in the sense that users can adapt it in the orientation and training regarding other policies, and it can be augmented on as and when policies undergo amendments in the same way that education and all other laws normally do with amendments and additions. It is further

adaptable with regard to what to include for mediation before personnel assumes SMT positions, as well as what to include for mediation for SMT practitioners. Lastly, it is adaptable in that whoever has been asked to develop a training manual can use it consultatively to just take out what they need from it, as personnel may need to tighten certain aspects of training.

The model forms the basis on which a training manual for SMTs could be modelled. To this end, the researcher has suggested a template that can be adapted for running SMT orientation and training. The template appears as APPENDIX C.

Having dealt with all the research questions, what follows hereunder is the testing and interpretation of hypotheses pertaining to this study.

4.2 HYPOTHESIS TESTING AND INTERPRETATION

In testing the null hypotheses in this study, a multiple regression with SMTs' job performance as the dependent variable and organisational policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision as independent variables was employed. The null hypotheses were tested at 0.05 alpha level of significance. The result of the multiple regressions is presented in Table 4.2.1 below.

Table 4.2.1: Hypothesis testing

Variables	Beta	Std. Error	T	Sig.
Constant	41.735	14.631	2.852	0.006
Organisation Policy	-0.640	1.508	-0.425	0.673
Induction	0.244	0.541	0.451	0.654
Mentoring	0.391	0.631	0.620	0.538
Curriculum Assessment Training	-0.057	0.473	-0.121	0.904
Curriculum Supervision	-0.177	0.640	-0.276	0.784

Hypotheses

4.2.1 H₀ -There is no significant relationship between induction and SMTs' job performance.

From Table 4.2.1, it is shown that there is a positive (0.244) relationship between induction and SMTs' job performance. However, based on the t value (0.451) and p-value (0.654), it is concluded that the relationship is not significant. Hence the null hypothesis of no significant relationship is accepted. This hypothesis is therefore supported by Cohen *et al.* (2011:615-616) and Creswell (2012:126). On the other hand, it is also not supported by McMillan & Schumacher (2014:319).

4.2.2 H₀ -There is no significant relationship between mentoring and SMTs' job performance.

It is also shown from Table 4.2.1 that there is a positive (0.391) relationship between mentoring and SMTs' job performance. Still, with respect to the t value (0.620) and p-value (0.538), it is concluded that the relationship is not significant. Hence the null hypothesis of no significant relationship is accepted. This hypothesis is therefore supported by Cohen *et al.* (2011:615-616) and Creswell (2012:126), but it is also not supported by McMillan & Schumacher (2014:319).

4.2.3 H₀ -There is no significant relationship between assessment training and SMTs' job performance.

From Table 4.2.1, it is shown that there is a negative (-0.057) relationship between assessment training and SMTs' job performance. Based on the t value (-0.121) and p-value (0.904) it can be concluded that the relationship is not significant. Hence the null hypothesis of no significant relationship is accepted. This hypothesis is therefore

supported by Cohen *et al.* (2011:615-616) and Creswell (2012:126). It is also not supported by McMillan & Schumacher (2014:319).

4.2.4 H₀ -There is no significant relationship between curriculum supervision and SMTs' job performance.

The value of coefficient of curriculum supervision of -0.177 as presented in Table 4.2.1 implies that there is an inverse relationship between curriculum supervision and SMTs' job performance. The t and p values of -0.276 and 0.784 suggests that the two variables have no significant relationships, thus the null hypothesis is not rejected. This hypothesis is therefore supported by Cohen *et al.* (2011:615-616) and Creswell (2012:126). Other scholars do not support this hypothesis (McMillan & Schumacher, 2014:319).

As the above figures reflect, the null hypotheses that were formulated cannot be summarily rejected, meaning that indeed what professional personnel do cannot be detached from the knowledge and practice of policies that form the core of their job. If so, then work happens out of sync with policy expectations resulting in a dysfunctional workforce in relation to organisation policy precepts and prescripts.

4.3 CONCLUSION

The main thrust of chapter 4 was to present the findings of the study. This was done by analysing the questionnaire on organisation policy in relation to the research questions that were advanced in the study. Findings were interpreted and the implications thereof were also suggested. Some body of new knowledge was infused in the form of a generic training model based on what the researcher perceived as lacking when

analysing the results of the study. Finally, all the null hypotheses that had been formulated were tested and interpreted, resulting in the conclusion that none was worthy of total rejection.

Since chapter 4 is the penultimate chapter, it will now be followed by chapter 5, which is intended as a concluding chapter of this research project.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARIES, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 SUMMARIES

The following summaries have been designed such that they go alongside the research questions that were asked as the vehicle for undertaking the study. In dealing with these summaries, 'strongly agree' and 'agree' categories were grouped together while the 'disagree' and 'strongly disagree' categories were also grouped together.

5.1.1 *Research Question 1*: What is the effect of organisation policy on the SMTs' job performance?

Out of 54 participants, this is how they responded to sub-questions relating to the above question:

- All 54 participants agreed with the notion that knowledge of organisation (DBE) policies would affect how they perform organisational duties that relate to their SMT job.
- However, and quite surprisingly, 50 participants refuted the fact that their jobs were anchored on the policies of the DBE.

The above responses were diametrically opposed to each other; such that they led to the impression that while they thought organisation policies were important, since many were not trained in most policies it did not necessarily mean that they were not doing any SMT-related jobs. This, therefore, cast a shadow of doubt as to whether SMTs are

efficient in their jobs without abiding by policies of the organisation (DBE) that they work for.

