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## **KEYWORDS**

- Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)
- Total Quality Management (TQM)
- Assessment Practices
- Instructional Leadership
- Likert scale
- Free State Province
- Principal
- Primary schools
- Paradigm
- Theoretical framework
- Conceptual framework
- South African Qualification Authority(SAQA)
- School Management Team(SMT)

# ABSTRACT

The role of the principal can no longer be viewed as merely being a manager and administrator but rather as learning-expert and lifelong learner. Principals are expected to establish appropriate preconditions for effective teaching, learning and assessment, and flow through with interactions aimed at improving teaching and leaning.

The problem statement for this study was based on the researcher's opinion that the lack of knowledge of effective assessment practices by principals as instructional leaders seemed to have a negative influence on teacher's perceptions of the implementation of quality assessment practices in their respective classrooms. The reason for this challenge is because principals are not involved in the classroom assessment practices, to revise, support and manage the quality of assessment by indentifying teacher's assessment to them.

The purpose of this study was to design a proposed instructional leadership model/framework to ensure effective and quality assessment practices at school level. This ILQA framework/model was designed from the literature review, findings and personal experience as a principal. The aim of this ILQA framework/model was to support principals understand their roles in the teaching and learning environment in ensuring quality assessment practices at school level.

This study investigates how principals execute their roles as instructional leaders in ensuring effective and the implementation of quality assessment practices using structured questionnaire from a sample of 250 respondents and semi structured interviews with five primary school principals in the Free State Department of Basic Education. It was found that to ensure quality assessment practices, principals should understand their role in assessment for learning, assessment of learning and assessment as learning and integrate them into classroom instruction as an important component of quality teaching and learning.

In summary the researcher further hopes that when the findings and the recommendations of this study are implemented, it will add value to the school principals' instructional leadership roles in ensuring quality assessment practices at school level.

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# CHAPTER 1

## ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

### 1.1 INTRODUCTION

This doctoral study examines the role of instructional leadership in ensuring quality assessment practices in primary schools in the Free State Province. More specifically, the study focuses on exploring the role of instructional leadership of primary school principals in executing their instructional leadership, total quality management and assessment in ensuring quality assessment practices in primary schools. Accordingly, this chapter provides the background to instructional leadership, total quality management and conceptualised assessment in the context of schools in general and in particular primary schools in the Free State Province. A brief background of the study, the formulation of the problem, key research questions, formulation of the aim and objectives, research methodological considerations, motivation and delimitation of the study are also presented.

### 1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

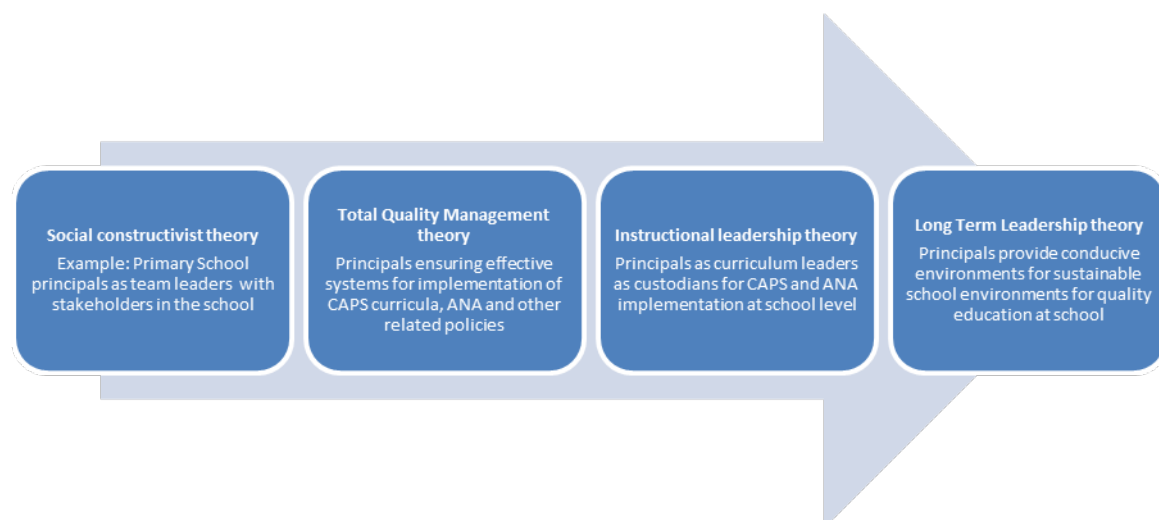
In 1994 the African National Congress (ANC) declared that quality education for all children required major investments in the South African education system. Improving the quality of education requires additional facilities and teachers, as well as the rethinking of structure, curriculum and certification. Reform in South Africa education should consequently be aligned with the quality notion, which, according to Mehrotra (2002:1), addresses the functioning of a system in order to establish a context in which learners may achieve their maximum potential. One of the main aspects of South Africa education reform has been the development of an integrated approach to education and training, based on a National Qualifications Framework Policy and the introduction of a new national curriculum underpinned by outcomes-based education (Motala, 2001:63). The National Department of Education (NDE) on assessment policy (1998:4) recognises one of the driving forces behind educational reform as the desire to improve standards, in terms of

knowledge, skills and values which in turn requires a focus on their attainment. The Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS) (Department of Education Assessment Guidelines (DoE, 2002) sets out the Assessment Standards, which stipulate the learning outcomes of every learning area and subject while the National Protocol on Assessment Policy (DoE, 2005) guides classroom assessment practices. The CAPS and the National Protocol on Assessment are, therefore, mutually reliant.

According to Botha (2004: 240), the role of the school principal can no longer be viewed as merely being a manager and administrator, but rather as a learning-expert and lifelong learner. Principals are expected to establish appropriate preconditions for effective teaching, learning and assessment, and follow through with interventions aimed at improving teaching and learning. The quality of education in every school, therefore, relies heavily on the principals' contribution to ensure high standards of teaching and learning.

### 1.3 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK UNDERPINNING THIS STUDY

The theoretical framework through which the problem is viewed and analysed proceeds from the theories of **social constructivist, total quality management, instructional leadership and long-term leadership** which underpin this study as shown in Figure 1.1



**Figure1.1: Theoretical framework for study**

The assumption is that principals and educators must adhere to quality assessments practices which are a crucial part of thinking and that their

acquisition constitutes an important achievement in the development of the learner at school. In the next paragraphs the concept “paradigm” is discussed.

Firstly, the term paradigm became popular as a result of the work of Kuhn (1962) represented in his book entitled, *The structure of scientific revolutions*. The author is commonly acknowledged as the progenitor of the concept of *paradigm* as it applies to the history and philosophy of science. Paradigm comes from the Greek, *paradeigma*, meaning a pattern, model or plan. More than 40 years after the publication of Kuhn’s book, the use of the concept and the term *paradigm* is widespread, in the social sciences and education (Heron & Reason, 1997). According to Kuhn (1962), a paradigm is what the members of a scientific community share and conversely a scientific community consists of members who share a paradigm – a tacit commitment by a community of scholars to a “taken for granted” conceptual framework, which offers a way of seeing, framing, and making sense of the world. Moreover, scientific theories are constructed around basic paradigms. A paradigm is like a new pair of glasses, it affects the way you see everything in life (Covey, 1989:125). Paradigms provide an overarching conceptual view as well as a social and cultural framework for conducting research, shape how we understand ourselves, determine what counts as valuable and legitimate scientific knowledge, and define the experiences that can legitimately lead to knowledge and the kinds of knowledge that are produced (Heron & Reason, 1997; Covey, 1989).

Secondly, Heron and Reason (1997: 277) argue that paradigms may be viewed as sets of beliefs about the nature of reality and how it may be known, and these beliefs are put into relief by three fundamental and interrelated questions: the ontological question, “What is the form and nature of reality and, therefore, what is there that can be known about it?”; the epistemological question, “What is the relationship between the knower or would-be knower and what can be known?”; and the methodological question, “How can the inquirer find out whatever he or she believes can be known about?” Heron and Reason (1997:278) as well Covey (1989:125) believe that a fourth question is the axiological question.

Finally, essential defining characteristics of an inquiry paradigm are the concepts of ontology (science of education research), epistemology (role of instructional leadership), and methodology (research design, methods for data collection, ethical clearance) which form the basis of the investigation of the study. The axiological question asks what is intrinsically valuable in human life, in particular what sort of knowledge, if any, is intrinsically valuable (Lincoln & Guba, 2000:44; Heron & Reason, 1997:279).

The theoretical framework was devised to help understand the concepts or design of the research. The above theoretical framework provided the researcher with knowledge about the theories and concepts embedded in this research topic under investigation. Miles and Huberman (1994) define a theoretical framework as a visual or written product; one that explains, either graphically or in a narrative form, the main aspects to be studied – the key factors, concepts or variables and the presumed relationships among them.

From the onset, this study explored the role of the principal as an instructional leader in ensuring the implementation of quality assessment practices in primary schools in the Free State Province. As indicated earlier, the concepts studied were quality assessment, total quality management (TQM) and instructional leadership. De Bono (2005:62) says that quality demands that anything being done may be done better. In this respect quality assessment requires educators to assess learners according to the correct policies. Lincoln and Guba (2000:44) maintain that human beings are seen as the primary research instruments in the context of this doctoral study. The principal here becomes the assessment leader who ensures whether teachers at school do quality assessment. Svensson (2004:168) argues that TQM implies an economisation of the education sector and an introduction of a new set of values that challenge the traditional pedagogical value of education (Svensson, 2004:168).

Emanating from the brief reflection on quality assessment above, it is clear that the responsibility of the principal as an instructional leader is to empower, support and help the school management team members and teachers to acquire new knowledge of assessment and skills with the aim of improving

education as a whole. It is the principal's responsibility as the instructional leader and manager to improve assessment quality by creating effective assessment practices. Instructional leadership is a concept drawn from the literature on education administration to describe the role a school principal plays in helping to create a culture of instruction and learning at the school (Fowler, Walter & Scott, 2003:465). The principal should also assist in assessing work done by educators in the classroom so as to maintain quality assessment.

The next paragraphs provide a brief explanation of the social constructivist theory, long-term leadership theory, total quality management theory and instructional leadership theory.

### **1.3.1 Social constructivist theory**

The theoretical framework was devised by collecting different views from different scholars on the topic which formed the basis of this doctoral study. This study is underpinned by the constructivist interpretive qualitative paradigm (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Geertz, 1973; Lincoln & Guba, 2000; Schwandt 1994). Moreover, Van Manen (1977, 2002) believes individuals collectively construct meaning to reality from socially interactive experiences and in this study it is the principal's responsibility to provide instructional leadership regarding assessment practices at the school. It is clear, social reality is constructed by the individuals who participate in it and in this study. The individuals were primary school principals who participated in this study to ensure that teachers employ or develop and implement effective assessment practices at the school. The researcher interviewed primary principals and questionnaires were completed by principals regarding their roles as instructional leaders in ensuring quality assessment practices in primary schools in the Free State Province. Through the data collection process the researcher built and designed a framework for the study. Lincoln and Guba (2000:44) maintain that the focus is to understand the nature of constructing reality from multiple perspectives, emphasising the roles of cultures, genders, context and others factors in the construction of knowledge in the reality (epistemology). Aspects of the social environment do not have an existence apart from the meanings that individuals construct for them.

Analysis of curriculum and instructional programmes attempted to expose the values underlying these phenomena. There was an emphasis on the need to put analyses in context, presenting the interpretations of many, sometimes competing groups, interested in the outcomes of education.

In terms of the discussion of the social constructivist view in the previous paragraph, human beings are seen as the primary research instruments, rejecting the mathematical modelling of phenomena on which the quantitative paradigm depends so heavily. Lincoln and Guba (2000:44) describe the concept of truth as follows, "*Truth is a matter of consensus among informed and sophisticated constructors, not correspondence with an objective reality*".

Immersion in the context of a research study is highly preferred to the detachment of the classical laboratory scientist; within this paradigm, many different anthropological and sociological methodologies, especially human observation, have been adopted. Based on this, interviews and questionnaires were used to conduct this study, which included female and male principals of different cultures in Free State primary schools.

### **1.3.2 Total quality management theory**

In this model the focus is on the "customer", who is the learner. The quality of the education is determined by good results attained by learners at school. The work of Deming (Dale, Wu, Zairi, Williams & Van der Wiele, 2001:444; Juran Institute, 2005), the Baldrige Award for Education (Arcaro, 1995a), as well as the ISO 9000 models on quality reveal a number of quality indicators focusing on, among others, aspects such as customer satisfaction. Fitzgerald (2004:1) argues that it implies that these quality management principles may contribute to improving schools and might enhance the progression towards quality classroom assessment. Sallis (1996:17) concurs with the latter that the continuous improvement of the quality of the education service is determined largely by its customers. A service which suits the customers' needs has to give an account of practical usefulness; implying focusing on fitness of purpose and what works in practice. The latter could be associated with a pragmatic approach, a philosophy, which *inter alia* encourages organisations to select those processes which enable people to achieve the best. This is



true to the pragmatic style as pioneered by Dewey who believed that teachers could and should educate students around their intellectual interests and needs (Arif, Smiley & Kulonda, 2005:4; Arcaro, 1995b:21).

Although this study views the TQM approach as a possible management solution to quality assessment practices, this study does not negate the neo-liberalistic character of the approach and acknowledges criticism of TQM. The TQM critics divide their concerns about the approach into a number of perspectives of which the following reflects the core. One perspective about quality management in schools emanates from the point of view that TQM implies an economisation of the education sector and an introduction of a new set of values that challenges the traditional pedagogical value of education (Svensson, 2004; Arif, Smiley & Kulonda, 2005; Arcaro, 1995b). Another view is presented by Bergquist, Fredriksson and Svensson (2005:315), who critically state that TQM places customer experience in relation to customers' expectations and consequently introduces a new set of values that also challenges the traditional educational ideals. The preceding may reduce the quality of teaching and assessment to the extent to which the expectations of learners' parents and the community are met, rather than the actual intellectual level and academic value of teaching and assessment.

The above criticism against the TQM viewpoint may be absolute, but this study recognises the positive elements of the approach which requires that an organisation needs to improve and adapt to the customers' expectations on a continual basis. This implies that new assessment knowledge and skills must be acquired by teachers with the aim of improving education as a whole.

### **1.3.3 Instructional leadership theory**

The literature review that emerged from the effective schools movement gives credence to the characteristics of effective leaders that have been identified by others (Andrews, Sober & Jacoby, 1986; Brookover & Lezotte, 1977; Cawelti, 1984; Edmonds, 1979, 1982; Lipham, 1981; Purkey & Smith, 1982). In schools where learners' achievement is high, the principal possesses a vision of what a school can become. The principal has a way of getting people to accept that vision as their own, rather than just paying lip service to a

catchy slogan or phrase. People commit to the mission because a trust relationship permeates the interactions of the school. Strong instructional leaders wear the mantle of leadership granted by those who are supervised.

Furthermore, Andrew and Sober (1987) found that high achieving schools positively correlated with strong instructional leaders. This implies that schools where principals are perceived by teachers as effective as instructional leaders are successful. Andrews and Sober's findings are corroborated by other researchers, such as Mortimer (1989) and Heck, Marcoulides and Larsen (1990).

Improvement of instruction, therefore, can be accomplished through the behaviour attributed to instructional leaders. Harris (1975:10) defines improvement of instruction through supervision as *“what school administrators do with adults and things to maintain or change the school operation in ways that directly influence the teaching process employed to promote pupil learning”*. Hence, supervision is defined here as everything the principal does while interacting with staff.

Smith and Andrews (1989) identify four broad areas of strategic interaction of the principal such as resource provider, instructional resource, effective communicator and visible presence in the school, which all provide a framework for examining the supervisory behaviour of the principal. These strategic roles will be further discussed, pointing out what enables the principal to go beyond routine management and make a difference in learner achievement.

#### **1.3.4 Long-term leadership theory**

In this study a long-term leadership theory is regarded as a driving force of a school. In this model two facets of the long-term leadership task of the principal are identified. The first relates to the creation of desirable conditions under which staff can excel (Van Niekerk, 1995). The tasks relating to this facet are vision creation, vision communication and values management by which the school culture is constructed. The second facet relates to the leader performing the leadership tasks of training, development and empowerment of personnel. All these leadership tasks are actually encompassed by the

inspirational vision of the leader (Van Niekerk, 1995). The essence of leadership relates to influencing people (Kleyn & Rinehart, 1998; Harris & Muijs, 2005), and this influencing is a vision-driven process encompassing both the facets mentioned above (Van Niekerk, 1995). The functioning of school principals as leaders is directly affected by their vision for their schools and the manner in which they fulfil this vision (Bass, 2008; Bush, 2007). The nature of the principal's leadership relates strongly to realising the vision of the school as the vision is intended to focus all activities and stakeholders in the school on its realisation (Crainer & Dearlove, 2003; Masuku, 2012). As such, all stakeholders should know about the vision and be inspired by it. The vision determines the future of the school because the development, communication and accomplishment of the vision are not only the principal's most important task, but also directly relate to the future of the school (Sterling & Davidoff, 2000; McEwan, 2003). The vision, as the overarching driving force of an organisation, such as a school, also provides guidance regarding practical activities, such as resources allocation, staff deployment, organising schedules, professional development priorities and decision making about matters relating to the core function of teaching and learning (Murphy & Lick, 2005; Botha, 2004).

It is therefore of compelling importance that the principal be enthusiastic about and inspired by the vision of the school (Bass, 2008; Masuku, 2012). The vision of the school is important because it focuses everything on the core function of the school, which is effective teaching and learning. This is actually what principals should be passionate about and perceive as their guiding star amid all the turmoil of being a leader of a school. The vision should in fact be the guiding star in all school activities, binding them to the core task of teaching and learning. In the mind of the principal as an authentic leader the vision thus fulfils an essential integrating function providing focus on the core task of the school (Masuku, 2012; Van Niekerk, 2012).

#### **1.4. FORMULATION OF THE PROBLEM**

For the purpose of formulating the research problem, the following issues were addressed as part of the problem statement, namely the role of the principal as an instructional leader in providing assessment leadership in

ensuring quality assessment practices, paradigm shift in ensuring quality assessment practices at school level and the Umalusi assessment reports.

- **Assessment leadership role of the school principal as instructional leader**

The introduction and implementation of assessment in South African schools revealed that there was limited evidence of research conducted on instructional leadership concerning leadership in assessment. Botha (2004:241) emphasises that there is no formal training programme to develop South African principals for their task as assessment leaders. The lack in assessment leadership is an impediment for effective and reliable assessment practices in South African schools and this seems to have a negative influence on teachers' perceptions of the implementation of quality assessment practices in their respective classrooms in this demarcated area of study. Botha (2004:242) further states that the lack of sound instructional leadership reveals that teachers have particular expectations about the role principals, as instructional leaders, should play in the improvement of their assessment competencies at school level. Additionally, the National Department of Basic Education released the Draft Assessment Policy (DoE, 1998:16) and the National Protocol on Assessment (DoE, 2005:5) which recognised the role-players and stipulated that they should be involved in classroom assessment practices, but also are compelled to develop, construct and align the assessment policy of the school for implementation and monitoring.

The school principal must play a leading role to revise, support and manage the assessment policy as instructional leader at school level. Moreover, several literature reviews define assessment leadership as the responsibility of the school principal, namely to manage the quality of assessment in the school by identifying teacher's assessment needs and deficiencies and provide training opportunities to them accordingly.

The researcher is of the view that it is the principal's role and responsibility to ensure that teachers are empowered in assessment practices by creating staff development opportunities in the school staff development plan (SSDP),

which would enhance the quality of assessment practices in the classrooms. Furthermore, the researcher argues that teachers need support, guidance and empowerment to master their assessment task to enhance effective teaching and learning in the classroom.

- **Paradigm shift in ensuring quality assessment practices at school level**

It is widely agreed by South African education policy makers and education leaders that a paradigm shift in assessment is required in order to ensure that assessment practices guide, support and underpin the transformative outcomes-based curriculum model for education (Pahad, 1999:247). The assessment policy (1998 and C2005) expected teachers to change the fundamentals of their assessment practices. However, previous studies on assessment reveals that insufficient planning and preparation for the implementation of assessment had a negative influence on teachers' experience after the implementation of the new assessment policy (Fleisch, 2002:131; Chisholm, 2003:3). Furthermore, in-service training in South Africa has tended to focus on procedural and bureaucratic functions such as how to fill in and calculate mark sheets rather than helping teachers to understand the rationale and potential of assessment (School Net Africa, 2003).

The above inconsistencies and unclear assessment policy framework requirements, which seem to result in frustration among principals and teachers, are supported by the media, revealing a great deal of criticism, and countering assessment challenges (*Beeld*, 2006; *Rapport*, 2005; *Business Day*, 2005; *Burger*, 2005(a); *Rapport*, 2006; *Volksblad*, 2006). The unconcealed discontent among teachers, expressed in the media and previous research on assessment, is based on an apparent lack in training and development.

Stiggins (2004:22) supports this issue by indicating that we have inherited an assessment legacy that has actually prevented us from tapping into the full power of assessment as a tool for school improvement.

The researcher is of the opinion that the preceding challenges, based on a lack in staff development and training in assessment of principals and teachers by the Department of Basic Education (DBE) encourages one to question the quality of assessment practices at schools.

The *National Protocol on Assessment Policy* (NPAP) for schools in the *General and Further Education and Training Band* (GET and FET), which was published in 2005, provided vague guidelines and general criteria for classroom assessment. The NPAP did not specify and formulate assessment tasks; these in turn left teachers confused about how to assign tasks as required per subject. However, Chappuis (2004:22) reports in a study that, even when guidelines and criteria were presented, teachers would still need assessment knowledge and skills to evaluate learners in a fair, meaningful way and provide constructive feedback. According to the latter report, assessment training seemed not to have been sufficiently addressed to empower teachers at schools.

The researcher contends that if the principal understands his role as instructional leader regarding implementation of assessment practices as stipulated in NPAP, quality teaching and learning will be produced. It seems that quality education in South African schools can be improved by the content-based approach to assessment, but only if the assessment practices are directed by the paradigm shift towards quality assessment management practices by principals and teachers.

- **Umalusi Assessment Reports**

The name Umalusi is derived from the Nguni word *umalus* meaning shepherd or, in the African context, guardian of the family assets. Umalusi is entrusted to take care of some of the nation's most valued possessions – quality-assured general and further education and training assessment practices. It is to encourage and support, but also to be firm on growth in quality through powerful and effective learning. Quality assurance is one of the strongest tools for changing education and training in South Africa – it clarifies goals, motivates individuals, demands good practices and promotes thoughtfulness.

The South African Certification Council (SAFCERT) ensures that the providers of education and training have the capacity to deliver and assess qualifications and learning programmes and are doing so to expected standards of quality. Umalusi is guided by the *General and Further Education and Training Act, Act 58 of 2001*. The functions of the South African Certification Council were incorporated into those of the new Council, constituted in June 2002. SAFCERT mainly focused on quality assurance in the National Senior Certificate.

As with any organisation, Umalusi as a quality assurance authority, has a vision that commits it to ensure the pursuit of world class quality in the General and Further Education and Training phases for all in South Africa, as well as a mission that obligates them to promote and assure quality in latter phases through reliable, responsive and reputable services provided in a supportive and reflective manner. Standard setting is a key quality assurance responsibility, which has been entrusted to Umalusi through the *Quality Council Act*. Umalusi addresses this responsibility through a number of quality assurance processes, of which the moderation of question papers is one. Since this research is mainly on the instructional leadership role of the principal regarding quality assessment practices, consideration is given to the Umalusi Technical Report on the 2005 examination papers in most school subjects. While it draws on general observations made in Umalusi's Quality Assurance report on GET, FET and Vocational Education examinations, the main sources are the subject-specific interviews with lecturers, the internal continuous assessment (ICASS) moderators' reports from Umalusi moderators and the Umalusi external moderator reports on the examination papers, all with reference to the sampled subjects. Respondents at provincial (subject advisors), college (lecturers), secondary (subject teachers) and primary levels expressed concern about the lack of clarity in respect of policies issued by the Department of Basic Education (DBE), particularly in terms of curriculum implementation, internal continuous assessment and final examinations, as well as roles and responsibilities at the different levels of the system. Concerns were raised on the quality and standard of the assessment elements in most of the assessment instruments. It was revealed that classroom assessment was inadequate in both informal and formal

assessment tasks done. In both cases it was found that learners performed low because in some instances learners did not know what the knowledge and skills were that were being assessed and feedback was not done at all in providing learners with guidelines. Teachers indicated that no observation guidelines were provided to assess the learners on specific assessment tasks.

The above picture of Umalusi has been painted as a way of bringing the organisation into perspective and also to briefly ascertain their jurisdiction in South African education, most especially in the area of school subjects. Later on in the study, it will be discussed whether the organisation's jurisdiction impacts on teachers and learners as well as the teaching-learning enterprise as a whole.

Based on the background given, the researcher seeks *to explore how principals' execute* their roles as instructional leaders in ensuring effective assessment and the implementation of quality assessment practices in primary schools in the Free State Province.

## **1.5 AIM AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

This doctoral study aims at designing a proposed instructional leadership framework to ensure effective and quality assessment practices at school level.

To achieve the above overall aim of this study, the following specific objectives were formulated for the purpose of conducting this investigation:

- To determine what constitutes instructional leadership and how this leadership role will ensure quality assessment practices at school level;
- To determine what is total quality management and how this concept of assessment competency for principals will function at school level;
- To investigate how this study will impact on quality management for improvement of assessment practices in schools;
- To measure the statistically significant differences, if any, between male and female primary school principals' qualifications and years of experiences in relation to the roles and responsibilities as an instructional



leader, the implementation of a total quality management system and in ensuring effective quality assessment practices at primary schools in the Free State Department of Basic Education;

- To explore the current status of the principal's assessment training needs, as well as challenges faced regarding effectiveness of instructional leadership and demonstrating effective assessment competencies at primary schools;
- To recommend an instructional leadership framework for school principals on how to use and play their instructional leadership role in ensuring effective assessment practices at schools.

## **1.6 RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

- **Primary research question**

Emanating from the problem above, the primary research question was: How do principals execute their roles as instructional leaders in ensuring quality assessment practices in primary schools in the Free State Province?

- **Secondary research questions**

The following questions were formulated for the purpose of conducting this study to design an instructional leadership framework for principals to ensure quality assessment practices in primary schools in the Free State Province:

- What constitutes instructional leadership and how will this leadership role ensure assessment practices at school level?
- What is total quality management and how will this concept of assessment competency for principals function at school level?
- How will this study impact on quality management for improvement of assessment practices in schools?
- Are there any significant differences between male and female primary school principals' qualifications and years of experiences in relation to the roles and responsibilities as an instructional leader, the implementation of a total quality management system and in ensuring effective quality assessment practices at primary schools in the Free State Department of Basic Education?

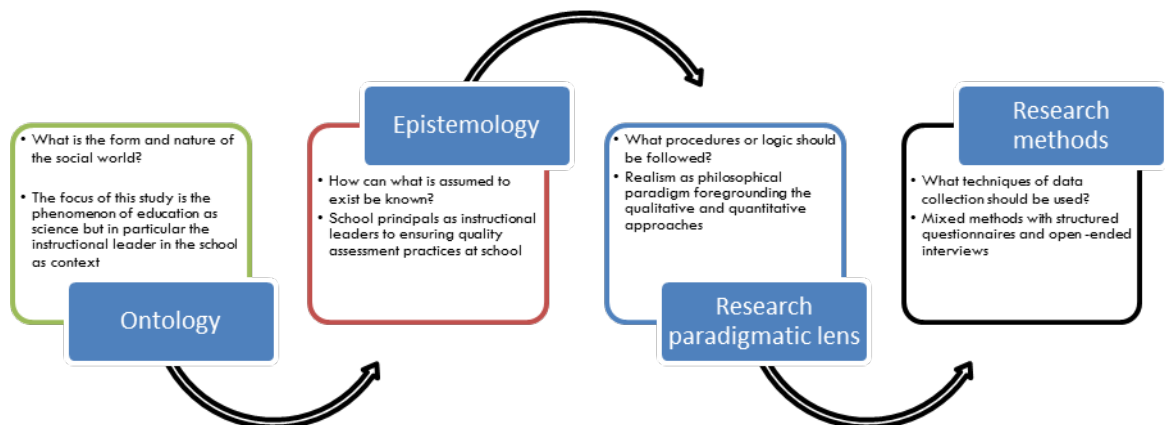
- What is the current status of the principal's assessment training needs, as well as challenges faced regarding effectiveness of instructional leadership and demonstrating effective assessment competencies at primary schools?
- What recommendations could be formulated from the literature review and findings of this study to design an instructional leadership framework for school principals on how to use and play their instructional leadership role in ensuring effective assessment practices at schools?

## **1.7 METHODOLOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS**

This study set out to provide some basic epistemological considerations of meaning making, as approached through the use of qualitative and quantitative data analysis.

The diagrammatical illustrations (Figure 1.1 and Figure 5.1: Graphic Presentation of the Mixed Methods Approach) show a constructive alignment for the research paradigmatic and methodological considerations in this study.

The diagram highlights differences between the epistemologies of qualitative (constructivist/interpretivist) and quantitative (post-positivist) research paradigms. These two research paradigms are introduced and discussed in detail in Figure 5.1 in Chapter 5, highlighting their differences as reflecting unique ontological views about the nature of reality. Further, the realist paradigm is discussed as a "middle ground" between the poles of positivism and constructivism. For realists, the means to determine the reality of a social phenomenon is through the triangulation of cognition processes, which include elements of both positivism and constructivism rather than solely one or the other. A perception for realists is thus a window from which a picture of reality can be triangulated with other perceptions.



**Figure 1.2 Constructive alignment of research paradigmatic and methodological considerations**

### 1.7.1 Research paradigm

The term epistemology comes from the Greek word *epistēmê*, meaning knowledge. In simple terms, epistemology is the philosophy of knowledge or how we come to know (Trochim, 2000).

Epistemology is intimately related to ontology and methodology; as ontology involves the philosophy of reality, epistemology addresses how we come to know that reality, while methodology identifies the particular practices used to attain knowledge of it.

Epistemology poses the following questions: What is the relationship between the knower and what is known? How do we know what we know? What counts as knowledge? In the positivist paradigm, the object of study is independent of researchers; knowledge is discovered and verified through direct observations or measurements of phenomena; facts are established by taking apart a phenomenon to examine its component parts. An alternative view, the naturalist or constructivist view, is that knowledge is established through the meanings attached to the phenomena studied; researchers interact with the subjects of study to obtain data; inquiry changes both

researcher and subject; and knowledge is context and time dependent (Coll & Chapman, 2000; Cousins, 2002; Gray, 2004). Understanding the differences in epistemology among research paradigms begins primarily as a philosophical exercise for, according to Olson (1995), the question of whether there is one knowable reality or that there are multiple realities of which some individual knowledge can be acquired is more a question of faith. According to Dobson (2002:2), *“the researcher’s theoretical lens is also suggested as playing an important role in the choice of methods because the underlying belief system of the researcher (ontological assumptions) largely defines the choice of method (methodology).”* Emanating from this statement, the research paradigms were introduced and are discussed in detail in Figure 5.1 in Chapter 5.

Despite many proposed differences between quantitative and qualitative epistemologies, ultimately the heart of the quantitative-qualitative “debate” is philosophical, not methodological. Philosophical assumptions or a theoretical paradigm about the nature of reality are crucial to understanding the overall perspective from which the study is designed and carried out. A theoretical paradigm is thus the identification of the underlying basis that is used to construct a scientific investigation or *“a loose collection of logically held together assumptions, concepts, and propositions that orientates thinking and research”* (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982:30).

Likewise, a paradigm may be defined as the *“basic belief system or world view that guides the investigation”* (Guba & Lincoln, 1994:105).

The justification for choosing the realism philosophical paradigm for this study is its complementary nature which supports the qualitative and quantitative approaches. Realism, as a philosophical paradigm, has elements of both positivism and constructivism (Healy & Perry, 2000). Realism is also known as critical realism, and post-positivism (Denzin & Lincoln, 1994; Guba & Lincoln, 1994) or neo-post-positivism (Manicas & Secord, 1982). While positivism concerns a single, concrete reality, and interpretivism multiple realities, realism concerns multiple perceptions about a single, mind-independent reality (Healy & Perry, 2000). The concept of reality embodied within realism is thus one extending beyond the self or consciousness, but

which is not wholly discoverable or knowable. Rather than being supposedly value-free, as in positive research, or value-laden as in interpretive research (Lincoln & Guba, 2000), realism is instead value cognisant; conscious of the values of human systems and of researchers. Realism recognises that perceptions have a certain plasticity (Churchland, 1979) and that there are differences between reality and people's perceptions of reality (Healy & Perry, 2000; Bisman, 2002).

According to Dobson (2002), the critical realist agrees that our knowledge of reality is a result of social conditioning and, thus, cannot be understood independently of the social factors involved in the knowledge derivation process. However, it takes issue with the belief that the reality itself is a product of this knowledge derivation process.

The critical realist asserts that "real objects are subject to value-laden observation"; the reality and the value-laden observation of reality operating in two different dimensions, one intransitive and relatively enduring, the other transitive and changing.

Within this framework, the discovery of observable and non-observable structures and mechanisms, independent of the events they generate, is the goal of realism (Outhwaite, 1983). In other words, researchers working from a realist perspective observe the empirical domain to discover by a "*mixture of theoretical reasoning and experimentation*" (Outhwaite, 1983:332) knowledge of the real world, by naming and describing the generative mechanisms that operate in the world and result in the events that may be observed.

Within a critical realism framework, both qualitative and quantitative methodologies are seen as appropriate for this doctoral study.

### **1.7.2 Research methods**

With reference to the realism philosophical paradigm, this study employs elements of both positivism and constructivism and a mixed-method approach for designing the research methods and data collection instruments. The research methods employed within this doctoral study were structured

questionnaires and open-ended interviews which were acceptable and considered appropriate within the paradigm (Bisman, 2002).

For the quantitative research approach (see Chapter 5 Research Methods), a four-point Likert scale structured questionnaire was designed and used to determine to what extent the instructional leadership role, quality management and assessment practices influence the assessment quality in Free State primary schools. On the other hand, for the qualitative research approach (see Chapter 5 Research Methods), semi-structured interview questions (interview schedule) were formulated and employed regarding assessment practices at school level.

De Vos (2005:361) is of the view that triangulation is used to designate a conscious combination of literature review, the quantitative and the qualitative data as both methods are applied to investigate a single research problem.

### **1.7.3 Sampling**

The study was based on the role of the principal as an instructional leader regarding assessment competence. The target group for the qualitative study was principals who are directly involved in assessment. The structured questionnaires were sent to 250 principals in Free State primary schools. For the interviews, a purposeful sample consisted of only 10 principals (five males and five females) who were identified and only five were interviewed regarding assessment competence at their specific schools. Data was analysed and themes were identified for the purpose of conducting the study.

### **1.7.4 Reliability**

Smaling (1994:78) regards reliability as the elimination of casual errors that can influence the results to a certain extent. Reliability is viewed as the absence of random errors; the research instrument can also be regarded as reliable if it reveals what it is supposed to reveal.

To calculate the reliability of the items in the questionnaire, Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha=7$ ) was used.

### **1.7.5 Content validity**

Validity refers to the degree to which the research conclusions are sound. According to Neuman (2003:183), validity refers to how well the conceptual and operational definitions mesh with each other. The research findings in this study may be generalised across the population (Cooper & Schindler, 2006:318) because the diversity of the population of principals in the Free State will be sufficiently represented in the sample. Furthermore, the researcher predicated that principals' leadership actions would have a positive influence on teachers' perception of their assessment practices.

### **1.7.6 Ethical considerations**

McMillan and Schumacher (2010) regard confidentiality to mean that no one has access to individual data or names of the participant's except for the researcher. In this study the participants were guaranteed that they would remain anonymous. The participants were thus guaranteed confidentiality. The participants were given a letter of consent (see Appendix I). After the details were explained, the participants understood the significance of their role in this study and willingly agreed to participate.

## **1.8 CHAPTER DIVISION**

The study consists of the following eight chapters:

### **CHAPTER 1:**

The orientation to the study with regard to the problem statement and purpose of research is discussed.

### **CHAPTER 2:**

Instructional leadership in a teaching and learning context

### **CHAPTER 3:**

Total quality management (TQM) as a driver to enhance quality management practises in the school

### **CHAPTER 4:**

Implementing assessment practises in advancing effective teaching and learning

### **CHAPTER 5:**

Research design and methodology



## **CHAPTER 6:**

Presentation, analysis and interpretation of research results

## **CHAPTER 7:**

Summary, discussion of findings and recommendations

## **CHAPTER 8:**

A proposed instructional leadership framework to ensure effective and quality assessment practices at school level

### **1.9 DEFINITION OF CONCEPTS**

#### **1.9.1 Primary school**

In the transformed education system the primary school is divided into two phases, namely the foundation phase, which caters for learners from Grades R – 3, and the intermediate phase catering for learners from Grades 4 – 6, while the secondary school consists of the senior phase (Grades 7 – 9 ) and further education and training (Grades 10 – 12) (Bhim, 2004:8).

#### **1.9.2 The principal**

Although the principal is the most important leader in the school, he/she is not the only person responsible for school improvement. The principal should be supported by an efficient team of teachers and the parent community.

The principal should be in a position to advise his or her staff members on all educational matters relating to learners. A principal must be an effective manager. This implies an ability to plan and to organise, as well as the need to be in financial control of the school. The principal needs skills for evaluating and monitoring general school processes. A principal is expected to be able to counsel staff, learners and parents on a variety of matters (Squelch & Lemmer, 1994:11-12).

#### **1.9.3 Assessment competence**

According to Meyers (2005:28), the written curriculum, no matter how excellent the quality, has no real power without proper preparation and implementation. The success of classroom assessment implementation practice, therefore, relies heavily on the knowledge and skills that educators apply during curriculum implementation.



Stiggins (2004:12) emphasises the role of the teacher corps to ensure the required learning progression. In order to manage this progression, teachers should ensure they understand the assessment standards and can deconstruct them into targets of achievement, so as to create a learner-friendly version of learning targets that lead up to the standard. It is particularly in this regard that teachers should be guided and supported to create opportunities for high quality classroom assessment as a way of tracking improvement over time.

#### **1.9.4 Instructional leadership**

Instructional leadership should be seen as placing learners learning at the centre of the instructional processes, and fostering the professional growth of educators as classroom instructors (Fowler, Walter & Scott, 2003:465). In the view of the researcher, it is the responsibility of the instructional leaders to implement proper assessment at schools.

#### **1.9.5 Total quality management (TQM)**

TQM implies an economisation of the education sector and an introduction of a new set of values that challenge the traditional pedagogical value of education (Svensson, 2004:168).

### **1.10 CONCLUSION**

Principals and educators need to ensure that learning is not simply assessment driven. It can be argued that presently we have far too much assessment, but that neither the quality nor the diversity of this assessment is acceptable. Learners are highly intelligent people; if we confront them with a game where learning is linked to a rigid and monotonous form of assessment, they will learn according to the rules of that game. To improve their learning, we need to improve our game.

The best way to do our learners justice is to use as wide as possible a mixture of the assessment methods, allowing learners to demonstrate their respective strengths and weaknesses. The greater the diversity in the methods of assessment, the fairer assessment is to learners.

In the next chapter, instructional leadership in a teaching and learning context is discussed.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP IN A TEACHING AND LEARNING CONTEXT**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

In the previous chapter an outline of this study was presented that described the research focus and critical questions. In this chapter a review of the related literature is given under different themes. Firstly, the researcher briefly discusses the role of the instructional leader to insure quality assessment practices in the Free State province. The primary responsibility of the principal is to ensure that effective teaching and learning take place; that is why the researcher regards the principal as an instructional leader.

It is well known that principals of South Africa schools increasingly face challenges such as dealing with a variety of school-based managerial decisions and creating a sound culture of teaching and learning in which effective education can take place. Garson (2000:4) states that the central role of education is to improve the quality of education and the principal is a crucial role-player in meeting this challenge. Moreover, Glanz (2006:xv) notes that instructional leadership means encouraging best practices in teaching. In addition, principals need to become familiar with innovative theories and practices and motivate teachers to model them in classrooms. In short, principals must be hands on, meaning that they should teach so that they are well informed about curricula matters and changes that are introduced from time to time.

#### **2.2 THE PRINCIPAL AS AN INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER**

Instructional leadership may be described by those actions that the principal performs, or delegates to others, to promote growth in learners' learning. This means that the principal ensures educational achievement by making instructional quality the top priority of the school. However, Fullan (2002:16) suggests that instructional leaders should spend most of their time dealing with curricular matters rather than administrative functions, and that they should at all times strive for excellence in teaching and learning with the sole

purpose of improving learner achievement. Also, McNeill, Cavanagh and Silcox (2003:40) add that principals should serve foremost as instructional leaders in schools and that their commitment to instructional improvement should not only be strongly articulated, but should also be reinforced with experience in the classroom.

Literature reviews reveal several functions of instructional leadership of the principal (Glanz, 2006; Parker & Day, 1997; Fullan, 2002). These are:

- **Managing curriculum and instruction**

Research studies indicate that the principal as an instructional leader should ensure that the primary service that the school offers is instruction (Glanz, 2006; Northern & Bailey 1991). Therefore, it is imperative that principals have at least an awareness of all subject areas and the special needs of each. A broad knowledge base that allows the principal to help others carry out the mission of the school is essential. Principals should be able to provide information and direction to teachers regarding instructional methods, and they should be actively involved in and supportive of curriculum development.

- **Supervising teaching**

In addition, the principal as an instructional leader should play the role of clinical supervisor in the teaching and learning to further a proactive approach of staff development. Performance evaluation is retrospective, instructional leadership is prospective and is focused on what can be, not what was. An effective instructional leader provides opportunities for teachers to continue their professional development both on and off the school site, with the goal of developing within each teacher the qualities which will enhance learner learning (Fullan, 2002:17).

- **Monitoring student progress**

In summary, the principal as an instructional leader should provide a quality control check on the preparation of learners. Glanz (2006:xv) states that an effective instructional leader is familiar with a variety of ways in which student progress can be assessed and requires that these assessments be done on a regular basis. The principal should be able to clarify the meaning of outcomes

when necessary. He/she should be able to competently review the results and use them to assist teachers, students and parents in developing strategies for improving performance. The principal, of course, cannot interpret every assessment given in a school building, but he should make it clear that the expected process of testing, interpretation and producing responses would be monitored.

- **Promoting instructional climate**

Glanz (2006:xv) states that when the atmosphere of the school is one that values learning and supports achievements, it is difficult not to learn. The principal is responsible for creating an atmosphere of educational excitement at all levels and for channelling the energies of learners and teachers in productive ways. The instructional climate of the school can be promoted in a variety of ways, including the provision of a safe and structured environment, child-centred activities and a pervasive understanding that a premium is placed on doing one's personal best. All shareholders have great expectations for the learners. Even though a large body of research on instructional leadership supports the fundamental elements described above, instructional leadership remains one of the more controversial aspects associated with effective schools and effective school districts. There are still very few principals who can be described as instructional leaders. The reasons for this are multiple and include a resistance to change in the form of school reform, a reluctance to subscribe to the commitment of learning for all as opposed to learning for many, a tendency of the powers that be to appoint administrators who, like themselves, use traditional organisational management techniques, and the difficulty inherent in implementing all of the tasks associated with the principalship, regarding both management and leadership.

- **The components of instructional leadership**

The view held by this study is that the principal as an instructional leader should have certain competencies that would help him/her to be an effective leader. This is supported by Northern and Bailey (1991:25-26) who hold that

there are seven professional competencies that principals as instructional leaders should have:

**Visionary leadership** – Only a clear vision of the future and a flexible blueprint for attaining that vision will equip instructional leaders adequately.

**Strategic planning** – This is a proactive model based on the administrator's understanding of the dynamics of the organisation. An effective, excellent administrator will always have a good feel for the organisational pulse and temperature of individuals and groups.

**Change agency** – The effective leader must understand change and be able to implement it with minimal disruption. It is helpful for principals to know stages of change and also be aware of the leaders and blockers in the process so that roles can be properly assigned for successful adoption, implementation and institution of change.

**Communication** – Principals as instructional leaders must be master communicators. They must be able to communicate their expectations with clarity. Administrative presentations must be varied to accommodate the individual styles and unique experience of all listeners.

**Role modelling** – Instructional leaders must serve as models in all settings of the learning environment. The vision and the strategies for meeting expectations must be manifest in the behaviour of the principal. This includes modelling a variety of teaching styles in forums such as staff meetings and development sessions so as to demonstrate to teachers an awareness of the needs of listeners.

**Nurturing** – The principal must foster a positive school climate where it is safe to fail and reflection is encouraged. He/she must create a nurturing environment for the teachers and they, in turn, must provide the same for learners. In addition, the spirit of the school should be team oriented and co-operative both at the building level and in the classroom. The instructional leader should be sensitive to the needs of all shareholders, with an ability to not only to take note of but also to act on other viewpoints. The nurturing

principal is also sensitive to the history of the organisation, knowing when to maintain the traditional and when to introduce the new.

**Enabling change** – Principals as instructional leaders are expected to perform beyond expectations because there must be constant progress in the teaching and learning. Principals as leaders must find ways to use those who are comfortable with the status quo and reject change. This means that change and development are the responsibilities of the principal.

### **2.3 LEADERSHIP ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL**

It is expected of the principal as an instructional leader to demonstrate his/her leadership skills in the implementation of the CAPS curriculum of the school desired. Davis and Ellison (1997:119) add that leadership implies that someone has the authority to lead; meaning that in the context of a school, the principal must play a leadership role. Additionally, authority brings with it power to affect the activity of other individuals or a group. Authority therefore means to control people. To be a true leader, however, besides knowledge and experience, one needs to be skilled in as many of the leadership dimensions as possible. Telling staff and learners what to do because one is in authority is one way of getting things done, but a better way is to get them to do something because they want to.

The researcher would like to make the point that the nature of education in South Africa has recently undergone several changes due to the CAPS curriculum policy for schools. Authority is now being questioned by educators and, more recently, by learners and parents. This places an additional strain on a system already challenged by the need to redress the inequalities of the past and to set in place outcomes-based education. The word *lead* also implies an interpersonal relationship between the leader and those whom he/she is leading. This is a vital aspect of leadership that has been the focus of recent research. A genuine leader is perhaps best described as a person who wins the confidence and the co-operation of those he leads (Cawood & Gibbon cited in Paine, 2002:189). The authors are of the view that if the leader is at one with followers and they are with him, the influence on his followers can be described as power with people. This unity is further

described as one of the most important factors in ensuring the effectiveness of a school. It is a type of behaviour, which influences the behaviour of an individual or group in efforts towards achieving a goal in a specific situation. It involves accomplishing goals with and through people. Also in Rossow (1990:11), Sergiovanni defines the school leader as the individual charged with the task of directing and co-ordinating the group activities necessary to achieve or change goals. MacBeath (1998:63) suggests the five attributes of leaders as follows:

- Leadership means having a clear personal vision of what you want to achieve.
- Good leaders are in the midst of operations, working alongside their colleagues. They lead by example.
- Leadership means respecting teachers' autonomy and protecting them from extraneous demands.
- Good leaders look ahead, anticipate change and prepare people for it so that it does not surprise or disempower them.
- Good leaders are pragmatic. They are able to grasp the realities of the political and economic context and they are able to negotiate and compromise.

It is the responsibility of the principal as an instructional leader to see to it that there is effective teaching and learning at school; he or she must show leadership skills in this regard. Moreover, Squelch and Lemmer (1994:20) add that the important leadership roles of a principal are those of educator, counsellor, manager, communicator and evaluator.

In conclusion, it is the responsibility of principals to evaluate the work of the educators and work together with them, being good instructional leaders by being hands-on; they must teach so that they can understand new changes in the curriculum; by so doing they show leadership.

## **2.4 LEADERSHIP STYLES**

Squelch and Lemmer (1994:6) state that the principal as an instructional leader needs to keep leadership styles flexible in the teaching and learning context to fit different situations. In addition, a necessary feature of the



principal as an instructional leader is that he/she must ensure effective teaching and learning by supporting the teaching staff.

There are three prominent leadership styles, namely the autocratic, democratic and *laissez-faire* approach. These leadership styles are discussed below:

#### **2.4.1 Democratic style**

This style is also referred to as leadership by participation. It correlates with the interactive style whereby the principal encourages the educators to actively participate in a staff development programme. Furthermore, Squelch and Lemmer (1994:7) classify this kind of leader as one who focuses mainly on teamwork, individual involvement and interpersonal relations. A democratic leader prefers shared decision making, group problem-solving methods and believes in delegating tasks and responsibilities, and motivating individuals. Additionally, the Department of Education on school management teams (2000a:14) points out that decision making forms an integral part of the democratic leader's skills. To clarify this matter, the Department of Education further elaborates by stating that being a democratic leader does not mean that principals, as leaders of a school, will never make decisions about their school on their own. There comes a time when it might not be appropriate to request other people's opinions or to negotiate with them. Even when there is not a crisis, there will be times where the final decision rests with the leaders. In such instances, the Department of Basic Education suggests that principals need to be able to judge when it is best to:

- Make decisions on their own;
- Consult and negotiate before they make a decision;
- Allow others to make decisions (DoE, 2000a:15; Squelch & Lemmer, 1994:7).

The researcher, especially in the context of this study, is of the view that the democratic leadership style is the most suitable approach because it allows everyone to participate freely in the teaching and learning process.

#### **2.4.2 Autocratic style**



A principal who leads in this style is mainly focused on getting the job done. Staff participation is limited to listening, working and doing and there is little interaction or opportunity for creativity. The theoretical underpinning of this particular style is behaviouristic. This style has no place in the new curriculum because there is no interaction and collaboration between the leader and the staff, as Squelch and Lemmer (1994:7) point out.

### **2.4.3 Laissez-faire style**

Literature describes this style as passive or non-directive: staff enjoy freedom and there is little direction of the teaching and learning process. The theoretical underpinning of this style is humanistic and it correlates with child-centred teaching. This style can hamper effective teaching and learning and would have little value in the new curriculum environment, as Squelch and Lemmer (1994:7) point out.

## **2.5 THE SERVANT LEADERSHIP MODEL**

The servant leadership model is about understanding strengths and weakness of individuals in an organisation. This style can help the principal to understand educators at school, so that effective teaching and learning can take place. The principal should attend to educators' problems and support them. This model is seen as the transformational theory in the leadership. The term was coined by Greenleaf in 1977 denoting a model of a leader who ensures that other people's needs are being met.

Furthermore Greenleaf (1977) states, the best test for this model are to ask questions such as the following: Do those served grow as persons? Do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants? And, what is the effect on the least privileged in society? Will they benefit or, at least, will they not be further deprived? The servant leader makes it a priority to establish a strong level of trust among all members of an organisation. This is an integral aspect of positive leadership. A servant leader focuses on the need to serve others first, to nurture the human spirit. He or she exudes patience, has faith, and demonstrates humility. The servant leader displays readiness and

preparedness for goals and possible outcomes, is task oriented, collaborative and has a strategic sense.

Spears (1995:47) identify ten characteristics of servant leadership: listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualisation, foresight, stewardship, a commitment to the growth of people, and building community.

The main difference between servant leadership and other leadership models is that servant leadership is more organic and non-hierarchical than the others. Most leadership models that are hierarchical implement a top-down structure of organisation where the leader uses positional power to instruct the followers on how to implement the organisation's vision. The servant leader is more holistic, valuing both the leader and follower equally, based upon shared values, encourages collaboration, trust, foresight, listening, empathy and the ethical use of power (Spears, 1995:202). The servant leadership model establishes a foundation for a way of existing that opens up the possibilities for leadership opportunities for many people throughout the organisation.

Furthermore, the servant leader's effect on culture leads an organisation to conduct itself in a way that creates a positive, empathetic working environment. As a leadership model, servant leadership provides individuals and groups an opportunity to grow and develop intellectually, professionally, emotionally and spiritually. It provides guidance for people to search for opportunities to both lead and serve others in developing the possibilities to elevate the quality of life individually and collectively (Spears, 2004).

Leaders who practise servant leadership are good listeners, support all the people within the organisation and provide opportunities for both personal and professional growth and development within the organisation (Bounds, 1998). The communication skill of listening is extremely valuable to effective leadership. As communicators, leaders spend a great deal of time communicating by speaking, reading, writing and most importantly, listening. It is listening that takes up much more time in relation to other skills, yet less training is given in this area than in the other three (Covey, 2004).

The act of listening creates a bond of understanding between the leader and follower. Through listening and inquiry, the leader provides guidance rather than giving orders. This allows the leader to understand in depth the strengths and weaknesses of followers; therefore, the leader is able to meet individual and organisational needs at an empathetic level (Beckner, 2004; Covey, 2004).

In addition, literature in the field of business leadership over the past decade has noted the benefits to an organisation that incorporates servant leadership characteristics, and many businesses have incorporated the servant leadership model with great success. Early adopters like TD Industries, ranked fifth in 1998 by *Fortune Magazine* as one of the 100 Best Companies to work for in America, was highly recognised owing to the level of trust that had been established between the company's leaders and employees. High levels of trust between members of an organisation allow it to be agile and responsive to change without creating too much internal resistance (Bounds, 1998). Other Fortune 500 companies, and even military institutions, that incorporate the servant leadership model to great success include AFLAC, Hess Corporation, Nordstrom, Starbuck's, Southwest Airlines, Synovus, The Men's Warehouse, The United States Armed Services, Toro Corporation and the Vanguard Investment Group (Lichenwalner, 2011; Phillips, 2004). Following on the movement within the business realm, the servant-leadership model is gaining formal and informal interest in the field of education (Spears, 2004).

Spears (2004) believe that the principal as an instructional leader should prioritise the needs of educators and learners so as to reach the desired results at school.

- **The principal as leader**

In the context of this study, the principal as an instructional leader is a vital figure in implementing school empowerment and developing a school's culture. The principal is seen as a primary figure in school reform and must confront an array of constituents who criticise their every move (Copland,

2001). More specific to the field of middle-level school leadership, the Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development (1990:157) reports that no single individual is more important in initiating and sustaining improvement in middle grades school students' performance than the school principal. However, both the National Middle School Association (1995) and the New York State Middle School Association (2002) have proclaimed that middle-level principals must articulate the school's shared vision; develop teachers who are committed to young adolescents; develop a positive school culture; provide an adult advocate for each student; develop home and community relationships; promote the dual purposes of middle-level education (academic achievement and personal development); support teachers, maintaining a positive school climate conducive to teaching and learning; and have high expectations for all involved.

While expectations for the principalship grow, there is an impending crisis owing to a shortage of principals and a lack of training for middle-level leaders who are less experienced and lack the training necessary for leading this unique and challenging age group (National Association of Secondary School Principals, 2002).

In addition, to prepare high quality middle-level leaders, Petzko (2002) recommends that middle-level leaders be actively recruited from principals who are trained and knowledgeable about the unique needs of the early adolescent; that higher education begin to focus on the middle-level as a distinct educational group separate from elementary and high school; that the role of assistant principal be used to prepare future middle school principals; and that schools provide mentoring and professional growth opportunities for new middle-level principals. However others identify the need to focus on four leadership themes for building effective middle level principals in schools: these are to ensure a student first approach, building professional learning communities, embracing the change process, and having a passion for and commitment to young adolescents and middle-level education (Valentine, Clark, Hackman & Petzko, 2004).

As we move into an era where the school principal is viewed as an instructional leader, strong communication skills and the establishment of collaborative, relationship-building learning environments are vital. As schools are increasingly scrutinised for accountability, the role of the principal as a leader in developing these communities is paramount (Fullan, 2002; King, 2002; Lashway, 2002).

The question arises as to why the principal is so important and whether it might be because the principal is a leader in effective teaching and learning at school? In the context of this study, with reference to the role of the instructional leadership to ensure quality assessment practices, the principal should be seen working with the parents of the learners so as to get help and advice from the parents, because according to the new curriculum parental involvement in the education of learners is very important, because parents develop a love of working with educators and the principal; they become stakeholders in education.

Furthermore, Van Niekerk (2004:97) states that through the effective leadership model the principal as an instruction leader should communicate vision to educators so that they perform better to get the desired results.

Botha (2004:239-243) posits that the school leaders together with the stakeholders at school drive the change inherently implied by the vision. The process of vision formulation, vision communication and vision accomplishment should be a collaborative process growing from the educational desire of the school community, and involving all the relevant stakeholders. This is shown in Figure 2.1 which indicates how principals should lead effectively.

### EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP MODEL



**Figure 2.1: Effective leadership model (Adapted from Van Niekerk, 2004:97)**

According to Van Niekerk's (2004:97) sustainable long-term leadership model, educators should be empowered to understand curriculum changes that occur from time to time so that learners could learn as expected. In Figure 2.1, the author illustrates a sense of empowerment, established values and communicating the vision and mission of the school to ensure effective leadership. The researcher concurs with Van Niekerk's view that the principal is an important agent of change to ensure quality teaching and learning; therefore the principal as an instructional leader as investigated in this study, is expected to implement effective assessment practices and to ensure the culture of teaching and learning at school.

## **2.6 THE CHARACTERISTICS OF AN INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER**

Literature describes several characteristics and qualities of an instructional leader which lead to effectiveness in working together with educators and learners at school. Moreover, Smith and Andrews (1989:8), add that the principal who is a strong instructional leader functions as a forceful and dynamic professional through a variety of personal characteristics including high energy, assertiveness, ability to assume the initiative, openness to new ideas, tolerance for ambiguity, a sense of humour, with an analytic and a practical disposition towards life. Effective principals must ensure that they are highly knowledgeable in all aspects pertaining to leading a school. They further have to qualify as an instructional leader of repute, possessing the following characteristics as stated by Smith and Andrews (1989:9):

- At the onset it must be understood that the principal as an instructional leader should ensure that all his/her requests and instructions are

underpinned with **diplomacy**. This will be the key to the smooth running of the school.

- This indicates that an effective principal has a **vision** for the school and dedicates himself/herself towards the **goals** of the school and the community. He/she is committed to academic goals, shows an ability to develop and share long-term goals for the school as well as strong achievement goals that are consistent with the department's requirements.
- An efficient **curriculum developer** who prioritises curriculum and instructional issues is carrying out a crucial task of an effective principal. He/she must be able to implement change and display a thorough knowledge of curriculum and teaching strategies.
- It is an obvious and accepted fact that a principal needs to ensure that a **democratic climate** prevails conducive to learning and teaching. A climate of high expectations within the school that is characterised by a feeling of respect for educators, learners, parents and community is valuable
- The role of the principal as an instructional leader is essentially about providing **guidance** to educators. He/she should continually monitor and evaluate learners' progress and the educators' effectiveness in meeting goals.
- **Staff development** and training should presently receive more attention than in the past. The principal needs to be a definer and communicator of policies. The principal as an instructional leader should help establish, develop and maintain a teaching staff that will provide the best possible opportunities for teaching and learning. Furthermore it is crucial that an effective principal is skilled in evaluating her staff.
- **Educator appraisal** helps staff to improve the quality of their teaching and learning. Leaders support and motivate their followers by attending to curriculum, sociological and staff relational and appraisal issues. In short, effective principalship entails being a good **communicator** and **counsellor**. He or she should ensure that open communication exists between himself or herself, staff and learners.



- An effective principal is a good listener and resolves problems in an amicable manner. It is important that a principal understands the strengths, weaknesses and capabilities of his/her staff. This allows for efficient **organisation and delegation** of duties. In a participative approach it is necessary that a principal delegates accordingly. This means that an effective evaluation of learners' progress and educators' teaching for quality education can only take place through **visible practices** such as visits by the principal. An effective principal must make himself visible to the learners and staff (Smith & Andrews, 1989:10).
- As an **instructional leader** the principals' task is multifarious. However, it is solely related to the improvement of curriculum and teaching.

In summation, the above-mentioned characteristics of the principal are very important to ensure quality teaching and learning in the school.

## 2.7 PERFORMING THE ROLE OF AN INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER

Similarly, Lambert (1998:15) points out that the principal of the school is generally accepted as being the leader of the school. It is evident that the role of the principal involves influencing the behaviour of an individual or a group in efforts towards achieving a goal. Moreover, Sergiovanni (1991:16) notes that the role of the principal is to motivate educators and provide support and encouragement in the attainment of the goals. The researcher concurs with the latter that in particular the principal needs to be motivated so that teaching and learning can take place, which is why the principal as an instructional leader has to lead in the instruction of subject matter. Moreover, the Department of Basic Education on managing and leading schools (2000c:13) supports the idea in managing the school that the educational leader's role is to formulate, accept and realise group or team goals and objectives, to blend and develop the group or team and to satisfy individual needs and create outlets for individual expertise to the benefit of both the team and individuals.

In addition, Bester cited in Van der Westhuizen (1999:187-188) points out the importance of the interaction, and provides the following description of leadership:

- Leadership is a way of interaction and, more specifically, of communication between a leader and his or her followers;
- A leader plays a certain role and has a certain status. This status and role of the leader implies that a certain degree of authority, influence, power and prestige has been awarded to him;
- A leader should fill his/her role effectively to ensure a good following; and
- Leadership demands sound communication with followers.

This suggests that leadership should not only be regarded as the interaction between the group/team, but it may also involve the community. In accordance, when Lambert (1998:18) addresses the question of rethinking leadership, he defines leadership as the reciprocal learning process enabling the participants in a community to construct meaning to a shared purpose.

This is called a definition of constructive leadership, in this context meaning learning among adults in a community that shares similar goals and visions.

In conclusion it should be emphasised that the concept of instructional leadership is critical in education, specifically in school organisation. This is because the school organisation encompasses the school management team (SMT), the educators and the learners who are supposed to realise certain goals. The achievement and attainment of these goals depend, to a large extent, on strong and effective school leadership. Sterling and Davidoff (2000:13) add that that is why school leaders should have knowledge of what a leader is, and what exactly is expected of them. The opinion of the researcher is that the principal should be seen as a leader of educators and the SMT of the school so that he/she could lead them in the right direction.

## **2.8 THE EXPECTATIONS OF AN INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER**

The expectations of an instructional leader are focused on effort in and attention to priority activities. The expectations are concerned with the principal's performance, improvement of instructions to work.

The role the principal could play is enhancing collegially with the teaching staff and attention must be given to engagement and results attainment as a driver at school. The following twelve categories of activities describe what is expected of a principal's performance as an instructional leader.

### **2.8.1 Planning, preparation and presentation**

Effective teaching leads to effective learning. It is an obvious and accepted fact that careful and thorough planning and preparation is a prerequisite for effective teaching. Moreover, Adams (1998:43) notes that quality instruction demands that knowledge presented to learners is built onto existing mental frameworks in a series of small, incremental steps. The younger learners of the GET phase need to make sense of any information before they can make it their own. It is the educator's role to make the content of the textbooks and other resources meaningful and understandable to learners. Information must be taught in such a way that it adds to the learner's experiential framework, but does not confuse it.

In this respect the instructional leader must support the educator to be creative in his/her design of lesson plans. The instructional leader needs to consider and be knowledgeable about various aspects of the components of the CAPS curriculum, subject content, and LTSM resources. In order to plan effectively, the educator must have a clear understanding of the learners' backgrounds and their existing knowledge to take them from the known to the unknown and from the simple to the complex. Lessons must also be planned according to the development level of the learners. Activities must be authentic and relate to real-life situations. Performance-based tasks promote creativity and stimulate problem-making and critical thinking skills. Educators must ensure that they present their lessons in an interesting manner and captivate learner's attention. Various teaching resources need to be utilised in order to facilitate learning and achieve the desired outcomes. To enhance the

teaching and learning environment, educators must ascertain that a positive democratic climate prevails.

This means that during the planning and preparation of lessons, the educators must keep in mind the type of assessment strategy to be applied. They can use assessments to determine what area needs to be revisited. In respect of the CAPS, aims and skills are provided for each subject. The educators can use this to determine whether the objectives and outcomes have been achieved.

In conclusion, the function of the principal as an instructional leader is vital in ensuring the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom, as he/she needs to oversee all educational activities. It is the responsibility of the principal as an instructional leader to see to it that educators teach and assess learners according to assessment policies. He or she should be seen as an assessment leader at school.

### **2.8.2 Supplying resources**

The researcher is of the view that the principal as the instructional leader has to provide sufficient resources and learning material for educators when planning and implementing assessment practices in the classroom. First and foremost, the principal as an instructional leader needs to ensure that the following resources are available:

**Infrastructure:** Buildings, classrooms, fixtures and fittings, chalkboards, materials appropriate for effective teaching such as technological support, computers, television, video recorders, overhead projectors, tables rather than desks.

In view of these aspects, Paine (2002:240) adds that it is necessary for the instructional leader to analyse the conditions in the teaching- learning situation that require resource provision. It is also necessary to have a clear understanding of educators' and learners' needs to be able to provide and allocate usually costly resources, which will assist quality teaching and learning. Furthermore, the maintenance and updating of all equipment and

updating of all equipment are just as important. All technical equipment (video, recorders, television sets, computers and the related hardware and software, typewriters, sewing machines, printing, photocopying machines, etc.) need to be serviced, and usage should be adequately supervised.

There is nothing more frustrating or time-consuming than trying to operate a machine at a crucial time of need and finding it out of order or malfunctioning. Equipment needs to be in good working order.

The instructional leader, as the resource provider, would usually delegate part of these tasks to office staff or other competent persons, but nevertheless would be ultimately responsible in this regard.

He/she needs to build sufficient time into his/her day to attend to such matters and to see that work is completed satisfactorily. It goes without saying; therefore, that one of the necessary qualities of any instructional leader is that he or she should be a doer. Sunter (1997:3) concurs when he notes that the principal must have the ability to get the job done and ensure commitment to do it quickly and efficiently.

Furthermore, information technology is the key to success in future education and learners must be able to use the new technologies effectively to access information. Sunter makes the point that there is so much information available that it is impossible to teach learners relevant facts anymore; children must be taught how to learn so that they will be able to decide for themselves what information is relevant to what they are doing. The researcher agrees with Sunter (1997) when the author deduces that it, therefore, becomes essential for the instructional leader to gently urge and encourage educators to become innovative and update their teaching methods, and to learn to accept information retrieval systems as part and parcel of today's teaching strategies.

The researcher contends that to ensure effective assessment practices for the classroom, the provision of resources is, therefore, of vital importance to teaching and learning. But it is not simply the provision, maintenance and

repair of teaching materials; it is an attitude and a commitment made to staff and learners to provide the materials needed to teach and learn – be these pencils or computers.

In conclusion, the instructional leader also needs to ensure that all resources are utilised with the goals of the school in mind. This requires a strong sense of insight in order to visualise the global needs of the school. Presently, the use of technological equipment such as computers is significant. This changes the educator's main role from that of providing direct instruction to planning, designing and organising learning experiences. The instructional leader needs to ensure that the staff is knowledgeable about and updated regarding modern technology (ICT) and the use of computers.

### **2.8.3 Structuring the time-table**

A timetable indicates the duration of periods and teaching time. The instructional leader is usually involved in designing and structuring the school timetable thereby allocating educators to classes for subject teaching. These educators usually teach subjects in which they are competent and qualified but with recent constraints imposed by rationalisation in South Africa, many educators are teaching subjects without the necessary experience or qualifications. Care must be taken when allocating educators in certain areas so that quality education is not compromised. Vermeulen (2000:56-57) concurs that the instructional leader needs to allocate classes to match the expertise of the staff. Human resources are vitally important to the school and are the key element in quality instruction.

The opinion of the researcher is that the principal as an instructional leader should ensure that there is a timetable available for effective teaching and learning at school, and that he/she should control it on a day-to-day basis.

### **2.8.4 A good communicator**

As a good communicator an instructional leader must develop a healthy and trusting relationship with the staff. It is an obvious fact that effective

communication is an essential prerequisite for any instructional leader, since it is essential that educators and learners have a clear understanding of what is required of them. It has been shown that effective communication develops around a sound working relationship between staff through verbal and written messages. The principal as an instructional leader must ensure that regular staff meetings are held which are well organised, controlled and informative. He/she must also ascertain that a democratic atmosphere prevails during these meetings. At these meetings the availability of resources can be raised, classroom problems discussed and new development in learning areas and curriculum policy matters can be addressed. Regular staff meetings have proved to be the key to success (Vermeulen, 2000:58).

As good communicators, principals must ensure that open communication exists between themselves and their staff. They should be good orators and good listeners. Principals must be clear and precise in their delivery. After seminars and workshops they must obtain feedback from staff and use this to discover whether their delivery and explanation were clear and whether some of the areas need to be revisited.

Effective communication must also exist between the instructional leader and learners. He/she must listen to learners' problems, if any, and try to resolve conflict in an amicable manner. Messages and reminders can also be communicated through slogans, themes or logos.

The instructional leader can be invaluable in communicating the goals and vision of the school by reinforcing them through constant reminders during conversation with staff and learners.

### **2.8.5 Updating and staying informed**

The instructional leader must stay abreast of new developments and strategies for improving instruction to facilitate good teaching. An effective instructional leader will know the latest trends in the (school) curriculum, new approaches to organisation and the latest trends in instructional media and methodology.

Keefe and Jenkins (1991:vii) also add that time spent in reading, attending courses and developing new skills is a long-term investment ensuring against professional obsolescence. This means that the improvement of teaching and learning is a life-long process, which requires purposeful personal involvement and interaction with people, and therefore it needs to be both proactive and creative. By attending educational courses and progressing with his studies the instructional leader demonstrates to the staff his commitment to the promotion of academic excellence in the school. This is an example to be followed by other educational leaders. The principal should utilise any staff member with higher and improved educational qualifications to the maximum benefit of the school's progress. Glatthorn (1990:18) claims that a quality of in-service training (INSET) programme provides clear goals, quality curriculum guides for every field of study and a goal-orientated programme of studies especially for school principals. These objectives of the INSET programmes are achieved through long-term planning, shared decision making and on-going staff development.

In conclusion, the researcher agrees with the statements above, because educators need training workshops, so that they can do what is expected of them. The principal as an instructional leader should help educators to achieve excellence in the school by providing training programmes

#### **2.8.6 Instructional resource**

Duke (1987) and Smith and Andrews (1989) suggest that the instructional leader as an instructional resource is to facilitate good teaching. As an instructional resource, the instructional leader is actively to engage in the improvement of classroom circumstances that will lead to quality learning and teaching. There are several ways in which a principal discharges his/her role as an instructional resource. Firstly, he/she evaluates teachers and reinforces appropriate instructional strategies. This can be accomplished through an on-going dialogue with the staff to encourage them to use a variety of instructional material strategies. Secondly, Tracy and MacNaughton (1993) and Sergiovanni (1995) add that the principal fulfils his/her function as an instructional resource by supervising the staff and utilising strategies that



focus on the improvement of instruction. Consequently, he/she employs clinical supervision to complement the evaluation of the teacher.

Thirdly, in the process of assessing the progress of instructional issues, the principal uses outcome information that is directly related to instructional issues as stipulated in CAPS policy regarding assessment and moderation. Smith and Andrews (1989:14) further state that the principal develops intervention procedures to identify the strengths of teachers and remediate their weaknesses in assessment practices. In addition, principals fourthly fulfil their role as an instructional resource through the successful application of the district's personnel evaluation policies. They accomplish this by establishing an annual evaluation programme for teachers regarding the successful achievement of goals. Information gathered during the course of this programme is used to improve the school's instructional programme. Lastly, Smith and Andrews (1989:15) state that the instructional resource, principals, should know the importance of objectives in the implementation of the instructional programme. Therefore, they communicate to the staff and learners the extent to which the learning objectives of the school have been reached and assist teachers in the mastery of learners' learning objectives.

In summation, the researcher's opinion is that principals as instructional leaders should know their educators, being able to identify their strengths and remediate their weaknesses. This will also help them to achieve the learning objectives at school, through communication with the learners.

### **2.8.7 Consultation and availability of the principal**

This suggests that the consultation and availability of the principal occurs on a very informal basis in the classroom, just before or after a period, or while walking along the corridor. Consultation is very important because teachers, the SMT, SGB or parents may visit or consult with the principal at the school regarding teaching and learning issues. It is advisable that the principal, if involved with instructional activity (teaching), be allocated a classroom that is close to the staff room and office block. This means that any contact that needs to be made can be handled quickly before it becomes a major issue. Problem-solving advice essential to the smooth running of the school can be

given on an *ad hoc* or spur-of-the-moment basis. Small issues are usually mundane, such as resetting the school bell when timing has become a problem, providing a piece of technological equipment (the store is next door) to an educator who has not quite planned far enough ahead, or simply having the principal pop in to say that he/she is leaving the school for a while. Quick thinking on one's feet is required but, with experience, the informal nature of these can ensure a smooth-running, uninterrupted school day (Paine, 2002:249).

In line with the latter, Marshall (1992:4) adds that since the instructional leader is consistently engaged in the improvement of classroom equipment and facilities in order to enhance learning, he/she should be available to the staff on a daily basis and easily contactable if need be, thereby becoming a human resource who provides advice and guidance where required. Class visits and the supervision of educators form an integral part of being an instructional resource. Class visits and follow-up discussion promote better teaching and better learning. Smith and Andrews (1989:14) confirm that when instructional leaders know the basis of learning and instruction, they can help educators improve, regardless of the subject matter.

In addition, Paine (2002:249) suggests that constant feedback is necessary after class visits since this leads to improved instruction. Contact can be made during informal lunch and tea breaks or during a scheduled formal meeting. The instructional leader can be sought out by educators who have instructional problems or who wish to discuss new ideas. Two areas in which educators need constant help and guidance are those of computer usage and the teaching of larger classes.

The researcher is of the opinion that the instructional leadership role of the principal is vital for the improvement of instruction at school. It is therefore accepted that the capabilities of the principal should include knowledge about teaching in the classroom. Detailed knowledge of CAPS policy of every subject is necessary since good teaching techniques in all subjects are essential. The researcher's opinion is that the principal as an instructional leader should demonstrate the ability to assess, empower and reinforce

educators with and ensure the implementation of effective instructional and assessment strategies. The researcher supports Paine's statement that the instructional leader must demonstrate the ability to evaluate and reinforce appropriate and effective instructional strategies. The staff need to be guided and supervised to provide quality instruction.

### **2.8.8 Visible presence**

The visible presence of an instructional leader means that he/she interacts with staff and learners in the classroom, corridors and sports fields and arranges meetings at regular intervals. The idea is to strike up informal conversations with educators and learners and, as a result, the instructional leader's presence is felt throughout the school. The visible instructional leader constantly displays behaviour that reinforces the school's academic vision. After circulating in a school in this way, the instructional leader can immediately communicate, praise and comment and, by so doing, address issues before they become problems. Arising from the latter, Smith and Andrews (1989:19) maintain that the visible instructional leader 'strokes' staff and learners for academic success and argue that this is perhaps the most important aspect of creating an effective school. Acknowledging the achievement of others is a regular practice of strong instructional leaders. Being positive, cheerful and encouraging, making themselves accessible to the staff, and making their presence felt by moving around buildings, promote the creation of a positive, effective academic programme (Smith & Andrews, 1989:19; Fraser & Hetzel, 1990:x). The researcher is of the opinion that one does not learn how to be a visible presence from studying the research, but rather acquires the skill through common sense. Additionally, Fraser and Hetzel (1990:xi) indicate that characteristics such as accessibility and visibility are prominent in effective instructional leaders.

In conclusion, Keefe and Jenkins (1991:viii) add that the instructional leader acts as a visible presence when he/she rewards teachers, keeps the vision of the school, and acts as a role model and a monitor.

### **2.8.9 Individual and informal attention**

The individual and informal attention of the instructional leader ensures collegiality among staff members. In short, co-operation with staff is essential to the goals of instructional leadership and this can be achieved if the instructional leader develops collegial relationships and is visible and available at all times. Contact can be made in the classroom, corridors and staff room or on the playing fields, during tea/lunch breaks, before or after school and even after hours. The opportunity for informal contact between the instructional leader and staff or learners is increased, and can lead to spontaneous discussions, which can prove valuable for gaining information, reinforcing the vision of the school as an on-going exercise, or merely cementing relationships. Many staff and learners prefer to avoid formal in-the-office discussions and rather seek the open and relaxed atmosphere of informal contact. The instructional leader can achieve this by creating the impression that he/she is easily approachable, either for advice or purely for general conversation. Through frequent unscheduled contact there can be regular two-way exchange of information or suggestion. It has been discovered that, particularly with learners, much can be achieved during such informal, unscheduled meetings. Walking along, and chatting to learners in this way promotes the creation of a trusting and respectful working relationship and inspires confidence in both staff and learners. Based on the latter, Marshall (1992:4-6) conducted a study and identified that the positive climate that can be created may lead to reduction in the need for classroom visits, which would thereby become completely non-threatening, leading to more effective educator evaluation and better quality teaching and learning.

#### **2.8.10 Classroom involvement**

The most obvious explanation of classroom involvement is that teaching and learning takes place in the classroom and that the principal is also involved with instructional activity (teaching). This places him/her in an even better position to offer valuable and useful suggestions for educators to improve their teaching skills.

In addition, the high visibility of instructional leaders can lead to improved staff motivation because the informal contact should bring about increased awareness of what is going on in the classroom, thereby leading to positive

reinforcement. The instructional leader must ensure that informal walkabout and high visibility are purposeful and productive. Simply being in the classroom and corridors will not necessarily improve teaching and learning. However, Paine (2002:253) states that being in the classroom will provide an opportunity to:

- Assess the effectiveness of the educator
- Diagnose problems
- Praise good teaching practices.

Furthermore, during these visits the instructional leader can quickly assess the quality use of the resources in the classroom. Equipment, especially of a technological nature, is usually expensive and needs to be used properly if it is going to provide productive learning (Gorton, 1972:216-217; De Waal, 2001:5-6; Grösser, 2001:40-42). That is why it is essential that the instructional leader must have a vision of academic excellence and inspire educators and learners to strive towards similar goals. High visibility will communicate these values and this vision. Values are seen in actions, which show that one lives according to them from day to day. By being visible for classroom visits, an instructional leader can also gain first-hand information on the state of resources and buildings. Increased classroom presence and visibility also means increased accessibility for further consultation.

Adding to the latter, Fraser and Hetzel (1990:157) sum up these ideas on classroom presence as an opportunity to model desired behaviour and reinforce doing things in the right manner. Leadership is demonstrated when it creates opportunities by searching out need and creating alternatives rather than waiting for problems and hoping for solutions.

In conclusion, Paine (2002:253) summarises the instructional leader as one who is seen by the staff as:

- Providing resources and materials to ensure that academic goals can be achieved;
- Having the necessary knowledge and skill in curriculum and instructional matters so that educator interaction leads to improve instruction; and

- Having the necessary communication skills in large and small group situations.

### **2.8.11 The supervision of instruction**

The literature review indicates that the supervision of instruction is part of curriculum development and staff development is crucial to instructional leadership. Hence, principals should be provided with policies guiding them to engage in the continuous processes of curriculum and staff development.

In addition, Glatthorn (1990:83-84) notes that supervisory leadership functions at school level, firstly, to emphasise the active and professional implementation of national and provincial policies and procedures and secondly, to ensure that the school's instructional curriculum deals with those activities designed to improve teaching and learning. Glatthorn also describes it as a behaviour style which interacts with educator behaviour in such a way as to maintain, change and improve the provision of learning activities for learners. Furthermore, a facet of supervision is educator evaluation, or appraisal, as it is now called in South Africa. Paine (2002:253) asserts that in order to carry out this sensitive duty, instructional leaders need to build a sound foundation of knowledge which will form the base on which they build respect and integrity. They can then effectively supervise all the activities that pertain to instruction in the school.

Stones (1984:1) also maintain that it is an active process on the part of the supervisor, directing and overseeing, focusing on teaching rather than educators. The principal should carry out supervision, including all staff as an integral part of instructional leadership, especially the beginner educator who will need a great deal of guidance and counselling during the first year. More experienced educators need feedback from class visits as a diagnostic tool to address areas which need improvement, or simply to reinforce their teaching practice.

In research studies conducted on the supervision of instruction, Webster (1994:71-08) and Grace (1995:53-54, 155-156) identify this phenomenon as the supervision of all the activities leading to the improvement of instruction,

activities related to morale, improving human relations, in-service education and curriculum development. Furthermore, Theron and Bothma (1989:128) see the aim of supervision as helping educators to do their job effectively. Helping educators to do their best is the function of any instructional leader and he/she must use general supervision techniques that are perceived as a comprehensive set of activities which will help to improve instruction and provide useful feedback about teaching. Emanating from the above, it is clear that it is the responsibility of the principal as an assessment leader to supervise the assessment part of the curriculum.

### **2.8.12 Role-model par excellence**

In summary, as the role model par excellence the instructional leader must, of necessity, be an expert in his own subject and have proven excellence in teaching. In many ways the principal is a leading figure in a school. He/she must set a worthy example to be followed by educators and learners. As an instructional leader a principal must stand head and shoulders above others in the execution of his/her duties. Finally, Paine (2002:88) stresses this by stating that a principal is a leading figure and an example to his staff and should maintain a professional status.

The researcher's opinion is that the principal as an instructional leader should set an example and have the ability to demonstrate excellence to educators.

## **2.9 WHOLE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENTS, CURRICULUM IMPLEMENTATION AND LIFE-LONG LEARNING**

Many literature sources affirm that an effective school relies on the functional role of the principal. The concept of whole-school development is essential for the successful implementation of the new curriculum. Learning is a life-long process, which begins before school and will continue after school. In other words, the learning environment is not limited to the classroom. School leadership will be challenged to translate changes and reform in the curriculum into plans and practices, which provide a supportive environment in schools and extend the support in the classroom. For this to happen schools must be effective and they need effective leadership, as Clemons states (in Sparks, 1997:21). The best practice aims to improve learners' vision

of a clear purpose. If they have acquired that, they are able to take shared responsibility for learning and are able to engage collaboratively in activities, which promote the goals of the school.

Grösser (2001:7) adds that there should be a development of the school culture which invites all members of the school to foster attitudes of efficiency and effectiveness, and which supports all attempts at improving learner performance. The focus is not only on aspects of curriculum development, but extends beyond school business and begins to address issues in the community surrounding the school. The effectiveness of a school is reflected in the values and beliefs of all the members, and the ethos draws on the different cultures, which exist in the school community, and translates them into one collective culture for all in the school. All stake-holders involved in school organisation, planning and curriculum delivery will also impact on the school culture. In a successful school there is collaborative agreement by all as to what the purpose of the school is, and on what beliefs the purpose is built. This defines the mission and vision of the school, and recognises the context in which the curriculum goals for that school are formulated.

Structures, strategies and systems are also put into place to ensure that the school culture is dynamic and supportive of an effective learning culture that supports the teaching/learning process, which leads to enhance outcomes for learners. Earlier research conducted by Grösser (2001:7) found that a school with an effective learning culture is seen as one with the ideals of:

- Maintaining an image of a professional community, similar to the fields of law or medicine. Educators pursue a clear shared purpose, engage in collaboration activity and there is a collective responsibility for learning.
- Having a clear school mission. Educators value the interchange of ideas with colleagues. Strong values exist that support a safe and secure environment. There are high expectations of everyone, including educators. There is strong but not rigid leadership.
- Promoting an environment of enquiry, encouragement and working collaboratively and collegially to seek school improvement.
- Encouraging educators to work collaboratively with one another, and with the administration, to teach learners so that they can learn more.



- Having leadership that invests in people, decentralises decision making, trusts the judgement of others, facilitates participation, embraces ethical implications in every decision, and recognises the complexity of contemporary society.

Additionally, Sergiovanni (1991:88-93) offers the following synthesis of effective learning of effective schools: Effective schools are learner-centred. They make an effort to serve all learners, involve learners in school affairs, respect and celebrate the ethnic and linguistic differences among learners and regard learner welfare as a priority. They use community volunteers and parents to provide close personal attention to learners. They involve learners in many of the activities of running a school. This is evident today in the government's requirements that learners play a part in the running of the school through their membership of the Representative Council of Learners (RCL) and by being members of the school's management council. An atmosphere of co-operation and trust is created through a high level of interaction between learners and educators. Effective schools provide instruction that promotes learning. They gear all of their efforts towards quality teaching and learning. They design their programmes to ensure academic success and their educators believe that all learners can learn and take responsibility for their learning. In effective schools educators believe in their own ability to influence learners' attitudes, and communicate their expectations to them, and adapt instructional programmes to their needs. They use a variety of teaching strategies and regularly assess learner performance. Effective schools recognise and reward effort and success and have a positive school climate. They have a clear organisational personality characterised by goals, values and standards of high performance. They have a sense of order, purpose and direction that focuses on an atmosphere of encouragement in which learners are praised and rewarded; they create a work-centred environment; and maintain high optimism and expectations for learner learning. Effective schools practise shared leadership. School leaders understand and use a leadership style appropriate for professionals, they solve problems through collaborative group decision making, delegate authority, communicate and promote cohesiveness and use their positions to recognise and reward staff and learner accomplishments. While no single

leadership style dominates, common leadership features include setting and maintaining direction for the school and facilitating work of educators by adopting a wide range of supportive behaviours. All decisions are made with input from those to be affected by the decision. Effective schools foster creative problem solving.

Staff members in effective schools are unwilling to settle for mediocrity; they turn their problems into challenges, design solutions and implement them. Moreover, Drake and Roe (1986:70) concur that principals are tasked with commitment, creativity, persistence and professionalism to ensure quality teaching and learning. Additionally, resources such as time, facilities and staff expertise are used to maximum advantage to facilitate the process of effective teaching and learning.

## **2.10 EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP**

The managing and leading schools by Department of Education (2000c:22-24) declares that educational leadership is the process of establishing, developing and maintaining a teaching staff that will provide the best opportunities for teaching and learning. It is concerned primarily with the effective functioning of the school in the best possible learning environment. The function of the educational leader has many facets according to De Waal (2001:6) who mentions the following:

- Leadership styles must be adapted in such a way that they help staff members to set standards and to encourage the whole school community to participate in the management of the school.
- Team work should be encouraged among educators so that they become part of the day-to-day decisions taken at the school.
- Staff members should be helped to solve their work-related problems.
- There should be opportunities for staff training and professional development.
- Effective school principals and other educational leaders determine the quality of educators' working lives by their management style.