5.1.2 *Research Question 2: What is the relationship between induction and the SMTs' job performance?*

Out of 54 participants, this is how they responded to sub-questions relating to the above question:

- All 54 participants felt that there was no relationship between induction and their SMT jobs; yet SMT members are supposed to induct their supervisees.
- 37 participants conceded that most of their schools were never engaged in inducting all new personnel.
- 34 participants further conceded that they were not adequately equipped to conduct induction.
- 53 participants did not think that pre-SMT orientation was necessary.

In a nutshell, most SMT personnel in the Eastern Cape are not conversant with the organisational policy of induction and do not, therefore, embrace it in performing their job.

5.1.3 *Research Question 3: What is the effect of mentoring on SMTs' job performance?*

Out of 54 participants, this is how they responded to sub-questions relating to the above question:

- 49 did not feel that mentoring had an effect on their SMT job; yet they are supposed to spearhead mentoring activities at their respective schools.
- 41 participants conceded that the policy of mentoring was not observed at their schools.
- 51 participants conceded that they were not aware that they are supposed to assign mentors to entry-level educators who they supervise.
- 47 agreed to not knowing the duties of mentors; yet they are the ones who are supposed to assign mentors as well as to mentor some of their supervisees.
- 30 participants conceded to not having received any pre-SMT orientation on how to conduct mentoring.
- 48 participants did not seem to be sure whether mentoring does have benefits for mentors, mentees and the organisation.

Thus, the majority of SMTs in the Eastern Cape are not conversant with the organisational policy of mentoring and therefore do not embrace it in performing their jobs.

5.1.4 *Research Question 4: How does assessment training affect SMTs' job performance?*

Out of 54 participants, this is how they responded to sub-questions relating to the above question:

- 47 participants felt that the policy of curriculum assessment does not affect their job performance; yet it is the policy that embodies all mandatory prescripts regarding all forms of assessment/measurement.
- 37 participants conceded to not having undergone any pre-SMT training on curriculum assessment principles.
- 42 participants conceded that they do not design question grid analyses; yet all formal assessment has to be sign-posted by correct grid analyses for a compliant balance of questions.
- 50 participants conceded that they overlook the cognitive-content balance; yet all assessment has to comply with the cognitive-content balance as stated in CAPS and Examinations guidelines for all subjects.
- 39 participants conceded to not teaching their supervisees how to design grid analyses for questions.
- 41 participants were frank enough to disclose that their supervisees do not understand the tolerance range (TR) concept in marking; this being equal to admitting that they do not train their supervisees therein.
- 52 participants conceded that they do not check examination guidelines annually, thus admitting to not assessing learners according to examination guidelines for their respective subjects.
- All 54 participants said they do not provide training in curriculum assessment, thus meaning they leave supervisees to their own devices.
- 34 participants disagreed that knowing the content necessarily means knowing how to assess it.

- All 54 participants felt that it is not necessary for all educators to undergo training in curriculum assessment; yet most conceded that knowing the content does not necessarily mean knowing how to assess it.

In the light of the above it is not surprising that when some sample question papers from English FAL, Economics and History were analysed in chapter 2, it was found that only the nationally developed tests were proven to be compliant with the DBE assessment policies, whereas all provincial and district/school-based question papers were proven to be wanting in the curriculum assessment requirements of the organisation (DBE).

5.1.5 *Research Question 5: What is the relationship between curriculum supervision and SMTs' job performance?*

Out of 54 participants, this is how they responded to sub-questions relating to the above question:

- All 54 participants disagreed that there is a relationship between their SMT job and curriculum supervision; yet SMTs are the ones who are supposed to spearhead curriculum implementation and supervision at school, hence they are referred to as school-based curriculum supervisors.
- All 54 participants again disagreed that their duties include interpreting curriculum policy; yet they are supposed to interpret curriculum policy correctly in order for them to oversee its operationalisation.
- 53 participants felt that SMTs do not need adequate training in order to be able to supervise curriculum effectively.

- 41 participants felt that they do not worry about how to supervise new curriculum when it is introduced; yet when a new curriculum is introduced, SMTs still remain at the centre of its supervision. Not worrying about it may mean that they either do not change methods of curriculum supervision, or that they do not at all supervise curriculum.
- 46 participants felt that not all the training they receive in curriculum supervision is always practice-related; this then means that training manuals or any materials used for training SMTs should address the question of synergy or fit between policy and practice.
- 44 participants conceded that they are not adequately empowered to evaluate curriculum at their schools; yet SMTs are supposed to be adequately empowered to evaluate curriculum so that they may devise ways of stepping up on sections where they need to tighten implementation and supervision in order to ensure that teaching and learning embrace what needs to be covered in terms of curriculum, syllabus, assessment and all other relevant policies.
- 46 participants again conceded that they cannot monitor everything that is attached to curriculum; while this may be reasonably so in that nobody actually knows everything about every policy, we still do not know how much of their supervision work they can really carry out.

The above summary regarding findings on curriculum supervision attest to the fact that most SMTs in the Eastern Cape still require to be orientated and trained in supervising the country's curriculum.

5.1.6 *Research Question 6*: How can the SMTs' job performance be improved in relation to the above variables?