- In addition, educational leadership also deals with school administration and the many facets that make up the modern educational institution.

These aspects, important though they are, are the means to an end – that of teaching and learning. All administrative and managerial tasks that are carried out must support the main goal of schooling – that of providing quality instruction.

Furthermore, the principal of the school is generally accepted as being the leader of that school. The community, the staff and the learners expect the principal to lead and the question is not whether the principal must behave as a leader, rather it is a question of how he or she behaves to become an effective leader (Drake & Roe, 1986:105; Webster, 1994:15; Grace, 1995:37, 195; Davis & Ellison, 1997:137, 228). The old patterns of principal behaviour will not be sufficient to meet the new challenges of leaders. Grösser (2001:21) also adds that the changing face of schooling in the twenty-first century and the advent of the new curriculum have placed more demands on the role. Strategies for managing change need to be developed by the principal.

However, Webster (1994:15) and Grace (1995:53-54) maintain that leadership depends not only on the personal qualities of the leader, but also on the nature of the situation. The principals of now, and of the future, must prepare for an ever-changing world. In order to adapt, less time must be spent on administrative and managerial tasks, and they should turn their minds to instructional leadership to ensure quality learning and teaching.

It has been mentioned that the principal cannot always be responsible for instructional leadership. This is a result of the demands that his/her administrative and managerial tasks place on him/her as a requirement for running the school. The complexities of the CAPS programme have placed an additional complexity on the role of the instructional leader and this further hampers the principal in assuming this role. Drake and Roe (1986:18, 19), Smith and Andrews (1989:2) and Theron and Bothma (1989:69) aver that administrative and managerial tasks might hinder the principal from becoming the instructional leader he should be.

The great majority of schools are so organised that the principal is the chief building administrator and held responsible for all management details. If the community does not observe a well-run institution, they lose confidence in other operations of the school. Good instruction requires a well-run school.

The principal is considered as an executive who is in charge of administration, commanding greater prestige in the business community than being an educator or academic. In addition, too many provincial administrations prioritise a well-run school, with major considerations on smooth operation; in other words, getting reports in on time, maintaining well-kept buildings and grounds, properly managing supplies and equipment, and controlling personnel problems and community controversy, as well as dealing with people and things, rather than with instructional leadership and ideas. Safe, well-understood operational procedures, teaching methods and instructional processes create less controversy and conflict. Orientation programmes for new principals emphasise management and administration more than they do instruction.

In support, Smith and Andrews (1989:3) mention that the instructional leaders of a school are accountable for the academic achievement of learners and, taken collectively, the effective school studies reflect the view that an instructional leader is directly responsible for improving instruction and learning. The emphasis of instructional leadership is concerned with stimulation and supporting those involved in teaching and learning in order to achieve the goals of the school.

In brief, good schools use professional knowledge and skills to create conditions in which every learner can grow to his or her full potential and all learners are given an equal opportunity to succeed in society. A good school must also create a quality workplace for educators and increase the opportunity for quality teaching in every classroom.

The conclusion drawn from the above statement, therefore, is that educational leadership is basically comprised of managerial and instructional components.

The managerial role is task orientated and informs people what tasks to perform, and therefore applies to the maintenance of routine behaviours associated with the running of a school. These include issues related to curriculum, learners' governance, discipline, maintenance of buildings, financial issues and co-ordination of resources. The leadership role encompasses influencing people's behaviour in order to achieve goals. Leaders provide support and motivation to their followers by attending to curriculum, sociological and staff relational and appraisal issues. The instructional role covers the establishment and maintenance of the teaching staff that in turn provide the best possible opportunities for teaching and learning.

This suggests that the principal of the school fulfils the role of educational leader, but increasing administrative and financial demands of modern day secondary schools often dictate against the principal's being an effective instructional leader. In some schools, it has therefore become necessary to delegate this role to a responsible senior member of staff.

## **2.11 THE FUNCTIONS OF THE INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER**

The role of instructional leaders is about guiding, teaching and learning, but, in addition, leaders must focus the role of the educator on the development of the learners in totality. According to Kruger (1998a:15), educators have to be on the lookout for physical, psychosocial and moral factors which may impede learners' cognitive development. Instructional leadership, therefore, involves more than providing guidance on how to teach; it involves knowledge and an understanding of many aspects of learners' development.

In fact, instructional leadership is about guiding, teaching and learning so that it can happen effectively. It is a twofold process involving learners and the educator and the support structures needed to maintain and service classroom instruction. It is about providing direction, resources and support to educators and learners for the improvement of teaching and learning in the school.

Drake and Roe (1986:vi) also add that instruction of the learner and learning by the learner is at the core of schooling. The researcher supports the idea that an instructional leader makes a professional commitment to improving the quality of teaching and learning. All the school's resources, physical and human, need to be marshalled for this purpose and this is the duty of the instructional leader. Effective teaching and learning is strongly supported by having an infrastructure in place that sees to the provision of resources, motivates and supervises staff, and takes responsibility for the academic achievement of learners (Drake & Roe, 1986:82, 83, 86; Smith & Andrews, 1989:8-9; Theron & Bothma, 1989:86, 88-91; Grace, 1995:10, 17-18, 21, 45; Davis & Ellison, 1997:167, 231).

## **2.12 CONCLUSION**

To create a visible presence in day-to-day activities, principals as instructional leaders must model behaviours consistent with the school's vision; live and breathe their beliefs in education; organise resources to accomplish building and district goals; informally drop in on classrooms; make staff development activities a priority; and most of all, help people to do the right things and reinforce those activities. The principal is also expected to be involved in listening, facilitating, teaching and reinforcing values. The principal as an instructional leader can influence the organisational culture of the school by emphasising academic aspects such as involving educators in decision making, providing resources, supervision and provision of instructional time.

The next chapter deals with the principal's role in total quality management (TQM).

# **CHAPTER 3 TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT (TQM) AS A DRIVER TO ENHANCE QUALITY ASSESSMENT PRACTICES IN THE SCHOOL**

### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

In the previous chapter, the focus was on instructional leadership in the teaching and learning context. The aim was to focus on the expectations of an instructional leader, namely the principal of the school; it also included the role of principals as educational leaders as they should be experts in teaching and learning, and should be aware of what happens in classroom situations.

This chapter explores total quality management as a driver for enhancing effective instructional leadership by ensuring the implementation of quality assessment practices at school level. The chapter further focuses on TQM in education to bring about excellence in producing the results, adding value to the educational objectives and experiences to advance the goals, specifications and requirements in education.

### **3.2 TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT FOR SCHOOLS**

The role of the leader is to guide, educate and support colleagues so that they focus on the intended results. The effectiveness of a school within the TQM paradigm will therefore, depend on its guiding philosophy, values beliefs and particular purpose as noted by Aokland (2000:22), depending on the extent to which role-players do their duty in moving towards the common vision and objectives defined by the school as an organisation where they teach. In fact, in this context quality management becomes a process by which information is provided in order to keep all functions on track, the totality of the activities that increase the probability that the planned results will be achieved. Davies (2003:93) conducted a study and found that the requirement for school improvement and commitment to strive for is one of the strategies for creating continual change. In view of the latter, this study explores the TQM phenomenon in relation to quality management practices as a means to support and advance assessment practices at the school.

Emanating from the above statement, it follows that it is the responsibility of the principal as an instructional leader to manage and implement curriculum changes. The principal as an instructional leader should be informed about these changes and manage, support and provide assistance to educators to see that all curriculum changes are implemented.

Moreover, Davies (2003:1993) notes that leadership in schools should foster an environment for resourceful and enterprising behaviours where all stakeholders are considered to be important in the achievement of their personal, and the school's, quality of teaching and learning. The principal should play a leadership role in ensuring that there are resources for all educators so that teaching and learning takes place effectively. Furthermore, Harris (2004:13) argues that collective leadership is very important because all educators work together to create a TQM framework, in which the principal as a leader develops educators in totality so that they can perform well. The following terms are discussed as part of TQM in schools: TQM culture and TQM vision.

### **3.2.1 TQM culture**

Culture denotes values that bind people together. Moreover, Bonstingl (1995:8) notes that real leadership helps people to understand their own feelings. Peterson and Deal (1998:28) concur and add that TQM cultures reflect the values, norms, beliefs, traditions and rituals that are developed over time as people work together. The principal as an instructional leader should resolve problems and confront challenges with a view to building the school. Leaders must focus on establishing the context and creating the environment in which learners can best achieve their potential.

On the other hand, Sallis (1993:37) considers culture to be concerned with ethos observed, behavioural regularities, management style and about minimising the control role those in leadership positions play, while gaining energy from everybody's achievement and sense of ownership.

Emanating from the latter, Aokland (2000:25) mentions that the understanding and the ability of leaders to motivate others towards the realisation of the vision and goals is the construction of quality culture. Quality improvement starts with a real commitment on the part of school leaders for the quality process to be successfully implemented.



It is the responsibility of a principal as an instructional leader to build a successful school so that all educators are motivated and well developed.

### **3.2.2 TQM vision**

In summary, it is very important that the principal as an instructional leader promotes the vision and mission statement of the school among all educators. Davidoff and Lazarus (1997:46) state that there is no school without a vision or mission statement; the principal as an instructional leader should see to it that the vision of the school is accomplished. Vision allows the stakeholders of the school to express ideals and harness their unique qualities towards the realisation of the vision.

Davidoff and Lazarus (1997:46) further state that vision is a creative strategy that recognises the cardinal principles of school governance and capacity building, including the sharing of values. It is the responsibility of the principal as an instructional leader to share hopes and dreams, understanding environmental trends, constraints and possibilities of the human resources available in a school. On the other hand, the school management team (SMT) must also assist the principal as a leader in this regard.

### **3.2.3 TQM principles and pillars**

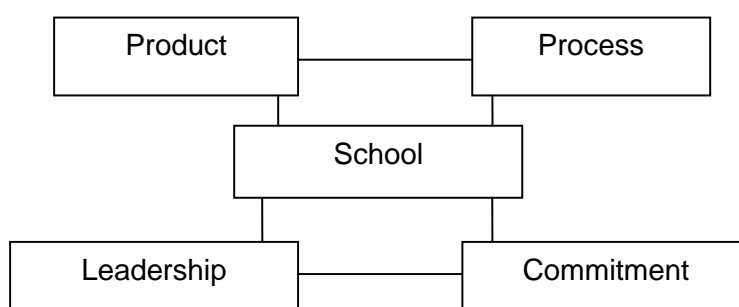
Prinsloo (2001:17-19) describes eight principles of TQM that the principal as an instructional leader should subscribe to for the betterment of the school. The principles are outlined as:

- Establishment of mutually beneficial relationships;
- Leadership;
- Learner focus;
- Commitment to continuous improvement;
- Involvement of role-players;
- Adoption of a factual approach to decision making;
- Adoption of a system approach to management;
- Adoption of a process approach.

Studying these principles suggests that the right school is meaningless without the proper leadership, in this case meaning that the principal as an

instructional leader should lead in the curriculum and assessment of the school, so that there is effective teaching and learning. There are five pillars of TQM; according to Creech (1994:6), they are product, process, organisation, leadership and commitment. These pillars as part of TQM for the school could be used to support the school leadership as a means to show commitment, leadership, process and product in the school by working together with other stakeholders.

The figure below shows the five-pillar structure of TQM:



**Figure 3.1: The five-pillar structure of TQM (Adapted from Creech, 1994:7)**

The figure above shows how the school should be structured for effective teaching and learning. However, TQM requires school instructional leaders who are respected, trusted and committed to the vision, and who can communicate it convincingly and consistently throughout the organisation.

### **3.3 TQM FOR A SCHOOL'S CHANGE**

In brief, as an organisation the school is to promote teaching and learning. Schools should work according to specific norms and values with learners, parents and the school community. School leaders should concentrate on the whole picture of the school and keep it at the forefront of people's thinking. Moreover, Sahney (2004:162) notes that TQM will work in education provided that its adoption is part of the strategic planning process that has TQM as purpose and is customised according to specific contexts. On the other hand,

the researcher's opinion is that the principal as an instructional leader should develop a strategic plan that will help the school produce the desired results through assessment strategy. Davidoff and Lazarus (1997:46) also add that such a process ought to be a creative strategy. This means that the principal as an instructional leader, in the context of this study, should develop a creative strategy for the improvement of results at school; for example, for principals to produce good results, they should develop an assessment tool that will help educators improve the desired results.

To this Barnett, Mccormick and Conner (2001:4) contribute that principals need to drive the adoption and implementation of customised TQM philosophy in schools by communicating the objectives and policies and by modelling commitment to quality culture. Principals are accountable for producing learning and they must make sure that teachers are committed to quality teaching.

In support, Grant, Mergen and Widrick (2002:11) assert that TQM becomes a management responsibility; this means that the principal should implement and facilitate the achievement of TQM goals. The principal is the school leader and manager, but this has to be seen as a shared function, rather than as emanating from a single powerful person.

Matthews (2001:52) states that one of the objectives of effective education is to encourage a change within the school that will be regarded as valid if it improves teaching and learning. The principal as an instructional leader should be accountable to bring about change to the whole school, structures, relationships and the way people think and feel.

As Van der Linde (2001:535) identified, the key task of a contemporary school is to stay ahead of change; this means that principals must not neglect personal transformation. They should establish a norm of striving for increased personal competence. Complimented with openness, co-operation and peer coaching, this will result in substantial instructional improvement.

Indeed, change in South African schools was seen when we moved from the apartheid system to a democratic one; hence the proposition that TQM be considered as a way towards the continuous improvement of South African schools and especially the teaching and learning culture in dysfunctional schools.

Banwet and Karunes (2004: 146) declare that the purpose of TQM is learners' satisfaction, which means that the principal as an instructional leader should strive for good results and quality services. In addition, principals should communicate vision and purpose to their staff.

Quong and Walker (1999:5) point out those schools can no longer maintain their traditional structure and its accompanying approaches to managing, learning and teaching, if they are to become providers of quality learning. Therefore the principal should empower staff and have a high level of tolerance for ambitions.

Willis and Taylor (1999:5) are of the opinion that schools should accept that they are in the business of providing service and that their primary customers are learners. This suggests that principals at schools should do what is right for the benefit of the learners in the context of TQM without compromising quality.

### **3.4 THE IMPLEMENTATION OF TQM IN SCHOOLS**

The implementation of TQM in schools is the responsibility of a principal, the SMT and school governing body (SGB). They should be totally committed to the continuous improvement of schools. The leadership focus should be learner-centred, with the ideal to produce responsible citizens who display balanced attitudes and awareness of moral and best practice for the best quality of life. Leadership should be committed to efforts of elevating schools towards academic excellence, with a view to create and improve quality teaching and learning. Managers must know what they have committed themselves to and what action has to be taken.

### **3.4.1 Determine the school's formal strategy for the implementation of TQM**

Loewen (1997:24) identifies the following reasons for strategic quality planning in schools. They are to:

- control the future of the school.
- focus the role-players' defined tasks.
- develop leadership skills within a school.
- improve communication and encourage commitment.
- focus on the learners' abilities to improve product and services.

The principal and SMT are concerned with how the strategy is formulated by analysing the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT) to determine the appropriate strategy for the school. In view of a SWOT analysis of the school, it is the responsibility of the principal as an instructional leader to improve communication and develop leadership skills so that the school has a direction towards quality education.

Aokland (2000:62) states that the role of a principal is to find new ways of increasing performance excellence in the school by looking at education management, which involves strategic planning.

## **3.5 SCIENTIFIC MANAGEMENT VS QUALITY MANAGEMENT**

### **3.5.1 The concept of scientific management**

The concept of scientific management is based on the factory model, which deals with the mass of marketable goods. Schools can be compared with this model, because schools also deal with the masses of learners who are the production of the schools, expected to be produced at the end of the year. In short, top management is responsible for training the quality improvement process.

Scientific management was popularised by Taylor (in Van der Westhuizen, 1999:65-67), an American industrial engineer. Taylor taught industries that workers should be hired to perform a small number of tasks in a repetitive,

mechanistic fashion. They should not be hired to think about the work that they do because thinking was the rightful role of management. Factory owners were to plan the work process and hire managers who would direct the workers. Workers, largely uneducated and untrained for the job, were urged by their supervisors to continuously work harder and do their best.

Emanating from this, it means that in schools, the principal as an instructional leader should be responsible for the results of the school; the principal should know that a school is a business, and should therefore work as a production line.

Taylor's scientific management philosophy viewed the entire production process mechanistically. Workers were thought of as interchangeable and replaceable, rather like equipment. Taylor viewed the line worker as a cog in the giant industrial machine, directed by appropriately educated managers and adhering to a set of rules. Tasks on the assembly line were simple, repetitive and boring. Workers' compliance with management's dictates was censured by a hierarchical, top-down structure. Quality of work was not a consideration for most workers. Inspectors at the end of production line were entrusted with quality control. The ideas of this philosophy of management soon found their ways into the American schools. At the beginning of the twentieth century the mass education movement took as its model the American factory, complete with the philosophy of scientific management.

At the University of Chicago, Bobbitt [Bonstingl, 1992(a):8] took on the task of translating Taylor's principles into a form that could be used by educators. He believed that efficiency depends on the centralisation of authority and definite direction to workers (teachers), who had to be kept supplied with detailed instructions as to the work to be done, the standards to be reached, the methods to be employed and the appliances to be used. The industrial model is a top-down, authoritarian structure that discourages workers from considering ways of working more effectively and efficiently. It is based on compliance, control and command. There is little scope for front-line workers to create, monitor and control their own work processes, and little participation by workers in the governance of the organisation. More attention is paid to end products than to the processes essential to increasing productivity.

It is therefore imperative that the principal as an instructional leader should set standards of achievement at school. He/she must put forward a benchmark of results for the school to achieve so that everyone else knows what is expected.

Emanating from this, it indicates that in schools, the product is the expected results to be produced by learners at the end of the year. This is the responsibility of the principal as an instructional leader.

### **3.5.2 Quality management**

Early work by Deming (1986) developed the management approach, which later became known as *total quality management*. This management model was developed in a business environment, but is radically different from the scientific model. Covey (1992:261) contends that TQM “*represents the century’s most profound, comprehensive alternation in management theory and practice*”. Daresh and Playko (1995:20) also added that, “*If here is any single movement that epitomizes management philosophy development in the past ten years, it is clearly the concept of Total Quality Management*”. As an engineer, Deming became engaged in the national planning and reconstruction of Japanese industry after World War II. The quality of Japanese manufactured goods was at that time shoddy and the label “Made in Japan” became synonymous with poor quality. Deming’s answer to the Japanese problem was simple: concentrate on achieving complete customer satisfaction. What Deming proposed to Japanese industrialists was tantamount to a total onslaught on inferior quality. Deming’s fourteen points constitute the essence of the TQM approach, and he is widely honoured as the father of the quality movement.

As with scientific management, TQM also had its origin in a manufacturing context where the focus was on the production of goods and quality control. The philosophy of TQM, however, differs from the traditional management approach in the following respects.

More specifically, in schools we expect quality education for our learners. It is, therefore, the responsibility of the principal as an instructional leader to lead in this regard. In schools, TQM encourages quality. It is essential that our education should be managed so that it is best for our learners and promotes the standards of our country where we should have learners who are developed in totality and who are able to read and write.

The philosophy of TQM, however, differs from the traditional management approach as indicated in Table 3.1 below.

**Table 3.1: Differences between traditional management and quality management**

Traditional management	Quality management
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Bottom-line driven</li> <li>• Measures individuals</li> <li>• Management controls workers</li> <li>• Quality is the responsibility of production managers and quality controllers</li> <li>• Individuals are concerned about doing their own jobs</li> <li>• A competitive organisation culture reinforces individualism</li> <li>• Maintains the status quo</li> <li>• Reacts to problems when crises occur</li> <li>• Maintained by the power, position and status of management</li> <li>• Emphasis on management-subordinate relations</li> <li>• Employees are blamed for errors</li> <li>• Functional departments promote their own interest</li> <li>• Vertical and horizontal boundaries</li> <li>• Employees satisfy management needs</li> <li>• Adversarial industrial relations</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Customer -driven</li> <li>• Measures process</li> <li>• Self- control</li> <li>• Quality applies at all levels of the company</li> <li>• Individuals work in teams to make the total process function in a better way</li> <li>• A quality organisation culture reinforces both individual and group contributions</li> <li>• Continuous improvement</li> <li>• Preventative</li> <li>• Maintained by a documented quality system (ISO 9000)</li> <li>• Emphasis on customer supplier and management employee relationships</li> <li>• Errors are part of the process and system</li> <li>• Interdepartmental co-operation focuses on quality product and services</li> <li>• All barriers to performance are eliminated</li> <li>• Employees satisfy customer needs</li> <li>• Collaborative and constructive industrial relations</li> </ul>

(Adapted from Meyer, 1998:33)



- *Participative management.* Meyer (1998:33) noted that management represents a radical shift away from the traditional view of management as centralised and bureaucratic towards thinking about organisations and people in a far more flexible and holistic way. Participation in groups or teams is particularly useful to encourage reticent team members to come up with creative solutions to difficult problems.
- *Empowerment of workers.* Workers are treated with decency and respect, which is in contrast to the dehumanising effect of scientific management. The people on the job understand the details of how the work is accomplished and they have the information they need to bring about many small improvements to the system (continuous improvement).
- *Creative problem solving.* People who know the techniques of creative problem-solving will usually reach better solutions than those who are being prescribed to all the time.
- *Recognition.* Recognition is important because people respond better to positive reinforcement than to punishment. Rau (1996:69-70) mentions that it is also important to recognise participation in the process, not just successful solutions. There are two reasons for this distinction. First, rewarding participation ensures that recognition is equally available to all employees. Any individual in the organisation has the opportunity to participate and can choose to do so. If only successes are rewarded, some people have more resources to draw on and will therefore have an advantage over others. If only successes are recognised, people may choose to undertake only simple problems, since this guarantees success and recognition. This limits the contribution to the organisation.

On the other hand, Deming fostered a whole new way of thinking about management, not simply new methods of management. Owing to its profound nature, Deming's new approach, with its emphasis on quality management, has been termed "a thought revolution in management". Rhodes (1992:77) points out that a quality revolution focuses systematically on customer-driven quality. This management approach has revolutionised the activities of organisations and equips them to survive in an increasingly global market.

TQM can also be regarded as a transformational process aimed at fundamentally changing organisational structures. Fundamental change depends upon the will and energy within an organisation to change.

It is crucial to ask and respond to profound questions, rather than implementing someone else's answer. Moreover, Carlson, (1994:14) notes that TQM has to do with concepts such as teamwork, co-operative learning, leadership, driving out fear, breaking down barriers, continuous improvement, focusing on customers, creating learning organisations, thinking about processes and systems, intrinsic motivation, joy in learning, authentic assessment, empowering people, vision, values, principles, and more.

It must, however, be realised that the TQM philosophy is not a quick-fix for solving the complex problems of organisations. Deming's work rather provides a conceptual framework for understanding systems. It should also represent a fundamental paradigm shift by refocusing attention on the customer, whose needs, requirements, and potentials must drive the work process. It is in particular management that must change fundamentally and transform its attitudes, mind-set and basic paradigms before quality can become reality. Bonstingl [1992(a):5] asserts that the ideas and practices of TQM should be formulated according to individual needs and different levels of need. TQM, therefore, calls for excellence in managing people. Deming's ideas were initially ignored in the USA as the emphasis was on maximising output and profit. It was only in the late 1970s that a number of American companies became very concerned when they lost markets and market share to the Japanese. Customers the world over registered their preference for Japanese goods over American products, because the Japanese had consistently better quality at competitive prices. International competition consequently forced Western countries to take the quality message seriously.

### **3.6 THE RELEVANCE OF QUALITY MANAGEMENT TO SCHOOLS**

In countries all the over the world the nature of education and the way it has traditionally been structured is presently being questioned and challenged. Serious concerns are being raised about whether bureaucratic models of

management can keep up with the changing requirements of organisational reform.

Interest in quality has increased over the last decade, in large part because of its philosophical assumptions about organisational life. Educators have realised the futility of scientific management, and claim that TQM moves far beyond the management paradigm by endorsing stakeholder participation, intrinsic motivation and systems theory.

What both business and education now realise is that there are certain commonalities between them, such as financial administration, recruitment and management of personnel. This indicates that the introduction of the TQM philosophy in schools has been perceived as desirable, even though some attempts to implement it have been unsuccessful.

In addition, those who advocate TQM efforts in schools argue that there are clear parallels between organisational quality culture in industry and in schools and that TQM principles are as relevant to the learning processes in classrooms as they are to organisational learning.

Gore (in Berry, 1996:13) emphasises that TQM is particularly applicable to education since the central concept of TQM, namely continuous improvement, is fundamental to education. Irwin (1993:15), Dahlgard (1995) and Daugherty (1996) are unanimous about the following TQM elements that are suitable for implementing at schools:

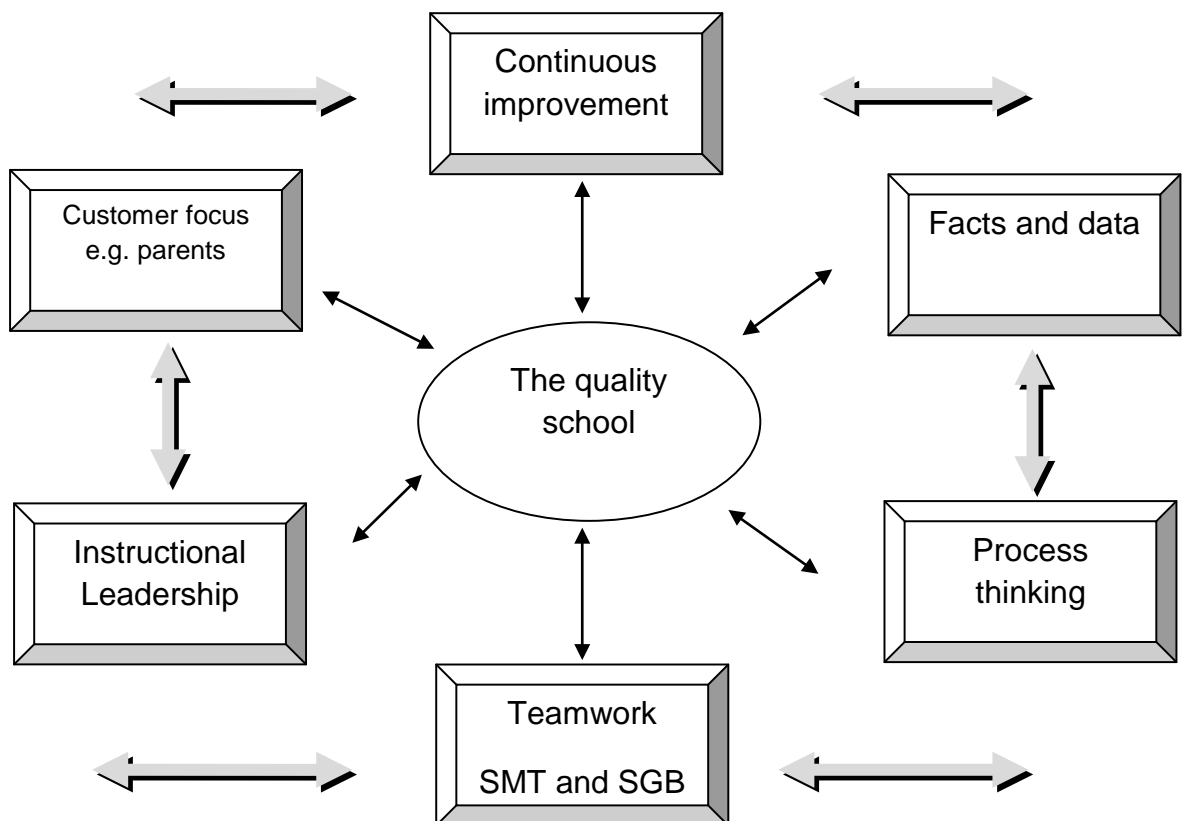
### **3.6.1 TQM elements**

- Top management commitment and the role of leadership.
- Articulation and development of a vision.
- Employee empowerment.
- Management and enhancement of human resources.
- Customer focus and satisfaction.
- Rational decision-making based on facts and data.
- Focus on teamwork.

Figure 3.2 clearly indicates that quality at a school is achieved through the participation of all its stakeholders, for instance, the SGBs, SMTs, educators, parents and learners. This means that educational leaders must ensure co-operation among learners, teachers, parents, administrators, taxpayers and other role-players.

Figure 3.2 shows everyone's role within the greater education system in which they function.

### Organisational development in schools through quality management



### **Figure 3.2: TQM in a school setting (adapted from Irwin, 1993:15)**

Emanating from the figure, it implies that it is necessary that the quality school should implement the following ideas:

- Team building and processes that cross functional boundaries.
- Continuous improvement (*kaizen*).
- Total involvement/everybody's participation.
- Process thinking.
- Benchmarking.
- Cycle time reduction.
- Cultural change.
- Training.
- Strategic planning.
- Business support.

#### **3.6.2 A generic strategy**

In brief, TQM is a generic strategy of quality improvement that allows for the development of models for quality improvement, which serve the specific needs of an organisation. Schools should, therefore, develop their own approaches based on the TQM elements listed above.

Moreover, as Berry (1996:13-14) notes, the literature suggests that the school curriculum in many education systems is not relevant to the future needs of learners, and that schools' organisational structures are not attuned to emerging global economic and social structures. It is argued that schools can learn a great deal about organisational quality from other kinds of organisations and that inter-organisational collaboration ought to be encouraged.

#### **3.6.3 Service organisations**

The interest in TQM in relation to education is generally based on the perception of education institutions as being predominantly service

organisations. The concept of TQM requires that schools are perceived as service organisations designed to fulfil the needs of their customers by providing services such as educational programmes, advice, care, information, opportunities to participate and specific skills training. Therefore, in relation to schools, the emphasis is on transforming curricular, organisational and management processes in a way that serves these customers' interest.

In addition, the key function of a service organisation such as a school is to build an effective chain of customers. To create a learning organisation dedicated to this, requires the school to think from the experience of the learner backwards to the organisational design and structure. Structures should not be seen as a formalisation of control systems, but rather as facilitating responsiveness to learner needs in the learner's own terms.

### **3.6.4 Organisational structure**

TQM for schools means a simplification of school structure. The focus has to be upon the persons closest to the learner (classroom teachers) as the principal manager of the learner's experience. These persons need to be supported by the principal, as all teams whose task is to ensure that the resources of the school are fully used to meet the needs of the learners.

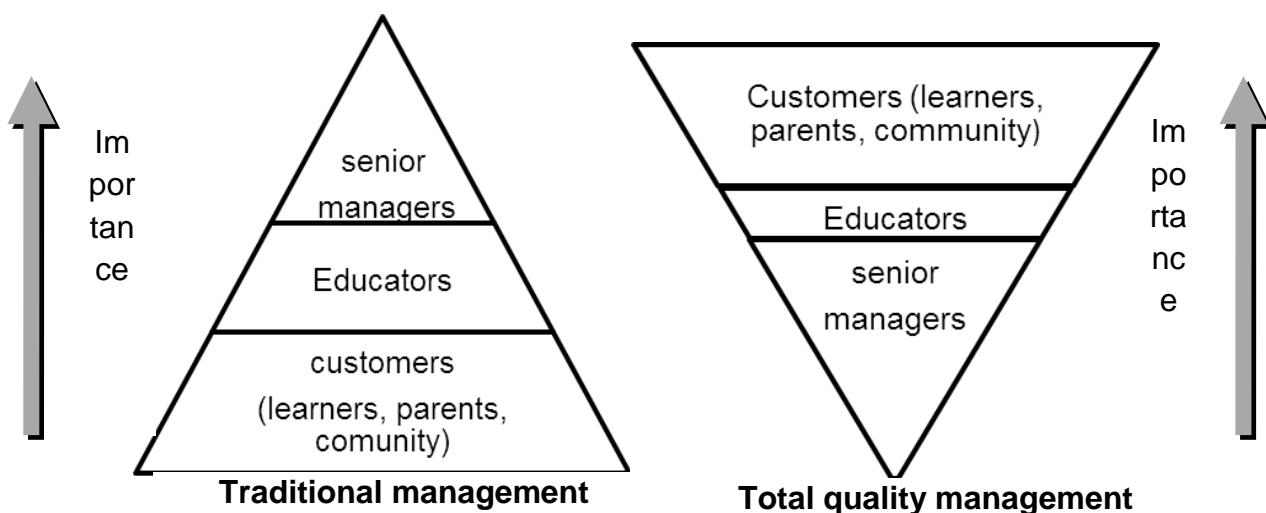
TQM is all about empowering the people closest to the client to make decisions about how best to improve. In schools this means the teachers, not just school leaders, working together to improve the learning and teaching. This structure puts the focus of responsibility and decision-making on the teachers themselves. The task of the principal is to empower and facilitate – to coach, council, educate, guide, champion, encourage, set standards – rather than to control, manipulate, coerce, correct or instruct. That means that quality is the concern of everybody in the school. In this new organisation more emphasis is placed upon values than on roles and rules. It is important to demand total integrity, to decentralise authority, and to implement informational and strategic planning. Just as critical is that the organisation be seen as one, which listens and acts on the advice of front-line staff rather than one which is formally organised and bureaucratised. This means heavy reliance on teams, on situational leadership and on a matrix organisation (flat organisational structure) as stated by Murgatroyd (1991:13-14).

The current interest in TQM as a management approach in schools has to do with the quest for survival through restricting and changing. Education clients – business organisations who employ learners, the parents and taxpayers who support the schools and citizens who depend on today's young people to lead the nation of tomorrow – have very high expectations of education. Schools will only be able to survive and prosper if they can offer quality in terms of product and customer service. Being quality and service minded in schools means relating to and caring about customers' goals, needs, desires and interests and making sure they are met; Jenkins (in Steyn, 1996:122) maintains that this makes public schools very complex.

Murgatroyd and Morgan (1993:55-56) advocate an inverted pyramid as a scheme for managing quality in schools. In traditional models management is placed at the apex of the triangle, with the teachers forming the base. According to this pattern of control, the apex is regarded as being the closest to the customers in terms of knowing what their needs are and how to achieve a quality product.

On the other hand, the inverted pyramid concept of management which is an essential prerequisite for TQM, puts the teachers closest to the customers. This means that the classroom teachers are seen to be the only ones who can deliver quality improvement to the customer stakeholders.

They are also seen as necessary in supporting the ideas of top management; in the inverted pyramid, the hierarchical organisational structure stakeholders. They are also seen as necessary in supporting the ideas of top management. In the inverted pyramid the hierarchical organisation structure is also inverted and the manager is no longer placed at the top level but manages from the bottom up. At the same time, the increasing importance of subordinates and clients is evident from their position in the upper part of the inverted pyramid.



**Figure 3.3: The inverted pyramid of TQM adapted from Murgatroyd and Morgan (1993:155)**

In the inverted pyramid system, top management is expected to be less prescriptive and more supportive of personnel. This can be brought about by



removing the obstacles to improvement and listening carefully to teachers' ideas on improving quality for their customers. Managers must change fundamentally and transform their attitudes before total quality can become a reality.

### **3.6.5 Organisational culture**

Quality improvement is culturally located, in that improving quality becomes an overriding mission for the school. It is not a fad, or a game or a new activity for a given academic year. It is an essential part of the development strategy for the school and is something that is everyone's responsibility, as Murgatroyd (1993:245) points out. Quality in an organisation is strongly influenced by its culture.

The attitude and activities performed by top management in turn exercise an important influence on the culture of the organisation. Culture comprises the beliefs and values inculcated by top managers through their attitudes and behaviour.

Aokland (2000:25) mentions that everybody in the organisation should be able to identify with the collective culture of the organisation.

## **3.7 DEMING'S FOURTEEN POINTS APPLIED TO SCHOOLS**

Deming's (1986) efforts to promote the Japanese managerial culture led to the identification of fourteen points for effective practice, which define his conceptualisation of a more effective way in which organisations might operate.

His basic point of departure is that people's best performances and working experiences alone will not ensure quality. People's working performance has to be directed by a theoretical paradigm, which is based on specific principles. The fourteen points are represented as a set of principles that provide a method for overcoming the barriers on the road to quality.

In addition, the fourteen points are to be viewed as an interrelated system of paradigms, processes and procedures, which are integrated, interdependent

and holistic. They are explained briefly with an indication of some of their implications for education

### **3.7.1 Create constancy of purpose**

Effective organisations do not simply try to achieve many short-term successes; instead they promote long-term success by focusing on organisational maintenance through promoting (and funding) innovation, research and constant movement. The idea of constancy of purpose is to optimise the total system, and not the individual components of the system. Each component must be seen as contributing to the total system.

Constancy of purpose has the following important implications for educational practice in schools.

#### **3.7.1.1 System improvement**

Briefly, the school can be improved by setting goals and objectives for the school system as a whole. This is a strategic function and needs to be pursued by everybody involved in the school.

#### **3.7.1.2 Realisation of learner's potential**

The most fundamental purpose of education is to help every learner to achieve his or her potential. Fulfilling this mission requires the redesign of curricula and instructional strategies to facilitate faster learning by making efficient use of time and physical resources to meet the needs of a rapidly changing society. Staff development activities also have to be modified to enable the delivery of a new total quality curriculum.

#### **3.7.1.3 Learning outcomes**

The school's goals and objectives must be defined and in measurable terms, although some important goals may not be measurable. In order to achieve these goals successfully, schools need to develop operational indicators of quality learning outcomes. The primary, although not exclusive, purpose of schooling should be academic achievement and a commitment to improving the quality of education provided to learners.

### **3.7.2 Adopt the new philosophy**

This suggests that this new philosophy must be one of intolerance of poor service and complacency. The goal must be for mistakes and negativism to become unacceptable. This means that there has to be a deliberate departure from conventional management. School principals and staff must be aware of the need to change and to shift paradigms. Rankin (1992:68) notes that a new management approach should flow from this, which could include the following points discussed below:

- New teaching and learning strategies which aim at success for all learners; the expectation of learning based on the normal bell-shaped curve and the practice of grouping learners homogeneously have to be reconsidered.
- Principals and teachers need to make a long-term commitment to their schools to ensure continuity of experience. This provides institutional memory and creates a climate in which old mistakes can be avoided and previous improvements maintained and reinforced.
- Instruction and curriculum are viewed as systems that can be improved.

### **3.7.3 Cease dependence on inspection to achieve quality**

The identification of problems through inspection in manufactured products implies that the system of production is designed so that flaws are acceptable. A system wholly dedicated to the elimination of errors is more effective than one that is designed for inspecting and seeking errors as production occurs.

This view also has an important bearing on education systems. Education systems often do more screening and sorting of learners than they do teaching and learning. Sorting learners out according to the normal bell-shaped curve implies success for some learners while others are labelled as failures.

In short, educators should rather focus on building successful, quality, high-level performance experiences into the teaching process from the start. In so doing, the teaching process can be monitored continuously and adjustments made as needed. The focus, therefore, shifts from management of crises and corrective action to management of quality systems.

Teachers act as facilitators who support the learners during every step of the teaching and learning process in order to achieve success. This activity leads to changing the system, which in turn affects permanent solutions.

In conclusion, the evaluation of learners must form part of the on-going instruction rather than consisting only of annual testing.

#### **3.7.4 End the practice of awarding business based on price alone**

This indicates that selecting products solely on the basis of the lowest cost is short-sighted and often leads to selecting products of low quality. In education, this principle may be applied to the purchase of textbooks and tests, computers and other equipment and supplies. When alternative suppliers are considered, however, the total costs and benefits should be taken into account and not just the initial costs.

#### **3.7.5 Improve constant service**

In short, management has an obligation to continually look for ways to reduce waste and improve quality. In education, waste can be regarded as time spent on unfocused or less effective teaching strategies.

Schools should add value to learning experiences, which requires regular team discussion and analysis of every significant process and method that affects outcomes and results. It is important to realise that no method, no lesson plan, no school structure or arrangement is ever perfect. There is always a need to refine processes and procedures in order to become even more effective. Rankin (1992:68) notes that a climate should be created in which principals; teachers and learners are empowered to continuously evaluate and improve their own productivity and services.

#### **3.7.6 Institute training**

Training must be regarded as a powerful tool of quality improvement and the training of personnel should be regarded as a key element in the quality improvement process. Training (in-service and re-training) of principals and teachers should be regarded as a high priority.

However, instead of trying to train everyone in everything, training should be preceded by a needs assessment. A long-term commitment to staff development must be made: training and support are prerequisites for success. As principals and teachers learn new skills they become more effective in their roles, more adaptive in their teaching style, more flexible and tolerant. The results become more responsive to learners' individual differences and teachers become more able to employ a variety of teaching models, such as lectures, small group, hands-on discussions, inquiry and role-playing.

One approach to in-service training of staff that makes sound economic sense is to encourage teachers to plan together and share professional experiences with other schools.

### **3.7.7 Institute leadership**

Leadership consists of helping people do a better job and of learning by objective methods to determine who needs to receive individual help. The characteristics and aims of leadership for quality in schools may be summarised as follows:

- Top management (SMT) is responsible for identifying continuous professional development training opportunities. For the sake of quality improvement of assessment practice process at school. SMT must know what they have committed themselves to and what action has to be taken.
- It is expected of managers to do things right, but of leaders to do the right things.
- Respect and confidence determine leadership – not someone's formal position within the organisation (school).
- SMT must change fundamentally and transform its attitudes, mind-set and basic paradigms before total quality can become a reality.
- Leadership is essential to institutionalise significant and permanent change in schools. TQM requires leaders who are respected, trusted and committed to that vision, and who can communicate it convincingly and consistently throughout the organisation.

- Education leaders must ensure co-operation among learners, teachers, parents, administrators, taxpayers and other role-players; this co-operation is vital in reaching a better understanding of each one's role within the bigger educational system in which they function.

### **3.7.8 Drive out fear**

In short, it is not wrong to make mistakes. It is a mistake to develop a culture where people believe that it is possible to try without always achieving immediate success. Deming (1986:59-61) notes that people cannot perform at their best unless they feel secure. People in a working environment may experience different kinds of fear, for instance, of losing their jobs, being excluded from promotion, being criticised, being held responsible for outcomes that are beyond their control, or not being fairly treated.

In education institutions managers often generate fear by instituting unnecessarily specific regulations and procedures and relentlessly emphasising testing and accountability. Fear in the working environment inhibits people's productivity, accuracy, innovation and risk taking, collaboration, joy in labour, and may even cause people to cheat. Fear is counterproductive and destructive in the school and reduces everyone's performance. It is therefore important to eliminate fear or at least reduce it to an acceptable level.

A sense of security is the basis on which staff motivation is built. Fear should, therefore, be replaced within sincerity, loyalty, productivity, caring, respect and confidence.

### **3.7.9 Break down barriers among staff groups**

An organisation cannot afford to have people pulling in different directions. Collaboration among workgroups, not competition, is the key to success. In schools, participation is achieved primarily through the establishment of cross-functional and/or cross-departmental problem-solving teams. A strategy of co-operative teaching enables teachers to be more productive together than they can be in isolation and therefore enriches the learning environment. Co-

operation also enhances collegiality. Teachers should be encouraged to co-operate in planning the curriculum.