Out of 54 participants, this is how they responded to sub-questions relating to the above question:

- 53 participants disagreed that the ideal training model should start with SMT aspirants, and continue even after appointment; yet earlier results have proven that even practising SMT members are out of sync with organisational policies in more ways than one.
- 29 participants felt that SMT orientation should be done only after SMT personnel have assumed duties. Although a majority of 53 out of 54 felt that the SMT training must not be done before assuming duties, only 29 felt it should be done after assuming duties – meaning that there were those participants who were not sure about the ideal SMT training point.
- 50 participants felt that continuous training in the policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision should take place and further conceded that an adaptable training manual has to be developed to cater for SMT training needs on an on-going basis.
- The latter point led to the designing of the Generic, Coherent, Adaptable Model of Training (GCA Model of Training), which is just a blueprint on which training manuals for SMTs can be modelled. This was also meant to add to the body of knowledge regarding personnel training models.

Lastly, the findings based on hypothesis testing regarding the correlation of independent variables (induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision) supported all the null hypotheses that had been formulated – that of no significant relationship between organisational policies and the SMT job performance.

5.2 CONCLUSIONS

The study established that there was a strong relationship among organisational policies and SMTs' job performance in Maluti District. Based on the analysis of the results regarding induction in chapter 4, it can be concluded that very few SMT members in the Eastern Cape do have the knowledge of the organisational policy of induction; hence the majority neither implement nor practise it in the schools where they work. They therefore do not relate what they are supposed to do (practice) with what they are supposed to know (theory) regarding the policy of induction – this scenario points to a disjuncture between practice and theory (compare this to some of the findings of Harley's the Real and the Ideal in chapter 2).

Again, based on the findings regarding mentoring in chapter 4, it stands to reason that the majority of SMT members are not grounded in the training and knowledge of the organisational policy of mentoring, as a result of which no necessary support and guidance is afforded their supervisees or mentees.

Furthermore, as attested by findings under the section regarding curriculum assessment training as discussed in chapter 4, the researcher concludes that there is a 'dearth of knowledge' (Education Facilitators, 2001:149) of the whole organisational policy, and as a result most SMTs cannot implement it. Nor is it possible for them to train supervisees in the policy that they know very little about.

However, based on the findings of the analysis of some nationally set question papers in chapter 2, it can be concluded that the national papers were set by experts who understand the requirements of the CAPS syllabus together with its demands for the content-cognitive balance. It can further be concluded that the DBE either knows how to employ curriculum assessment aspects or it trains its assessment personnel adequately in order for them to assess to the assessment policy specifications. However, based on the findings of the analysis of some provincially set question papers in chapter 2, the same cannot be said about the Eastern Cape Department of Education (ECDOE), as some of its assessment units were proven to be not in sync with the DBE demand for content-cognitive balancing as embodied in its assessment policies. If personnel at the level of the province cannot set content-cognitive assessment units that are adherent to policy, it follows that personnel in districts will be worse off, as attested by findings on curriculum assessment training. The sub-theories that were applied here were the educational taxonomies of Bloom, Barrett and Moseley (the SOLO Taxonomy).

Finally, by the participants' own admission, the majority of SMTs in the Eastern Cape cannot oversee the implementation and supervision, monitoring and evaluation of curriculum in their schools due to lack of capacity. This lack of capacity was seen in as far as the knowledge and dealing with the curriculum supervision policies. Conversely,

on the side of actual job performance, as shown in responses relating to curriculum supervision, participants showed a greater amount of competence. However, because such competence could not match the knowledge of the relevant policy, the researcher still concludes that a form of a new training model is still necessary in order to harmonise theory (the knowledge of policy) and practice (compare this with Harley's the Real and the Ideal in Education Facilitators, 2001:149, and Vroom's Expectancy Theory in Scholl, 2002:1-2, which were some of the theories on which this study was based).

5.3 RECOMMENDATIONS

In the light of the findings and conclusions regarding this study, the researcher recommends the following:

- Although the findings of the current study indicate that the majority of SMTs in the Eastern Cape believe they do not require training in almost all the organisational policies under discussion, the researcher believes that SMTs still require to be trained therein, so that their job practice in those policies is informed by what they (policies) mandate.
- Again, the very fact that most SMTs proved not to know the ins and outs of the DBE policies that they are supposed to implement and supervise the implementation thereof, makes the researcher recommend strongly that SMTs need training therein, so as to carry out organisational (DBE) mandates as they perform their SMT job.

- The researcher further recommends that the training of SMTs in relation to organisational policies should be structured such that the policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision must be done holistically and not as separate policies. This conclusion is based on the perceived disjuncture expressed by participants in responding to research instruments.
- A cascade model should be adopted so that what transpires at the DBE national level should filter down through provinces to districts and schools so that the SMTs' understanding of organisational policies is congruous with the basic view of the organisation (the DBE) with regard to its policies. This, in essence, also puts the onus upon the DBE to ensure that it synergises its oversight responsibility with regard to all organisational policies that the SMTs should be trained in.
- The four null hypotheses that were formulated with regard to no significant relationship between induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision were tested at 0.5 alpha level of significance as planned. All of them were found to be more supported, such that there was no basis for any of them to be rejected. Based on the findings from hypothesis testing, it became clear that what professional personnel do cannot be entirely detached from the knowledge and practice of policies that form the core of their job.