In addition, schools should be restructured to facilitate interdisciplinary approaches and a variety of teaching strategies. Co-operative learning is regarded as a valuable strategy for enhancing learner's learning skills. Learners can participate in project teams by investigating problems and issues that require the application of learning from different disciplines. Co-operation with other schools and sectors has the benefit of sharing resources, which would otherwise not be available to all learners.

Teachers' and learners' productivity improves when teams combine talents to create more opportunities for learning. Teams should, therefore, be created and teamwork strategies should be taught, such as how to plan and conduct successful team meetings, analyse data, communicate the results and implement change.

### **3.7.10 Eliminate slogans, exhortations and targets for the workforce**

The use of targets, slogans, exhortations and posters to motivate people are best eliminated. The main danger with slogans arises when targets are set without the school management's support in the form of training or resources. In such circumstances targets can create fear and a tendency to manipulate the system and to strive for quantity instead of quality. Teachers often perceive slogans as signalling that management not only does not understand their problems, but also does not care enough to find out about them.

In fact, quality stems from attention to the process and not from mottos and slogans. In schools attention to the process starts with principals. Slogans, exhortations and targets created by management should be replaced with data and know-how, and by allowing teams to improve the quality of their work.

Slogans assume that people could do better, but are unwilling. The focus should be on fixing the system and processes rather than on the people.

### **3.7.11 Eliminate numerical quotas**

Educational leaders must ensure that quality promotes the achievement of numerical goals, which are simply symbols of reality. They do not enhance quality. The effective organisation seeks quality, not symbols.

The notion of visible numbers only has also permeated management in education. In the belief that test scores define quality, administrators tend to make the numbers look good in order to please the upper echelons. As a result, learners' understanding of subjects may be distorted and long-lasting quality (in the form of better understanding) is not likely to be achieved.

Particularly in schools, the traditional assessment of learners has been over-emphasised over the years. It is important to bear in mind that tests and examinations do not necessarily reflect a learner's progress. Schools should de-emphasise marks and emphasise lifelong learning instead.

### **3.7.12 Remove barriers to pride of workmanship**

Stated briefly, the fundamental belief here is that people really want to do a good job. Poor performance is not a result of laziness or irresponsibility but rather the management's inability to dispel fear and find ways to ensure that employees are allowed and equipped to do their best work.

Deming suggests that managers should make physical arrangements for informal dialogue between people in the various components of the company. This provides an invaluable way for school principals to get involved in discussions and avoid excessive formality.

In summary, schools should emphasise intrinsic motivation, rather than extrinsic rewards. The old merit award system for teachers might be regarded as an example of a barrier to intrinsic motivation. Merit systems could be regarded as statistically random, and educators regard them with suspicion.

### **3.7.13 Institute a vigorous staff improvement programme**

This suggests that the only way in which an organisation will grow and prosper is if the people who make up the organisation continue to grow and learn. Strong emphasis is placed on self-improvement and



lifelong learning; therefore the educational leaders must ensure co-operation in schools in this respect.

Schools should view the continuing education of their staff members as a sound investment. This requires school principals to develop programmes that enable staff continuously to upgrade their knowledge skills and performance.

Teachers who are well trained are vital, inquiring, interested in, and up-to-date in their field. They will transfer such qualities to the work environment, are more likely to find quality solutions to instructional problems and will make learning a more interesting experience for their learners. The training of staff should also be regarded as an investment in quality education for learners.

#### **3.7.14 Take action to accomplish the transformation**

Leaders in the organisation must always function as a team for the organisation as a whole to benefit. The principle of co-operation and teamwork is key to accomplishing change in schools. Teams are critical in a service environment because the work is highly interfunctional. Therefore, cross-functional groups need close involvement in the entire change process. All groups must be involved in quality improvement in such a way that they will contribute to the organisational culture.

In short, it becomes evident from the above discussion that Deming's fourteen points can, to some extent, be applied to education. In fact, some aspects are crucial for the conceptualisation of management in education and for the management of schools. Given that the principles of TQM have emerged from an industrial environment, people should be alert to the dangers of their mechanistic application in schools.

Leaders in education should therefore consider how the principles of TQM are applied, and education leaders will have to adapt these principles to make them suitable for an educational milieu where the focus is on people and their interests.

### **3.8 CHARACTERISTICS OF QUALITY MANAGEMENT IN SCHOOLS**

### **3.8.1 Focus on customers and suppliers**

The environment of an organisation (school) should support the implementation of TQM requires leaders who are committed, No organisation can operate in a vacuum; they all have to meet the demands coming from outside – customers, the public and suppliers. The role of the business environment, in particular, is regarded as vitally important.

Collaboration and teamwork are crucial in a TQM organisation, where everyone is both a customer and a supplier. It is essential to identify one's roles in the two capacities to better understand the systemic nature of the work. Suppliers can be regarded as the people whose work you use, and customers as the people who use your work. The organisation and its people must focus on building partnerships with all customers and suppliers both inside and outside of the organisation. Therefore, the challenges for all schools in implementing TQM are to analyse work as series of transactions between suppliers (providers) and customers (recipients).

Every transaction produces an output designed to meet customer needs. These transactions become situational when it is realised that everyone is both a customer and a supplier.

In education, the word “customer” is not a familiar term, perhaps because the word carries overtones of bartering, buying or selling. The purpose of the school, however, requires a clear view of who the customer is. Defining the customers of schools is not a simple task. Are they the learners, the parents, the community or society, members of governing bodies, business and employees, taxpayers or higher education? Is the high school the customer of the primary school, or is it the next grade or next school to which the learners pass?

Moreover, Tribus (1993:14) asserts that “customer” is defined as the next person in the line to receive a service. It is, therefore, possible to identify a chain of customers and suppliers in every situation. Every person is dependent on both the last and next in the chain for the successful completion of an important transaction. In the classroom, learners and teachers are the

customers and suppliers who provide and receive services, depending on who actually receives and who supplies a particular service.

Moreover, it is important to distinguish between internal and external customers in schools. Internal customers are those inside the organisation who receive a service but who also act as suppliers. In education this group would include staff, learners, workers and others. The learner is widely perceived as the primary or ultimate customer who determines the content of the educational programme. It is, therefore, the ultimate goal of the school as an organisation to provide learners the opportunity to learn and to develop capacities and capabilities. In the classroom, the learners are the customers of the teacher and most directly receive the teaching service. As customers, the learners are the recipients of their teacher's lessons, but the teachers in turn are the recipients of the learners' homework.

In conclusion, external customers are those outside the school who receive the schools' products or services. The community, which includes parents, other education institutions and tertiary education, business, tax payers, government and future employers, may be regarded as external customers of education. Parents have a special relationship with schools: they play the role of sponsors or agents while the school shares their concern to secure the best education for their children and see parents' part of the bargain as the provision of support at home.

This implies that schools should involve parents in decisions on education programmes. External customers have a legitimate right to expect progress in learners' competencies, characters and capabilities for responsible citizenship. These expectations of external customers are not about the direct and immediate gain of the stakeholders only, but also about the long-term benefit of the next and succeeding generation. As West-Burnham (1992:40-41) notes, this indicates that measurement of customer satisfaction is at the heart of TQM. Obtaining feedback and acting on it is what differentiates TQM from every other management theory. This means that there is a moral obligation on all suppliers to ascertain customer needs, to attempt to meet them and then to find to what extent they have been met. The following are

some of the most appropriate techniques for schools to gather data on customer satisfaction:

- *Suggestion cards.* Invite all the schools' customers, internal and external, to suggest improvements.
- *Shadowing.* Suppliers place themselves in the situation of the customers. For example, a teacher for a specific grade spends the whole day with that grade or a primary school teacher joins his former learners on their first day in secondary school.
- *Interviews.* These can be used with almost any group to gather detailed information. Talking to different groups of learners, community members and teachers to determine how the school might be improved is a potentially powerful strategy for generating ideas, indicating seriousness of intent and demonstrating commitment.
- *Survey.* Data obtained from surveys are quantifiable and permit comparisons over time. Surveys can be used to collect information about parents and other stakeholders to attend its meetings on a regular basis.

### **3.8.2 Continuous improvement**

The Japanese concept of *kaizen* best expresses the notion of continuous improvement. *Kaizen* means that everyone in the organisation is dedicated to continuous improvement, personally and collectively, at home, at work and in the community – not just on the job, but in every aspect of life. It can also be regarded as a society-wide covenant of mutual help in the process of becoming better daily. It is not a one-time effort but a never-ending journey of self-improvement, the improvement of other people and the promotion of achievement. Employees in Japanese companies meet regularly in “quality circles” to discuss ways of doing their work better by modifying existing processes.

Similarly, some American companies and schools set aside valuable time for discussions that foster the collaborated development of a true learning environment.

In TQM “business as usual” means challenge and change, and organisations that do not constantly improve, face the danger of failing behind.

In the same way, in a school context, everybody constantly needs to look for ways to improve quality. School should add value to learning experiences, which require regular team discussions and analysis of every significant process and method that affects outcomes and results. It is important to realise that no method, no lesson plan, no school structure or arrangement is ever perfect. There is always a need to refine processes and procedures in order to become even more effective. A climate can be created in which principals, teachers and learners are empowered to continuously evaluate and improve their own productivity and services.

Continual improvement requires constant work or where crisis management prevails there can be no quality management. To improve quality it is necessary to develop processes for delivering sound results that must be revised regularly.

Senge [in Bonstingl, 1992(a):6] notes that “learning organisations” – where people, processes and systems are dedicated to continuous learning and improvement – are most capable of surviving and prospering. This means that the so-called stable school is not the one that maintains that status quo, but rather the one that aims for continuous innovation and change.

In short, continuous quality improvement means the emphasis lies on each person becoming more competent and influencing other people to do the same. If the change process lacks this drive, the organisation is probably not optimising human potential. The focus must be on really optimising the potential within the organisation.

This indicates that it is also important to understand the complexity of a typical school day in order to understand the task of management and the process of incremental change. In each school day, there are so-called “moments of truth” – critical moments at which the culture and values of the school are expressed through the action of, for instance, a teacher, the principal or secretary. A school of 1 500 learners and 69 staff members will have approximately 2,5 million moments of truth in a typical school year. Steyn

(1995:17-18) and Van Wyk (1995:18) add that the task of effective management is to manage these moments of truth by seeking constant improvement in each of them. Schools that use the principle of continuous improvement as their quality index will begin establishing baseline data from which to measure their annual improvements.

These baseline data must be established for all the quality indicators the schools intends to use in evaluating continuous improvement. Steyn (1996:129) notes that continuous improvement means that:

- Learners' test and examination results are critically analysed for further improvement.

Various measuring tools can be employed to ascertain the causes of problems and to improve quality:

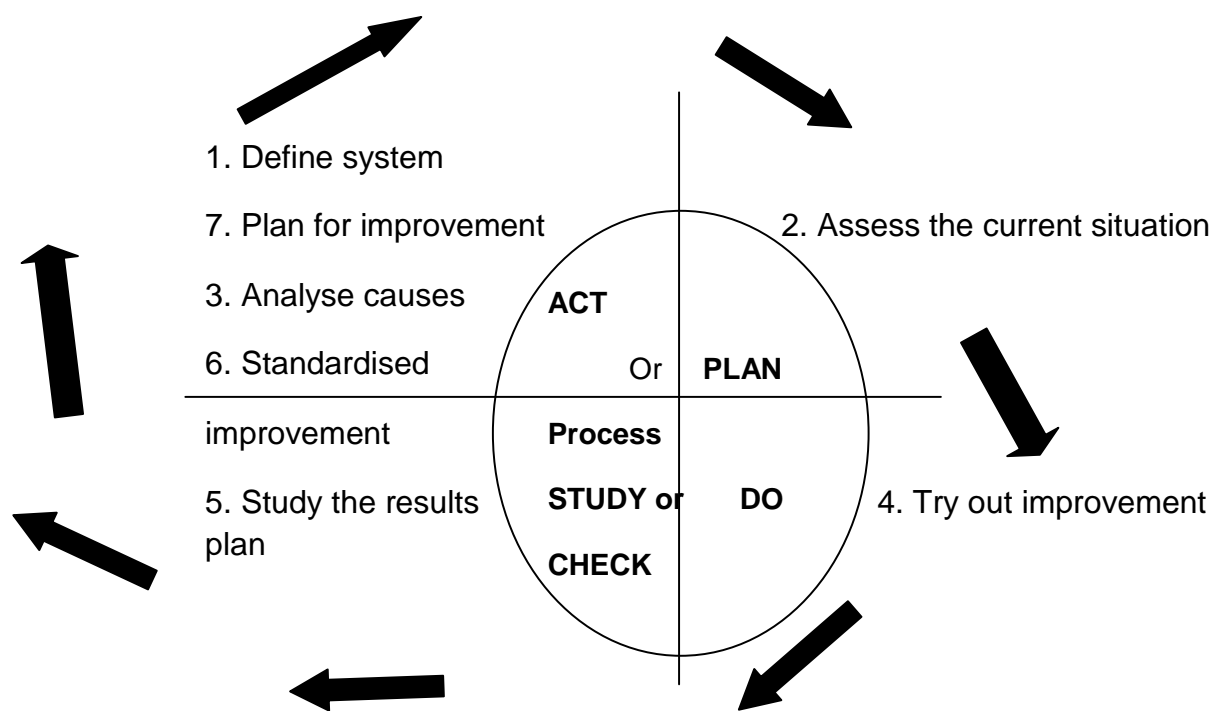
- Effective application of human resources with regard to the selection, placement, training and talents of people.
- Using research to suggest strategies for improving teaching and learning processes. To address curricular problems is essential to any education improvement process.
- Statistical control by training educators to use techniques of data collection regarding effective programmes and learners' performances, as well as to interpret patterns which develop over a period of time
- Beard (1989:10) is convinced that world-class total quality cannot be implemented without statistical tools.
- Cause-and-effect diagrams (also known as fishbone diagrams) are used during brainstorming sessions in order to identify the causes of a particular situation.
- Process flow charts are used to portray a visual image of the education process to all stakeholders so that everyone understands and agrees on what the process is. Doing this can immediately reveal redundancy and misunderstanding.
- Pareto charts are used to determine priorities. For example, staff might gather data on learners' absences and then establish when most absences occur, who is absent and what the causes are. The real problems are determined by means of elimination.

- Histograms are used to measure how frequently events occur by collecting data over a specific period of time.
- Control charts can be used to distinguish between common and special variations and identify when the system is stable and should not be tampered with.

The mere fact that these instruments are used does not, however, ensure a high quality school. Murgatroyd (1993:275) argues that when schools employ quality tools they should re-engage in their “real” work. This means they should employ tools for improving processes rather than outcomes. For example, suspending or expelling learners may address a discipline problem in a school. This is, however, a “quick-fix” solution that does not examine the overall problem of discipline in that school.

The focus of this solution to the problem is directed at the outcome (suspension and expulsion) and not the process (questions about the school’s long-term strategic objectives and vision). Educators must, therefore, be trained to gather data regarding programme effectiveness and learners’ performance and to interpret such data. Continuous improvement requires a cyclical process and can be visualised by means of the PDSA cycle (“Plan-Do-Study-Act”), which is at the heart of what schools should do in implementing quality management.

The process comprises the following four steps. Steyn (1996:129) indicates them in Figure 3.4.



**Figure 3.4 (Adapted from Leddick, 1993:42)**

### **The cycle for improvement**

*Step 1* – This comprises a PLAN or process to study and analyse (for example, how a lesson is taught and assessed or ascertaining learner needs). What improvements can be made? What data are available, what additional data will be needed to assess the improvement and how will the data be used? It is imperative to seek the input of customers, suppliers, staff and top management.

- *Step 2* – DO it. The plan should be carried out, preferably on a small scale.
- *Step 3* – STUDY or check the data on the effects of the improvement or innovation and gather new data on its effectiveness as adjustment are made.
- *Step 4* – ACT on what the programme shows.

Examples of areas for improvement in schools are improving learning through learners monitoring their work with control charts, improving teachers' and learners' attendance, improving telephone services at the office and improving communication between homes and schools.



Data collection is essential to measure activities, processes or outcomes. Data should show how a process operates and what its outcomes are. The idea of continuous improvement of the education system applies to all levels in the system, from the individual classroom to the department of education, from pre-school through to the university. Figure 3.4 indicates that the role of the leader is to support colleagues so that they share a vision and strive towards the intended outcomes.

### **3.8.3 Systems and processes**

An organisation must furthermore be viewed as a system and work people do within the system must be seen as on-going processes. Managing processes is important, because processes produce outcome. Process here refers to the way in which people work to achieve results. When systems function as a unity to meet a common purpose, they are optimising. However, when any part of the system strays from the common purpose and promotes its own objectives or goals, the system is sub-optimised. Deming (1986) agrees that 85% to 90% of all things that go wrong in any organisation are far more likely to be directly attributable to the way people set up systems, rather than to individual people's malfeasance. Therefore, pointing fingers when people do things that might be considered wrong or misguided is far less useful than lending a helping hand. The same applies to individual teachers and learners, who are less to blame for failure than the system. System variables such as expectations, activities, perceptions, resource allocations, power structure values and the traditional school culture are often perceived negatively, and these perceptions should not be applied to individual performance.

On the other hand, a second way of thinking, as Bonstingl [1992(b):21-25] notes, is the "being mode" of existence. This view of the world springs from the ancient Confucian tradition, graphically represented by the *yin-yang*, an ancient oriental symbol of wholeness. According to this view life consists of *dualities* – not adversarial dichotomies – but polar opposites that add richness and meaning to one another. In addition, the first way of thinking is regarded as product-oriented and the second as process-orientated.

The former focuses only on the results at the end of the process and views the end as an objective separate from the entire process. People who are process-oriented understand the importance of setting worthy goals, and also know that the process makes goals achievable. They know that the quality of their input into the process will substantially determine the quality of the product, or output. The quality and effectiveness of the process result in sustainable quality outputs.

In a TQM organisation, therefore, the focus shifts from product to process. A school must therefore focus on improving the quality of the processes that influence the quality of the end product. It is, however, premature or even counterproductive to focus attention on results, without a prior and overarching focus on the processes that bring forth the desired results. Quality should therefore not be regarded as an entity or end result, but rather as generating an attitude, which is built into the process. In classroom practice the process of teaching should, therefore, be emphasised more than the achievements in examinations.

Furthermore, focusing on process also means optimising each individual's potential. This approach allows each teacher and learner to experience some success, some happiness, some pride and joy in the processes and products of their work. Managers must, therefore, ask how they can build competency, compassion and character. This will ensure that the potential in every school can be optimised.

In fact, the optimisation of the school is promoted by treating the school system as a whole enterprise rather than as comprising separate entities such as curriculum, achievement or staff development. This view of whole school development is consistent with training programmes currently employed by school principals in South African schools.

### **3.8.4 Characteristics of servant leadership**

Quality cannot be dictated: it must be led and managed from the top of the organisation. Murgatroyd and Morgan (1993:68-69) discuss the crucial role of leaders and list the following characteristics of TQM leadership:

- It is about imagination, enabling and empowering the ordinary worker – not about status.
- The role of the leader is to activate, coach, guide, mentor, educate, assist and support colleagues so that they focus on a shared vision, strategy and set of intended outcomes.
- Leaders with vision realise that it is cost-effective to empower those nearest to a process to manage that process themselves.
- Leaders concentrate on the whole picture and keep it at the forefront of people's thinking.
- They attend to small details that can make a critical difference.
- They believe that challenge and fun go together – laughter is healing. Bonstingl (1995:8) identified real leadership as healing, meaning that it helps people to understand their own feelings and optimise pleasure in their lives.

In addition, the need for leadership is also emphasised by the fact that TQM has probably generated more failures than successes, caused largely by the reluctance of people to change. This is why leadership is so important in the implementation of change. Carlson (1994:16) notes that South Africa's most urgent educational need is for people with leadership and management skills in line with TQM principles.

Furthermore school leaders must focus on establishing the context and creating the environment in which learners can best achieve their potential. Quality improvement therefore starts with a real commitment on the part of school leaders to the quality process. Leaders must embrace and espouse the quality philosophy for it to be successfully implemented. Commitment is measured in terms of tangible and visible things, not rhetoric.

This means that an individual teacher could apply the quality processes in the classroom, but would need the support and commitment of the school's

systems leaders to introduce a viable quality improvement process. Unless the staff see a genuine commitment to quality in the behaviour of the top team, improvement is unlikely to be brought about due to the lack of involvement or sense of indifference on the part of management. In addition top management is responsible for training the quality improvement process.

In fact, the critical role of leadership is stressed by studies conducted in 1988 and 1990 of well-performing Canadian public sector organisations. Middlehurst and Gordon (1995:278-279) note the following key ingredients of these organisations, as follows:

- *People orientation.* The emphasis is on people in terms of challenge, encouragement and development.
- *Participative leadership.* This is described as guiding by being creative, by detecting patterns, by articulating purpose and mission, and by fostering commitment to the goals of the organisation.
- *Innovative work style.* This involves people reflecting on their performance, learning from experience and being innovative, creative and flexible. Strong control systems are used, but only as tools.
- The organisation controls itself rather than depending on control from an outside authority.
- *Client orientation.* The focus is on customer needs and preferences, where staff satisfaction derives from serving the customer. Strong internal and external interaction exists.

Middlehurst and Gordon (1995) isolate the process by which these attributes are acquired. An important finding was that people need to have a certain mind-set when they work. The authors also highlighted a propensity for debate, reflection and self/collective scrutiny. The process of developing these attitudes could be triggered by the arrival of a new leader. Leaders can initiate change and can create the conditions for continued support of change. However, for the process of continuous improvement to become embedded in the culture or the organisation, leadership has to be seen as a shared function, rather than as emanating from a single powerful person.

It is important that education leaders must lead the transformation effort to ensure success. Steyn (1996:131-132) notes two ways in which principals could take responsibility for quality in their schools. The job description for principals should be changed. Principals should not be expected to be simply efficient managers of processes. They must see themselves as accountable for producing learning. Principals can be sure of success if teachers are committed to quality learning. They must therefore manage teachers' commitment, which stems primarily from teachers' involvement in the processes of problem-solving and decisions-making. The system of supervision that operates in most schools is unhealthy. Schools need to change the way staff members are treated. Principals should establish a norm of striving for increased personal competence. Coupled with openness, co-operation, and peer coaching, this will result in substantial instructional improvement.

This emphasises that leadership skills are a very important aspect of TQM. Educational managers should be the driving force in employing TQM. They should communicate vision, optimism and purpose to their staff. They should empower staff and have a high level of tolerance of ambiguity, patience and integrity. Leaders also need the skill of far-sightedness – of looking beyond current circumstances to the medium and long term and enabling their staff to do the same.

Steyn (1996:132) comments that leadership is essential to institute significant and permanent change in schools.

### **3.9 THE IMPLEMENTATION OF QUALITY MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS IN SCHOOLS**

In addition to the TQM philosophy there are various quality management systems that are instrumental in setting standards and can even be regarded as vehicles for achieving them. They have been designed to assure the quality of organisations (schools). These include the International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO 9000), the British Standards for Quality Systems (BS5750), Investors in People (IIP) standard, the European EN 29000 and EFQM models, the Malcolm Baldrige Education for Performance

Excellence in the USA, and the integrated quality management systems (IQMS) in South Africa. The following processes form an important basis for understanding these quality management systems. Doherty (1994:11) indicates them as follows:

- *Quality assurance.* This is a prevention-based approach and is about products' working reliably in future and about service activities being dependable and consistent. Quality assurance has to give confidence that future activities will produce the desired end result. It is a means of ensuring that errors are, as far as possible, designed out. In education it examines the aims, content, resourcing, levels and projected outcomes of modules, programmes and courses.
- *Quality control.* This involves operational techniques and activities such as measuring, examining, testing, gauging one or more characteristics of an entity and comparing these with specified requirements in order to determine whether each characteristic conforms to the requirements. It can also be regarded as a means of gaining information so that errors can be corrected. In education, quality control requires feedback from staff, learners and even external customers. It also requires monitoring and review of modules, programmes and courses.
- *Quality audit.* Quality audit is the means by which the organisation checks that the procedures are really being implemented. An audit checks that the system does what it says it is going to do and that there is written, documented evidence to prove it. Any documented process, whether educational or manufacturing, can be audited. The quality management system can be audited internally and/or externally.
- *Quality assessment.* This is the judgement of performance against either internal or external criteria. In education assessment is a potential source of conflict, because quality criteria for education are so difficult to agree upon.

These quality processes are to be found in some shape or form in all quality systems.

### **3.9.1 The international organisational for standardisation (ISO 9000)**

The International Organisation for Standardisation (ISO) is a global federation of national standards bodies representing an international consensus on good management practice. These good practices have been compiled into a set of standardised requirements for a quality management system with the aim of developing a worldwide standard to help companies and other institutions to measure and monitor their quality efforts. The ISO 9000 comprises a set of standards for quality assurance.

In short, ISO 9000 provides a framework for organisations to assess themselves and for employees to act as internal auditors. This is accomplished by the joint effort of employees and management to develop a quality manual and corrective action procedures. Organisations can go further and subject themselves voluntarily to an external assessment in order to qualify for ISO 9000 certification.

In South Africa, the Council of the South African Bureau of Standards has accepted the ISO 9000 as the SABS ISO 9000 (SABS, 2000). Although ISO 9000 has its origin in manufacturing settings, the standard also provides for services-orientated organisations that intend to upgrade their performance. The aim is to improve internal communication, increase monitoring of activities and adopt best practices throughout the organisation (Zuckerman, 2000:12).

This means that TQM and ISO 9000 are both quality management systems. TQM and ISO 9000 are interrelated. Moreover, Doherty (1995:4) maintains that an essential element in the TQM methodology is the need to improve processes – improve the process and the quality will improve itself. It is essential to have a firm grasp on internal processes so quality will improve itself. ISO 9000 is also directed at processes and introduces quality control throughout the entire process rather than applying it only to the final product.

The principles of ISO 9000, the quality management system of the revised ISO 9000: 2000 series, are based on the following quality management principles (ISO, 2000):



- *Customer focus*: Organisations depend on their customers and should therefore understand current and future customer needs, meet customer requirements and strive to exceed customer expectations.
- *Leadership*: Leaders establish unity of purpose and direction. They should create and maintain an internal environment in which people can become fully involved in achieving the organisations' objectives.
- *Involvement of people*. The full involvement of people enables their abilities to be used for the organisation's benefit.
- *Process approach*: A desired result is achieved more efficiently when activities and related resources are managed as a process.
- *Systems approach to manage*: Identifying, understanding and managing interrelated processes as a system contributes to the organisation's effectiveness and efficiency in achieving its objectives.
- *Continual improvement*: Continual improvement of the organisational overall performance should be a permanent objective.
- *Factual approach to decision-making*: Effective decisions are based on the analysis of data and information.
- *Mutually beneficial supplier relationships*: An organisation and its suppliers are interdependent and a mutually beneficial relationship increases the ability of both to create value.
- ISO 9000: 2000 shows how, collectively, these principles can form the basis for performance improvement and organisational excellence. It states that many organisations will find it beneficial to set in motion quality management systems based on these principles as stated by (ISO, 2000).



### **3.9.2 Application of ISO 9000 to schools**

Although the application of ISO to schools is a fairly recent trend, Doherty (1995:5) argues that there is no doubt that both TQM and ISO 9000 can be effectively applied to educational organisations. Zuckerman (2000:12) notes that teaching professionals in the USA were initially wary of ISO 9000 in education because of their concern about the standardisation of the creative and empathetic aspects of their work. Those concerns have been overcome, as educators see that ISO 9000 improves the operational structure and the day-to-day processes of their work.

Educators realise that with less time lost on operational malfunctions, they have more time and energy for creative and people-centred activities, which are more directly related to their professionals focus.

In fact, ISO 9000 has already been implemented by educational establishments in the USA, Canada, Singapore, the UK, Switzerland and Australia. Motivating factors for the implementation of ISO 9000 in some schools districts in the USA are, according to Zuckerman (2000:13-14) instituted to:

- Improve education, make it efficient and improve overall performance.
- Promote greater collaboration and partnership with business and industry to better prepare learners for the workplace. This includes dialogue about what skills are needed to meet the demands of the global economy.
- Provide a framework and structure to help improve customers' service.
- Improve business processes through documentation to reduce the internal costs of doing business and communicating with customers.
- Bringing better management practices to schools.

The challenges for education are to translate the 20 key elements of ISO 9000, which were designed for industry, into educational terms. This involves elements such as defining responsibility and authority within the schools, as well as the verification of resources and personnel information. A major challenge is to involve the full range of staff members in a meaningful way.

Implementing ISO also involves intensive staff training, setting up audit teams and getting documentation done, creating flow charts, developing new procedures and a quality manual. This is a time-consuming process and can take one to two years to implement.

### **3.10 THE INTEGRATED QUALITY MANAGEMENT SYSTEM IN SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS**

The integrated quality management system (IQMS) was established in 2003 (ELRC resolution 8 of 2003) and is an integration of the following performance and quality management programmes in education: The IQMS is based on the following components:

- Developmental Appraisal
- Performance Management
- Whole-School Evaluation (WSE)

In fact, the IQMS is aimed at the individual evaluation and development of educators through drawing up personal growth plans, and at the evaluation, development and overall institutional effectiveness of schools.

In addition, an important aspect of the IQMS for schools is that of school development planning (SDP), which is a joint responsibility of the school management team and school governing body, and comprises a planning cycle of three years.

The planning cycle involves the following steps:

1. Formulating a vision and mission of the school
2. Auditing or strength, weaknesses, opportunities and treats (SWOT) analysis
3. Setting of targets for the school's performance
4. Action plan or school improvement plan (SIP –annually) by SMT of the school
5. Implementation and monitoring of the school
6. Evaluation of the school
7. Review of findings and implementation of recommendations for improvement in the school.

Furthermore, in terms of the national policy on Whole School Evaluation (WSE) (2000b:6-7), school evaluation would be conducted according to an agreed national model. The policy sets out the legal basis for school evaluation, its purposes, what is to be evaluated, who can carry out evaluations and how the evaluation process should be administered and funded. It also provides guidance on how evaluation should be conducted.

In fact the policy aims at improving the overall quality of education in South Africa schools.

WSE is meant to be supportive and developmental rather than punitive and judgemental. However, it will have to ensure that national and local policies are complied with. Its main purpose is to facilitate improvement of schools' performance through approaches of partnership, collaboration, mentoring and guidance. The policy also provides the means by which schools can carry out self-evaluation in order to enter into a fruitful dialogue with supervisors and support services.

The key areas for evaluation in terms of WSE (2000b:6) are:

- basic functionality of the school;
- leadership, management and communication;
- governance and relationships;
- quality of teaching and learning and educator development;
- curriculum achievement;
- learner achievement;
- school's safety, security and discipline;
- school infrastructure; and
- Parent and community involvement.

Furthermore, WSE is regarded as the first step in the process of school improvement and quality enhancement. This is to be achieved through a partnership between trained and accredited supervisors, schools and support services at one level, and national and provincial governments at another.

In addition, the policy of WSE forms part of the transformation of education in South Africa. One of its intentions is to develop a world-class education system that can meet the challenges of the twenty-first century.

Lastly, an important shift in terminology is that from “inspection” to “whole-school evaluation”. WSE provides for self-evaluation (by the school) as well as external evaluation by supervisory units. It also provides for schools to receive advice and support in their continual efforts to improve their effectiveness. Its purpose is to evaluate the effectiveness with which all quality improvement initiatives are implemented and provide information aimed at strengthening their contributions to educational improvements.

### **3.10.1 WSE and quality assurance**

WSE is perceived as the cornerstone of the quality assurance system in schools. It enables a school and external supervisors to provide an account of the school’s current performance and to show to what extent it meets national goals and needs of the public and communities. This approach provides the opportunity for acknowledging the achievements of a school on occasion through commendations, and for identifying areas that need attention. WSE implies the need for all schools to look continually for ways of improving, and the commitment of government to provide development programmes designed to support their efforts as stated by WSE (Department of Education, 2000b:5). In addition school management must know what they have committed themselves to and what action has to be taken.

In addition, the national policy on WSE intends to achieve effective quality assurance through ensuring that schools have well-developed internal self-evaluation processes, credible external evaluations and well-structured support services.

### **3.10.2 Principles of WSE**

In short, the policy is based on the following principles as indicated by WSE (Department of Education, 2000b:6-7):

- The core functions of schools are to improve the education achievements of all learners. WSE, therefore, is designed to enable schools, supervisors and support services to identify to what extent the school is adding value to learners' prior knowledge, understanding and skills.
- In addition, all members of a school community are responsible for the quality of their own performance. WSE intends to give proper recognition to the contribution made by staff, learners and other stakeholders to improve their own and the school's performance.
- All evaluation activities must be characterised by openness and collaboration. The criteria to be used in evaluating schools therefore must be made public.

Good quality whole-school evaluation must be standardised and consistent. The guidelines, criteria and instruments must ensure consistency over periods of time and across settings. The evaluation of qualitative and quantitative data is essential when deciding how well a school is performing. For this reason, whole school evaluation is concerned with the range of inputs, processes and outcomes. These include the vision of resources, human and physical, the quality of leadership and management, learning and teaching, and the standards achieved by learners.

- In fact, staff development and training are critical to school improvement. A measure used by whole-school evaluation in judging a school's performance is the amount and quality of in-service training undertaken by staff and its impact on learning and standards of achievement.
- Schools are inevitably at different stages of development. Many factors contribute to this. The policy recognises that schools in disadvantaged areas, for example, must not be disadvantaged in terms of the WSE.

### **3.11 QUALITY IMPROVEMENT TEAMS**

#### **3.11.1 The nature of quality improvement teams**

Teamwork is a major component of the quality improvement process and is second nature to world class organisations. Teams are part of the contemporary visionary and more reflective styles of management, which focus on consensus decision-making by teams generating quality products and services in a timely as stated by (Demichiell&Ryba, 1997:261).

Furthermore, the quality improvement team can be regarded as a key component and the building block to implementing TQM successfully and forms the primary focus for developmental activities within the school. Van Kradenburg (1995:33) views a quality improvement team as a quality group of people utilised by organisations to organise and to get work done.

At times quality improvement teams can comprise members of a single department, be cross-functional, and include representatives of either or both customers and suppliers. The characteristics of quality improvement teams are more varied than those of any other type of team, but typically include the following:

- Membership can be voluntary or mandatory and can comprise the line workers staff or a mixture of both. Some teams involve a complete range of personnel from different level in the organisational hierarchy.
- Projects can arise as a result of a variety of reasons such as a management initiative, a need to undertake some form of corrective action, a high incidence of defects, supplier/customer problems and an opportunity to improve.
- The team leader is appointed by management and briefed regarding objectives and time-scales.
- Quality improvement teams are more permanent than project teams but less so than quality circles. In some cases teams disband after project completion and in other situations they continue.
- Members are usually experienced personnel and well-versed in problem-solving skills and methods.
- The team is self-contained and can take whatever action is required to resolve the problem and improve the process.

- The assistance of a facilitator is sometimes required to provide, for example, advice on problem-solving, use of specific quality management tools and techniques or for keeping the team activity on course.

Moreover, Van Kradenburg (1995) describes the quality improvement team as a self-managing work team. There is a substantial difference between the traditional team and the quality improvement or self-managing work team. The traditional team lacks real engagement, ownership and control, while the quality improvement team is equipped to operate within a total quality environment. The quality improvement team is a self-directed or empowered management unit, which is based on the empowerment of people.

Teamwork is viewed as critically important because it creates a synergy of working together to add value to thinking, services and achievements. It is said that teamwork facilitates dynamic learning. Furthermore teams are the mechanism by which individual learning and personal mastery can be transferred to others. A crucial point is that teams tend to recognise and use complexity in a way that many individuals are unable to do. Through teamwork cross-functional issues can also be examined more effectively than when individuals act on their own. An example of such an issue might be how best to provide pastoral care and counselling in a school that cuts across year groupings, discipline interests and specialist interests.

### **3.11.2 The empowerment of quality improvement teams for school management**

Empowerment of people rests on the assumption that management and the people closest to the problem can best address organisational problems. To empower somebody is to allow individual development and growth, and to release the potential of each person. Work teams also allow for interactive empowerment, which is the ability to create and share power to enable others to be more effective.

Quality improvement teams are small groups of workers who are empowered to manage themselves as well as the work that they perform daily. This means that they are able to determine their own procedures, sub-goals,

objectives and ways of working. They are free to schedule, plan and control their own work, to address day-to-day problems at work, to take job-related decisions and to share particular leadership responsibilities.

The goals and objectives of the teams, however, must be congruent with the goals of the schools as a whole. Quality improvement teams are formal, permanent organisational structures empowered to achieve the goal of the school.

Furthermore, the empowerment of work teams goes hand in hand with the assignment of responsibilities to the team. This is a process of negotiation between top management and the team. Quality improvement teams are empowered progressively, as they receive ownership of the work they are doing. This ownership progresses on a continuum from normal working activities up to high-level responsibilities. The responsibilities of the team on the lower level of the continuum are close to the activities teachers normally do. At the other end of the scale quality improvement team undertakes as much as 80% of all possible responsibilities. These high level responsibilities include supervisory and group support functions such as the scheduling and assignment of work, the budget, performance appraisal, mentorship, discipline, supervision and control. As the quality improvement team develops and is progressively empowered, the responsibility and complexity increase.

### **3.11.3 Organisational restructuring and quality improvement teams**

Van Kradenburg (1995:36) asserts that one of the most prominent feature of TQM organisations is the reduction of hierarchical levels and the restructuring of the organisation into semi-autonomous or self-directed work teams. The reduced management levels enable organisations to devolve job-related decisions and responsibilities to lower levels. However, this conversion of an organisation from vertical bureaucratic stratification to a lateral structure represents a fundamental adjustment to organisational structure.

In addition, the structure that West-Burnham (1992:92-93) suggests comprises autonomous teams, which interact laterally with customers (parents, learners), with one another and with the centre (management).



Authority and responsibility are delegated to teams to carry out the tasks and assignments. The function of the centre (management) is to guide, to empower teams and to facilitate. Empowerment of quality improvement teams also encompasses the transition of the traditional management style of control to one of assistance and supportive supervision. The final responsibility and accountability, however, remain in the hands of the principal.

The design and composition of quality improvement teams depend on the school and the situation – they can be based, among others, on subject grouping, management skills or fields of expertise. The most prominent features are that teams communicate laterally and are close to internal and external customers.

The quality improvement team can therefore be regarded as a meaningful alternative to the autocratic top-down management style, which allows teachers to manage themselves.

### **3.12 CONCLUSION**

It is evident from this chapter that the TQM paradigm represents a fundamental change in thinking about management. TQM as a management approach focuses on quality, but achieving this must not be regarded as a quick-fix to management problems. TQM provides the philosophical framework for the management of organisation (schools) and requires a holistic approach for dealing with existing management practices. The application of this philosophy in practice requires a major effort and openness to innovative, fresh thinking about the current management of schools in positive way.

A key element of TQM is its service-orientation and its focus on the customer; its judgements are considered to be relevant to the application of TQM in Free State primary schools.

In the next chapter, the assessment practices are discussed.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **IMPLEMENTING ASSESSMENT PRACTICES IN ADVANCING EFFECTIVE TEACHING AND LEARNING**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

In the previous chapter the outline focus was on total quality management (TQM) as a phenomenon which may influence the quality assessment teams, as well as the use of TQM for schools and how it is important to be implemented. This is why TQM was regarded as an important means in ensuring quality assessment practices in schools because it deals with enhancing quality education. TQM is also more focused on the end product from a corporate point of view which can also be used in the school setting to produce quality teaching and learning as its results. TQM also focuses on the customer, who is the learner, who has the right to quality education. In this chapter the focus is on the assessment of, for and as learning, especially the role of the principal in ensuring the proper implementation of assessment practices, which is the key to the improvement of results. Assessment is pivotal because it determines the level of understanding of learners for the desired result of the school; therefore the principal should be the assessment leader at school.

#### **4.2 ASSESSMENT AND THE NEW CAPS CURRICULUM**

Literature indicates that assessment involves how learners' understanding should be measured by means of written or oral work. Thus the role of the principal is important, in particular as one of the stakeholders at school to ensure that all learners are assessed fairly by educators and given results on the assessed work done. The National Curriculum Statement assessment guidelines (2007:1) stipulate that assessment in the GET and FET bands should be achieved by at least one of the following purposes stated below:

- Identifying learners' needs
- Identifying learners' strengths and weaknesses
- Development of learners' knowledge, skills and values
- Providing additional support to learners
- Enabling educators to reflect on their own practices

- Revisiting or revising sections that learners have difficulties with
- Motivating and encouraging learners
- Providing information or data to a variety of stakeholders
- Demonstrating the effectiveness of the curriculum or teaching strategy.

Emanating from the purpose of assessment guidelines, Pahad (1997:5) recognises that assessment involves three steps. The first step is the assessment tasks that the learner must complete. The second step is the collection of evidence of the learner's performance and the evaluation of this evidence against agreed standards by the assessor and, finally, recording the outcome of the assessment, as well as awarding a credit for the level of competence by the learner (Pahad, 1997:5). It is evident that learners should be assessed in a fair and transparent manner, but the principal should be the assessment leader as regards monitoring that proper guidelines are followed and implemented. As part of the collective, the principal's task should be supporting and helping educators to draw up an assessment programme, where educators should know when to assess formal and informal tasks, in ensuring quality assessment practices as stipulated by the National Assessment Protocol (DBE).

The researcher is of the view that to achieve the desired changes in education, assessment needs to be properly aligned with curriculum change and teaching practices. Van Rensburg (1998:82) identifies that an educator must move away from summative assessment at the end of a learning experience and utilise developmental assessment that is an on-going process. The researcher agrees with Van Rensburg's (1998:82) statement that assessment should be developmental, because the principal as an instructional leader should have an assessment plan that should be followed by everyone at school so that a developmental plan of action takes place continuously. This will also help learners know when they are going to be assessed so that they get ready to perform well.

Moreover, as Pahad (1997:10) notes, assessment is not a separate part of a learning experience; this means that assessment involves different types of assessment like continuous assessment and others so that learners are

assessed on a day-to-day basis. In addition, the principal as an assessment leader should ensure that all these types of assessments are applied in order to achieve the desired results to ensure that quality assessment is achieved. The assessment guidelines are also used as the criteria for assessing learners' work, to determine the level of their understanding; that is, that they have mastered a specific section of work, so that assessment can take place. The principal together with the school management team (SMT) should ensure that the assessed work is of quality for the sake of quality assurance.

Knight (1995:67) urges that one of the principles of assessment is that it should be an integral part of course design and not an aspect to be attached afterwards. Moreover, Potenza and Monyokolo (1999:234) agree with Knight that the mistake in the new curriculum was that attention was not given to the development of an assessment policy for ensuring quality assessment.

On one hand the principals were not involved or tasked to be assessment leaders so that they could have been hands-on as far as assessment is concerned; on the other, it is very important that our principals should become instructional leaders so that they are able to draw up their own assessment policy in collaboration with the staff.

### **4.3 TYPES OF ASSESSMENT**

Based on the new curriculum which assesses learning in totality, the focuses are on the assessment *of* learning, assessment *for* learning and assessment *as* learning. In the next paragraphs the different types of assessment that must be used for learning are discussed.