5.4 IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

- In most cases the findings of this study unearthed a realisation on the part of the researcher that training with regard to the DBE organisational policy is not undertaken in the same manner throughout the current nine provinces of South Africa. It would appear that it is left to provinces as to how effectively they ensure the knowledge, implementation and practice of policies.
- Again, the study made the researcher also realise that the above scenario does not prevail at the level of provinces only, as it became clear from the findings that policy training towards implementation and practice thereof is not uniform even within the same province and district. The SMT participants were sampled from one district, but the knowledge gap proved that even intra-district training is not homogeneous in respect of entrenching and disseminating the prescripts of organisational policies.
- Another implication of the study is that a more concerted effort as well as a more co-ordinated strategy on policy dissemination, implementation and practice is necessary to put all SMTs in the Eastern Cape on the same pedestal of organisational policy knowledge to the betterment of the performance of the province not only in relation to other provinces, but also in relation to inter-district and intra-district ways and means of training.
- The above implication also leads to another that suggests that organisational policy training with regard to induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision should be embodied in the same training manual for SMTs, even if the actual training would, say, twin induction and

mentoring on the one hand, and curriculum assessment training with curriculum supervision on the other. The latter would ensure that content that has been effectively mediated also becomes effectively assessed.

5.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

One of the limitations of this study is that the researcher could not get all responses from participants in good time as per plan. It became a daunting task for all the questionnaires to be returned, while at the same time the researcher did not want to appear to be pushy to participants. Although all questionnaires were returned, it was after a lot of persuasion on the part of the researcher.

Furthermore, it was not easy for the researcher to retrieve questionnaires back from the pilot sites, as most pilot participants took too long to respond to questions. This left the researcher panic-stricken as he was wondering what kind of flaws and shortcomings those pilots would unearth, as well as how long it would take to put them right.

The study could be confined only to high school SMTs of one district in the whole Province of the Eastern Cape. This was due to lack of pecuniary resources on the part of researcher. Had that not been the case, the researcher would have spread it to cover all SMTs in the district, regardless of their being either in the General Education and Training band or the Further Education and Training band.

The present study further has limitations in that it focuses on only four DBE organisational policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision out of a myriad others that still need the attention of school

management teams. The emphasis put by the study on the foregoing does not seek to underplay the importance of all other organisational policies than the ones under review in this study.

Limitations of the current study aside, a follow-up research could be conducted by comparing the level of SMT training meted out by the different provinces in the country, although that would involve lots of travelling to and from research sites, such that the exercise might be too vast to complete in time. In the light of this, perhaps two adjacent districts belonging to different provincial administrations could be compared with regard to policy implementation issues. Such research might point out similarities and/or differences in the manner that organisation policy is dealt with throughout the DBE spectrum.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: QUESTIONNAIRE ON ORGANISATION POLICY QUESTIONNAIRE

EFFECT OF ORGANISATION POLICY OF INDUCTION, MENTORING, CURRICULUM ASSESSMENT TRAINING & CURRICULUM SUPERVISION ON SMTS' JOB PERFORMANCE AT MALUTI DISTRICT, EASTERN CAPE

The above heading is a working title for a research project whose purpose is to check how far empowered the SMTs are in the roles and duties they have to undertake on a day-to-day basis, especially with regard to the following policies: induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision. Responses to this questionnaire will assist the researcher in making suggestions regarding the empowerment of SMTs both before they assume duties and after they are already employed to their roles.

PLACE X IN THE BLOCK OF YOUR CHOICE THROUGHOUT. FOR EXAMPLE:

S/N	ITEM	SA	A	D	SD
1.	You are an SMT member at your school.		X		

NB: SA = Strongly Agree; A=Agree; D= Disagree; SD=Strongly Disagree

SECTION A: BIODATA

1. SMT Position

Principal	Deputy principal	HOD

2. SMT Experience

1 – 5 years	6 – 10 years	11 – 20 years	21years and above

3. Age bracket

21 – 31 years	32 – 42 years	43 – 53 years	54 – 60 years

SECTION B: The effect of organization policy on the SMTs' job performance.

S/N	ITEM	SA	A	D	SD
1.	You do believe that your knowledge of policy will have an effect on how you perform your duties.				
2.	Your work in the SMT depends on any policies of the Department of Basic Education (DBE).				

SECTION C: Induction and SMTs' job performance.

S/N	ITEM	SA	A	D	SD
1.	You do believe that there is a relationship between induction and your job performance.				
2.	You were given training on inducting teachers under your supervision.				
3.	Your school inducts all new personnel irrespective of post or position.				
4.	You are adequately equipped to conduct induction.				
5.	You strongly believe that you were supposed to be orientated in induction before you became an SMT member.				

6.	The training you received in the policy of induction has an effect on your job performance.				
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SECTION D: Mentoring and SMTs' job performance.

S/N	ITEM	SA	A	D	SD
1.	You do believe that mentoring does have an effect on your job performance.				
2.	Your school does practise the policy of mentoring.				
3.	You are aware that you have to assign mentors for all supervisees.				
4.	You know what mentors should be doing in order to support mentees (those being supported).				
5.	Before becoming a supervisor (SMT member) you were orientated as to how you would conduct mentoring.				
6.	Mentoring benefits the mentor, mentee and the organisation.				

SECTION E: Curriculum assessment training and SMTs' job performance.

S/N	ITEM	SA	A	D	SD
1.	Curriculum assessment training does affect your job performance.				
2.	Before becoming an SMT member you underwent training in the principles of assessment.				
3.	Before you set questions you design a grid analysis for the planned assessment.				
4.	All your assessment instruments are compliant with the cognitive-content balance as applicable for the subjects that you teach.				
5.	You do teach your supervisees how to design grid analyses.				

6.	Your supervisees understand the tolerance range (TR) concept in marking.				
7.	Every year you do check the examination guidelines before assessing learners.				
8.	You always provide training in curriculum assessment.				
9.	Knowing the content necessarily means knowing how to assess it.				
10.	Every educator, including SMT members, needs to undergo curriculum assessment training.				

SECTION F: Curriculum supervision and SMTs' job performance.

S/N	ITEM	SA	A	D	SD
1.	There is a relationship between curriculum supervision and your job as an SMT member.				
2.	You do believe that your supervision duties include curriculum policy interpretation.				
3.	You need adequate training in order to effectively supervise curriculum implementation at your school.				
4.	Whenever a new curriculum has to be implemented, you always worry about how you will supervise it.				
5.	All the training you receive in curriculum supervision is always practice-related.				
6.	You believe that you are adequately empowered to evaluate curriculum at your school.				
7.	As a curriculum supervisor you are able to monitor everything that is attached to curriculum.				

SECTION G: Improving the SMTs' job performance in relation to the policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision.

S/N	ITEM	SA	A	D	SD
1.	The ideal SMT training model should start with SMT aspirants, and continue even after appointment.				
2.	The SMT orientation training should be done only after SMTs have assumed duties.				
3.	Continuous training in the above policies if induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision is the answer.				
4.	An adaptable training manual needs to be developed for SMT orientation.				

**APPENDIX B: QUESTIONNAIRE ON THE SMTS' JOB PERFORMANCE
THE SMTS' JOB SATISFACTION/PERFORMANCE**

POOR: 1

FAIR: 2

GOOD: 3

VERY GOOD: 4

EXCELLENT: 5

A	INDUCTION	1	2	3	4	5
1	Conducting induction workshops					
2	Orientating new educators					
3	Orientating new SMT colleagues					
4	Running the induction programme					

B	MENTORING	1	2	3	4	5
1	Assigning mentors					
2	Mentoring new educators					
3	Mentoring inexperienced educators					
4	Conducting mentoring workshops					
5	Dealing with feedback from mentees					

C	CURRICULUM ASSESSMENT TRAINING	1	2	3	4	5
1	Test validation					
2	Designing grid analyses					
3	Benchmarking tests on assessment policies					
4	Training educators on the tolerance range (TR) in marking					
5	Using DBE-approved taxonomies on assessment					

D	CURRICULUM SUPERVISION	1	2	3	4	5
1	Curriculum policy interpretation					
2	Curriculum policy management					
3	Leadership in curriculum implementation					
4	Organising curriculum tools					

APPENDIX C: A TRAINING MANUAL MODELED ON THE GCA MODEL OF TRAINING SMTS

GUIDELINES ON THE SMT TRAINING MANUAL BASED ON THE GCA MODEL OF TRAINING (GCA Model of Training)

It is worth noting that the style of doing things according to the following guidelines is flexible in that individuals and schools may operationalise it *mutatis mutandis*, without compromising the requirements of any organisational policies that are dealt with. The following guidelines are generic for assisting in designing a training manual for SMTs based on the GCA Model of Training. Their generic nature will enable trainers to adapt them to subject-specific training aspects:

GUIDELINES ON THE SMT TRAINING MANUAL BASED ON THE GCA MODEL OF TRAINING (GCA Model of Training)

INDUCTION

Instruction to SMT trainees:

- (a) Work as individuals to answer the following questions. Fifteen minutes will be allowed.
- (b) Thereafter, compare your answers with fellow group members. Ten minutes will be allowed for comparing notes.
- (c) A general discussion by all groups led by the facilitator/trainer/mediator

NB: Time allocated will depend on necessity and group sizes; it can be changed to suit the nature of orientation and training.

1. Welcoming all staff and introducing new members.

A new educator has just joined the profession and the school. List ways to suggest how you, as an SMT member, would welcome him:

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2. Introducing new staff to the SGB.

How would you, as an SMT member, introduce a new educator to the School Governing Body (SGB)?

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3. Giving new staff general information about the school: SGB, classroom management, discipline and the school and subject policies.

3.1 Would you give new staff a tour of school surroundings, or would you assign someone to do it?

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a. What tools would you give to new staff to arm them adequately for classroom management?

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b. How would you go about inducting personnel in the code of conduct and discipline of your school?

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- c. How would you allocate subjects to educators? Furthermore, how would you mediate subject policies to your supervisees?

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4. Job descriptions and positions

What would you consider before assigning job descriptions and positions?
Why are those considerations necessary?

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(More questions and activities could emanate from this, such as how educators who are not necessarily new in the profession but new in the school would be inducted, induction during the first term, induction during the first six months, etc., compare with NDOE, 2000:27 & 33; Heystek, 2002:126; Naidu *et al.*, 2008:97 and Scholl, 2002, on Vroom's Expectancy Theory).

MENTORING

Instruction to SMT trainees:

- (a) Work as individuals to answer the following questions. Fifteen minutes will be allowed.
- (b) Thereafter, compare your answers with fellow group members. Ten minutes will be allowed for comparing notes.

(c) A general discussion by all groups led by the facilitator/trainer/mediator

NB: Time allocated will depend on necessity and group sizes; it can be changed to suit the nature of orientation and training.

Assigning Mentors

What criteria would you consider before assigning mentors to educators?

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The Mentor's Role

How would you go about mentoring your supervisees/educators in the group of subjects that you are in charge of?

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What do you understand to be the role of the mentor?

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The Mentee's Role

In the process of mentoring, what do you understand to be the role of mentees/mentor supervisees?

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Benefits of Mentoring

What would you regard as benefits of mentoring to the mentor?

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What would you regard as benefits of mentoring to the mentee?

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What would you regard as benefits of mentoring to the organisation?