### **4.3.1 Assessment for learning**

Assessment for learning occurs throughout the learning process. It is designed to make teachers' understanding visible, so that they can decide what they can do to help learners progress. Learners acquire individual and idiosyncratic ways, yet at the same time, there are predictable patterns of connections and preconceptions that learners may experience as they move along the continuum from emergent to proficient.

Assessment Reform Group (ARG,1999:29-30) further states that in assessment for learning the wide variety of information that teachers collect about their learners' learning processes provides the basis for determining what they need to do next to move learner learning forward. It provides the basis for providing descriptive feedback to learners and deciding on group instructional strategies and resources.

#### **4.3.1.1 Teachers' roles in assessment for learning**

Assessment for learning occurs throughout the learning process. It is interactive with teachers as indicated as follows by ARG (1999:29-30): aligning instruction with the targeted outcomes; identifying particular learning needs of learners or groups; selecting and adapting materials and resources and creating differentiated teaching strategies and learning opportunities for helping individual learners move forward in their learning; as well as providing immediate feedback and direction to learners. Teachers also use assessment for learning to enhance learners' motivation and commitment to learning. When teachers commit to learning as the focus of assessment, they change the classroom culture to one of learner success. They make visible what learners believe to be true, and use that information to help them move forward in manageable, efficient and respectful ways.

#### **4.3.1.2 Planning assessment for learning**

In assessment for learning, the intent is to enhance learner learning. Teachers use assessment for learning to uncover what learners believe to be true and learn more about the connection learners are making, their prior knowledge, preconceptions, gaps and learning styles. Teachers use this information to structure and differentiate instruction and learning opportunities in order to

reinforce and build on productive learning, and to challenge beliefs or inhibit the next stage of learning. Teachers also use assessment for learning to enhance learners' motivation and commitment to learning as the focus of assessment; they change the classroom culture to one of learner success.

#### **4.3.1.3 Planning for CASS**

Assessment for learning further forms an integral part of successful teaching and learning. It should be well planned and co-ordinated to ensure quality assessment practices at school.

In addition, the review committee by Department of Education (2001:19) states that planning should be done at three levels. That is, at a school level (macro-planning), at a phase level (meso-planning) and in a day-to-day planning level (micro-planning). These levels are described in the next sections.

#### **4.3.1.4 Macro planning**

Macro planning is the planning that is done at school. Continuous assessment is the process of change in assessment.

Since the system of continuous assessment is new to educators, it can be useful if they plan in teams at school so as to help one another and also to avoid repetition. Le Grange and Reddy (1998:13-14) suggest that educators in a given grade can plan and work together across different learning areas. Different educators in one grade can focus on developing the learning outcomes suited to their particular learning area.

For example, a language educator may focus on assessing oral presentations, a Natural Science educator on practical skills, and so on. All the information about what the learner has done can be kept in a common portfolio, which can be used for continuous assessment by all educators. Every assessment method can be evaluated by the team of educators. In this way, the educators can improve the way in which they assess in future.

All schools should have an assessment policy which should address what the macro planning implications are for reporting to parents. What issues will parents expect to be reflected in the report cards at the end of the year as stated by the policy? (DoE, 2001:19).

#### **4.3.1.5 Meso-planning**

According to the Department of Education (2001:19), in meso planning educators in a phase focus on learning outcomes and assessment standards to be covered in every grade over a specific period and in every Learning Programme.

#### **4.3.1.6 Micro-planning**

The Department of Education review committee (2001:19) supports that micro-planning focuses on day-to-day assessment planning and implementation to ensure that assessment is integrated into teaching and learning.

Traditionally, educators were encouraged to use preparation books in which the lesson aims and objectives were noted. These aims were broad and general statements, open to various interpretations and they usually stated what the educator intended to do, as emphasised by Le Grange and Reddy (1998:13-14).

Unlike aims, outcomes are specific statements of expected learning. When educators plan their lessons or activities, their plans should include the outcomes they intend to achieve. These outcomes should be clear and observable, should be learner-oriented and should describe exactly what learners are expected to demonstrate at the end of the lesson. The outcome is stated in terms of what the learner will be expected to do at the end of the lesson, not what the educator is expected to do.

According to the statement above, Le Grange and Reddy (1998:13-14) state that educators decide what the learning process will consist of; that is, what teaching methods they will use or what activities learners will engage in to achieve the lesson outcomes. The educators should decide the assessment

method which is most appropriate to determine whether a learner has achieved the outcome.

For the outcome to be clear and observable, educators should use verbs that describe observable actions that enable them to assess outcomes. Verbs like name, explain, define, apply, evaluate, identify, distinguish, measure, draw and predict should be used. Verbs that are open to various interpretations should be avoided; verbs such as know, understand, appreciate, realise, discover, infer, grasp and so on. The teaching method the educator uses should lead to achieving the outcomes. If it does not, an alternative method should be used.

When planning assessment, educators should take into account the interrelatedness with learning outcomes and learning experiences. The Draft Revised National Curriculum Statement (2001:21) guides educators in planning for Continuous Assessment. Educators need to assess learners not only formally through marking their work, but also through assessing different kinds of written and oral work completed for examinations or tests, as well as performance assessment tasks. In planning for CASS, formative assessment plays an important role. Policy makers place great emphasis on portfolios as a tool for planning CASS; for example, a portfolio of a learner's work in a specific learning area provides a clear account of performance and progress. An educator has to develop an own framework based on policy guidelines in order to assess achievement in practical and functional ways. It will not always be possible to address all aspects of an outcomes-based learning programme. However, assessment achievement in an integrated assessment programme will address outcomes and supportive tasks, and assessment criteria for corresponding targets of knowledge, reasoning, skills, products and values.

#### **4.3.1.7 Assessment for learning methods**

In assessment for learning, as indicated by ARG (1999:30-30), teachers use focused observations, questioning, conversations, quizzes, computer-based assessments, learning logs or whatever other methods are likely to give them information that will be useful for their planning and their teaching. Every time



teachers plan an assessment for learning they need to think about what information the assessment is designed to expose and must decide which assessment approaches are most likely to give detailed information about what every learner is thinking and learning. The methods need to incorporate demonstrating their learning.

#### **4.3.1.8 Characteristics of assessment for learning (continuous assessment)**

As the National Curriculum Statement Assessment Guidelines (2007:11) state, continuous assessment is the chief method by which assessment for learning takes place. Assessment for learning takes place over a period of time and is on-going. Learning is assessed regularly and the records of learners' progress are updated throughout the year.

Furthermore, assessment for learning supports learners' growth and development. Learners become active participants in learning and assessment, they understand the criteria that are used for assessment activities, they are involved in self-assessment and set individual targets for themselves that reflect on their learning, thereby experiencing raised self-esteem.

Moreover, assessment for learning provides feedback on learning and teaching. Feedback is a crucial element in formative assessment. Methods of feedback include appropriate questioning; focusing the educator's oral and written comments on what was intended to be achieved by an assessment activity and the encouragement of learners.

Assessment for learning allows for integrated assessment, this may include assessing a number of related learning outcomes within a single activity and combining a number of different assessment methods. Competence in particular learning outcomes can be demonstrated in many different ways, and therefore a variety of assessment methods and opportunities must be provided through which learners can demonstrate their ability. All of these will help to indicate whether or not learners have achieved the desired outcomes.

Finally, the statement above agrees with the researcher's opinion that the principal should monitor that feedback from learning and teaching is made at school. The principal should have assessment activities that are made according to assessment plans of the school and that will improve the required results. The principal should ensure that quality assessment is achieved through corrections in the classroom.

#### **4.3.1.9 Advantages and disadvantages of assessment for learning**

The following advantages of assessment for learning are stated by ARG (1999:31). In assessment for learning there is provision for effective feedback to learners. There is an active involvement of learners in their own learning. Teaching is adjusted to take account of the results of assessment; there is recognition of the profound influence of assessment for learning and there is the need for learners to be able to assess their own work and understand how to improve.

The following are the disadvantages of assessment for learning: There is no provision of feedback to learners. There is no active involvement of learners in their own learning; there is a lack of adjusting teaching to take account of the consequences of assessment on the motivation and self-esteem of learners, both of which are critical influences on learning. There is no need for learners to assess their own work and to understand how to improve.

#### **4.3.1.10 Strategies of assessment for learning**

The following are the strategies of assessment for learning as identified by Gipps (1994:32): Learners learn from assessment when the teacher provides specific detailed feedback and direction to all learners to guide their learning. Feedback for learning is part of the learning process, the part that follows after the initial instruction has occurred, when information is provided on the way the learner has processed and interpreted the original material.

Feedback needs to be immediate and identify the way forward. It should not simply tell learners whether their answers are right or wrong; feedback must be descriptive and specific. Feedback for learning provides evidence that confirms or challenges an idea that a learner holds. Feedback encourages

learners to think about and respond to the suggestion and it focuses on both quality and learning.

#### **4.4 TYPES OF ASSESSMENT IN THE ASSESSMENT FOR LEARNING**

##### **4.4.1 Formative assessment**

According to the Assessment Reform Group (2002:12), assessment for learning should be part of effective planning; it should be central to classroom practice; it should promote understanding of goals and criteria.

Formative assessment is focused only on formal tasks to be recorded in the course of a term. Formal assessment tasks focus on a few learning outcomes and assessment standards. As the National Curriculum Statement Assessment Guidelines (2007:10) notes, tasks or activities are recorded for purposes of progression and promotion and for ensuring quality assessment. Formative assessment should help both learners and the principal to know their weakness and strengthens to ensure quality assessment practices at school.

Furthermore, the principal as an instructional leader should ensure that formative assessment provides formative information both to educator and learner, the principal should do this according to the assessment policy of the school. According to Harris and Bell (1994:99), formative assessment uses the process of assessment as well as the results to influence the learning process, whereas summative assessment is used to determine whether a learner has achieved the required competencies.

Maree and Frazer (2004:34) also support the statement above by Harris and Bell that formative assessment is integral to learning and occurs throughout learning. This form of assessment is supportive and non-judgemental and focuses on providing constructive criticism to learners by applying knowledge in ensuring quality assessment.

Also, as Oliver (1998:67) recognises, formative assessment influences principals as instructional leaders to provide corrective actions since instruction is intended to enhance learning. Learners who cannot do well

should get feedback as well as support to achieve the required standard. The principal as an instructional leader should ensure quality assurance by collaborating with the learners.

Kotze (1999:31) further states that, for learners to meet the challenges of a highly competitive world education, institutions must have an on-going commitment to an appropriate and relevant curriculum. Quality teaching and learning requires effective assessment practice and reporting.

Learners therefore need continual support as they strive to reach their highest possible standards of achievement as indicated by the Department of Education, background information for educators (1997:28).

In short, the principal as an instructional leader should develop educators to let them know that formative assessment is very important in our curriculum and that, when it is appropriately conducted, it produces quality results.

The Department of Education circular no. 22 (2002:7) notes that formative assessment indicates which assessment tools, methods and techniques are appropriate for particular learners. Formative assessment helps educators to adapt teaching strategies and methods during lesson time to bring about greater understanding and learning. Formative assessment thus fulfils a learning function.

The principal as an instructional leader ensures that there is proper and thorough preparation for formative assessment through activities that ensure quality assessment that benefits learners.

In addition Brown, Race and Smith (1996:16) contend that formative assessment can help to plan future learning experience; this means that educators can diagnose whether learners are experiencing problems. Principals as assessment leaders should know that assessment is used for the improvement rather than grading of learners' work.

Formative assessment therefore occurs when comments are provided to the learners to bring about an improvement in their submitted work. Formative assessment thus provides feedback to learners about their work and understanding of central concepts, in order to motivate them to improve their acquisition of knowledge and consolidate past work.

Brown, et al. (1996:17) further state that feedback may also assist both the learner and the educator in determining how learning occurs. The learner should be able to use it to clarify misunderstandings and to improve future work and the educator may use it to ascertain which aspects of the learning have been understood and which need further explanation. The next section deals with continuous assessment.

#### **4.4.2 Continuous assessment**

According to Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall and William (2003:5) assessment for learning is of quality when a teacher is able to provide descriptive feedback.

Continuous assessment means assessing in an on-going way. This indicates that the whole range of class work and homework can be acknowledged. The role of the principal as an instructional leader is to ensure that the learner's entire work will be given the status and value reserved for examinations and written tests in ensuring quality assessment at school when learners are assessed throughout the year, educators can record how well they work in everyday conditions (Pahad, 1997:10). Harris and Bell (1994:102) agree with Pahad that with continuous assessment one assesses periodically throughout a learning process. This should be done to warrant quality assurance in the learning process.

The principal as an assessment leader should make sure that assessment for learning is continuous at school and that parents of learners are invited to school from time to time. Herman (1992:75) asserts that, through the assessment process, learners should develop the skills and understanding they need to learn so as to continue their progress in the world of further learning and training.

The Assessment Reform Group (2002:1) views continuous assessment for learning as follows:

- It provides feedback on the learning outcomes that learners have achieved and those that have not been achieved.
- It assists with identifying the strengths and weaknesses of learners.
- It encourages communication between educators and learners.
- It works hand in hand with evaluation.
- It provides important information about curriculum issues such as teaching methods and the relevance of learning outcomes and resources.

In addition, the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) (2002:61) declares that internal moderation should be done at an institution to ensure that equality assessment is consistent, accurate and well designed. Furthermore, assessment for learning is criterion-referenced and has a more formative than summative nature.

Continuous assessment is assessment that occurs throughout the period of learning to ensure quality teaching and learning.

Sieborger and Macintosh (1998:25) also add that educators use continuous assessment for summative purposes because they are not monitored by the School Management Team (SMT) and the principal of the school. It is very important that an assessment plan is drawn up along with the assessment policy that will inform educators when to record learners' marks for quality assurance.

As stated by Malan (1997:24), assessment practices can also assist in the following ways to:

- Assist learners in making choices about subjects or career paths.
- Determine whether learners have acquired knowledge and skills and have grasped the concepts they were supposed to.
- Evaluate the effectiveness of a learning programme or process.
- Place learners in particular grades or courses.
- Identity learning strengths, weakness or problems.

- Inform learners of individual progress and development.

Good educators are good assessors; educators and principals have to be aware of learners' progress so that they can report to parents. Continuous assessment monitors the learners' progress toward achieving outcomes and both educator and learner get regular feedback and progress updates.

Le Grange and Reddy (1998:10) further add that learners are continuously motivated and stimulated, meaning that the feedback learners get from their educators help much to ensure quality assessment practices.

Furthermore, assessment for learning provides valuable formative feedback, can reduce stress and can motivate both learners and teachers to measure their achievement; the principal as an instructional leader should ensure that quality assessment is achieved.

Harris and Bell (1994:102-103) argue that continuous assessment is focused on the learner's needs, meaning that learners are expected to perform to the level of satisfaction so that their needs are addressed. The principal as an assessment leader should ensure that learners are taught according to the assessment guidelines so that they cover the scope of work within the given time.

Moreover, Van der Heuvel (1996:174) argues that assessment for learning should move from passive to active, from static to dynamic, from certainty to uncertainty and from problems at different levels to answers at different levels. Assessment should be fair instead of being subjective. This suggests in the Department of Education circular no. 22 (2002:3) that assessment for learning should gather valid and reliable information about the performance of the learner on an on-going basis, against clearly defined criteria using a variety of methods, tools, techniques and contexts, recording the findings, reflecting and reporting on them by giving positive, supportive and motivational feedback to learners, educators, parents and other stakeholders. Mackrory (1996:17) declares that in order to provide feedback that is authentic and relevant to the learner, both the educator and learner need to be aware of criteria that will be used in the assessment processes to ensure quality assessment practices.

Educators should further monitor the learners' progress through an area of learning so that skills, values, knowledge and attitudes are developed. Assessment provides information about learning difficulties and the remedial action necessary to support learners in how they may be experiencing learning difficulties as stated by circular no. 22 (2002:4).

Finally, the principal as an assessment leader should ensure that educators have given learners enough activities that are related to their work for quality assurance and control. The instructional leader should motivate learners to achieve high for quality teaching and learning.

#### **4.4.3 Baseline assessment**

In assessment for learning the educator uses at the beginning a new set of learning activities in order to find out what learners already know and can demonstrate to decide what level of demands to build into the learning experience plan as stated by review committee report (2001:14). This type of assessment helps learners to apply knowledge by remembering what they first learnt about.

#### **4.4.4 Norm-referenced assessment**

Maree and Frazer (2004:50) and Le Grange and Reddy (1998:4) state that this assessment indicates performance in terms of the relative position held in a specific group (for example, to perform better than 90 per cent of the class members). Norm-referenced interpretations may relate to local, provincial or national groups depending on the use to be made of the results. Norm-referenced grading is based on comparing learners to one another. The function of every learner's grade is to indicate how the learner performed in comparison with other learners in a specific grouping. This is to determine how well the learners are doing by comparing their pass marks or bench marks. This approach does not say much about what the learners have mastered or understood, but seems to focus on how much of the content knowledge the learner knows. Norm-referenced assessment is most frequently associated with summative assessment.



#### **4.4.5 Educator assessment**

In assessment for learning teachers collaborate. The assessment policy for (1998:16) declares that teachers have the overall responsibility to assess the learners' progress in achieving the expected specific outcomes. This implies that educators have to consider the fact that a learner is now at a focal point of the system unlike in the past. Both the assessor and the assessment activity must now be geared to the needs of a learner so that no barriers to further learning are created. If an educator uses assessment as stipulated by legislation, the transparency of an access to the assessment will be assured as shown by Prinsloo and Van Rooyen (2003:88-89).

Prinsloo and Van Rooyen (2003:88-89) further state that educators have to be sensitive to transformation. Educators should respect learners' diversity at linguistic, gender, racial and cultural levels. Because educators hold powerful positions, they have to identify learners' needs and strengths in order to adapt their methods of instruction accordingly.

Lubisi (1999:68) believes that when an educator designs an assessment strategy, it is important clearly to indicate the times during the term or the semester or the year when particular assessment instruments would be administered to learners. It means what the educators' and learners' roles would be in each of the assessment instruments administered. Where certain assessment instruments are related, such relationships have to be clearly explained. Lubisi (1999:68) further states that it is possible to use one assessment method for different outcomes, and it is also possible to assess learners in one outcome using various methods of assessments. It is then up to educators to select what they think would be useful when designing their assessment strategy.

Also, in identifying the following skills or roles of the educator as an assessor it is understood that the assessment is an essential part of the teaching and learning process and they would know how to execute the process; will have an understanding of the purpose, method and effects of assessment and provide helpful feedback to the learners; will design and manage both summative and formative assessment in ways that are appropriate to the level

and purpose of the learning and meeting the requirements of accrediting bodies, will keep detailed and diagnostic records of assessment; and will understand how to interpret and use assessment results to feed into the process for the improvement of learning programmes.

In support, Maree and Fraser (2004:128) argue that when assessing, educators must make sure that learners have everything they need before assessment begins to assess what the learners know and can do. They must give learners enough time for completing assessment tasks and make sure that they understand the instructions. If the work is to be done at home, educators must make sure that learners have a place to work at home, otherwise they must be given time to work at school to ensure quality assessment practises.

In brief, it is the responsibility of educators to give information about school assessments that should be used by stakeholders who, in turn, should make important decisions. Educators must ensure that the information given to the stakeholders is accurate and reliable. With this in mind, they will be competent assessors and record keepers as recommended by Prinsloo and Van Rooyen (2003:88).

#### **4.4.6 Peer assessment**

According to Black and William (1998:139-148), in assessment for learning learners learn in individual and idiosyncratic ways. Jacobs *et al.* (2000:285) add that a peer is someone who is either the same age or in a similar position. The Department of Education review committee report (2001:26) and Macmillan (2004:19) define peer assessment as a process of using learners to determine one another's performance and achievements against clearly defined criteria that will ensure quality assessment.

Peer assessment may fall under the following categories: learner to learner: that is, where two learners assess each other's performance; learner to group: that is, where the performance of a group is assessed by each learner; class to learner: that is, when the whole class assesses performance of other

learners individually; group to learner: that is, when a group in a class assesses an individual learner's product; group to group: that is, when groups within one class assess one another's performance.

Peer assessment is therefore an alternative to using an educator as the sole judge and also helps the learners to develop the skills that they need to assess their own progress. It can occur formally or informally. Informal verbal comments from some learners about other learners' ideas can be extremely useful as they may lead the learner to rethink and reassess an original idea. In this way peer assessment can ensure a valuable quality contribution to the learner's learning process as stated by Le Grange and Reddy (1998:19).

Also, as Gultiget al. (1998:29) add, by assessing their own work, learners will develop better understanding of where they have gone wrong. This assessment enables learners to keep track of their own learning. Learners will move away from only being interested in their marks to being interested in why they have done well or badly. It will also place learners in a powerful position to contest judgements made by educators as a result of assessment. Educators will, in theory, no longer have the monopoly in making decisions about their learners on the basis of assessment.

It is, however, also important for the educator to state learning outcomes and assessment criteria clearly before learners begin to assess themselves so that they do not argue for passing a classmate who clearly cannot do the task that has been defined as a required outcome. This could devalue their learning when a learner who has not achieved the desired outcomes is accredited.

This suggests that the desired outcomes and assessment criteria being made available to learners allows them to continuously assess their own progress toward the achievement of those outcomes. The difference between CAPS and traditional assessment is that in the past:

- What had to be assessed was not clearly spelt out before the learners began to answer questions.

- What they had to know was vaguely specified (for example, “You need to understand chapter 2 for a test”).
- What learners had to learn was often narrowly defined as ‘content to be mastered’ rather than focusing on skills and attitudes.

To capture briefly, peer assessment is one of the outcomes-based assessments that does not only concern itself with whether learners ‘know that’ but also concerned with whether learners ‘know how’ for ensuring quality assessment.

#### **4.4.7 Parental assessment**

Tomlinson (1999:2) describes parental assessment for learning as a way of providing feedback on learner learning and ideas for support. Archer et al.(2004:118) add that parents are too often told, rather than asked, about their children’s performance. Yet their opinions of their children are based on observations over the lifespan of their children and in comparison with the parents of other children. It is also the instinct of a parent which most frequently detects needs, difficulties or problems before any professionals notice them. This valuable source of information should be tapped early on. Arranging visits by parents also gives the educator information and better understanding of the home systems in which their learners function.

Moreover, as Bester (2001:50) states, the education of children is a joint responsibility of educators and parents. Parents are in partnership with the school; therefore parents should be involved in assessing their child’s performance or level of competency.

Some parents are illiterate and cannot be expected to write assessment comments. If the parent can read and write, the following procedure gives an idea of how parents can be involved in assessment:

- Send a learner’s work home at the end of a programme organiser.
- Ask the parent to discuss the programme organiser with the child, so that the child explains what the class did during the learning experience.

- Let the parent complete the assessment form after having discussed the learning experience with the child.

Finally, at the first parent-educator meeting of the year, explain to parents what is expected of them with regard to assessing their children's work or performance. Tell them that you will send work home at the end of a learning experience. Tell them what they should look for and which questions they should ask their children, for example:

- Did you enjoy the work?
- Which part did you enjoy most?
- Which part did you enjoy least?
- What did you do well?
- What did you struggle with?

Bester (2001:51) believes that parents can then report on their children's responses at a following parent-educator meeting. They should be guided to make suggestions on learning experiences based on their children's answers. To accommodate parents who cannot attend these meetings, invite them for an interview at a mutually convenient time.

Spady and Schlebusch (1999:53) further recommend that parents can also be involved in continuous assessment by commenting on the work of their children in the portfolios. Educators should regularly send the portfolio home and provide parents with opportunities to comment and take part in the learning process. In fact, it is advisable for parents to set time aside to go through the portfolio in detail, to find aspects to comment on and admire and to listen to the child to ensure quality learning.

Spady and Schlebusch (1999:54) also suggest the following example of how parents can make informed comments on their children's work:

- I like your index page - it's neat and clear.
- I see you are really good at writing your own sentences now.
- Tell me what you like in this piece.
- What would you do differently next time?

#### **4.5 ASSESSMENT PRACTICES IN ASSESSMENT FOR LEARNING**

List of research project topics and materials

In assessment for learning there is allowance for a range of performance and opportunities for learners to demonstrate what they know and can do. Assessment is based on the outcomes that are on-going, meaning that learners' performance is observed continuously.

Assessment involves learners actively pursuing relevant knowledge in a real life context. It makes use of reflection and regular feedback, with timely interventions when needed.

Malan (1997:30) agrees that the keyword in assessment is demonstration. Learners should demonstrate their knowledge, ability, competence or proficiency and it is up to the educators to judge the quality of such demonstration.

Van der Horst and McDonald (1997:167) add that assessment is not a process that educators should think about at the end of a unit of work, but it must be an integral part of all planning, presentation and preparation. The principal as an assessment leader, together with the SMT, should ensure that educators plan and prepare themselves so that the desired outcomes are achieved.

According to GIED (2004:241), assessment is a strategy for measuring knowledge, behaviour or performance, values or attitudes. Assessment in the CAPS for Grades R-9 is a continuous, planned process of gathering information about the performance of learners, measured against the assessment standards of the learning outcomes. It requires clearly defined criteria and a variety of appropriate strategies enable educators to give constructive feedback to learners and to report to parents and other interested people.

Maree and Frazer (2004:18) also state that through assessment, for the sake of quality assurance, both educators and learners are able to determine whether the learning outcomes have been achieved.

#### **4.6 PRINCIPLES OF ASSESSMENT PRACTICES IN ASSESSMENT FOR LEARNING**

In assessment for learning as part of assessment practices, teachers should allow learners to clearly understand and be involved in the assessment process.

Assessment in CAPS is outcomes-based. To ensure that the assessment in CAPS is in line with the principles of the National Curriculum Statement and that there is equality of opportunity and no discrimination or bias in respect of gender, race, disability or even social class, the following principles as outlined by Prinsloo and Van Rooyen (2003:34-36) must be adhered to:

- Transparency;
- Validity;
- Reliability;
- Consistency;
- Sufficiency and manageability;
- Practicability; and
- Fairness and flexibility.

#### **4.6.1 Transparency**

In assessment for learning, teachers should set assessment tasks that are clear. A process is transparent when it is clear to everyone who uses it. So, the assessment process must be clear and open to the learners; they must have a right to question and appeal the assessment procedure.

#### **4.6.2 Validity**

Assessment for learning must assess what it claims to assess. Educators as assessors should be fully aware of what is to be assessed as indicated by the unit standard or learning programme, the performance outcomes and the assessment criteria. Evidence is collected from activities and tasks that must be clearly related the capability or performance outcomes specified for the learning programme or unit standard.

Evidence should further demonstrate that performance outcomes have been reached and is gathered in an integrated fashion within the context of work to be done. Assessment procedures, methods, instruments and materials have to match what is being assessed. The kind and amount of evidence required

should determine the assessment that should be used and selected. The assessment should be within the parameters of what is required, not less and or more than required by the unit standard or learning programme. Also, as Prinsloo and Van Rooyen (2003:35) added, to achieve validity in assessment, assessors should:

- state clearly what outcome(s) is(are) being assessed,
- use an appropriate type or source of evidence,
- use an appropriate method of assessment,
- select an appropriate instrument of assessment to ensure quality assessment practices at school.

#### **4.6.3 Reliability**

In assessment for learning teachers are always looking for evidence and a description of every learner's way of understanding the concepts. Prinsloo and Van Rooyen (2003:35) add that reliability in assessment refers to the same judgements being made in the same or similar context every time a particular assessment for a specified, stated intention is administered. Reliability instils confidence that the interpretation is consistent from one candidate to another and from one context to another. To ensure reliability, high standards should be set. The process of assessment should be well documented, and unambiguous procedures should be in place. However, to avoid discrepancy in judgements, assessments should ensure that every time an assessment is administered the same or similar conditions prevail and the procedures, methods, instruments and practices are the same or similar.

#### **4.6.4 Consistency**

Assessment for learning should produce consistent results. To ensure consistency it is important that the assessment procedures are simple, clear and well documented. The assessment criteria should be clear and unambiguous and assessors should be well trained and consistently briefed for their tasks. Multiple assessors and panels must be used and multiple parallel forms of evidence are used to measure the same capabilities.

#### **4.6.5 Fairness and flexibility**



Assessment for learning is fair if it does not disadvantage anyone. It should be accessible to all people regardless of age, gender, ethnicity, disability, language barriers and geographic location. The assessment process should be transparent, clear and available to everyone. All learners should understand exactly what is being assessed. Assessment practices should be flexible enough to accommodate the scope of knowledge and skills covered by the assessment criteria, variation in context, the range of needs and personal circumstances of all potential candidates.

#### **4.6.6 Sufficiency**

Assessment for learning requires that there must be enough evidence to assess the learners. For example, one question for one test is not enough to judge whether a learner can make the grade. The assessment must be sufficiently rigorous to challenge learners to show what they know, can think or do.

#### **4.6.7 Manageability**

Special care should be taken not to overburden learners or an educator with the number of assessments or requirements for assessment tasks.

### **4.7 ASSESSMENT OF LEARNING**

Assessment of learning refers to strategies designed to confirm what learners know, demonstrate whether or not they have met curriculum outcomes or the goals of their individualised programs, or to certify proficiency and make a decision about learners' future programmes or placements. It is designed to provide evidence of achievement to parents, other educators, the learners themselves and sometimes to outside groups (e.g. employers, other education institutions).

According to Linn and Gronlund (2000:55), assessment of learning is the assessment that becomes public and results in statements or symbols of how well learners are learning. It often contributes to pivotal decisions that will affect learners' futures. It is important that the underlying logic and measurement of assessment of learning be credible and defensible.

#### **4.7.1 Teachers' roles in assessment of learning**

Effective assessment of learning requires that teachers provide the following, as recommended by Linn and Gronlund (2000:56):

- A rationale for undertaking a particular assessment of learning at a particular point in time
- Clear descriptions of the intended learning
- Processes that make it possible for learners to demonstrate their competence and skill
- A range of alternative mechanisms for assessing the same outcomes
- Public and defensible reference points for making judgements
- Transparent approaches to interpretation
- Descriptions of the assessment process
- Strategies for recourse in the event of disagreement about the decisions. With the help of their teachers, learners can look forward to assessment of learning tasks as occasions to show their competence, as well as the depth and breadth of their learning.

#### **4.7.2 Planning assessment of learning**

The purpose of assessment of learning is to measure, certify and report the level of learners' learning, so that reasonable decisions can be made about them. There are many potential users of the information as indicated by Marzano (2000:59):

- teachers (who can use the information to communicate with parents about their children's proficiency and progress)
- parents and learners (who can use the results for making education and vocational decisions)
- potential employers and post-secondary institutions (who can use the information to make decisions about hiring or acceptance)
- principals, district or divisional administrators and teachers (who can use the information to review and revise programming).

Assessment of learning requires the collection and interpretation of information on learners' accomplishments in important curricular areas in ways that represent the nature and complexity of the intended learning.

Because genuine learning for understanding is much more than just recognition or recall of facts or algorithms, assessment of learning tasks need to enable learners to show the complexity of their understanding. Learners need to be able to apply key concepts, knowledge, skills and attitudes in ways that are authentic and consistent with current thinking in the knowledge domain.

#### **4.7.3 Assessment of learning methods**

In the assessment of learning, the methods chosen need to address the intended curriculum outcomes and the continuum of learning that is required to reach the outcomes. The methods must allow all learners to show their understanding and produce sufficient information to support credible and defensible statements about the nature and quality of their learning, so that others can use the results in appropriate ways. According to Marzano (2000:59), assessment of learning methods include not only tests and examinations, but also a rich variety of products and a demonstration of learning: portfolios, exhibitions, performances, presentations, multimedia projects and a variety of their of other written, oral and visual methods. Assessment of learning needs to be very carefully constructed so that the information on which decisions are made is of the highest quality.

Assessment of learning is designed to be summative and to produce defensible and accurate descriptions of learners' competence in relation to defined outcomes and, occasionally, in relation to other learners and assessment results. Certification of learners' proficiency should be based on a rigorous, reliable, valid and equitable process of assessment and evaluation.

#### **4.7.4 Characteristics of assessment of learning**

ARG (1999:10) identifies the following characteristics:

- Assessment of learning comes at the end of learning.
- Assessment of learning aims to assess knowledge and understanding at a given point in time.
- Assessment of learning is static and one way the teachers or examiner casually judge the learner.

- Assessment of learning follows a set of pre-defined questions.
- Assessment of learning can be used by teachers within and outside their school.
- Tests and examinations are marked outside the school.

#### **4.7.5 Advantages and disadvantages of assessment of learning**

The following are the advantages of assessment of learning as stated by ARG (1999:13):

- In the assessment of learning teachers are able to communicate effectively with learners.
- It calls for teachers to understand and be able to articulate the nature of the progress being aimed at.
- Assessment of learning calls for teachers to be skilled at using a range of methods to assess learners' learning.
- Assessment of learning calls for learners to be actively engaged in monitoring their own progress.
- Assessment of learning calls for teachers to adopt manageable recording procedures that enable them to keep track of every learner's learning, without feeling obliged to record everything.

**The following are the disadvantages of the assessment of learning:**

- There is a lack of effective communication between teachers and learners.
- It does not call for the articulation of the progress aimed at.
- It does not call for teachers to be skilled at using a range of methods to assess learners' learning.
- There is an inactive engagement of learners in monitoring their own progress.
- Recording procedures are not followed that enable teachers to keep track of every learner's learning without feeling obliged to record everything.

#### **4.7.6 Strategies of assessment of learning**

The following are the strategies of assessment of learning as stated by Marzano (2000:59):

- In assessment of learning, the methods chosen need to address the intended curriculum outcomes and the continuum of learning that is required to reach the outcomes.
- In assessment of learning, methods must allow all learners to show their understanding and produce sufficient information to support credible and defensible statements about the nature or quality of their learning.
- Assessment of learning comes at the end of a learning cycle; feedback to learners has a less obvious effect on learners learning than assessment as learning.
- Learners rely on their marks and on teachers' comments as indicators of their level of success, and to make decisions about their future learning endeavours.

#### **4.8 KEY ELEMENTS IN THE PROCESS OF ASSESSMENT**

There are key elements that educators need to consider in their process of conducting the assessment of learning in schools. Gallie (1999:29) identifies five of them, namely:

- Planning;
- Teaching;
- Recording;
- Reporting;
- Evaluating.

##### **4.8.1 Planning**

According to Linn and Gronlund (2000:15), in planning assessment of learning the principal must be able to use information to communicate with parents about their children's proficiency and progress.

Planning for assessment of learning involves identifying clear learning outcomes for every series of teaching, which will relate to the defined attainment outcomes in the learning programmes concerned and to any other outcomes the school might have determined for its learners. Educators will

also take into account existing circumstances, learners' previous experience, existing teaching experience and teaching plans. This will sometimes involve close liaison with other schools and professionals as well as communication within the school and with parents. Planning also involves clear learning outcomes, appropriate to the needs of learners, from the focus of assessment. Educators, learners and parents should all be aware of their significance in assessment in ensuring quality assessment practices at school.

#### **4.8.2 Teaching**

Marzano (2000:15) identifies that, in assessment of learning, the methods chosen need to address the intended curriculum outcomes and the continuum of learning that is required to reach the outcomes. It also involves a variety of products and demonstrations of learning.

In summary, educators have to find out whether learning outcomes are being attained and how learners are going about learning in order to help them to modify teaching as required. They do this by observing, discussing and judging learners' work. From time to time, for example, at the end of a unit of work, they will plan to set special tasks, either of their own devising or externally provided to find out whether outcomes have been achieved. Teachers should retain some evidence of a variety of different types of learners' attainment to ensure quality assessment practices.

#### **4.8.3 Recording**

Marzano (2000:16) states that teachers' approaches chosen for assessment of learning, are their records that provide details about the quality of the measurement. It is, however, very important that it should include supporting evidence to the outcomes as a justification.

This involves occasional recording of summary statements of every learner's progress possibly in the form of descriptive notes. This recording process has to be manageable, but the record is important as a basis for future decisions about teaching, for giving learners feedback about overall progress, for reporting to parents and other educators and for giving the principal

information on attainments in class. The principal as an institutional leader should encourage this for quality teaching and learning at school.

#### **4.8.4 Reporting**

Also, as Marzano (2000:16) indicates, reports to parents and others should identify the intended learning that the report covers, the assessment methods used to gather the supporting information and the criteria used to make the judgement.

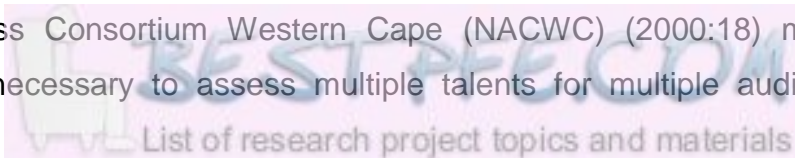
Reporting involves ensuring in the course of teaching that the learners receive oral or written comments on their work and advice on how to proceed with their tasks. It also involves reporting to parents and other educators in a way that is constructive and helpful to the learners' learning in the next stage of schoolwork.

#### **4.8.5 Evaluating**

According to Torrance and Pryor (1998:3), in the evaluation of the assessment of learning, teachers are revisiting their views about how children learn and what role teachers play in supporting learning for learners. Evaluation involves consideration of all assessment information available, formal and informal, to review teaching already undertaken and to plan future teaching. Learners, particularly older learners, may also be involved in reviewing some of the assessment evidence in order to evaluate their own progress for quality assurance.

### **4.9 ISSUES IN ASSESSMENT**

According to O'Connor (1999:14), assessment of learning is the assessment that becomes public and results in statements that become public and results in statements or symbols about how well learners are learning. Assessment is significant because it includes methods of assessment and types of tests that should be given to learners. The Outcomes-Based System focuses on helping a variety of learners to achieve learning outcomes as indicated by the National Access Consortium Western Cape (NACWC) (2000:18) multiple methods are necessary to assess multiple talents for multiple audiences.



Knight (1995:78) further states that there will always remain a degree of subjectivity in assessment, but the effect is greatly reduced by the processes of formulating clear criteria and the use of detailed marking schemes.

In the assessment of learning, as stated by Van Rensburg (1998:86), it is noted that assessment should be valid and tasks must reflect knowledge. Reliability assessment for learning depends on how accurate, consistent, fair and free from bias and distortion the assessment is. This is supported by Sieborger and Macintosh (1998:11-12) who believe that assessment may be regarded as valid if it measures what it is supposed to measure or if it does what it is meant to do.

Sutton (1995:12-13) points out that assessors' interpretations of assessment criteria might differ, but that assessors, to be fair to their learners, should overcome this by talking to one another about it. Torrance (1995:99-101) declares that, owing to the fact that institutions compete against one another for learner numbers and funding in the United Kingdom, inter-institution co-operation has been reduced to the minimum.

Luckett (1999:11) notes that teams can be formed to develop teaching confidence and competence via collaborative planning, critical reflection and evaluation. Emanating from this statement, it is the responsibility of the principals to work together in a cluster so that teamwork can be established.

The next discussion is on recording and reporting on learners' performance.

#### **4.9.1 Recording and reporting on learners' performance**

According to Marzano (2000:19), in the assessment of learning, when teachers keep records that are detailed and descriptive, they are in an excellent position to provide meaningful reports and other feedback. Reporting on the assessment of learning must be appropriate for the audiences to whom it is intended, for them to make reasoned decisions.

As the Department of Education on National Assessment Policy circular no. 5 (2000:7) states, educators should follow a certain process for recording



learners' success, which includes day-to-day recording. This process will provide learners with feedback on their achievement and progress.

The feedback must describe what the learners can do and where they need to improve. The educator can also comment on these recordings. The educator should also maintain formal records that include the summative and formative records based on all these various day-to-day performance records that have been gathered. It will assist them in making valid and reliable judgement and reports about learners' performance and progress on a continuous basis.

Le Grange and Reddy (1998:101) add that recording and reporting are essential elements to ensure the successful implementation of continuous assessment, though Smith (2002:56) states that these tasks have been difficult for practising educators. It was also realised that the recording of learners' performance proved to be a challenging practice for educators.

However, if it is true that educators experience problems with assessment, it is because the SMT and the principal as an assessment leader do not hold staff development meetings at school to advise educators about the importance of assessment records. Educators are only work shopped by the learning facilitator when they attend workshops. It is also very important that at school level educators should be encouraged to do assessment records immediately after they have assessed learners; this should be monitored from time to time according to the assessment plan.

It is most important that a school assessment policy is developed and followed. As the Department of Education's circular no. 22 (2002:10) states, level descriptors should be pursued in order to express learner performance and they must be clear and comprehensive to relevant stakeholders.

GIED (2004:245) notes that educators should provide comments on every learning area with special emphasis on learners who have exceeded the requirements. It is very important that comments should be made by different educators because this will help parents and learners understand the level of performance and encourage learners to improve their performances.

The next discussion is on recording national assessment codes.

#### 4.9.2 Recording national assessment codes

In the assessment of learning, recording the national assessment codes are very important because they determine the codes and percentages for recording and reporting in Grades R-6 as shown on Table 4.1 below.

**Table 4.1: Recording National Assessment Codes**

Rating code	Percentages	Description of competence
4	70-100	Outstanding/Excellent achievement
3	50-69	Satisfactory achievement
2	35-49	Partial achievement
1	1-34	Not achieved

(DoE, 2005)

Recording and reporting of learner performance in the Foundation Phase is according to four learning programmes and in the Intermediate Phase according to ten learning areas, as in the Senior Phase with its ten learning areas.

The table below indicates codes and percentages for recording and reporting in Grades R-12.

**Table 4.2: Recording and Reporting for Grades R-12**

Rating code	Description of competence	Percentages
7	Outstanding achievement	80-100
6	Meritorious achievement	70-79
5	Substantial achievement	60-69

4	Adequate achievement	50-59
3	Moderate achievement	40-49
2	Elementary achievement	30-39
1	Not achieved	0-29

(DoE, 2005)

Table 4.2 clearly shows how learners' performances are measured according to levels and percentages. This table should also be given to learners' parents so that they can motivate their children to performance according to the code indicator.

In assessment of learning it is the responsibility of the principal and the SMT to invite parents to school where rating codes, description of competence and percentages will be explained. Such meetings will motivate parents so that they can understand their children's level of performance; this is done because many parents are illiterate. The next discussion is on reporting on learner achievement.

#### **4.9.3 Reporting on learner achievement**

In brief, reporting learner achievement is about reporting on the level of learner understanding to learners and their parents; this is part of assessment of learning for frequent informal communication. Maree and Frazer (2004:84) further state that reporting learners' achievement to parents and learners themselves should occur regularly to encourage their participation. Reporting should be done every term to update the parents on the performance of their children.

Tunica (1995:219) asserts that the agents of assessment include all the stakeholders involved in the assessment process, as well as the person responsible for conducting the assessment. According to this statement, the stakeholders include the parents, learners and educators at school.

Le Grange and Reddy (1998:103) support that the information included in the report is selected from the records that have been kept and presented in such a way that it reflects the learners' development.

The Department of Education Assessment Guidelines (2002:61) emphasise that, as reporting forces educators to reflect input and output, educators should reveal this information to stakeholders. This will be done by the principal as an instructional leader and educators by reporting to the parents through report cards every term.

Furthermore, in the Department of Education's circular no. 22 (2002:12), other term reports may take a variety of forms, such as oral presentations or informal feedback, but they should always be accompanied by written records.

GIED (2004:240) avers that educators must be accountable to learners, parents and the education system as well as to the community. Emanating from this, the researcher's opinion is that educators should invite parents to school so that they may report to parents on the performance of their children.

Educators should invite parents every term where all learners' books and portfolios will serve as documents to report on learners' performance.

The next topic to be discussed is report cards.

#### **4.9.4 Report cards**

In the assessment of learning, report cards are documents that are used to give feedback to parents on the achievement of their children. The principal as an assessment leader, together with the educators, must report by means of report cards that reflect the true information about the learners. A report card should be clean in such a way that it contains no rubbed out or deleted information on it.

Cangelosi (1990:24) believes that parents need to be aware of their children's level of achievement according to the following information:

- Parents who are informed about what their children are accomplishing in school are in a position to serve as a support to educators to assist their children to co-operate and achieve.
- Parents are legally responsible for their children's welfare, although they delegate and entrust some of their responsibilities to educators. Parents have the right to know how the school is impacting on their children.
- Educators should report on the authentic achievement of learners' marks and percentages and they should comment correctly so as to motivate and encourage parents.

As National Education Policy, Regulation Gazettes no. 6397 and no. R1718 (1996:10) note, report cards should be given to parents once a term. A learner's report card should include the following important information stated below:

- Constructive feedback: Feedback states concern about the learner's performance in relation to previous performance.
- Official school details: Year and term of the school, date, signature and comments of parent or guardian, educator and opening of school, school stamp and explanation of the national coding system.
- Performance details: A national code together with either descriptions or percentages indicating the level of performance per learning area and a description of the strengths and developmental needs of the learner.

However, the Assessment Policy in the General Education and Training Band Grades R-9 and ABET (1998:20) maintains that the reporting process should include these aspects:

- Provides regular feedback to learners and part of the everyday teaching and learning process.
- Provides an accurate description of progress and achievement.
- Allow for comment on the personal and social development and the attendance of the learner at learning sites.
- Gives an indication of the learner's strengths and developmental needs and identifies follow-up steps for learning and teaching.
- Encourages motivation through a constructive approach.

- Becomes a focal point for dialogue between home, learning, work and further education and training.
- Enhances accountability at all levels of the system; and in the case of learners in Grades R-9 is sensitive to the needs and responsibilities of parents.
- Emanating from the points above, it is suggested that the accumulated assessment records in reporting should be used but with respect to the confidentiality of the records.

#### **4.10 ASSESSMENT AS LEARNING**

Assessment as learning focuses on learners and emphasises assessment as a process of met cognition (knowledge of one's own thought processes) for learners. Assessment as learning emerges from the idea that learning is not just a matter of transferring ideas from someone, but it is an active process of cognitive restructuring that occurs when individuals interact with new ideas.

Within new learning, learners must be actively engaged in creating their own understanding; they must learn to be critical assessors who make sense of information, relate it to prior knowledge, and use it for new learning; and use what they discover from the monitoring, what they are learning and use what they discover from the monitoring to make adjustments, adaptations and even major changes in their thinking.

According to Afflerbach (2002:41), assessment as learning is based in research on how learning occurs, and is characterised by learners reflecting on their own learning and making adjustments so that they achieve deeper understanding. Only reading assessment that is conducted with learners and eventually by learners can foster true independence and success in reading – the accumulation and comprehension monitoring, as demanded by the particular act of reading. The ability to self-assess is multifaceted, and good readers can apply their self-assessment strategies on demand.

##### **4.10.1 Teachers' roles in assessment as learning**

A high level of learner participation in the assessment process does not diminish the teacher's responsibility. Rather, assessment as learning extends

the role of teachers to include designing instruction and assessment that allows all learners to think about and monitor their own learning. Sadler (1989:119-144) affirms that assessment as learning is based on the conviction that learners are capable of becoming adaptable, flexible and independent in their learning and decision making. When teachers involve learners and promote their independence, they are giving them the tools to undertake their own learning wisely and well. To become independent learners, they must be exposed to sophisticated combinations of skills, attitudes and dispositions. Self-monitoring and the teacher's role in assessment as learning is to:

- Model and teach the skills of assessment
- Guide learners in achieving goals, and monitoring their progress toward them
- Provide exemplars and models of good practice and quality work reflecting curriculum outcomes
- Work with learners' developing clear criteria of good practice
- Guide learners in developing internal feedback or self-monitoring mechanisms to validate and question their own thinking, and to become comfortable with the ambiguity and uncertainty that is inevitable with anything new
- Provide regular and challenging opportunities to practise, so that learners can become confident, competent self-assessors
- Monitor learners' met cognitive processes as well as their learning, and provide descriptive feedback
- Create an environment where it is safe for learners to take chances and where support is readily available.

Stiggins (1999:191-198) declares that learners need to experience continuous and genuine success. This does not mean that learners should not experience failure, but rather that they need to become comfortable with identifying different perspectives and challenging these perspectives; they need to learn to look for misconceptions and inaccuracies and work with them toward a more complete and coherent understanding.

#### **4.10.2 Planning assessment as learning**

Teachers use assessment as learning to obtain rich and detailed information about how learners are progressing in developing the habits of mind and skill to monitor, challenge, and adjust their own learning. For their part, learners learn to monitor and challenge their own understanding, predict the outcomes of their current level of understanding, make reasoned decisions about their progress and difficulties, decide what else they need to know, organise and reorganise ideas, check for consistency between different pieces of information, draw analogies that help them advance their understanding, set personal goals. Also, as Stiggins (1999:191-198) notes, in assessment as learning, teachers are interested in how learners understand concepts, and in how they use metacognitive analysis to make adjustments to their understanding. Teachers monitor learners' goal-setting processes and their own.

#### **4.10.3 Assessment methods as learning**

Teachers can use a range of methods in assessment as learning as long as the methods are constructed to elicit detailed information on both learners' learning and about their metacognitive processes. Teachers teach learners how to use the methods so that they can monitor their own learning, think about where they feel secure in their learning and where they feel confused or uncertain, and decide about a learning plan.

Although many assessment methods have the potential to encourage reflection and review, what matters in assessment as learning is that methods allow learners to consider their own learning in relation to models, exemplars, criteria, rubrics, frameworks and checklists that provide images of successful learning. Quality in assessment as learning depends on how well the assessment engages learners in considering and challenging their thinking, and in making judgements about their view and understanding. Teachers establish quality by ensuring that learners have the right tools and are accumulating the evidence needed to make reasonable decisions about what they understand or find confusing, and what else they need to do to deepen their understanding.



There are different types of assessment that help to assess learners' work so that there is effective teaching and learning taking place at school. However, the principal as an assessment leader should strive for learners' competency and ability to use skills. Mackrory (1996:18) adds that lessons should be evaluated, meaning that no work should be done without being moderated for quality assessment at school. The principal must ensure that this quality work is done by checking work regularly.

Furthermore, educators need to reduce their reliance on written tests and examinations and increase their range of assessment styles to include continuous assessment that must be integrated into teaching, as Indicated by Pahad (1997:6).

#### **4.10.4 Characteristics of assessment as learning**

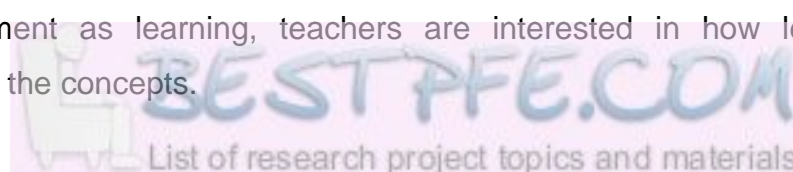
The following are the characteristics of assessment as learning as stated by Gregory, Cameron and Davies (2001:46):

- In assessment as learning learners practise monitoring their own learning and analyse it in relation to what is expected.
- Teachers have the responsibility of engaging learners in the metacognitive process.
- Learners compare their own learning over time with descriptions and examples of expected learning.
- Learners are able to assess themselves only when they have a clear picture of proficient learning.
- Learners need to reflect on their own and others' work in the context of teacher feedback and advice on what to do next.

#### **4.10.5 Advantages and disadvantages of assessment as learning**

The following are the advantages of assessment as learning as indicated by Stiggins (1999:191-198):

- In assessment as learning, teachers are interested in how learners understand the concepts.



- Teachers monitor learners' goal-setting processes and their thinking about their learning.

Disadvantages of assessment as learning are the following:

- In assessment as learning there is a lack of interest in how learners understand the concepts.
- In assessment as learning there is lack of teachers monitoring learners' goal-setting process.
- Not adequate strategies to support or challenge, adjust and advance learners' learning.

#### **4.10.6 Strategies for assessment as learning**

The following strategies for assessment as learning are highlighted by Sutton (1995:47):

- In assessment as learning, feedback is particularly important.
- In assessment as learning learners can envision alternative strategies to understand the material.
- Assessment as learning is designed to develop independent learning.
- Learners need feedback to help them develop autonomy and competence.
- Assessment as learning provides learners with information on their performance at a task and can then reach conclusions on their own.
- In assessment as learning learners learn a great deal with their families and their communities.

### **4.11 TYPES OF ASSESSMENT IN ASSESSMENT AS LEARNING**

#### **4.11.1 Self-assessment**

According to Stiggins (1999:191-1980) assessment as learning is based on the conviction that learners are independent in their learning and decision making. This kind of assessment occurs when learners assess their own performance against the desired outcomes and criteria and are able to decide what they need to do to improve their own performance. This statement is supported by the review committee report DoE (2001:26) that assessment as learning helps to build learners' confidence, so that application of knowledge achieves quality assessment.

Le Grange and Reddy (1998:19) believe that self-assessment as learning occurs, for example, when an educator asks learners to select their best history essay and give the reason for the selection. This encourages self-reflection on the part of learners and enables them to take greater responsibility for their own learning. An educator also becomes aware of what learners value as important and can provide them with more meaningful feedback.

Afflerbach (2002:87-103) further states that self-assessment as learning also works well when the result of the activity may be different from everyone else's. For example, learners could conduct self-assessment after reading a book, when describing their feelings or when evaluating learning. Self-assessment is also useful when evaluating values and attitudes, especially where learners may feel embarrassed if others read what they have written.

Before learners are able to assess themselves as learning they need to know what they are supposed to achieve and how they can expect to do so. This is the principle of transparency.

To ensure that the learners are involved in the process of self-assessment, an educator should always:

- Explain the task at the outset;
- Discuss the purpose of the task, that is, why they are doing the tasks and what can be expected from the learners;
- What the learners must look for (criteria they can use to assess their own work).

An educator should therefore set time aside at the end of the task to reflect on how the learners have assessed their effort. To achieve this, an educator can ask the learners questions such as:

- What did you learn?
- How did you learn?
- Did anything hamper your learning?
- What ways of learning worked best for you?
- How can you use what you have learnt?

Often learners are nervous to report their own feelings, beliefs, intentions and thinking procedures. An educator should make the process more comfortable by using self-assessment for formative rather than summative purposes. The educator should also allow assessment to be private - not shared with other learners. This allows for a more honest sense of their own level of understanding and performances.

Airasian (2005:139) argues that, beyond using questions to extract assessment information and keeping learners engaged in the class, educators can train learners to take more responsibility for their own learning by becoming effective questioners themselves. Educators can both model and encourage learners to ask effective self-assessment questions by which they can identify high quality work, evaluate their own work, becoming aware of their own learning strategies and set goals to improve them. To do this, educators should model questions that focus on learners' process and work, for example: Have I proofread my paper? Does my story have a title? and so on, rather than approval and disapproval such as, Did I do my job?

Airasian (2005:139) further emphasises that an educator should encourage learners' questioning skills and self-assessment of learning by using the following key assessment tools:

- Modelling and encouraging the learners to use three basic assessment questions such as:
  - Where am I going?
  - Where am I now?
  - How do I close the gap?
- Showing the learners samples of anonymous work and teaching them how to ask and answer questions on the attributes of good performance;
- Involving learners in constructing lists of questions or criteria to serve as a scoring guide for a specific assignment, starting with one question and gradually increasing the number;
- Having learners create their own sets of questions for practice tests and discussing the merits of the questions;
- Having learners communicate with others about their progress toward a goal;

- Displaying learning objectives in the classroom and asking learners to rephrase them.

#### **4.11.2 Group assessment**

In assessment as learning, according to the National Curriculum Statement (2003:16), group assessment occurs when groups within one class assess one

another's performance on given tasks with specified criteria, such as a group assessing a drama which is performed by another group. Group assessment involves assessing social skills, time management, resource management and group dynamics as well as the output of a group. Assessing group work involves looking for evidence that the group of learners collaborate, assist one another, divide work and combine individual contributions into a single composite assessable product. It considers the process as well as the product.

The educator should carefully plan the group assessment in order to benefit all learners to getting a fair mark out of the work each learner has done. Careful planning will also help in the case of those learners who look forward to group assessment because they think their classmates will do all the work or resent the group assessment because they have to do the work for their classmates. To avoid this, all group members should have a specific role to play in the group, e.g. leader, encourager, note-taker, researcher or artist. This will enable all the group members to participate and enable the educator to award marks fairly.

In addition, the second critical outcome in CAPS stresses the importance of group work, "Learners should be able to work effectively with others in a team, group, organisation and community". As stated by the National Curriculum Statement (2003:17), some activities are better done in groups such as the following:

- Role-play;
- Drama or acting;
- Debates;
- Discussions;
- Presentations;

- Brainstorming;
- Sharing ideas;
- Problem solving;
- Checking answers;
- Writing poems;
- Reading together;
- Project work;
- Field trips.

After learners have worked together as groups, the educator could ask them to present their findings to the rest of the class. The educator should assess group work in an appropriate way. When the whole group have made a joint effort, an educator can choose to assess an individual on their behalf. The assessment criteria should be discussed with the learners first so that they know what is assessed. Another method is to assess a group as a unit. All learners in a group should receive the same assessment. The group will, for example, present a role-play and another group will assess the performance according to the criteria they have already discussed.

Other than when a group assesses another learner, group assessment can also be used by an educator to assess the entire group, as stated by Airasian and the Department of Education review committee report (Airasian, 2005:139; DoE, 2001:29).

#### **4.11.3 Performance-based assessment**

Performance-based assessment as learning is based on the demonstrations that learners will perform by means of actions. Teachers teach learners how to apply the method so that they can monitor their own learning. According to Elbow (1998:96), quality in assessment as learning depends on how well the assessment engages learners. Learners must understand what they need to do to deepen their understanding.

Performance-based assessment as learning further requires the demonstration of skills of proficiency through creating, producing or doing something, often in a setting involving real-work applications.

Airasian (2001:228) further states that educators traditionally required learners to demonstrate their ability to structure their thoughts and express their ideas. The principal and educators should ensure that learners are involved in many activities that will lead to demonstrations.

#### **4.11.4 Class list and record books**

Costa (1989:20) asserts that assessment as learning focuses on the engagement of learners and on sharing information; the teacher just helps learners to be independent.

Class lists are for ensuring that individual learners are assessed systematically and that the less demanding learners are not ignored. For example, they are for checking how many times the educator has heard every learner read. These can be adapted to help the educator to record broad groupings within the class in terms of allocating follow-up work as stated in the planning of assessment by (1993:8).

According to Maree and Fraser (2004:149), most educators use some kind of record book or file in which class lists are kept and performance is recorded. Next to every learner's name there should be dates of assessment, name and short description of assessment activity and the result of activity in terms of the learning programme, as well as comments, which will be used to develop support strategies for learners. According to the Assessment Guidelines (2002:21), all records should be accessible, but securely kept, and easy to interpret so that they will be helpful in teaching and reporting processes. Normally, the school assessment programme would determine the details of how record books are kept, and assessment codes can be useful in expressing how learners are performing against expected outcomes. The assessment codes serve as level descriptors and can be useful when developing rubrics by (DoE, 2002:21).

#### **4.11.5 Learner's profile**

In assessment a learner profile provides the conditions for the teacher and learner to discuss alternatives. The planning of assessment as in the DoE

(1990:21) states that a learner's profile is a panoramic representation of the learner's qualities as observed by educators.

It is an up-to-date database of all information that may assist the learner's process collected throughout the learner's path. It also includes records of the learner's progress collected over a period of time, including a wide range of activities that gives a holistic view of the nature of the learner, for example, strengths, areas that need support, achievement and others.

Maree and Fraser (2004:150) assert that it is expected that cumulative records of evidence of learner achievement must be kept and should accompany the learner throughout his or her school career. The evidence should include learner achievement, the development of values and attitudes as well as social development. Profiles are a detailed way of using different kinds of evidence in order to give a better overall assessment of learners.

Maree and Fraser (2004:150) add that a profile does not only include academic achievements but also non-academic achievements, interests and attributes, and provides a systematic and comprehensive description and assessment of these areas.

A profile containing a learner's performance in the different learning areas would enable the educator to see in which areas the learner performed well and in which areas the learner needs assistance. The learner profile should be viewed as a tool for support as it assists all the educators in the school, but especially the grade educator in terms of planning the teaching and learning as explained by Maree and Fraser (2004:150).

The following information should be included in the learner profile as indicated by Maree and Frazer (2004:151):

- Personal information;
- Physical condition and medical history;
- Schools that the learner has attended, as well as records of attendance;
- Participation in extra-curricular activities and achievements in this regard;
- Emotional and social behaviour;



- Parental involvement;
- Areas needing additional support;
- Samples of learner's work as evidence for support;
- Substantiation for retaining a learner in the same grade;
- Summative end-of-year report in every programme;
- Samples of learner's work in every learning program;
- Progression records of the school years as noted by Maree and Frazer (2004:151). Learner profiles remain the property of the provincial department of education and have to be kept safe but accessible to educators. They are confidential. Assessment Guidelines (2002:28) add that a learner profile replaces all previous continuous record documents with the purpose of assisting the learner by having access to a variety of information that is included in the profile. The personal information in the learner profile should not discriminate against a learner. It is a record containing information about a learner and should not be confused with a portfolio, which is a method of assessment as indicated by Maree and Fraser (2004:150).

#### **4.12 MANAGING ASSESSMENT PRACTICES IN ASSESSMENT**

Managing assessment practices is about drawing up an assessment plan that will be followed by all educators when they conduct assessment. The principal as an assessment leader together with educators and the SMT of the school should assume responsibility for ensuring that all learning areas have assessment plans in place. The assessment plan will also help the school to produce the required results because everyone else will know when to assess so as to measure the performance of learners.

Maree and Fraser (2004:82) add that every school must develop an assessment programme based on provincial and national guidelines for assessment.

The school assessment programme should indicate the following points:

- The assessment codes determined by the province.
- How moderation takes place at school.
- The training of staff in areas of assessment.
- How record books are to be kept, their responsibility and security.

- Internal verification of assessment.
- The way assessment is planned and implemented.
- The frequency and method of recording.

The above statement clearly shows that assessment for learning, if managed correctly, will motivate and encourage educators to assess systematically.

The next subheading is the process of managing an assessment task.

#### **4.12.1 The process of managing an assessment task**

Assessment tasks are about activities that are supposed to be addressed within a certain specific time. The Department of Education (Circular no. 22, 2002:10) stipulates that assessment should be carefully designed to cover all the learning outcomes and assessment standards of the learning area. The design of the tasks should ensure that a variety of skills are assessed.

Deriving from this, it is the responsibility of the principal as an assessment leader to ensure that the assessment programme has a variety of skills that are to be assessed.

The National Curriculum Statement Orientation Programme for Grades 8 and 9 (2006:78) clarifies assessment as a process within the CAPS. The following steps show how assessment should take place in the classroom. The educator should:

- Plan for the assessment and decide on its purposes.
- Gather evidence of learning using different methods and forms of assessment.
- Evaluate evidence using different tools that help in making decisions about the learners' performance.
- Record the learners' performance against the assessment task.
- Report on the assessment and provide feedback on the learners' strengths and weaknesses.
- Reflect on practices and follow up with the interventions where necessary.

The next discussion is on assessment strategies.

### 4.13 ASSESSMENT STRATEGIES

Assessment strategies are the collection of methods used by educators to assess learners' performance using different forms of assessment for a particular learning area.

For example, in Arts and Culture one of the art forms is visual arts and painting or drawing is an assessment form. It is very important that the strategies employed should be relevant to the learning outcomes being assessed. GIED (2004:237) notes that assessment strategies include oral presentation, practical activity, assignments, projects research and tests. In addition, the principal and educators should plan together so that all learners are assessed through the different assessment strategies to ensure quality assessment practices at school.

Below is a table of assessment strategies.

**Table 4.3: Assessment strategies**

Example	Description	Advantages
Group projects	A number of learners work on a task together. This might require planning, research discussion and group presentation.	One can assess learners' abilities to work as a team and to complete the tasks fully. This method facilitates collaboration.
Interviews and oral presentation	Learners orally present work that they have researched to the educator and class.	Allows learners to tell what they know. Assess both the work completed and the ability to communicate what has been learnt.
Written assignments	This could be an essay. These assignments involve descriptions, analysis, explanation and summaries	Can be used to assess learners' understanding of an issue. This method can show how learners use facts meaningfully.

Assessment strategies mentioned in Table 4.3 should be used for ensuring quality assessment practices.

#### **4.14 PRINCIPAL'S ROLE IN ASSESSMENT**

There should be strong instructional leadership and creative management on the part of the school principal who must create the conditions necessary for growth in teacher's professional knowledge.

According to Gregory and Kuzmich (2004:72) the principal requires a thorough understanding of the theories and the practices of classroom assessment, so that he or she can effectively examine and modify school policies to help prioritise teachers' time, allocate funding, monitor changing practices and create a culture within the school that allows teachers to feel safe as they challenge their own beliefs, and change their practices.

The principal must understand the principles of assessment for learning, and work with staff to integrate them into classroom instruction. The principal must know and evaluate the teachers and help teachers learn to assess accurately and use the results productively. The principal must accurately analyse teacher assessment information, use the information and assist teachers in doing the same.

The principal should plan, present or secure professional development activities that contribute to the use of sound assessment practices. The principal should create the conditions necessary for the appropriate use and reporting of learner achievement information and can communicate effectively with all members of the school community about learner assessment results and their relations to improving curriculum and instruction.

The principal should understand the standards of quality for learner assessment and how to verify their use in the school and also understand the attributes of a sound and balanced assessment system. The principal should understand the issues related to the unethical and inappropriate use of learner assessment and protect learners and staff from such misuse.

#### **4.15 CONCLUSION**

In this chapter an outline of literature is focused on, including the application of assessment and curriculum as well as different types for learning and assessment as learning. The teacher's role as far as assessment is concerned and activities that are enshrined in all different types of assessment are also discussed. Planning and assessment methods used are discussed, how teachers should plan for effective teaching and learning in order to ensure quality assessment practices; teachers should plan together in their respective subjects to ensure commonality; teachers should also plan for the different types of learners they teach at school to encourage independent learning. All these types of assessment are meant to meet the needs of learners and encourage the involvement of parents, teachers and learners. This chapter is about what should happen inside and outside the classroom to ensure quality assessment practices at school where the principals should ensure that they support teachers and learners in terms of effective teaching and learning.

The next chapter deals with the research methodology that the researcher employed during the empirical investigation.

## CHAPTER 5

### RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

#### 5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapters 2 to 3 contain a literature review of instructional leadership role, TQM and assessment practices of the principal at primary schools in the Free State Province.

This chapter describes research paradigms, research designs, data collection instruments, ethical clearance, reliability, validity and trustworthiness.

#### 5.2 RESEARCH PARADIGMS

Research in education has been described as a systematic investigation (Burns, 1997) or inquiry whereby data are collected, analysed and interpreted in some way in an effort to *“understand, describe, predict or control an educational or psychological phenomenon or to empower individuals in such contexts”* (Mertens, 2005:2). O’Leary (2004) puts forward the argument that what was relatively simple to define thirty or forty years ago has become far more complex in recent times with the number of research methods increasing dramatically, *“particularly in the social/applied sciences”*. It has been suggested, however, that the *“exact nature of the definition of research is influenced by the researcher’s theoretical framework”* (Mertens, 2005:2) with theory being used to establish relationships between or among constructs that describe or explain a phenomenon by going beyond the local event and trying to connect it with similar events (Mertens, 2005:2).

The theoretical framework, as distinct from a theory, is sometimes referred to as the *paradigm* (Mertens, 2005; Bogdan & Biklen, 1998) and influences the way knowledge is studied and interpreted. It is the choice of paradigm that sets down the intent, motivation and expectations for the research. Without nominating a paradigm as the first step, there is no basis for subsequent choices regarding methodology, methods, literature or research design.

Paradigms are not discussed in all research texts and are given varied emphasis and sometimes conflicting definitions. In some research texts,

paradigms are discussed at the beginning of the text along-side research design, while others may make only passing reference to paradigms at a much later stage or make no reference to paradigms at all. This may lead the first time or early career researcher to wonder where the notion of paradigm fits into the research course of action and to question its relevance. The term 'paradigm' may be defined as *"a loose collection of logically related assumptions, concepts, or propositions that orient thinking and research"* (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998:22) or the philosophical intent or motivation for undertaking a study (Cohen & Manion, 1994:38). Alternatively, MacNaughton, Rolfe and Siraj-Blatchford (2001:32) provide a definition of paradigm which includes three elements: a belief about the nature of knowledge, a methodology and criteria for validity. Some authors prefer to discuss the interpretive framework in terms of 'knowledge claims' (Creswell, 2003) epistemology or ontology, or even research methodologies (Neuman, 2000) rather than referring to paradigms. A number of theoretical paradigms are discussed in the literature such as: positivist (and post-positivist), constructivist, interpretivist, transformative, emancipatory, critical, pragmatist and deconstructivist. The use of different terms in different texts and the varied claims regarding how many research paradigms there are, sometimes leads to confusion for the first time or early career researcher. Definitions of some of the more common paradigms referred to in research texts follow.

### **5.2.1 Post-positivist (and positivist) paradigm**

In this paradigm both quantitative and qualitative methods may be used. The paradigm includes tools such as tests, scales, experiments and quasi-experiments. Positivism is sometimes referred to as the 'scientific method' or 'science research', is *"based on the rationalistic, empiricist philosophy that originated with Aristotle, Francis Bacon, John Locke, August Comte, and Emmanuel Kant"* (Mertens, 2005:8) and *"reflects a deterministic philosophy in which causes determine effects or outcomes"* (Creswell, 2003:7). Positivism may be applied to the social world on the assumption that *"the social world can be studied in the same way as the natural world, that there is a method for studying the social world that is value free, and that explanations of a causal nature can be provided"* (Mertens, 2005:8).

Positivists aim to test a theory or describe an experience “*through observation and measurement in order to predict and control forces that surround us*” (O’Leary, 2004:5). Positivism was replaced after World War II (Mertens, 2005) by post-positivism. Post-positivists work from the assumption that any piece of research is influenced by a number of well-developed theories apart from, and as well as, the one which is being tested (Cook & Campbell, 1979:24). In addition, since Kuhn (1962), theories are held to be provisional and new understanding may challenge the whole theoretical framework. In contrast, O’Leary (2004) provides a definition of post-positivism which aligns in some sense with the constructivist paradigm claiming that post-positivists see the world as ambiguous, variable and multiple in its realities - “*what might be the truth for one person or cultural group may not be the ‘truth’ for another*”. O’Leary (2004:6) suggests that post-positivism is intuitive and holistic, inductive and exploratory with findings that are qualitative in nature. This definition of post-positivism seems to be in conflict with the more widely used definition provided by Mertens (2005). Positivist and post-positivist research is most commonly aligned with quantitative methods of data collection and analysis.

### **5.2.2 Interpretivist /constructivist paradigm**

In this paradigm qualitative methods are mostly used to collect data and even a quantitative method can be used. Tools that are used in this paradigm include interviews, observation, document reviews and visual data analysis.

The interpretivist/constructivist paradigm grew out of the philosophy of Edmund Husserl’s phenomenology and Wilhelm Dilthey’s and other German philosophers’ study of interpretive understanding called hermeneutics (Mertens, 2005:12). Interpretivist/constructivist approaches to research have the intention of understanding “*the world of human experience*” (Cohen & Manion, 1994:36), suggesting that “*reality is socially constructed*” (Mertens, 2005:12). The interpretivist/constructivist researcher tends to rely on the “*participant’s views of the situation being studied*” (Creswell, 2003:8) and recognises the impact on the research of their own background and experiences. Constructivists do not generally begin with a theory as post-



positivists do; rather they “*generate or inductively develop a theory or pattern of meanings*” (Creswell, 2003:9) throughout the research process.

The constructivist researcher is most likely to rely on qualitative data collection methods and analysis or a combination of both qualitative and quantitative methods (mixed methods). Quantitative data may be utilised in a way, which supports or expands upon qualitative data and effectively deepens the description.

### **5.2.3 Transformative paradigm**

With this paradigm mixed methods are used to collect data; here a diverse range of tools is used to avoid discrimination such as homophobia and racism. According to Mertens (2005), the transformative paradigm arose during the 1980s and 1990s partially owing to dissatisfaction with the existing and dominant research paradigms and practices but also because of a realisation that much sociological and psychological theory which lay behind the dominant paradigms “*had been developed from the white, able-bodied male perspective and was based on the study of male subjects*” (Mertens, 2005:17). Transformative researchers felt that the interpretivist/constructivist approach to research did not adequately address issues of social justice and marginalised peoples (Creswell, 2003:9). Transformative researchers “*believe that inquiry needs to be intertwined with politics and a political agenda*” (Creswell, 2003:9) and contain an action agenda for reform “*that may change the lives of the participants, the institutions in which individuals work or live, and the researcher’s life*” (Creswell, 2003:9-10). Transformative researchers may utilise qualitative and quantitative data collection and analysis methods in much the same way as the interpretivist/constructivists. However, a mixed methods approach provides the transformative researcher with a structure for the development of “*more complete and full portraits of our social world through the use of multiple perspectives and lenses*” (Somekh& Lewin, 2005:275), allowing for an understanding of “*greater diversity of values, stances and positions*” (Somekh& Lewin, 2005:275).

### **5.2.4 Pragmatic paradigm**

The paradigm uses both quantitative and qualitative methods where methods are matched to the specific questions. The tools include interviews, testing, experiments and observations.

Pragmatism is not committed to any one system of philosophy or reality. Pragmatist researchers focus on the ‘what’ and ‘how’ of the research problem (Creswell, 2003:11). Early pragmatists “*rejected the scientific notion that social inquiry was able to access the ‘truth’ about the real world solely by virtue of a single scientific method*” (Mertens, 2005:26). While pragmatism is seen as the paradigm that provides the underlying philosophical framework for mixed-methods research (Tashakkori&Teddlie, 2003; Somekh& Lewin, 2005), some mixed-methods researchers align themselves philosophically with the transformative paradigm (Mertens, 2005). It may be said, however, that mixed methods could be used with any paradigm. The pragmatic paradigm places “the research problem” as central and applies all approaches to understanding the problem (Creswell, 2003:11). With the research question as ‘central’, data collection and analysis methods are chosen which would be most likely to provide insights into the question with no philosophical loyalty to any alternative paradigm.

### 5.3 PARADIGM LANGUAGE

In this study the researcher used a constructivist paradigm for research design. Table 5.1 shows the use of the language identified in a range of research texts and grouped according to their alignment with the broad paradigm groups discussed above. While the major paradigms will have an overall framework consistent with the definitions provided above, specific research paradigms may have particular features, which differentiate them from other paradigms within the same group. For example, while feminist and neo-Marxist research both fall within the transformative paradigm they have unique features, which are specific to their particular approach.

**Table 5.1: Paradigms: Language commonly associated with major research paradigms**

Positivist/Post positivist	Interpretivist/ Constructivist	Transformative	Pragmatic
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Experimental	Naturalistic	Critical theory	Consequences of actions
Quasi-experimental	Phenomenological	Neo-Marxist	Problem-centred
Correlational	Hermeneutic	Feminist	Pluralistic
Reductionism	Interpretivist	Critical Race Theory	Real-world practice oriented
Theory verification	Ethnographic	Freirean	Mixed models
Causal comparative	Multiple participant meanings	Participatory	
Determination	Social and historical construction	Emancipatory	
Normative	Theory generation	Advocacy	
	Symbolic interaction	Grand Narrative	
		Empowerment issue oriented	
		Change-oriented	
		Interventionist	
		Queer theory	
		Race specific	
		Political	
Adapted from Mertens (2005) and Creswell (2003)			

### 5.3.1 Methodology and paradigms

Researchers were surprised to discover that a large number of texts provided no definition for the terms *methodology* or *method*; some texts use the terms interchangeably and others use them as having different meanings. According to the Macquarie Dictionary (3<sup>rd</sup> edition), *methodology* is the science of methods, especially:

- A. A branch of logic dealing with the logical principles underlying the organisation of the various special sciences, and the conduct of scientific inquiry.
- B. Education: a branch of pedagogy concerned with the analysis and evaluation of subject matter and methods of teaching.

This definition is consistent with much of the literature (Leedy&Ormrod, 2005; Schram, 2006), despite it's being a generic definition as opposed to one which is discipline or research specific. Somekh and Lewin (2005) define methodology as both "*the collection of methods or rules by which a particular piece of research is undertaken*" and the "*principles, theories and values that underpin a particular approach to research*". Walter (2006) argues that methodology is the frame of reference for the research which is influenced by

the “*paradigm in which our theoretical perspective is placed or developed*”. The most common definitions suggest that methodology is the overall approach to research linked to the paradigm or theoretical framework while the method refers to systematic modes, procedures or tools used for collection and analysis of data.

### **5.3.1.1 Matching paradigms and methods**

In brief, matching paradigms and methods (see Figure 1.1 chapter 1) implies that some paradigms have similarities and some of the research methods can be jointly used to gather the data.

In addition, the research which applies the positivist or post-positivist paradigm tends predominantly to use quantitative approaches (methods) to data collection and analysis, though not necessarily exclusively, while the interpretive/constructivist paradigm generally operates using predominantly qualitative methods (Silverman, 2000; Wiersma, 2000; Bogdan & Biklen, 1998; Mertens, 2005; Burns, 1997; Cohen & Manion, 1994; Glesne & Peshkin, 1992). The pragmatic paradigm provides an opportunity for “*multiple methods, different worldviews, and different assumptions, as well as different forms of data collection and analysis in the mixed-methods study*” (Creswell, 2003:12). Likewise the transformative paradigm allows for the application of both qualitative and quantitative research methods. Deconstructivist and in particular post-structuralist research “*seeks to understand the dynamics of relationships between the knowledge/meaning, power and identity*” (Mac Naughton et al., 2001:46) applying data collected and analysed using qualitative methods. Post-structuralists emphasise the local nature of knowledge placing strict limits on the validity of the knowledge gathered and produced (Mac Naughton et al., 2001). Table 5.2 indicates the ways in which research methods cross paradigm boundaries.

This suggests that the paradigm and research question should determine which research data collection and analysis methods (qualitative/quantitative or mixed methods) will be most appropriate for a study. In this way a researcher is not classified as quantitative, qualitative or mixed-methods researcher, rather a researcher may apply the data collection and analysis

methods most appropriate for a particular research study. It may in fact be possible for any and all paradigms to employ mixed methods rather than being restricted to any one method, which may potentially diminish and unnecessarily limit the depth and richness of a research project.

**Table 5.2: Paradigms, methods and tools**

Paradigm	Methods (primarily)	Data collection tools (examples)
Positivist/ Post-positivist	Quantitative. <i>“Although qualitative methods can be used within this paradigm, quantitative methods tend to be predominant...”</i> (Mertens, 2005:12)	Experiments Quasi-experiments Tests Scales
Interpretive/ Constructivist	Qualitative methods predominate although quantitative methods may also be utilised.	Interviews Observations Document reviews Visual data analysis
Transformative	Qualitative methods with quantitative and mixed methods. Contextual and historical factors described, especially as they relate to oppression (Mertens, 2005:9)	Diverse range of tools - particular needs to avoid discrimination, e.g.: sexism, racism and homophobia.
Pragmatic	Qualitative and/or quantitative methods may be employed. Methods are matched to the specific questions and purpose of the research.	May include tools from both positivist and interpretive paradigms, e.g. interviews, observations and testing and experiments.

### 5.3.1.2 Methodology or method

In the literature the terms *qualitative* and *quantitative* are often used in two distinct discourses, one relating to what is more commonly understood to be the research paradigm and the second referring to research methods. This is illustrated by the following definition. At one level quantitative and qualitative refer to distinctions about the nature of knowledge: how one understands the world and the ultimate purpose of the research. At another level of discourse, the terms refer to research methods - how data are collected and analysed - and the types of generalisations and representations derived from the data (McMillan and Schumacher, 2006:12).



Informal reference to researchers as qualitative or quantitative researchers and research as qualitative or quantitative research creates confusion for the first time researcher or early career researcher. This is further exacerbated by research texts, which utilise these terms within their titles, suggesting a purity of method, which is potentially impossible in social research.

O’Leary (2004) argues another way of thinking about these terms by defining *qualitative* and *quantitative* as adjectives for types of data and their corresponding modes of analysis, i.e. qualitative data – data represented through words, pictures or icons analysed using thematic exploration; and quantitative data – data that is represented through numbers and analysed using statistics.

This definition suggests that the terms *qualitative* and *quantitative* refer to the data collection methods, analysis and reporting modes instead of the theoretical approach to the research. While other authors acknowledge that some research texts refer to quantitative, qualitative and mixed-methods as paradigms (see Table 5.1), the author will use the terms *quantitative* and *qualitative* to refer to methods of data collection, analysis and reporting.

### **5.3.1.3 Mixed-methods research**

Mixed methods of research include quantitative and qualitative methods, which the researcher has opted to apply in this study. While data collection methods can be combined, a researcher usually aligns philosophically with one of the recognised research paradigms, which proceed from different premises, leading to and seeking different outcomes (Wiersma, 2000). According to Mertens (2005:7), a “*researcher’s theoretical orientation has implications for every decision made in the research process, including the choice of method*”. Educational research traditionally followed the empirical “*objective scientific model*” (Burns, 1997:3) which utilised quantitative methods of data collection, analysis and reporting modes. In the 1960s there was a move towards a more constructivist approach which allowed for methods which were qualitative, naturalistic and subjective in nature. It would appear that at the time there was considerable debate regarding the introduction of this form of data collection. This philosophical debate “left

educational research divided between two competing methods: the scientific empirical tradition, and the naturalistic phenomenological mode” (Burns, 1997:3). More recently research approaches have become more complex in design and more flexible in their application of methods with mixed-methods being more acceptable and common. A mixed-methods approach to research is one that involves gathering both numeric information (e.g. on instruments) as well as text information (e.g. from interviews) so that the final database represents both quantitative and qualitative information (Creswell, 2003:20). There are different types of mixed methods, such as explanatory design, exploratory design, embedded design, and convergent parallel mixed method design.

The explanatory design is a mixed-methods design in which the research begins by conducting a quantitative phase and follows up on conducting a quantitative phase and follows up on specific results with a second phase. The second phase qualitative phase is implemented for the purpose of explaining the initial results in more depth and it is due to this focus on explaining results that is reflected in the design name. (Tashakkori&Teddlie, 1998).

The explanatory design is a two-phase that can be recognised because the researcher starts by qualitatively exploring a topic before building to a second, quantitative phase. Here the researcher develops an instrument as an intermediate step between the phase that builds on the quantitative results and is used in the subsequent quantitative data collection. This design has been referred to as the instrument development design (Creswell et al., 2003).

The embedded design is a mixed-methods approach where the researcher combines the collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative and qualitative data within a traditional quantitative research design or qualitative research design or qualitative research design. The collection and analysis of the second data set may occur before, during and or after the implementation of the data collection and analysis procedures traditionally associated with the large design. Researchers embed a qualitative strand within quantitative

experiments to support aspects of the experimental design (Caracelli & Greene, 1997; Greene, 2007).

Convergent parallel mixed method design – This doctoral study used this research design, referred to as the triangulation mixed-method research design. In this design the researcher used both qualitative and quantitative methods during the same time frame. The convergent design is used when the researcher collects and analyses both quantitative and qualitative data during the same phase of the research process and then merges two sets of results into an overall interpretation. The quantitative and the qualitative strands are conducted separately yet concurrently and merged at the point of interpretation. This means the researcher keeps the strands independent during analysis and then mixes the results during the overall interpretation (Creswell, et al., 2003).

According to Gorard (2004), mixed-methods research has been identified as a “*key element in the improvement of social science, including education research*” with research strengthened by the use of a variety of methods. Gorard (2004) argues that mixed-method research “*requires a greater level of skill*”, “*can lead to less waste of potentially useful information*”, “*creates researchers with an increased ability to make appropriate criticisms of all types of research*” (and often has greater impact, because figures can be very persuasive to policy-makers whereas stories are more easily remembered and repeated by them for illustrative purposes. Many researchers, including Creswell (2003), Thomas (2003) and Krathwohl (1993), now view qualitative and quantitative methods as complementary, choosing the most appropriate method/s for the investigation. While some paradigms may appear to lead a researcher to favour qualitative or quantitative approaches, in effect no one paradigm actually prescribes or prohibits the use of either methodological approach. However, this may not sit comfortably with researchers who are strongly aligned with a particular approach to research. Almost inevitably in each paradigm, if the research is to be fully effective, both approaches need to be applied. It is unduly impoverished research, which eschews the use of both qualitative and quantitative research approaches. Paradigms, which overtly recommend mixed-method approaches allow the question to



determine the data collection and analysis methods applied, collecting both quantitative and qualitative data and integrating the data at different stages of inquiry (Creswell, 2003).

### **5.3.2 The research process**

The process is more realistically cyclical with the researcher returning to earlier steps while at the same time moving ahead to later steps. As the research progresses, changes may be made that could be subtle or significant.

#### **5.3.2.1 Sample**

The respondents were selected from the Education Management Information Systems (EMIS) data base sent to the researcher by the Directorate Quality Assurance. There were 1 080 school principals in the Free State Province and only 250 of them were sampled.

The target group for the qualitative study were principals who were directly involved in assessment. The structured questionnaires were sent to 250 principals in Free State schools but only 160 questionnaires were retrieved. For the interviews 10 principals (5 males and 5 females) were selected by purposeful sampling. Only five principals were interviewed on assessment competencies at their specific schools.

#### **5.3.2.2 Reliability and Validity**

Smaling (1994:78) regards reliability as the elimination of casual errors that can influence the results to a certain extent. Reliability is viewed as the absence of random errors. A research instrument can also be regarded as reliable if it reveals what is supposed to reveal. To calculate the reliability of the items in the questionnaire, Cronbach's alpha ( $\alpha=7$ ) was used. The Cronbach alpha coefficient indicates a measure of internal consistency in that it indicates the degree to which all the items in a test measure the same attribute (Huysamen, 1993:125). The reliability test for this structured closed

questionnaire was calculated and the following information was generated in Table 5.3.

**Table 5.3: Reliability coefficient of Appendices A, B and C in the questionnaire**

Item no	Aspects in questionnaire	Reliability coefficient	Number of items
Appendix B	Instructional Leadership	0.950	12
Appendix C	Total Quality Management (TQM)	0.978	13
Appendix D	Assessment practices	0.965	14
Overall		0.981	39

\*Cronbach alpha coefficient  $\alpha=0.7$

The reliability coefficient of the principal's role is high, ranging from 0.950 to 0.965. The overall reliability coefficient is also high (0.981).