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(More questions and activities could emanate from this, see NDOE, 2000:27 & 33; Heystek, 2002:126; Naidu *et al.*, 2008:97-99, Education Facilitators, 2001:11; Bleach, 1999:9; Zachary, 2000:50-51; and Scholl, 2002, on Vroom's Expectancy Theory).

CURRICULUM ASSESSMENT TRAINING

Assessment Taxonomies

Assessment taxonomies dealt with should depend on specific subjects

Examples of Assessment taxonomies: *Bloom's Taxonomy*, *Barrett's Taxonomy*, *Moseley's Taxonomy (The SOLO Taxonomy)*; other taxonomies relevant to the subjects and era of assessment may be dealt with in line with what the assessment body and its quality assurance institution require or prescribe.

Design assessment grids for subjects to give templates/blueprints of what assessment instruments must look like with regard to assessment policies.

Examples of grids based on assessment taxonomies

Instruction to SMT trainees:

- a. Work as individuals to answer the following questions. Fifteen minutes will be allowed.
- b. Thereafter, compare your answers with fellow group members. Ten minutes will be allowed for comparing notes.

c. A general discussion by all groups led by the facilitator/trainer/mediator.

NB: Time allocated will depend on necessity and group sizes; it can be changed to suit the nature of orientation and training.

Tools needed: CAPS documents for different subjects, current Examination Guidelines for different subjects, textbooks, pace-setters, pictorial resources, etc.

Using taxonomies

The facilitator could draw the attention of trainees to some taxonomy grids and, together with the SMT trainees, mediate how they work in assessment activities.

Activities may include:

- Deciding on taxonomy to be used in line with a specific subject or subjects;
- Deciding on a number of marks per question and the total for the activity;
- Looking for percentage directives from respective CAPS documents in respect of percentages that determine the number of low order, middle order and high order to be asked as required by different subjects;
- Deciding on a topic to be assessed;
- Deciding on a grade/class for which assessment is done;
- Deciding on the nature of assessment: is it a test, assignment or examination?

Groups can then jot down points regarding what they did in the foregoing bullets:

What taxonomy?

What subject?

Marks?

Cognitive percentages?.....

Topic?

Grade/Class?

Nature of assessment?

Developing questions in line with taxonomy chosen, cognitive level percentages and nature of assessment

Groups set questions and provide answers thereto:

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(As more space may be necessary, the facilitator/trainer should have enough stationery.)

Validation and Validity of Measuring/Assessing Instruments

Groups can now check the validity of their assessment instrument:

State why you think that you have set what you intended to test:

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(This relates to Kane in Brennan, 2006; and Schmeiser and Welch in Brennan, 2006:309).

Reliability of Measuring/Assessing Instruments

Now check your memorandum of answers for your assessment task:

Are you sure that if different learners wrote that assessment they come to same answers?

Were there any open-ended questions?

Does the subject and nature of assessment allow for open-ended questions?

(Compare with Kane in Brennan, 2006:19; and Haertel in Brennan, 2006).

Marking the Assessment:

Individual trainees may now mark the assessment and compare answers and marks in their groups:

- Did individual markers come to the same conclusion regarding answers?
- What difference is there in marking?
- How can we bridge the difference so as not to be unfair to learners?
- What tolerance range (TR) can we allow in marking to ensure that even our marking is standardised? (Compare with Phonela, DBE 2014, on marking guidelines).

Analysing the Content-Cognitive balance using Bloom's Taxonomy

COGNITIVE LEVELS (in ascending order)			Percentage	Marks
6	Evaluation	HIGH ORDER	30%	8
5	Synthesis			4
4	Analysis	MIDDLE ORDER	40%	6
3	Application			10
2	Comprehension	LOW ORDER	30%	5
1	Knowledge			7
TOTAL MARKS FOR MICROECONOMICS			100%	40

Analysing the Content-Cognitive balance using Barrett's Taxonomy

COGNITIVE LEVELS (in ascending order)			Percentage	Marks
5	Appreciation	HIGH ORDER		2
4	Evaluation			4
3	Inference	MIDDLE ORDER		11
2	Reorganisation	LOW ORDER		2
1	Literal			11
TOTAL MARKS FOR COMPREHENSION			100%	30

NB: (1) Percentages can be factored in in line with the requirements of assessment in a specific subject; and (2) without grid analyses it is close to impossible to set a content-cognitive balanced measurement/assessment.

CURRICULUM SUPERVISION

Instruction to SMT trainees:

- d. Work as individuals to answer the following questions. Fifteen minutes will be allowed.
- e. Thereafter, compare your answers with fellow group members. Ten minutes will be allowed for comparing notes.
- f. A general discussion by all groups led by the facilitator/trainer/mediator may follow.

NB: Time allocated will depend on necessity and group sizes; it can be changed to suit the nature of orientation and training.

Curriculum policy interpretation and implementation

Which policies would need to be interpreted?

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Who would you interpret them for?

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In case of doubt as an SMT member who would you approach for appraisal?

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Leadership and management of the curriculum

In what way would you show leadership and management in curriculum?

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Developing and managing assessment policies

Ensuring that relevant curriculum policies are available in the school

Enhancing the professional competence of educators through supervising their work

How would you go about supervising the work of educators under your charge?

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Planning the monitoring process

How would you plan the monitoring process in curriculum supervision?

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(More questions and activities could emanate from this, such as involving individual departments in curriculum development; encouraging communication among schools within the district; handling controversial issues involving curriculum; spending time visiting educators in their classrooms; planning staff development programmes; rewarding curriculum innovation; encouraging educators to effectively use library and media services; and modifying the school environment in order to improve instruction, see NDOE, 2000:27 & 33; Heystek, 2002:126; Naidu *et al.*, 2008:97-99 & 192, Education Facilitators, 2001:11; Bleach, 1999:9; Zachary, 2000:50-51; Wise and Bushner, 2001; and Scholl, 2002, on Vroom's Expectancy Theory).