Validity refers to the degree to which the research conclusions are sound. According to Neuman (2003:183), validity refers to how well the conceptual and operational definitions mesh with one another.

The research findings in this study are generalised across the population as indicated by Cooper and Schindler (2006:183) because the diversity of the population of principals in the Free State will be sufficiently represented in the sample. Furthermore, the researcher predicated that the principal's leadership actions would have a positive influence on teachers' perception of their assessment practices.

The use of validity and reliability measures has long been common in quantitative research, and only recently has it received considerable attention in the qualitative research paradigm (Golafshani, 2003). Joppe (2000:1) provides the following explanation of validity: validity determines whether the research truly measures that which it intends to measure or how truthful the research results are.

In addition, Joppe (2000:1) defines reliability as the extent to which results are consistently measure and if the results of a study can be reproduced repeatedly under similar conditions. With regard to the validity and reliability of this research, there are two key issues, which had to be attended to:

Firstly, in relation to reliability, it needed to be determined whether the results were replicable. Secondly, with regard to validity, it needed to be established whether the means of measurement were accurate and whether they were actually measuring what they were intended to measure.

It is important to note that the concepts of validity and reliability are contentious terms within qualitative research traditions. They are mostly associated with quantitative paradigms. According to Creswell et al. (2010), it seems that when qualitative researchers speak of the validity and reliability of research, they are usually referring to whether the research is credible or not. Merriam (1998) also questions the use of these terms in qualitative research studies and prefers to speak of the trustworthiness and credibility of the data.

#### **5.4 THE QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT**

A four-point Likert scale structured questionnaire was designed, piloted and used. Questions were formulated to explore the current status of principals' effectiveness in instructional leadership roles and assessment competences at school level (Appendices B to D). Also, as Gall, Borg and Gall (1996:28) indicate, the emphasis is on the development of knowledge by collecting numerical data. The principals were regarded as the most suitable respondents to the questionnaires.

##### **5.4.1 The questionnaire**

The questionnaire is a quantitative data collection tool and is normally distributed to a large numbers of respondents. Different kinds of questionnaires can be distinguished, such as mailed, telephonic questionnaires or group questionnaires. Plug, Meyer, Louw and Gouws (in Kotze, 1999) describe questionnaires as research tools by means of which respondents are asked to respond to the same set of questions in a predetermined order.

#### **5.4.2 Guidelines for effective research and questionnaire**

Gray (2004:206-208) and Leedy and Ormrod (2001:202-204) suggest the following guidelines:

##### **Make items clear**

An item achieves clarity when all respondents interpret it in the same way. It often happens that perspectives, words or phrases that make perfect sense to the researcher are unclear to the respondents. Vague and ambiguous words such as “few”, “sometimes” and “usually” should be avoided.

##### **Construct the instrument in such a way that it reflects quality**

A questionnaire that appears to have been put together haphazardly will not elicit high returns.

During the process of constructing the questionnaire, revisions may be necessary in order to eliminate ambiguous or unnecessary items.

##### **Questions should be relevant**

If respondents are asked to respond to questions that are unimportant to them or which deal with aspects about which the respondent has insufficient information, the respondent will respond carelessly and such information will be misleading.

##### **Avoid double-barrelled questions**

A question should be limited to a single concept. Double-barrelled questions contain two or more ideas, and frequently the word “and” is used in the item.

##### **Respondent must be competent to answer**

It is important that the respondents are able to provide reliable information, especially with questions that ask respondents to recall specific incidents.

##### **Phrase question items so that they can be understood by every respondent**

The vocabulary of the items or statements used should be non-technical and should be geared to the least-educated respondent. Construct sentences that are short and simple:

- Avoid negative items
- Avoid biased items
- Keep items short
- A questionnaire is not a test
- Pilot study the questionnaires
- Phrase questionnaire items so as to avoid bias or prejudice that might predetermine a respondent's answer.

### 5.4.3 Types of items in the questionnaire

Questionnaires for research purpose usually consist of two or more sections:

- The biographical section, in which the respondents answer questions on personal issues important to the researcher, and
- The main section, where respondents respond to questions directed at the matter being investigated in the research.

### Biographical Data

#### 1. Biographical Data Appendix A

1	Male		Office use
2	Female	4	

#### 2. Education District

1.	FezileDabi		Office use
2.	Lejweleputswa		
3.	Motheo		
4.	Thabo Mofutsanyana		
5.	Xhariep		

### 3. Highest qualifications

			Office use
1.	PTD		
2.	FDE		
3.	HED		
4.	ACE		
5.	PGCE		
6.	UEC		
7.	PGDE		
8.	BA/BA Hons		
9.	BCom/BSc		
10.	BEd		
11.	BEd Hons		
12.	MEd		
13.	PhD		6

**Figure 5.1: Example of biographical data**

There are many ways in which the main section of a questionnaire can be constructed and to which responses can be given. The type of items in the questionnaire depends on the advantages, uses and limitations of options. The following are examples of closed-ended question types (Cohen et al., 2000:247-248; De Vos et al., 2005:456-457; Fouché, 1998:161:173; Gray, 2004:107-109).

- Dichotomous questions (Figure 5.2) have only two response possibilities, for example “Yes” or No”

- 

Are you currently teaching?	YES	NO
	X	

**Figure 5.2: Example of dichotomous question**

- Likert scale questions

A Likert scale (Figure 5.3) is a scale in which items represent different sub-concepts of the measured object and responses are represented to indicate

different degrees of agreement or disagreement with the item (Cohen et al., 2000:253-254; Fouché, 1998:171-173; Gray, 2004:400).

Mark with an X in the appropriate block to indicate your choice

1. No knowledge (NKL)
2. Little knowledge (LK)
3. Basic knowledge (BK)
4. Understanding (U)
5. Fully understand (FU)

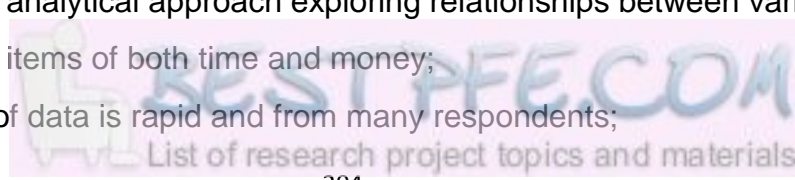
To what extent do you agree or disagree with the statements in relation to your role as an instructional leader?	1	2	3	4	5
	NKL	LK	BK	U	FU
1. Do I know what to look for when checking on educators' teaching portfolios?					
2. Do I know how to establish whether learners have achieved the criteria for learning outcome?					
3. Do I fully understand how to create a learner-centred classroom?					
4. Do I have a working knowledge of the rationale of every learning area/subject?					

**Figure 5.3: Example of a Likert scale**

#### 5.4.4 Advantages of a questionnaire

Gray (2004:206-208) and Leedy and Ormrod (2001:202-203) highlight the following advantages of questionnaires:

- The structured item format response questionnaires fit the objective of the research;
- Suitable for a relatively large audience in a structured, standardised question response;
- Ideal for an analytical approach exploring relationships between variables;
- Low cost in terms of both time and money;
- The inflow of data is rapid and from many respondents;



- Respondents can complete the questionnaire at a time and place that suits them;
- Data analysis of structured closed questions is relatively simple, and questions can be coded quickly;
- Respondent anonymity can be assured, and
- Respondents enjoy a high degree of freedom in completing the questionnaire.

#### **5.4.5 Disadvantages of a questionnaire**

Despite the many advantages to questionnaires, De Vos et al. (2005:167) and Gray (2004:206-208) highlight the following disadvantages of questionnaires:

- There can be a high rate of non-response, and the timely distribution of the questionnaires may be difficult;
- Complex questionnaires requiring in-depth thought will show a low response rate;
- Sometimes not all posted or e-mailed questionnaires are returned or else they are returned late;
- Respondents sometimes complete the questionnaire with a laissez-faire attitude which influences the validity and reliability of responses;
- Items and instructions in some sections of the questionnaire can be unclear and inaccurate;
- Respondents may refuse to respond to items in the questionnaire that they consider to be of a sensitive nature; and
- Lack of mail delivery and high rates of illiteracy on the part of the respondents can create problems.

#### **5.4.6 Research design**

A structured questionnaire was used to determine to what extent the instructional leadership role influences assessment quality in Free State primary schools. The quantitative research was supported by literature on instructional leadership, quality management and assessment practices.

The researcher decided to use and design a four-point Likert scale closed-ended questionnaire (Appendices B to D). The researcher sent out 250



questionnaires to the principals in the Free State Province. Only 160 questionnaires were retrieved. Nielson and Buchana (1991:278) aver that the structured questionnaire is an effective measuring instrument to determine the attitudes and opinions of respondents. The four-point Likert scale questionnaire consisted of the following appendices:

- APPENDIX A: Biographical information
- APPENDIX B: Principal as an instructional leader
- APPENDIX C: Total Quality Management (TQM)
- APPENDIX D: Assessment practices

#### **5.4.7 Data presentation and analysis**

The presentation and interpretation of the research results were done by means of collecting the respondents' responses from different educational districts. Data was presented in relation to educational districts, in the form of cross-tabulations (Appendices B to D). Descriptive (mean scores and standard deviations) and inferential statistical analyses were calculated (paired independent sample t-test, Pearson's Product Moment correlation coefficient test, an exploratory factor analysis) on the role of the principal in relation to instructional leadership, total quality management and assessment practices. This doctoral study formulated the following hypotheses for the purpose of this study:

This study wants to calculate the statistical significance of male and female principals by formulating the following hypotheses:

$H_0$ : There is no difference between males and females results of instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.

$H_1$ : There is a statistically significant difference between males and females in the results of instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.

This study wanted to calculate the statistical significance of experiences in years as a school principal by formulating the following hypotheses:

H<sub>0</sub>: There is no difference between experiences in years as school principal results of instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is a statistically significant difference between the experience in years as a school principal in the results of instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.

This study wanted to calculate the statistical significance of teaching qualifications between male and female principals by formulating the following hypotheses:

H<sub>0</sub>: There is no difference between teaching qualifications of males and females results of instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is a statistically significant difference between the teaching qualifications of male and female principals in the results of instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.

## **5.5 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH**

Semi-structured interview questions (interview schedule, Appendix E) for data were used regarding assessment practices at school level. Five principals were interviewed at their respective schools to collect the necessary data. Respondents were told that their participation was voluntary. Interview questions were based on instructional leadership, total quality management (TQM) and assessment.

Miles and Huberman (1994:10) claim that the qualitative research method is the best strategy for discovery and exploration of a new era. McMillan and Schumacher (2001:16) note that qualitative research methods are suitable to improve the understanding of human behaviour and experience especially in more complex systems of integrated life processes.

### **5.5.1 Semi-structured Interviews: Sampling and data collection process**

This part of the interviews consisted of semi-structured questions. The data in this study was collected to address the research questions. The reason for the use of interviews in this study was to obtain information on how individuals conceive of their world and how they explain or make sense of the important events in their lives (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Semi-structured interviews were used for the data collection process. Ten Free State primary school principals were purposively selected for the interview process (cf. Table 6.14). This purposive sampling was used to explore the instructional leadership role of the principal in terms of quality assurance of assessment practices. To collect the data, the researcher visited each of the five schools and conducted prolonged interviews with each of the participants. The fieldwork for the study was conducted during October and November 2012.

### **5.5.2 Trustworthiness**

McMillan and Schumacher (1997:404-441) state that to ensure trustworthiness, researcher bias should be restricted. The following strategies to minimise researcher bias were followed.

- Triangulation of methods: literature reviews, completion of questionnaires, interviews conducted with principals and observation during normal school days as data collection methods were utilised in the research. Furthermore, Patton (2002) advocates that triangulation strengthens a study by combining various methods. This means using several methods or types of data including the use of both quantitative and qualitative approaches.
- Multiple methods, such as observation, interviews and recordings that lead to one valid, reliable and diverse construction of realities ensure triangulation.

In the present study both quantitative and qualitative approaches were used. Richardson (2000:934) prefers the term *crystallisation* as opposed to triangulation. She argues that triangulation is based on the assumptions of a fixed point or object that can be triangulated; she dismisses this fixed position as the outcome of qualitative studies and proposes that we should not triangulate but crystallise.

Richardson (2000:934) proposes that the concepts of crystallisation enables one to shift from seeing something as a fixed, rigid, two-dimensional object towards seeing it as a crystal, which allows for an infinite variety of shapes, substances, transmutations, dimensions and angles of approach.

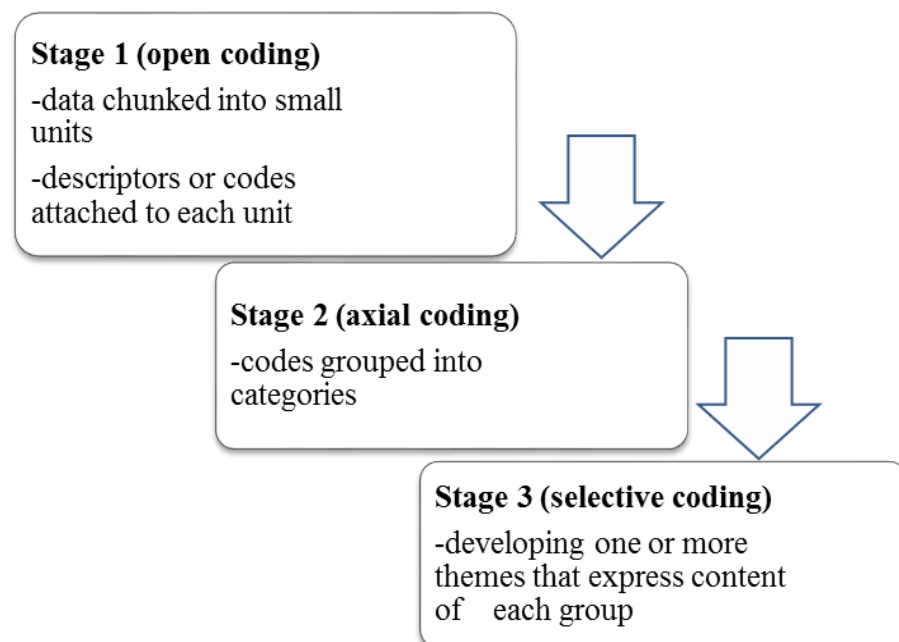
- Mechanically recorded data: all interviews were tape recorded and transcribed verbatim.
- Verbatim accounts: direct quotations from the transcribed data were used to illustrate the participants' views.
- Participants' language: the interviews were conducted in English, the common language of the researcher and the participants.
- Field research: the research was conducted at the school in the natural location of the participants.
- Low-inference descriptors: concrete and precise descriptions from the interviews, observations and documents were used in the research findings.

### **5.5.3 Constant comparison analysis process**

Qualitative data analysis tends to be an on-going and interactive process, which implies that data collection, processing, analysis and reporting are interrelated (Creswell et al., 2010). In this study that analysis was made during the data collection process as all the interviews were recorded. The researcher's first action was to listen to the tapes several times before transcribing them. The researcher transcribed the tapes in order to make sure that all the words of the participants were captured. Creswell et al. (2010:105) state that all data collected electronically (such as by tape or video) must be transcribed and this is best done by the researcher himself as he will most probably include some non-verbal cues in the transcripts: silence may communicate embarrassment or emotional distress, or simply a pause for thought. After reading the data (transcript) several times in order to understand and make sense of it, coding commenced. Creswell et al. (2010:105) define coding as the marking of the segments of the data with symbols or descriptive words. The coding process enables the researcher to quickly retrieve and collect all the text and other data that is associated with some thematic idea so that the sorted bits can be examined together and different cases compared in that respect. The constant comparison analysis

(see Figure 5.4), also termed the method of constant comparison, developed by Glaser and Strauss (1967) was used in analysing the data collected during the interview sessions. Strauss and Corbin (1998) also established that the constant comparison analysis is characterised by three major stages. They explain that during the first stage called 'open coding' the data collected are chunked into small units where the researcher attaches a descriptor or code to each of the chunked units. The second stage (axial coding) follows, where codes are grouped into categories or what can simply be termed as grouping of like-terms or where all the codes that have some similarities are put together into a single category. The third and final stage (selective coding) comes in when the researcher systematically develops one or more themes out of the categories that express each of the groups. Le Compte (2000) views qualitative analysis as an inductive process of organising data into categories and identifying patterns among these categories.

**Figure 5.4: Constant comparison analysis**



Adapted from Glaser and Strauss (1967)

#### **5.5.4 Member checks**

A member check describes the procedure whereby one returns transcripts to the participants at the completion of the interviews to ask them whether the captured record is accurate or needs correction or elaboration. Some scholars

take this to the point where the researcher and the participants work together on the planning, conducting and analysis of results (Ratcliff, 1995).

For member checking the transcripts were returned to the participating principals to verify that the data accurately reflected the interviews. In fact in some cases, parts of the transcripts had to be read to the participants so that parts of the recording could be verified.

The next item to be discussed is ethical issues.

## **5.6 ETHICAL ISSUES**

Ethics is generally concerned with beliefs about what is morally right or wrong. Research ethics is focused on what is morally proper or improper when engaging with participants or accessing archival data (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010).

This study requires interaction with people (interviews) and therefore some ethical issues had to be addressed. Consequently it was ensured that the participants were well informed about the purpose of the research. The researcher wanted the participants to understand the risks they may face as a result of taking part in the research. While the risks in this case were minimal (participants remained anonymous), they still needed to understand that voicing their opinions could be disapproved in certain situations.

It was also important to ensure that the participants were free to make independent decisions about whether or not they wanted to participate, and they could decide against doing so at any point in the study without fear of negative consequences. This is what researchers refer to as *informed consent*. Informed consent is defined by Bulger (2004) as a process in which participants give consent to participate in a research project after being informed of its procedures, risks and benefits.

To this McMillan and Schumacher (2010) add that researchers should generally be open and honest with participants about all aspects of the study. This usually involves the full disclosure of the purpose of the research. The

consent form guaranteed that the participants were aware that their participation was voluntary and that they could withdraw at any time.

In addition in this study, the participants were guaranteed that they would remain anonymous. The participants were therefore guaranteed confidentiality in this study. The researcher concurs with McMillan and Schumacher (2010) who understand confidentiality to mean that no one has access to individual data or names of the participants except for the researcher. The participants were given a consent form (see Appendix I). After explaining all these details, the participants understood the significance of their role in this study and willingly agreed to participate.

## **5.7 CONCLUSION**

Chapter 5 discussed qualitative and quantitative methodology used to gather data; different paradigms, methods and data collection tools were also discussed. This includes the positivist paradigm where qualitative methods are often used. Data collection tools such as interviews and a questionnaire were used in this regard. After interviews had been conducted, member checks with the principals as interviewees were used for verification study and questionnaires were also used to gather data from the principals.

The next chapter deals with the presentation of data and interpretation of research results.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF RESEARCH RESULTS**

#### **6.1. INTRODUCTION**

The aim of this study was to design a proposed instructional leadership framework to ensure effective and quality assessment practices at school level. To achieve this aim, a mixed-method investigation was conducted to gather information on the following research questions:

- What constitutes instructional leadership and how will this leadership role ensure assessment practices at school level?
- What is total quality management and how will this concept of assessment competency for principals at school level?
- How will this study impact on quality management for improvement of assessment practices in schools?
- Are there any significant differences between male and female primary school principals' qualifications and years of experiences in relation to the roles and responsibilities as an instructional leader, the implementation of a total quality management system and in ensuring effective quality assessment practices at primary schools in the Free State Department of Basic Education?
- What is the current status of the principal's assessment training needs, as well as challenges faced regarding effectiveness of instructional leadership and demonstrating effective assessment competencies at primary schools?

This study aimed to calculate the statistical significance of male and female principals by formulating the following hypotheses:

H<sub>0</sub>: There is no difference between the males and females results of instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.



H<sub>1</sub>: There is a statistically significant difference between males and females in the results of the instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.

This study wanted to calculate the statistical significance of experiences in years as a school principal by formulating the following hypotheses:

H<sub>0</sub>: There is no difference between experiences in years as school principal results of instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is a statistically significant difference between the experiences in years as a school principal in the results of instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.

This study wanted to calculate the statistical significance of teaching qualifications between male and female principals by formulating the following hypotheses.

H<sub>0</sub>: There is no difference between teaching qualifications of males and females results of instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is a statistically significant difference between the teaching qualifications of male and female principals in the results of instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.

The analysis and interpretation of the research results were conducted by means of the cross tables, based on the sections of questionnaire (Appendices B to D) and interviews (Appendix E).

## 6.2 DESCRIPTIVE QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS



## 6.2.1 Appendix A: Biographical Information of the principal as an Instructional Leader

This part of the questionnaire focuses on the role and responsibilities of the principal as an instructional leader in a school. Appendix A of the questionnaire, relating to questions A1-7, intended to ascertain the role of the principal as instructional leader in advancing their involvement in their school community.

**Table 6.1: Summary of biographical data of principals**

Personal particulars of principals as instructional leaders	Respondents of primary school principals (N=165)		Educational district									
			FezileDabi		Lejweleputswa		Motho		Thabo Mofutsanyana		Xhariep	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
<b>Gender</b>												
Male	94	57,0	9	9.5	23	24.4	12	12.7	38	40.4	12	12.7
Female	71	43,0	5	7.0	8	11.2	14	19.7	32	45.0	12	16.9
<b>Total</b>	<b>165</b>											
<b>Are you Currently teaching( mark with an x)</b>												
Yes	79	47.9	2	2.5	24	30.3	19	24.0	25	31.6	9	11.3
No	86	52.1	12	13.9	7	8.1	7	8.1	45	53.3	15	17.4
<b>Total</b>	<b>165</b>											
<b>Years of Teaching Experience( mark with an x)</b>												
1-5 years	4	2.4									4	100
6-10 years	33	20.0					11	33.3	12	36.3	10	30.3
11-15 years	63	38.2			15	23.8	10	15.8	31	49.2	10	11.1
16-20 years	50	30.3	11	22.0	11	22.0			22	44.0	6	12.0
20-30 years	15	9.1	3	20.0	3	20.0	7	46.6	2	13.3		
<b>Experience in years as a school principal (mark with an x)</b>												
1-10 years	68	41.2	1	1.4	4	5.8	13	19.1	38	55.8	12	17.6
11-15 years	84	50.9										
16-20 years	12	3.3	8	9.5	22	26.1	16	19.0	26	30.9	12	14.2
20+ years	1	.6	5	41.6	4	33.3	2	16.6	1	8.3		
<b>Highest Qualifications</b>												
PTD	1	.6	1	100								
FDE	1	.6					1	100				

HED	7	4.2							7	100		
ACE	44	26.7	8	18.1	8	18.1	9	20.4	14	31.8	5	11.3
PGCE	33	20.0	1	3.0			10	30.3	21	63.6	1	3.0
PGDE	7	4.2					1	14.2			6	85.7
UED	1	.6							1	100		
BA/BA Hons	23	13.9	2	8.6			11	47.8	4	17.3	6	26.0
BEd Hons	28	17.0	1	3.5	12	42.8	1	3.5	9	32.1	5	17.8
MEd	20	12.1			4	20.0			14	70.0	2	10.0

- **Gender**

Table 6.1 indicates that male respondents comprised 57.0% as compared to 43.0% of female respondents **currently teaching as a principal at their respective schools.**

Based on the information in Table 6.1, 52.1% principals did not teach and 47.2% respondents indicated that they currently teach at their school.

- **Years of teaching experience(mark with an x)**

Based on the information in Table 6.1 2, only 4% indicated teaching experience in the category of 1-5 years. The majority (38.2%) fell in the category of 11-15 years. This implies that most of school principals in this study have more than eleven to fifteen years teaching experience.

- **Experience in years as school principal(mark with an x)**

Based on the information in Table 6.1, the majority (50.9%) of principals fell in the category of 11-15 years. Only 3.3% were in the category of 16-20 years. Data showed that principals in the Thabo Mofutsanyana as education district had the most teaching experience of all principals.

- **Highest qualification**

Based on the information in Table 6.1, most of the principals in this study are qualified with an ACE (26.7%) qualification and PGCE (20.0%). Furthermore, some principals had obtained a BEd Hons (17.0%) qualification. Data showed that principals in the Thabo Mofutsanyana education district were best qualified compared to the other districts.

## 6.2.2 Appendix B: The principal as an instructional leader

This part of the questionnaire focused on the role and responsibilities of the principal as an instructional leader at their respective schools. Appendix B of the questionnaire, relating to questions B1-12, intended to ascertain the role of the principals as instructional leaders in advancing their involvement in their school community. The following Likert scale was used for participants to respond to questions:

1. No knowledge (NKAL)
2. Little knowledge (LK)
3. Basic knowledge (BK)
4. Understanding (U)
5. Fully understand (FU)

**Table 6.2: The role of the principal as an instructional leader**

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements in relation to your roles as an instructional leader?	MEAN	SD	1 NKAL	2 LK	3 BK	4 U	5 FU
1. I know what to look for when checking an educator's teaching portfolio.	2.99	0.922	7.5	17.4	47.2	24.8	3.1
The majority of respondents (Mean=2.99; SD=0.922) when grouped (72.1%) felt that they have basic knowledge of (47.2%) to understanding (24.8%) their role as instructional leaders regarding knowledge to check an educators' teaching portfolio. Respondents indicated that they have little knowledge (17.4%) to not knowledge at all (7.5%). Overall, it is evident that most of the respondents believed that they have basic knowledge regarding their role of checking educators' teaching portfolio.							
2. I know how to establish whether learners have not achieved the criteria for learning outcomes.	2.75	0.733	8.7	16.1	66.5	8.7	
The majority of respondents (Mean=2.75; SD=0.733) felt that they have basic knowledge of (66.5%) to understanding (8.78%) their role as instructional leaders regarding knowledge to establish whether learners have not achieved the criteria for learning outcomes. Respondents indicated that they have little knowledge (16.1%) to no knowledge at all (8.7%). Overall, it is evident that when respondents were grouped from basic knowledge to understanding (75.2%) it is they believed that they had basic knowledge regarding their role by established criteria for learning outcomes.							
3. I understand my role in promoting a culture of teaching values and creating	3.03	0.825	6.7	11.0	56.1	25.0	1.2

positive attitudes towards the National Curriculum Statement (CAPS).							
The majority of respondents (mean=3.03, SD=0.825) felt that they had basic knowledge (56.1%) to understanding (25.0%) their role as instructional leader's knowledge in promoting a culture of teaching values and creating positive attitudes towards the National Curriculum statement (CAPS). The respondents indicated that they have little knowledge (11.0%) to no knowledge at all (6.7%). It is clear that respondents believed that they had basic knowledge regarding their positive attitudes in CAPS.							
4. I know how to effectively manage co-operative learning as teaching strategy in the classroom.	2.98	0.826	6.1	16.4	52.1	24.8	0.6
The majority of respondents (mean=2.98, SD=0.826) felt that they have basic knowledge (52.1%) to understanding (24.8%) their role as instructional leaders on how to effectively manage corporative learning as teaching strategy in the classroom. The respondents indicated that they have little knowledge (16.4%) to no knowledge (6.1%). It is evident that respondents believed that they had basic knowledge in managing co-operative learning as a teaching strategy in the classroom.							
5. I fully understand how to create a learner-centred classroom.	2.66	0.765	6.7	31.3	52.1	9.2	0.6
The majority of respondents (mean=2.66, SD=0.765) felt that they have basic knowledge (52.1%) to understanding (9.2%) of their role as instructional leaders in creating a learner-centred classroom. The respondents indicated that they have little knowledge (31.3%) to no knowledge at all (6.7%). It is evident that respondents believed that they have basic knowledge regarding their learner-centred classroom.							
6. I have clear understanding of how to implement effective assessment strategies in line with the CAPS and National Protocol Assessment	2.74	0.756	6.1	25.6	56.7	11.0	0.6
The majority of respondents (mean=2.74; SD=0.756) felt that they have basic knowledge (56.7%) to understanding (11.0%) how to implement effective assessment strategies in line with the CAPS and National Protocol Assessment. The respondents indicated that they have little knowledge (25.6%) to no knowledge at all (6.1). It is evident that respondents believed that they had basic knowledge regarding effective assessment strategies in line with the CAPS and National Protocol Assessment.							
7. I know which assessment standards are in each learning outcome.	2.96	0.811	5.5	17.0	54.5	21.8	1.2
The majority of respondents (mean=2.96; SD=0.811) when grouped (76.3%) felt that they had basic knowledge (54.5%) to understanding (21.8%) of their role as instructional leaders regarding knowledge of assessment standards in each learning outcome at all (5.5%). Overall it is evident that most of the respondents believed that they had basic knowledge regarding the assessment standards are in each learning outcome.							

8. I know how to effectively manage the teaching of problem solving and thinking skills.	2.70	1.044	18.2	18.2	40.6	21.8	1.2
The majority of respondents (mean=2.70; SD =1.044) when grouped (62.4%) felt that they have basic knowledge (40.6%) to understanding of (21.8%) their role as instructional leaders regarding effectively teaching problem solving and thinking skills. Respondents have indicated that they have little knowledge (18.2%) to no knowledge at all (18.2%). Overall it is evident that most of the respondents believed that they had basic knowledge regarding the teaching of problem-solving and thinking skills.							
9. I have a working knowledge of the rationale of every learning area.	3.05	0.743	6.1	6.1	64.8	22.4	0.6
The majority of respondents (mean=3.05; SD=0.743) when grouped (87.2%) felt that they have basic knowledge (64.8%) to understanding of (22.4%) their role as instructional leaders regarding knowledge of the rationale of each leaning areas. Respondents have indicated that they have little knowledge (6.2%) to no knowledge at all (6.1%). Overall; it is evident that they had basic knowledge regarding their working knowledge of the rationale of every learning area.							
10. I know how the contact time in CAPS differs from pervious time allocation.	3.07	0.729	6.1	5.5	64.8	23.0	0.6
The majority of respondents (mean=3.07; SD=0.742) when grouped (87.8%) felt that they have basic knowledge (64.8%) to understanding of (23.0%) their role as instructional leaders regarding how contact time in CAPS differs from previous time allocation. Respondents have indicated that they have little knowledge (5.5%) to no knowledge at all (6.1%). Overall it is evident that most had basic knowledge regarding the difference between CAPS and previous time allocation.							
11. I know the difference between Curriculum 2005 and the National Curriculum statement.	3.10	0.729	5.5	4.2	66.1	23.0	1.2
The majority of the respondents (mean=3.10; SD=0.729) when grouped (89.1%) felt that they had basic knowledge (66.1%) to understanding of (23.0%) their role as instructional leaders regarding the difference between 2005 and CAPS. Respondents indicated they have little knowledge (4.2%) to no knowledge at all (5.5%). Overall, it is evident that most of the respondents believed that they had basic knowledge regarding Curriculum 2005 and National Curriculum Statement.							
12. I know how the CAPS timetable differs from a traditional timetable.	3.08	0.724	5.5	5.5	65.5	23.0	0.6
The majority of the respondents (mean=3.08; SD=0.0724) when grouped (88.5%) felt that they had basic knowledge (65.5%) to understanding of (23.0%) their role as instructional leaders regarding knowledge to know how CAPS timetable differs from a traditional timetable. Respondents indicated that they have little knowledge (5.5%) to no knowledge at all (5.5%). Overall, it was evident that most of the respondents believed that they have basic knowledge regarding CAPS' and traditional time table.							

## Summary of main findings from the descriptive data analysis

According to the findings, most of the respondents indicated that they had basic knowledge (40% - 66%) to no knowledge between (18.2% - 5.5%) regarding their roles as instructional leaders. Respondents indicated little knowledge between (31.3% - 4.2%); overall, it was evident that most of the respondents believed that they have basic knowledge regarding the role of an instructional leader.

### 6.2.3 Appendix C: Total quality management (TQM)

This part of the questionnaire focused on principals' role as instructional leaders and responsibilities regarding total quality management (TQM) at their respective schools.

Principals had to indicate choice according to

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Agree
4. Strongly agree

**Table 6.3: Effective TQM system on the role as the school principal**

To what extent do you agree or disagree regarding the effective TQM system on your role as the school principal??	MEAN	SD	1 SD	2 D	3 A	4 SA
1. TQM is an integral of the planning processes in my school	2.80	0.616	6.1	12.2	76.8	4.9
The majority of respondents (76.8%) agreed that TQM is an integral part of the planning processes (mean=2.80; SD=0.616) in their school, while 4.9% strongly agreed to this statement. Twelve per cent disagreed, and 6.1% strongly disagreed. Overall, a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 81.7%.						
2. TQM model is a framework for the promotion of a quality cultural change to accomplish the school vision.	2.91	0.552	4.9	5.5	83.5	6.1
The majority of respondents (83.5%) agreed that the TQM model was a framework for promotion of a quality cultural change to accomplish the school vision (mean=2.91; SD=0.552) in their school, while 4.9% strongly agreed to this statement. Five point five per cent disagreed, and 4.9% strongly disagreed. Overall, a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 89.6%.						

3.	In our school we develop and implement quality assurance policy as part of the TQM.	2.98	0.673	4.9	8.6	67.9	16.7
The majority of respondents (67.9%) agreed that the school developed and implemented quality assurance policy as part of the TQM (mean=2.98; SD=0.673), while 4.9% strongly agreed to this statement. Eight point six per cent disagreed, and 4.9% strongly disagreed. Overall, a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 84.6%.							
4.	In our school we plan, implement and present workshops on quality assurance as part of TQM.	2.89	0.543	4.9	6.1	84.1	4.9
The majority of respondents (84.1%) agreed that the school planned, implemented and presented workshops on quality assurance as part of TQM (mean=2.89; SD=0.543), while 4.9% strongly agree to this statement, and 6.1% disagreed. An inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 89%.							
5.	As an instructional leader I adopt for quality assurance purpose.	3.02	0.664	4.9	6.1	70.7	18.3
The majority of respondents (70.7%) agreed that an Instructional Leader adopted for quality assurance purpose (mean=3.02, SD=0.664), while 18.3% strongly agreed to this statement 6.1% disagreed and 4.9% strongly disagreed. Overall a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 89%.							
6.	In our school the principal strives for quality assurance as part of TQM to eliminate barriers for educators to work efficiently and effectively.	3.04	0.630	4.9	3.0	75.0	17.1
The majority of respondents (75.0%) agreed that the school principal strived for quality assurance as part of TQM to eliminate barriers for educators to work efficiently and effectively (mean=3.04; SD=0.630) while 4.9% strongly disagreed, and 3.0% disagreed. Overall a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 92.1%.							
7.	In our school for quality assurance as part of TQM learners are regarded as the most important customers.	2.19	0.569	4.9	6.1	81.7	7.3
The majority of respondents (81.7%) agreed that in the school quality assurance as part of TQM learners are regarded as the most important customers (mean=2.19; SD=0.569), while 4.9% strongly disagreed to this statement 6.1%, disagreed and 4.9% strongly disagreed. Overall, a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 89%.							
8.	As an instructional leader I give educators direction to promote quality assurance as part of TQM at school.	2.95	0.546	4.9	3.0	84.8	7.3



<p>The majority of respondents (84.8%) agreed that an instructional leader gave educators direction to promote quality assurance as part of TQM at school. (mean=2.95; SD=0.546), while 4.9% strongly disagree to this statement, 3.0% disagreed and 4.9% strongly disagreed. Overall, a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of 'strongly agreed' and 'agreed' gave an overall majority of 92.1%.</p>							
9.	In our school the principal as an instructional leader promotes quality assurance as part of leadership in TQM.	2.86	0.567	5.6	7.4	82.7	4.3
<p>The majority of respondents (852.7%) agreed that the school principal as an instructional leader promoted quality assurance as part of leadership in TQM (mean=2.86; SD=0.567), while 5.6% strongly disagreed to this statement 7.4%, disagreed and 5.6% strongly disagreed. Overall a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 87%.</p>							
10.	As a principal of the school I have no fear of continuous change and transformation as part of quality assurance in TQM.	2.92	0.547	5.6	2.5	86.3	5.6
<p>The majority of respondents (86.3%) agreed that the principal of the school did not fear continuous change and transformation as part of quality assurance in TQM (mean=2.92; SD=0.547), while 5.6% disagreed and 5.6% strongly disagreed. Overall, a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 91.9%.</p>							
11.	In the school the principal as an instructional leader establishes effective and constant communication for quality assurance as part of TQM to motivate educators.	2.91	0.594	5.6	5.6	80.9	8.0
<p>The majority of respondents (80.9%) agreed that the principal as an Instructional Leader established effective and constant communication for quality assurance as part of TQM to motivate educators (mean=2.91; SD=0.594), while 5.6% strongly disagreed on this statement, 5.6% disagreed and 5.6% strongly disagreed. Overall, a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 88.9%.</p>							
12.	In our school the principal as an instructional leader participates with educators in quality assurance as part of TQM indecision making.	2.94	0.571	5.6	2.5	84.0	8.0
<p>The majority of respondents (84.0%) agreed that the principal as an instructional leader participated with educators in quality assurance as part of TQM in decision making. (mean=2.94; SD=0.571), while 5.6% strongly disagreed to this statement, 2.5% disagreed and 5.6% strongly disagreed. Overall, a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 92%.</p>							
13.	The principal an instructional leader develops educators in terms of quality assurance so	2.93	0.596	5.6	4.6	80.9	8.6

that educators have direction as part of TQM.						
The majority of respondents (80.9%) agreed that the principal as an instructional leader developed educators in terms of quality assurance so that educators had direction as part of TQM. (mean=2.93; SD=0.596,) while 5.6% strongly disagreed to this statement, 4.6% disagreed and 5.6% strongly disagreed. Overall, a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 89.5%.						

### **Summary of main findings of the role and responsibilities of the principal as instructional leader regarding total quality management (TQM) at school level**

According to the information in Table 6.3, the majority (percentage between 70% - 84%) agreed about the principal as an instructional leader regarding total quality management (TQM). It was evident that the principals understood and agreed that TQM was a tool to support them as principals to be effective in the school. Overall it was evident that the majority of respondents agreed to strongly agreed that TQM is important for the principals as instructional leaders at school.

#### **6.2.4 Appendix D: Assessment practice**

This part of the questionnaire focused on the principal's roles and responsibilities as instructional leader regarding assessment practices at the respective schools.

They had to choose between:

1. Disagree;
2. Strongly disagree;
3. Agree;
4. Strongly agree

**Table 6.4: Principals' role regarding assessment practices at school**

To what extent do you agree or disagree regarding assessment practices in the following statements.	MEAN	SD	1 SD	2 D	3 A	4 SA
1. The principal regularly monitors assessment in the classroom.	2.58	.829	14.6	20.1	57.1	7.3
The majority of respondents (57.1%) agreed that the principal regularly monitored assessment in						

the classroom, while 7.3% strongly agreed to this statement. Twenty point one per cent disagreed, and 14.6% strongly disagreed. Overall, a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 64.4%.						
<b>2. The principal establishes clear criteria to support classroom assessment practices.</b>	<b>2.61</b>	<b>.712</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>33.9</b>	<b>52.7</b>	<b>7.3</b>
The majority of respondents (52.7%) agreed that the principal established clear criteria to support classroom assessment practices. While 7.3% strongly agreed to this statement, 33.9% disagreed and 6.1% strongly disagreed. Overall, a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of 'strongly agree' and agree gave an overall majority of 60%.						
<b>3. The principal provides for easy implementation of the assessment policy.</b>	<b>2.84</b>	<b>.629</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>11.0</b>	<b>76.2</b>	<b>6.7</b>
The majority of respondents (76.2%) agreed that the principal provided for easy implementation of the assessment policy, while 6.7% strongly agreed to this statement. 11.0% disagreed to this statement. Overall a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of 'strongly agree' and agree gave an overall majority of 82.9%.						
<b>4. The principal facilitates assessment task teams in the school.</b>	<b>2.98</b>	<b>.740</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>10.3</b>	<b>63.6</b>	<b>20.0</b>
The majority of respondents (63.6%) agreed that the principal facilitated assessment task teams in the school, while 20.0% strongly agreed to this statement 10.3% disagreed and 61% strongly disagreed. Overall, a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 83.6%						
<b>5. The principal supports educators in their assessment tasks</b>	<b>2.48</b>	<b>1.023</b>	<b>18.5</b>	<b>36.4</b>	<b>24.1</b>	<b>21.0</b>
The majority of respondents (36.4%) disagreed that the principal supported educators in their assessment tasks, while 21.0%% strongly agreed to this statement; 36.4% disagreed and 18.5% strongly disagreed. Overall a strong inclination of towards agreeing was observed as a combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 45.1%						
<b>6. The principal creates opportunity for staff development regarding assessment practices.</b>	<b>2.84</b>	<b>0.676</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>14.1</b>	<b>70.1</b>	<b>9.8</b>
The majority of respondents (70.1%) agreed that the principal created opportunity for staff development regarding assessment practices, while 9.8% strongly agreed to this statement, 14% disagreed and 6.1% strongly disagreed. Overall, a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 79.9%.						
<b>7. The principal acts as an assessment leader at school</b>	<b>2.70</b>	<b>0.686</b>	<b>5.5</b>	<b>26.4</b>	<b>60.7</b>	<b>7.4</b>
The majority of respondents (60.7%) agreed that the principal acted as an assessment leader at school, while 7.4% strongly agreed to this statement, 26.4% disagreed and 5.5% strongly disagreed. Overall, a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of						

strongly agree and agreed gave an overall majority of 68.1%.						
<b>8. The principal plays a fundamental role in the assessment practices at school</b>	<b>2.87</b>	<b>0.641</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>9.8</b>	<b>75.6</b>	<b>8.5</b>
The majority of respondents (75.6%) agreed that the principal played a fundamental role in the assessment practices at school, while 8.5% strongly agreed to this statement, 9.8% disagreed and 6.1% strongly disagreed. Overall, a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 84.1%.						
<b>9. In our school we develop an assessment policy.</b>	<b>2.87</b>	<b>0.658</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>10.9</b>	<b>73.3</b>	<b>9.7</b>
The majority of respondents (73.3%) agreed that in their school they developed an assessment policy while 9.7% strongly agreed to the statement; 10.9% disagreed and 6.1% strongly disagreed. Overall, a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 83%.						
<b>10. The principal creates a culture for quality assessment practice in this school.</b>	<b>2.87</b>	<b>0.671</b>	<b>6.7</b>	<b>9.8</b>	<b>73.6</b>	<b>9.8</b>
The majority of respondents (73.6%) agreed that the principal created a culture for quality assessment practice in the school; 9.8% strongly agreed to this statement, 9.8% disagreed and 6.7% strongly disagreed. Overall, a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 83.4%						
<b>11. The principal engages in professional development activities to enhance the quality of assessment in the school</b>	<b>2.93</b>	<b>0.624</b>	<b>5.5</b>	<b>6.7</b>	<b>77.3</b>	<b>10.4</b>
The majority of respondents (77.3%) agreed that the principal engaged in professional development activities to enhance the quality of assessment in the school, 10.4% strongly agreed to this statement, 6.7% disagreed and 5.5% strongly disagreed. Overall a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 87.7%.						
<b>12. Staff development results in a noticeable improvement in assessment practices in the school.</b>	<b>2.80</b>	<b>0.695</b>	<b>5.5</b>	<b>19.6</b>	<b>64.4</b>	<b>10.4</b>
The majority of respondents (64.4%) agreed that improvement in staff development resulted in a noticeable improvement in assessment practices in the school, 10.4% strongly agreed to the statement, 19.6% disagreed and 5.5% strongly disagreed. Overall a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of strongly agree and agree giving an overall majority of 74.8%.						
<b>13. The principals show the necessary skills to support staff in classroom assessment.</b>	<b>2.84</b>	<b>0.693</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>14.7</b>	<b>68.1</b>	<b>11.0</b>
The majority of respondents (68.1%) agreed that the principals showed the necessary skills to support staff in classroom assessment, 11.0% strongly agreed to this statement, 14.7% disagreed						

and 6.1% strongly disagreed Overall a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed as a combination of 'strongly agree' and agree gave an overall majority of 79.1%.