Other aspects of SMT training may be added as needed for the overall empowerment of the SMT personnel.

APPENDIX D: APPLICATION FOR ETHICAL CLEARANCE

P. O. Box 1987

Matatiele

4730

leboeagetsmail@yahoo.com

Contact Number: 072 246 6983

31 July 2015

UNIVERSITY Research Ethical Clearance (UREC)

University of Fort Hare

Sir/Madam

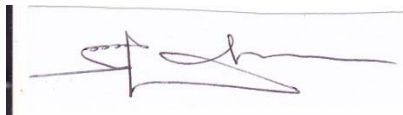
REQUEST FOR ETHICAL CLEARANCE: LEBOEAE, P. D. [STUDENT NUMBER: 8920158]

I am a registered PhD student at this university in the Faculty of Education, and hereby request for ethical clearance in order to continue my studies by way of disseminating my research instruments to participants. I have filled in all the relevant forms and documents necessary for this application.

I shall be grateful should this request be given your due consideration.

Thank you.

Yours faithfully

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read 'Paulos Dipholo Leboea', is written over a light blue horizontal line. The signature is stylized with a large initial 'P' and a long horizontal stroke.

Paulos Dipholo Leboea

APPENDIX E: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE



University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE REC-270710-028-RA Level 01

Certificate Reference Number: ADU021SLEB01

Project title: **Effect of organization policy on SMTS' job performance at Maluti district, Eastern Cape.**

Nature of Project: PhD

Principal Researcher: Paulos Dipholo Leboea

Supervisor: Prof E.O Adu

Co-supervisor:

On behalf of the University of Fort Hare's Research Ethics Committee (UREC) I hereby give ethical approval in respect of the undertakings contained in the above-mentioned project and research instrument(s). Should any other instruments be used, these require separate authorization. The Researcher may therefore commence with the research as from the date of this certificate, using the reference number indicated above.

Please note that the UREC must be informed immediately of

- Any material change in the conditions or undertakings mentioned in the document
- Any material breaches of ethical undertakings or events that impact upon the ethical conduct of the research

The Principal Researcher must report to the UREC in the prescribed format, where applicable, annually, and at the end of the project, in respect of ethical compliance.

Special conditions: Research that includes children as per the official regulations of the act must take the following into account:

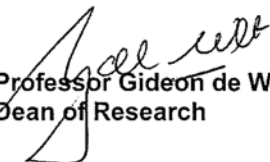
Note: The UREC is aware of the provisions of s71 of the National Health Act 61 of 2003 and that matters pertaining to obtaining the Minister's consent are under discussion and remain unresolved. Nonetheless, as was decided at a meeting between the National Health Research Ethics Committee and stakeholders on 6 June 2013, university ethics committees may continue to grant ethical clearance for research involving children without the Minister's consent, provided that the prescripts of the previous rules have been met. This certificate is granted in terms of this agreement.

The UREC retains the right to

- Withdraw or amend this Ethical Clearance Certificate if
 - Any unethical principal or practices are revealed or suspected
 - Relevant information has been withheld or misrepresented
 - Regulatory changes of whatsoever nature so require
 - 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 Gideon de Wet
Dean of Research

10 September 2015

APPENDIX F: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION

P. O. Box 1987

Matatiele

4730

leboeagetsmail@yahoo.com

Contact Number: 072 246 6983

31 July 2015

The Principal

Name of School:

Sir/Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH AT YOUR SITE

My name is Paulos. I am currently enrolled for a post graduate degree in Education at the University of Fort Hare under the supervision of Professor E. O. Adu. My area of thrust is on the organisation policies of induction, mentoring, curriculum assessment training and curriculum supervision. I am at the research stage of my studies and would request to be allowed to conduct research at your site with the consenting school management team (SMT) members. If I am allowed to do research, I promise that information elicited from all participants will not be used for any other purpose other than the impending research, nor will any of the participants' names appear anywhere in the research.

Believing that my humble plea will receive due consideration, I thank you in advance.

Yours faithfully

.....

P. D. Leboea



Le-Grange (Sibi) Senior Secondary School
P.O Box 13
Matatiele 4730
Republic of South Africa

Cellphone: 079 986 8195
E-mail address: legrangesss@hotmail.com
Fax: 086 7686 402

EMIS No. 200501091

10 September 2015

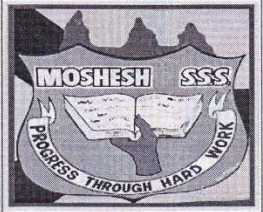
I Cyril Thabana I allowed Paulos Leboeya to conduct a survey to my SMT 2 HODS 1 Deputy principal and myself (principal).

I hope that he will find the response helpful.

Yours in service

Thabana SRC

Principal

Contact Details: Mobile: 076 225 4557 Fax: : 086 245 5705 Email: sangelaz@yahoo.com Emis No: 200500744		Moshesh Senior Secondary School Private Bag X6027 Matatiele 4730
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07 September 2015

To: P.D. Leboea (Researcher)
 P.O. Box 1987
 Matatiele
 4730

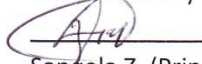
Sir

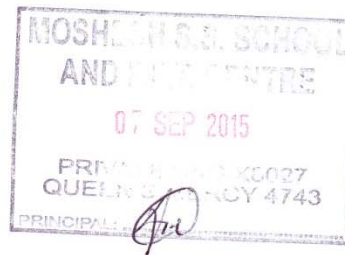
RESPONSE TO YOUR REQUEST

The aforesaid school is granting you permission to do research with its SMT members. The questions you will be asking them, I believe, will also empower them in their operation. I also wish you all the best in your endeavours.

I hope you will find this in order.

Yours faithfully


 Sangelaz Z. (Principal)



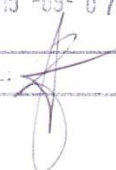
Magadla S.S.S.
P.O. Box 179
Matatiele
4730
07 September
2015

RE-PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Kindly be informed that permission is hereby granted for you to conduct research in our site. Hoping that you shall observe ethical issues as promised. We wish you all the best in your research project.

Yours faithfully.

..... (School Manager)

MAGADLA S.S.S. P.O. BOX 179 MATATIELE 4730
2015 -09- 07
PRINCIPAL: 

APPENDIX G: CERTIFICATE FROM LANGUAGE EDITOR

8 Nahoon Valley Place

Nahoon Valley

East London

5241

24 May 2016

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

I hereby confirm that I have edited the following doctoral thesis using the Windows “Tracking” system to reflect my comments and suggested corrections for the student to action:

The effect of organisation policy on school management teams’ job performance at Maluti District, Eastern Cape by PAULOS DIPHOLO LEBOEA, submitted in fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY (PhD) in the School of General and Continuing Education, FACULTY OF EDUCATION, UNIVERSITY OF FORT HARE (UFH).

BkCarlson

Brian Carlson (B.A., M.Ed.)

Professional Editor

Email: bcarlson521@gmail.com

Cell: 0834596647

Disclaimer: Although I have made comments and suggested corrections, the responsibility for the quality of the final document lies with the student in the first instance and not with myself as the editor.

BK & AJ Carlson Professional Editing Services

MALUTI DISTRICT OFFICE

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REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA • Tel: +27 (39) 256 0516 Fax: +27 (39) 256 0516• Cell 0722168227 Website: ecprov.gov.za •

TO : MR PAULOS DIPHOLO LEBOEAE

FROM : OFFICE OF THE DISTRICT DIRECTOR

SUBJECT : RESEARCH APPROVAL

Date : 11 SEPTEMBER 2015



Name of Researcher	Mr. Paulos Dipholo Leboea
Address of Researcher	PO Box 1987 Matatiele 4730 2139 Madimong Road Maritseng Location, Ramohlakoana A/A Maluti 4740
Study Course	Doctor of Philosophy: Education
Student Number	8920158
Institution	University of Fort Hare
Contact details	072 2466 983
Email address	leboeagetsmail@yahoo.com
Research Topic	Effect of organisation policy on the SMT's job performance at Maluti District, Eastern Cape.
Number and type of schools	28 High Schools in Maluti District

This letter serves to indicate that approval is hereby granted to the above-mentioned researcher to proceed with research in respect of the study indicated above. The onus rests with the researcher to negotiate appropriate and relevant time schedules with the school/s and office/s involved to conduct the research.

The following conditions apply, and approval may be withdrawn should any of the conditions below be violated:

1. The District concerned must be presented with a copy of this letter that would indicate the said researcher has been granted permission from the Eastern cape Department of Education to conduct the research
2. The District Office must be approached separately and in writing to conduct the research
3. A copy of this letter forwarded to the school principal and the Chairperson of the School Governing Body that would indicate that the research has been granted permission from the Department of Education, Eastern Cape, to conduct the research
4. A letter/document that outlines the purpose of the research and the anticipated outcomes of such research must be made available to the principals, SGB's and

MALUTI DISTRICT OFFICE

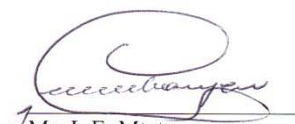
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REPUBLIC OF SOUTH AFRICA • Tel: +27 (39) 256 0516 Fax: +27 (39) 256 0516 • Cell 0722168227 Website: ecprov.gov.za •

District/head office Office/Senior Managers of the schools and districts/offices concerned, respectively

5. The researcher will make every effort to obtain the cooperation and goodwill of all the ECDE Officials, principals and Chairpersons of SGB's, teachers and learners involved. Persons who offer their co-operation will not receive additional remuneration from the Department while those that opt not to participate will not be penalized in any way.
6. Research may only be conducted after school hours, as far as is practicable, so that the normal school programme is not interrupted. The Principal and/or Director must be consulted about an appropriate time when the researcher may carry out their research at the sites that they may manage.
7. It is the researcher's responsibility to obtain written parental consent of all learners that are expected to participate in the study.
8. The researcher is responsible for supplying and utilizing her own research resources such as stationery, photocopies, transport, faxes and telephones and should not depend on the goodwill of the institutions and/or offices visited for supplying such resources.
9. The names of the ECDoE officials, schools, principals, teachers and learners that participate in the study may not appear in the research report without the written consent of each of these individuals and/or organisations.
10. The researcher may be expected to provide short presentations on the purpose, findings and recommendations of his research to both ECDoE officials and the schools concerned.
11. Should the researcher have been involved with research at a school and/or a district/head office level, the Director concerned must also be supplied a brief summary of the purpose, findings and recommendations of the research study.

The Eastern Cape Department of Education wishes you well in this important undertaking and looks forward to examining the findings of your research.

Kind regards


Mr. L.E. Mtatyana
District Director
(039) 2560 111