<b>14. The principal creates a culture for the continuous improvement of educators' assessment skills by communicating quality principles.</b>	<b>2.81</b>	<b>0.718</b>	<b>6.2</b>	<b>18.5</b>	<b>63.6</b>	<b>11.7</b>
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The majority of respondents (63.6%) agreed that the principal created a culture for the continuous improvement of educators' assessment skills by communicating quality principles, 11.7% strongly agreed to this statement, 18.5% disagreed and 6.2% strongly disagreed. Overall a strong inclination towards agreeing was observed, as a combination of strongly agree and agree gave an overall majority of 75%.

### **Summary of main findings from the role of the principal as an instructional leader regarding assessment practices at school level**

Most of the respondents indicated they agreed (52.7% to 77.3%) and strongly agreed that the principal's role as an instructional leader influenced assessment practices at school. It was evident that most of the principals understood and agreed that assessment practices were very important at school level. It was also evident that some strongly disagreed (5.5% to 18.5%) to disagreed (36.4% to 6.7%).

### **6.2.5 Inferential statistical analysis on role and responsibilities of the principal In relation to instructional leadership**

#### **6.2.5.1 Measuring the statistically significant difference between the means of male and female principals**

This study calculated mean scores and a statistically significant difference between male and female principals.

H<sub>0</sub>: There is no difference between males and females in the results of instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is a statistically significant difference between males and females in the results of instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.

**Table 6.5: Mean scores and standard deviations for instructional leadership role**

Instructional leadership dimensions	Group	N	Mean	SD	SE mean
Principal as an instructional leader	Male	94	33.2021	8.62676	0.88978
	Female	71	37.1549	5.58735	0.66310
Total Quality Management (TQM)	Male	94	36.3085	9.36595	0.96602
	Female	71	39.3380	3.22465	0.38270
Assessment practices at the school	Male	94	37.0426	9.25379	0.95446
	Female	71	40.7746	6.39016	0.75837

The information in Table 6.5 reflects the mean scores and standard deviation scores. Based on the data provided, it is clear that the instructional leadership role of the principal is better understood by most of the female principals compared to male participants in this study. The statistics show that the male respondents (mean=33.2021; SD=8.62676) score lower on this dimension compared to female principals (mean=37.1549; SD=5.58735). Furthermore, regarding the total quality management (TQM) there is also a difference between male and female principals because female principals have a (mean= 39.3380; SD=3.22465) compared to male principals (mean=36.3085; SD=9.36595). This shows that females understand their roles and responsibilities for implementing the TQM in the school better compared to male principals. Finally, the role and responsibilities regarding assessment practices implemented by the principal indicated that female principals (mean=37.0426; SD=9.25379) understood their assessment practices better than male principals (mean= 40.7746; SD=6.39016).

To compare the sample, a paired independent sample t-test was calculated on the three dimensions regarding the roles and responsibilities of the principal as an instructional leader (Table 6.5).

**Table 6.6: Paired sample test on instructional leadership role of the principal**

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of	
									Lower	Upper
BLead	Equal variances	3.447	.065	-3.363	163	0.001	-3.95	1.175	-6.27	-1.63
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.562	159.588	0.000	-3.95	1.109	-6.14	-1.76
CTQM	Equal variances	33.914	.000	-2.610	163	0.010	-3.029	1.161	-5.32	-0.73
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.916	120.537	0.004	-3.029	1.039	-5.08	-0.97
Dassess	Equal variances	6.525	.012	-2.913	163	0.004	-3.732	1.281	-6.26	-1.20
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.061	161.810	0.003	-3.732	1.219	-6.14	-1.32
Total	Equal variances	11.008	.001	-4.031	163	0.000	-13.68	3.393	-20.37	-6.97

Equal variance not assumed			-4.402	140.816	0.000	-13.676	3.107	-19.82	-7.53
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*Sig. p ≤ 0.05*

Based on the results in Table 6.6, regarding the paired sample t-test which reflect the overall scores of the instructional leadership role, the total quality management and the assessment practices of the female principals are statistically significant ( $t=-4.402$ ,  $df=140.816$ , two-tailed ( $p=0.000$ ) better than those of male principals ( $t=4.031$ ,  $df=163$ ). The  $H_1$  hypothesis is accepted because there is a statistically significant difference in the results of the instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices on the role and responsibilities of the principal in this study.

#### 6.2.5.2 Calculated the correlation coefficient on three dimensions of the instructional leadership role of the principal

In Table 6.7 the Pearson's product moment correlation coefficient ( $r>0.001$  level) was calculated on three dimensions of the role of instructional leadership of the principal. The Pearson's product moment correlation, a statistically significant correlation measurement was employed to determine whether there are statistically significant correlations between the instructional leadership role of the principal, the total quality management and assessment practices.

**Table 6.7: Pearson correlations on three dimensions of instructional leadership**

		<b>BLead</b>	<b>CTQM</b>	<b>DAssess</b>
BLead	Pearson Correlation	1	0.753	0.685
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000	0.000
Instructional leader role of the principal	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	9738.448	7146.794	7209.37
	Covariance	59.381	43.578	43.960
	N	165	165	165
CTQM	Pearson Correlation	0.753	1	0.729
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000		0.000



Total Quality Management	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	7146.794	9257.176	7484.50
	Covariance	43.578	56.446	45.637
	N	165	165	165
DAssess Assessment practices at the school	Pearson Correlation	.685	0.729	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	7209.376	7484.503	11385.61
	Covariance	43.960	45.637	69.424
	N	165	165	165

*Sig.  $r < 0.001$*

Using the Pearson's product moment correlation measurement, a statistically significant correlation was found on the instructional leadership role of the principal of total quality management ( $r=0.753$ ,  $p=0.000$ ) and assessment practices ( $r=0.685$ ;  $p=0.000$ ).

Furthermore, total quality management is statistically significant to the instructional leader role of the principal ( $r=0.753$ ;  $p=0.000$ ) which correlated with assessment practices ( $r=0.729$ ;  $p=0.000$ ). Lastly, the dimension, assessment practices is statistically significant correlated with the instructional leader role of the principal ( $r=0.685$ ,  $p=0.000$ ) and total quality management ( $r=0.729$ ;  $p=0.000$ ).

### **6.2.5.3 Factor analysis on instructional leadership role of the principal**

An exploratory factor analysis was applied to twelve items in the section in the questionnaire on the role of the principal as instructional leader at the school. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) coefficients of sampling adequacy indicate that factor analysis was appropriate for the items in the questionnaire. A KMO value which is greater than 0.5 indicates that the variable is significant at that level. The KMO values relating to the role of the principal as instructional leader at the school were included in the factor analyses, which are presented in Table 7 (KMO value scale was used: 0.90 to 1.00 = marvellous or 0.80 to 0.89 = meritorious or 0.70 to 0.79 = middling or 0.60 to 0.69 = mediocre or 0.50 to 0.59 = miserable and 0.000 to 0.49 = do not factor).

**Table 6.8: Exploratory factor analysis: role of the principal as instructional leader**

<b>Role of the principal as instructional leader</b>	<b>Curriculum policy implementation</b>	<b>Classroom-based management practices</b>
1. I know what to look for when checking an educator's teaching portfolio.	0.803	0.169
2. I know how to establish whether learners have not achieved the criteria's for learning outcomes.	0.608	0.807
3. I understand my role in promoting a culture of teaching values and create positive attitudes towards the National Curriculum Statement (CAPS).	0.726	0.513
4. I know how to effectively manage co-operative learning as teaching strategy in the classroom.	0.833	-0.318
5. I fully understand how to create a learner-centred classroom	0.687	0.779
6. I have a clear understanding of how to implement effective assessment strategies in line with the CAPS and National Protocol Assessment.	0.820	0.186
7. I know which assessment standards are in each of the learning outcomes.	0.922	-0.78
8. I know how to effectively manage the teaching of problems-solving and thinking skills.	0.673	-.0532
9. I have a working knowledge of the rationale of each of the learning areas/subjects.	0.924	-0.183
10. I know how the contact time in CAPS differs from pervious time allocation.	0.929	-.0194
11. I know the difference between C2005, NCS and CAPS	0.890	-.0210
12. I know how the CAPS timetable differs from a traditional time table.	0.0915	-0.214

*KMO=p<0.7*

The data in Table 6.8 show that the overall measuring of sampling adequacy Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) was 0.846 and Bartlett's Test Sphericity was significant,  $\chi^2(N=165 = 3126.77, df =325, p< 0.823)$  indicating that the sample and correlation matrix were appropriate and meritorious. Furthermore, each item in the questionnaire was factorised into two principal component factors,

Curriculum policy implementation (nine items score above 0.7) and Classroom-based management practices (two items scores above 0.7) were calculated (Table 6.8).

#### 6.2.5.4 Factor analysis of the total quality management role of the principal

An exploratory factor analysis was applied to thirteen items on the section in the questionnaire regarding total quality management role of the principal at the school.

**Table 6.9: Exploratory Factor Analysis: Total Quality Management**

Role of the principal regarding total quality management practices	Planning and monitoring of quality procedures and practices	TQM as quality assurance of assessment tool
1. TQM is an integral of the planning processes in my school.	0.970	0.870
2. The TQM model is a framework for the promotion of a quality cultural change to accomplish the school vision.	0.781	0.911
3. In our school we develop and implement quality assurance policy as part of the TQM.	0.887	0.817
4. In our school we plan, implement and present workshops for the staff on quality assurance issues as part of TQM procedures and processes.	0.782	0.918
5. As an instructional leader I adopt and inform all staff of the purpose of quality assurance in enhancing TQM at our school	0.883	0.861
6. In our school we strive and implement quality assurance procedures as part of TQM to eliminate barriers for educators to work efficiently and effectively.	0.892	0.852
7. In our school quality assurance is a component of TQM as well as the learners being regarded as the most important customers.	0.901	0.931

8.	As an instructional leader I give and provide educators direction to promote quality assurance as part of TQM, at our school.	0.975	0.925
9.	In our school I promote quality assurance as part of my role as instructional leadership in the TQM process.	0.876	0.906
10.	As the instructional leader of the school, I have no fear of continuous change and transformation as part of quality assurance in TQM.	0.884	0.904
11.	In the school as the instructional leader, I establish effective and constant communication for quality assurance as part of TQM to motivate educators and learners.	0.872	0.922
12.	In our school, as the instructional leader, I participate with educators, SMT and SGB for quality assurance as part of TQM in decision making and monitoring.	0.784	0.884
13.	The role of the instructional leader is to develop and set an enabling environment for educators in terms of quality assurance practices so that they have direction as part of the TQM process.	0.935	0.905

$KMO=p<0.7$

In Table 6.9, the overall measuring of sampling adequacy Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) was 0.809 and Bartlett's Test Sphericity was significant,  $\chi^2(N=165 = 334.81; df =311, p<0.891)$  indicating that the sample and correlation matrix were appropriate and meritorious. Furthermore, each item in the questionnaire was factorised to two principal component factors, planning and monitoring of quality procedures and practices (thirteen items scores above 0.7) and quality assurance of assessment practices (thirteen items scores above 0.7) were calculated.

#### **6.2.5.5 Factor analysis of the assessment practices' role of the principal**

Factor analysis was applied to thirteen items on the section in the questionnaire on the role of the principal in assessment practices at the school. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) coefficients of sampling adequacy were used.

**Table 6.10: Exploratory factor analysis: Effective assessment practices (N=165)**

Principal component factor analysis of the role of the instructional leader regarding assessment practices	Component	
	Support and implementation of assessment policy	Monitoring of classroom assessment regularly
1. The principal as the instructional leader regularly monitors assessment practices in the classroom.	0.319	0.795
2. The principal establishes clear criteria to support classroom assessment practices.	0.471	0.692
3. The principal provides for easy ways for the implementation of the assessment policy at school.	0.858	0.374
4. The principal facilitates assessment task teams in the school.	0.850	0.237
5. The principal supports educators in their assessment tasks.	0.168	0.842
6. The principal creates opportunities for staff development regarding assessment practices.	0.861	0.357
7. The principal acts as an assessment leader at school.	0.558	0.731
8. The principal plays a fundamental role in the assessment practices at school.	0.864	0.396
9. In our school we develop an assessment policy.	0.827	0.421
10. The principal creates a culture for quality assessment practice in these school.	0.797	0.371
11. The principal engages in professional development activities to enhance the quality of assessment in the school.	0.751	0.475
12. Staff development results in a noticeable improvement in assessment practices in the school.	0.473	0.782
13. The principals show the necessary competency or skills to support staff in classroom assessment.	0.403	0.828
14. The principal creates a culture for the continuous improvement of educators' assessment skills by communicating quality principles.	0.418	0.792

$KMO=p<0.7$

In Table 6.10, the overall measuring of sampling adequacy Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) was 0.833 and Bartlett's Test Sphericity was significant,  $\chi^2(N=165= 301.81, df =351, p< 0.788)$  indicating that the sample and correlation matrix were appropriate and middling. Furthermore, each item in the questionnaire was factorised into two principal component factors, support and implementation of assessment policy (seven items scores above 0.7) and regular monitoring of classroom assessment practices (five items scores above 0.7) were calculated.

#### **6.2.5.6 Principal component factor matrix of the role of the principal as an instructional leader**

Table 6.11 shows the rotated principal component factor matrix of the role of the principal as an instructional leader regarding three roles and responsibilities of the school principal.

**Table 6.11: Rotated factor matrix and reliability analysis of the role of the principal as an instructional leader (N=165)**

<b>Principal component factor analysis on the role of the instructional leader regarding three roles and responsibilities of the school principal</b>	<b>Instructional leadership role</b>	<b>Total Quality Management</b>	<b>Assessment practices</b>
Curriculum policy implementation	0.806		
Classroom-based management practices	0.992		
Planning and monitoring of implementation quality procedures and practices in place		0.866	
Ensures adherence to assurance procedures and practices at school		0.804	
Engages in professional development activities to support and implementation of assessment policy at school			0.976
A culture for the continuous improvement of educators' assessment skills is implemented			0.797

*KMO=0.7*

Table 6.11 shows the rotated principle component factor matrix of the role of the principal as an instructional leader which was calculated ranging from *highly* reliable 0.992 to *modestly* reliable at 0.797 regarding three roles and responsibilities of the school principal. The rotated matrix factors were reliable ( $\alpha=0.7$ ) and appropriate (KMO=0.7) for this data set.

## 6.2.6 Analysis of variances (ANOVA) on instructional leadership, total quality management and assessment practices

### 6.2.6.1 Measuring of qualifications in relation to the role of the principal as an instructional leadership role

In this part of the questionnaire the statistical significance of teaching qualifications between male and female principals was calculated. The following hypotheses were formulated:

H<sub>0</sub>: There is no difference between teaching qualifications of males and females in the results of the instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.

H<sub>1</sub>: There is a statistically significant difference between the teaching qualifications of male and female principals in the results of instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.

This study calculated and used the ANOVA for statistical significance of qualifications of a principal as an instructional leader in Free State schools.

**Table 6.12: ANOVA: qualifications of a principal as an instructional leader**

			Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
BLead	Main Effects	A3	2455.721	9	272.858	50.807	0.000*
	Model		2455.721	9	272.858	5.807	0.000
	Residual		7282.727	155	46.985		
	Total		9738.448	164	59.381		
CTQM	Main Effects	A3	1902.582	9	211.398	40.455	0.000*
	Model		1902.582	9	211.398	4.455	0.000
	Residual		7354.594	155	47.449		
	Total		9257.176	164	56.446		
DAssess	Main Effects	A3	2372.632	9	263.626	40.534	0.000*
	Model		2372.632	9	263.626	4.534	0.000
	Residual		9012.980	155	58.148		
	Total		11385.612	164	69.424		
Total	Main Effects	A3	26263.842	9	2918.205	70.909	0.000*
	Model		26263.842	9	2918.205	7.909	0.000
	Residual		57188.970	155	368.961		
	Total		83452.812	164	508.859		

Sig.  $p < 0.05$

The effect size was calculated as follows for weak effect = 0-0.1; modest effect = 0.1–0.3 and strong effect =  $p > 0.5$ . In Table 11, the effect sizes of the three dimensions were calculated to determine the effect size of the principal's role of an instructional leader (0.025), the total quality management (0.021) and assessment practices (0.021) at school. The overall average effect size for all three dimensions combined indicated a *modest effect* of 0.031. The one-way analysis of variances (ANOVA) was calculated for statistically significant difference in qualifications of school principals regarding instructional leadership role ( $F=5.807$ ; *Sig.* 0.000), total quality management ( $F=4.455$ ; *Sig.* 0.000), and assessment practices ( $F=4.534$ ; *Sig.* 0.000) of school principals at their respective schools. The overall difference in qualifications of school principals in all three dimensions indicated a *highly statistically significant* ( $F=7.909$ ; *Sig.* 0.000, i.e.  $p < 0.05$ ) relationship. The  $H_1$  hypothesis is accepted because there is a statistically significant difference in impact on the qualification of a principal as an instructional leader for instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.

#### **6.2.6.2 Measuring of experiences in years as a school principal in relation to an instructional leadership role**

This study aimed to calculate the statistical significance of different years of experience as a school principal by formulating the following hypotheses:

$H_0$ : There is no difference between experiences in years as a school principal in the results of instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.

$H_1$ : There is statistically significant difference between the experience in years as a school principal in the results of instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.

The ANOVA regarding the effect size and statistical significance of experiences in years as a school principal was calculated as indicated in Table 6.13.



**Table 6.13: ANOVA: Experiences in years as a school principal**

			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
BLead	Main Effects	A5	777.197	3	259.066	40.654	0.00
	Model		777.197	3	259.066	4.654	0.00
	Residual		8961.251	161	55.660		
	Total		9738.448	164	59.381		
CTQM	Main Effects	A5	382.891	3	127.630	20.316	0.07
	Model		382.891	3	127.630	2.316	0.07
	Residual		8874.285	161	55.120		
	Total		9257.176	164	56.446		
DAssess	Main Effects	A5	707.901	3	235.967	30.558	0.01
	Model		707.901	3	235.967	3.558	0.01
	Residual		10677.711	161	66.321		
	Total		11385.612	164	69.424		
Total	Main Effects	A5	6339.615	3	2113.205	40.412	0.00
	Model		6339.615	3	2113.205	4.412	0.00
	Residual		77113.197	161	478.964		
	Total		83452.812	164	508.859		

*Sig.  $p < 0.05$*

In Table 6.13 the effect sizes of the three dimensions were calculated regarding the principal's role as an instructional leader (0.071), the total quality management (0.066) and assessment practices (0.062) at school. The overall average effect size for all three dimensions combined indicated a *strong effect* of 0.075. The one-way analysis of variances (ANOVA) was calculated for statistically significant difference in qualifications of school principals regarding instructional leadership role ( $F=4.654$ ; *Sig. 0.004*), total quality management ( $F=2.316$ ; *Sig. 0.078*), and assessment practices ( $F=3.558$ ; *Sig. 0.016*) of school principals at their respective schools. The overall difference in qualifications of school principals in all three dimensions indicate a *highly statistically significant* ( $F=4.412$ ; *Sig. 0.005*, *i.e.  $p < 0.05$* ) strong relationship. The hypothesis is accepted because there is a statistically significant difference in qualifications of a principal as an instructional leader, in results of instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices.

### 6.3 CONCLUSION OF FINDINGS OF QUANTITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

Findings revealed that there is a statistically significant difference between males and females in relation to the results of instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices. Secondly, a statistically significant difference between the experiences in years as a school principal in the results of instructional leadership role, total quality management and assessment practices existed.

Lastly, there is a statistically significant difference between the teaching qualifications of male and female principals in the results of all three dimensions of the role of principal as an instructional leader.

## 6.4 QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS

### 6.4.1 Participants' biographical information

**Table 6.14: Biographical data of interviewees (N=7)**

Interviewee	Gender	Qualifications	Years of Teaching Experience	Experience as Principal
A	F	BA, ACE	20	8
B	M	PTD, ACE	26	10
C	F	BA, BEd, ACE	19	12
D	M	PTD, ACE	14	9
E	F	BA	30	5

The table above shows that most of the principals are women who are directly involved. Data analysis is divided into two appendices: Appendix A quantitative analysis and Appendix B qualitative analysis.

Emanating from the transcribed, recorded interviews, the following themes and sub-themes emerged from the data.

**Table 6.15: Summary of themes and sub-themes emerged from interviews**

Themes	Sub-themes	Respondents quotes
Theme 1 Adhering and insuring CAPS curriculum implementation	1.1. Supporting and monitoring curriculum implementation at school 1.2. Promoting a culture of	Participant A said: "The instructional role of the principal is to make sure that the National Curriculum Statement R –

	<p>teaching values at school</p> <p>1.3. Creating and ensuring a culture of quality teaching and learning at school</p>	<p>12 as well as the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement for each subject and the policy document are used and implemented. All subjects and the policy document are used and followed when attending internal and external workshops.”</p>
<p>Theme 2</p> <p>Checking and quality assurance of educators’ and learners’ portfolios in relation to instil total quality management system in the school</p>	<p>2.1 Recording educators’ and learners’ information in portfolios</p> <p>2.2 Identifying components in learners portfolio for TQM at classroom</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Principal A is a female principal she said: “An educator’s portfolio is a file, folder, box or any suitable storage system with policies and supportive documents.”</li> <li>- Practical work,</li> <li>- Written tasks,</li> <li>- Tests, and</li> <li>- Research.</li> </ul>
<p>Theme 3</p> <p>Challenges and solutions in creating and in ensuring quality of teaching and learning at the school</p>	<p>3.1 Ensuring quality teaching and learning</p>	<p>Principal A, C and E stated:</p> <p>“The challenges that an instructional leader experienced to ensure quality of teaching and learning include lack of resources, lack of workshops, lack of staff development and lack of commitment by both educators and learners.”</p>
<p>Theme 4</p> <p>Implementing procedures and processes of TQM and professional development workshops for staff in quality assurance matters at the school</p>	<p>4.1 Understanding of TQM procedures and processes for implementation at school</p> <p>4.2 The importance of TQM</p> <p>4.3 Implementation of TQM</p>	<p>Female Principal A said:</p> <p>“To ensure that education describes the holistic education given to learner and that every aspect of the learner would be nurtured and developed, educators need to be developed by the principal as an instructional leader.”</p>
<p>Theme 5</p> <p>Ensuring TQM as an integral part of the planning in achieving the vision of the school</p>	<p>5.1 TQM as a planning process</p>	<p>Principals B and C are more specific on continuous teaching and learning, lesson plans, works schedules and content forming part of TQM planning.</p>
<p>Theme 6</p>	<p>6.1 TQM barriers</p>	<p>Principal D said the following:</p>

Implementing TQM practices at school to eliminate barriers of teaching and learning	6.2 Implementing TQM practices at school to eliminate barriers of teaching and learning for educators to work effectively	“Quality assurance is about products working reliably in future and about service activities being dependable and consistent. It is a means of ensuring that errors are as far as possible designed out.”
Theme 7 Creating a culture for ensuring quality assessment practices at school	7.1 Implementing assessment practices in accordance with CAPS guidelines 7.2 Checking and monitoring of assessment practices in place 7.3 Build a culture for ensuring quality assessment practices	Male Principal B said: “To ensure that the National Curriculum Statement Grade R-9 stipulates policy on curriculum and assessment in the school and also improve the implementation of assessment practices.”
Theme 8 Creating opportunities for staff development regarding assessment practices at the school	8.1 Understanding staff development	Principals A, B, C, D and E agreed and reflected that: “Staff development is about empowering of teaching staff, development of educators in totality management and bringing about improvements on how to assess learners.”
Theme 9 Establishing clear criteria to support classroom assessment practices	Sub-theme 9.1 Understanding of instructional leader regarding classroom assessment	Principal A said: “Specific assessment practices are implemented by educators in terms of oral questions, assignments, research and investigations regarding classroom assessment.”

**THEME #1 Promoting a culture of teaching values and creating a positive attitude in ensuring the implementation of the CAPS in a school**

**6.5.1 Subtheme #1.1: Supporting and monitoring curriculum implementation in the school**

According to the majority of the school principals, they see the role of the principal as an instructional leader in promoting a culture of teaching and learning as very important in supporting, monitoring and creating a positive attitude toward effective implementation of the National Curriculum and

assessment and policy statement (CAPS) at the school. Female Principal A with twenty years teaching experience said principals must have curriculum knowledge on how to implement the CAPS policy documents, as well as monitor and support teachers to implement the CAPS policy documents and to provide guidance and effective instructional leadership to teachers at school level. Participant A said,

*“The instructional role of the principal is to make sure that the National Curriculum Statement R – 12 as well as the Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement for each subjects and the policy document are used and implemented. All subjects and the policy document are used and followed when attending internal and external workshops. To ensure that educators have enough resources educators plan CAPS and also ensure that educators plan according to policy document (Principal E).”*

In accordance with the responses above by participants, Krug (1992:432) states that principals should be able to provide information and direction to educators regarding instructional methods, and they should be actively involved in and supportive of curriculum development. Male Principal B and female Principal C responded that they see the role of the principal as a supporter in improving a culture of teaching and learning at the school. The participants had this to say:

*“The principal’s role is to support educators and learners for the improvement of teaching and learning at school.”* (Male Principal B).

*“To ensure that good quality learners are maintained and educators teach as anticipated by the policy document.”* (Female Principal C).

This particular statement supports the idea that the principal should play the role of clinical supervisor in the teaching and learning to support and introduce a proactive approach to staff development at the school. According to both Male Principal D and Female Principal E, the role of the principal as instructional leader in this study, should be to *“lead, communicate, motivate and decision making process. To establish conducive relationship so that curriculum policies are implemented effectively.”* (Male Principal D).

*“The role of an instructional leader is to give direction, lead, manage and control.”* (Female Principal C).

Mayes and Koballa (2012:8-15) report in a similar study that the principal as an instructional leader must understand the curricular goals, big ideas and the articulation of those across grade levels.

### **6.5.2 Subtheme #1.2: Promoting a culture of teaching values in the school**

According to majority of the principals, the role of the principal as an instructional leader is promoting a culture of teaching values which is very important in the effective implementation of the National Curriculum and Assessment and policy statement (CAPS) at the school. Female Principal A with twenty years teaching experience said principals must have curriculum knowledge on how to implement, monitoring and supporting teachers to implement the CAPS/CAPS policy documents to provide guidance and effective instructional leadership to teachers at school level. Participant A said:

*“To ensure educators at school work hard and build a strong foundation for educators and also the senior phase and FET in order to establish a society based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights, with expression to knowledge and skills work learning in the school ( Female Principal A).”*

In order to build a strong foundation for educators female Principal E said, *“In order had to assess, evaluate and moderate the work of educates and learners and to define school mission, goals and objectives.”* The above statement of Principal E supports the statement of Principal A.

This particular statement is supported by Mayes and Koballa (2012:8-15) that the principal oversees the work of the staff and selects instructional materials that advance the goals of the framework for instruction.

### **6.5.3 Subtheme #1.3: Creating and insuring a culture of quality teaching and learning at the school**

According to Mayes and Koballa (2012:18-15), when the curriculum framework is in place, it is the principal's responsibility to conduct information sessions that educators understand. Principal A said,

*"By ensuring a culture of quality of teaching and learning is to produce learners that are able to identify and solve problems and be able to make decisions using critical and creative thinking."*

Principal E differs from Principal A in the following manner:

*"To ensure a culture of teaching and learning the instructional leader should ensure that educators teach according to policy document, to ensure that learners do their homework, to produce effective learners and to control the work of both learners and educators."*

#### **6.5.4 Subtheme #1.4: Ensuring quality of teaching and learning as instructional leader**

According to Mayes and Koballa (2012:8-15), quality of teaching and learning can be ensured by co-ordinating with supervisors of other content areas, meaning that the principal as an instructional leader should encourage collaboration of educators at school.

Principal A's choice differs from those of Principal B and Principal D because Principal A is not specific in terms of checking learners' work and giving learners activities, providing extra classes for learners, administering quality control of work and giving activities that challenge and provoke thinking. Principal A said,

*"Quality becomes a central part of the institution's planning and effective teaching and learning. This happens because all educators have a sound understanding of how to recognise and address barriers to learning and hours to plan for diversity."*

#### **6.6 Theme #2: The role of the principal in checking and assuring the quality of educators' and learners' portfolios in an effort to instil a total quality management system in the school**



### **6.6.1 Subtheme #2.1: Recording educator and learner information in portfolios**

Principal D differs from Principal E. Principal D is more specific because Principal D talks about

- *Practical work,*
- *Written tasks,*
- *Tests, and*
- *Research.*

### **6.6.2 Subtheme #2.2: Identifying of components in learners' portfolios for total quality management at classroom level**

Principals B, C and E have a common understanding about learners' portfolios because they all mention formal and informal activities to be contained in a learner's portfolio.

Principal D differs from Principals B, C and E because Principal D is more specific; he is a male principal and indicated the following to be included in a learner's portfolio:

- *Assignment,*
- *Project,*
- *Investigations,*
- *Research and*
- *Practical activities*

A portfolio is a collection of a learner's work brought together. This portfolio encourages learners to learn. This statement is supported by Greenes et al. (2011:41) regarding how learners' problem solving and academic performance is developed.

### **6.6.3 Subtheme #2.3: Identifying of components in educator portfolio for total quality management at classroom**

Principals B, C and D are more specific than the other principals, because they mentioned the following

- *Work schedules,*
- *Lesson plans,*



- *Recording sheets,*
- *School visits report,*
- *Assessment plan,*
- *Names of educators,*
- *Persal numbers,*
- *Timetables,*
- *Policy document, and*
- *SMT report.*

Principal A is not specific like the other principals. She said, “*An educator’s portfolio is a file, folder, box or any suitable storage system with policies and supportive documents.*”

### **6.7 Theme #3: Challenges and solutions in creating and in ensuring quality of teaching and learning at the school.**

Principals A, C and E are all female principals. They have s common ideas and they are more specific than male Principal B, who is unique in his contributions.

Principals A, C and E stated,

*“The challenges that an instructional leader experienced to ensure quality of teaching and learning include lack or resources, lack of workshops, lack of staff development and lack of commitment by both educators and learners.”*

Male Principal B mentioned,

*“Challenge that an instructional leader experienced to ensure quality of teaching and learning, are changes in the curriculum or Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) to National Curriculum Statement (NCS) and Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS). Relevancy must be taken into account with educators’ competency in the subject. Planning must be made for subject content where different issues or topics are discussed.”*

### **6.8 Theme #4: Implementing procedures and processes of TQM and present workshops to staff in quality assurance matters at the school**

Principal B and Principal C have a common understanding and they are specific because they mention cluster meetings, seminars, team work and parental involvement. Principal A is a female; she has a different interpretation and said,

*“To ensure that education describes the holistic education given to learner and that every aspect of the learner would be nurtured and developed, educators need to be developed by the principal as an instructional leader. Everyone at school is very important including the SMTs, educators, SGBs and learners for the proper implementation of TQM.”*

#### **6.8.1 Subtheme #4.1: Understanding of TQM procedures and processes for implementation at school**

Vergnaud (2009:86) states that learning occurs when a set of situations and a set of concepts are tied together, where learners learn new ones. According to Principals C and D they talk about the involvement of educators, learners and parents in the learning processes and procedures. Principal A is a female and her opinion differs from that of Principals C and D. Principal A said,

*“TQM describes quality management practices where every aspect of the school is in a state of continuous improvement, where everyone has a part to play in improving the school and where every resource, human, financial and physical source is used to improve quality.”*

#### **6.8.2 Subtheme #4.2: The importance of TQM in ensuring quality assurance practices at school**

According to Mayes and Koballa (2012:8-15), an instructional leader selects instructional materials that advance the goals of the framework for instructions; activities are used for quality assurance.

Principals C and D are more specific because they only focused on quality results and quality teaching in ensuring quality assurance practices at school. Principal A is a female principal with 20 years' teaching experience, interpreted quality assurance practices differently from other principals. Principal A said,

*“Quality assurance ensure for quality level at school. It is needed in every sector of the society, quality schools are crucial for creating a quality society. Quality assurance is for best education practice in the South African school.”*

### **6.8.3 Subtheme #4.3: Implementing TQM at the school**

Principals B, C, D and E are specific when they talk about organising, planning, use of pace setters, use of policy documents and meeting with stakeholders on how to implement TQM at school. Principal A's opinion differed from other principals'. She said this on how to implement TQM at school:

*“By using TQM principles and practice by which the school is run where everyone abides by the values, principles and practices are only tools and techniques to reach excellence.”*

## **6.9 Theme #5: Ensuring TQM as an integral part of the planning in the school**

TQM reflects the values, norms, beliefs, traditions and rituals that are developed over time as people work together. This statement is supported by Kosanovich, Reed and Miller (2010:41) who mention that the idea of integration is not new, meaning that TQM is integrated with the school. Participant A further indicated that they focused on learners' needs, minimal barriers, threats; with a chance to learn, creativity and encouragement, fear is virtually non-existent. On the other hand, Principals B, C, D and E are more specific and talk about educators planning together, ensuring availability of evidence and development of objectives for the school in order to express TQM as integral planning in the school.

### **6.9.1 Subtheme #5.1: TQM as a planning process**

Participant A, a female principal is specific about the planning process. She focused on planning on the five pillars of TQM which include values, leadership, improvement plan, communications, tools and techniques.

Principals B and C were more specific on continuous teaching and learning, lesson plans, works schedules and content forming part of TQM planning.

## **6.10 Theme #6: Ensuring and implementing quality assurance process as part of TQM to eliminate barriers for educators to work effectively**

Principal D is a male principal with fourteen years' teaching experience and nine years' experience as a principal. He provided a unique answer: principals A, B and C and were more specific as they talked about teamwork, evidence of work and attendance of workshops as part of TQM to eliminate barriers. Principal D said the following:

*"Quality assurance is about products working reliably in future and about service activities being dependable and consistent. It is a means of ensuring that errors are as for as possible designed out."*

### **6.10.1 Subtheme #6.1: Barriers of teaching and learning**

Principals A, B and C talked about similar and specific things, such as lack of resources and lack of information. Principal D had a different opinion as far as barriers are concerned. Principal D mentioned barriers as:

- *"Working individually in isolation,*
- *Feeling insecure,*
- *Offering a subject of which one does not have a clear understanding,*
- *Lack of quality control on educators and learner work without verification."*

## **6.11 Theme #7: Create a culture for ensuring quality assessment practice at your school**

According to USDE (2010:42), all learning goals must have dates for assessment that are well-known by all staff and adhered to by all educators. To assess learning progress and learners' depth of understanding of fundamental concepts and talks for evaluation may be employed. Principal B is a male with 26 years' teaching experience and 10 years as a principal said, *"To ensure that the National Curriculum Statement grade R-9 stipulates policy on curriculum and assessment in the school and also improve the implementation of assessment practice."*

Principals A, C and D focused on the plan for assessment and teamwork for ensuring quality assessment practices at school.

### **6.11.1 Subtheme #7.1: What are these assessment practices?**

According to Fennel (2011:42), an instructional leader must know what educators know about strategies for assessing learners learning. Several respondents said that educators should know the assessment practice to be used. According to this statement, Principals C and D are more specific on what is to be used for assessment. They indicated *assignments, projects, research, investigation, examination and tests*. Principal B is a female with 26 years of teaching experience and 10 years as a principal.

### **6.11.2 Subtheme #7.2: Difference in assessment practice**

According to Reeves (2009:42), assessment is critical for determining the impact of the instructional programme on learning and for monitoring progress towards achieving goals. This statement was supported by Principal B who indicated that assessment practices are meant to collect, organise and critically evaluate information, equipping learners with knowledge, skills and values for self-fulfilment by providing access to higher education. Principals D and E shared the same opinion that assessment practices are there to unfold learners' talent in totality.

### **6.11.3 Subtheme #7.3: Creating a culture for ensuring quality assessment practices**

Principal B is a female respondent. She had her own opinion on creating a culture for ensuring quality assessment practices at classroom level. Principals A, C, D and E agreed that in broad terms they support the creation of a culture for ensuring quality assessment practices at the school. Principal B said,

*“Facilitate the transition of learner from educational institution to workplace, for active and critical learning, for high knowledge and high skills progression, credibility, quality and efficiently.”*

Principals A, C, D and E are specific in terms of creating a culture for quality assessment practices by referring to having an assessment plan and giving learners activities.

## **6.12 Theme #8: Creating opportunities for staff development regarding assessment practice at the school**

According to Bagnall (2013:13), it is important that professional development programmes take into consideration the needs of both educators and learners. This is done in order to achieve academic goals of the vision and mission of the school that can enhance achievement of those goals by learners with varying interest and talents. Principal C echoed the following:

*“More on proper curriculum development processes that help educators to develop confidence in teaching different subjects and also by imparting knowledge with others.”*

### **6.12.1 Subtheme #8.1: Staff development in assessment practices**

Bagnall (2013:42) states that it is important that educators are developed and empowered in assessment classroom practices. Some educators are unwilling to pursue new initiatives and many are leaving the profession before completing five years. Principals A, B, C, D and E agreed and reflected that:

*“Staff development is about empowering of teaching staff, development of educators in totality, management and bringing about improvements on how to assess learners.”*

## **6.13 Theme #9: As an instructional leader how can you establish clear criteria to support classroom assessment practice in your school?**

According to Wei et al. (2010:43), assessment measures the achievement of specific goals set by teachers in classrooms.

The majority of principals indicated that they have a common understanding and the implementation of classroom assessment which is supported by having a checklist, conducting classroom visits, planning and subject meetings with teachers.

### **6.13.1 Subtheme #9.1: Understanding and implementation of classroom assessment practices**

According to Johnson, Adams and Cummins (2012:41), assessment is about learning new concepts, acquiring skills and reasoning and how classrooms

and time for learning both in and out of school can be structured and assessed. This statement is supported by Principal A which differs from other principals'. This is what Principal A said:

*"Specific assessment practices are implemented by educators in terms of oral questions, assignments, research and investigations regarding classroom assessment."*

#### **6.14 CONCLUSION**

In chapter 6 the interpretation of results was conducted by means of cross tables based on the literature, instructional leadership, total quality management and assessment practices. The focus was on the role of principals as instructional leaders. Interview questions were analysed according to the views of female and male principals in the Free State Province. Cross tables were also used for the analysis of quantitative results obtained from female and male principals. The data obtained was used to compare the views of principals as to how they responded to the research questions.

The next chapter deals with the summary, discussion of findings and recommendations.

# CHAPTER 7

## SUMMARY, DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

### 7.1 INTRODUCTION

The primary aim of this study was to design a proposed instructional leadership framework to ensure effective and quality assessment practices at school level. The study was undertaken through a literature study as well as empirical research. Certain findings and recommendations were made considering the literature study, and personal experience regarding instructional leadership and the empirical study. In this chapter, a summary of the research is given. Secondly, findings are discussed with regard to the research objectives as set out in chapter 1, by referring to the literature review, findings and recommendations.

### 7.2 SUMMARY

**Chapter 1** provides orientation information on the research study, defines the problem and outlines both the purpose of the investigation and the research design. Questions 1-5 are addressed by means of a literature study reflected in chapters 2, 3 and 4. On the basis of the research methods as contained in chapter 6, research outcomes are formulated with reference to the problem questions in order to structure the research. Chapter I was devoted to the research design, the literature study and the research methods.

**Chapter 2** also critically explains instructional leadership and how this leadership role will ensure effective assessment practices at school level. Firstly, many attempts are made to focus on the effective leadership role in ensuring that there is effective teaching and learning in general. Secondly, the components of an instructional leader are discussed. Thirdly, the characteristics of an instructional leader and qualities of the principal are explained. Fourthly, the performing role of an instructional leader focuses on the curriculum, on the principal's performance, improvement of instruction to work collegially with the teaching staff. Finally, it deals with the structures, strategies and systems that are put in place to ensure that the school culture



is dynamic and supportive for effective teaching and learning. It also highlights the instructional leadership role of the principal in ensuring quality assessment practices at school level.

**Chapter 3** conceptualises total quality management for school principals, and enhance and support effective assessment practices at school level. From the literature study in chapter 3 it is evident that the principal plays a critical role in ensuring excellence in producing the results and adhere to the educational outcomes in primary school; the responsibility rests on the shoulders of every experienced principal. If the learner is seen as the focal point of being a customer purchasing a service, the TQM in the school challenges every principal to make a real difference and to make a success of the process.

**Chapter 4** reflects critically on the instructional leadership role of the principal's leadership activities regarding the improvement of assessment practices at school. Assessment is pivotal because it determines the level of understanding of learners for the desired results of the school. The achievement of assessment is enhanced by means of assessment for, of and as learning.

**Chapter 5** reports on the research design of the study in preparation for an empirical investigation comprising qualitative and quantitative methods. In the quantitative phase of the investigation a structured questionnaire was used to establish the current status of principal's assessment training needs, challenges regarding effectiveness of instructional leadership roles and demonstrating effective assessment competencies at primary schools in the Free State Province. In the research design, the focus falls on the preparation of the empirical investigation by means of seeking permission to conduct research within the geographic area, selecting respondents and using research instruments such as questionnaires and interviews for the collection, recording and analysis of data. Interviewees were reassured that confidentiality and anonymity would be respected throughout the study.

**Chapter 6** reports on the empirical investigation into the training of principals in Free State primary schools. This chapter refers in introductory fashion to

the purpose of the empirical research and the instrument of measure used to obtain the research results. The analysis of the qualitative investigation outlines the response rate, the computation of data, the reliability of the research results and the validity of these results. The Pearson correlation and the factor analysis are described in full.

The analysis and interpretation of the research results are presented by frequency tables, Pearson's correlation and the factor analysis according to the questionnaire items in order to table the principals' responses to training needs, as well as assessment competencies.

The findings of this study are then presented in respect of the research questions and research outcomes put forward in chapter 1.

## **7.3 DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS**

### **7.3.1 Findings with regard to the first problem question and the aim of this study:** *What constitutes the instructional leadership role and how will this leadership role ensure the implementation of assessment practices at school level?*

The principal knows and can evaluate teachers' classroom assessment competencies and helps teachers learn to assess accurately and use the results productively. CAPS further states that classroom assessment should be both informal and formal activities, should be continuous and should be conducted at the end of a term.

Research studies indicate that the school principal as an instructional leader should have some competencies to be an effective leader (Northern and Bailey, 1991:25-26). Scholars highlighted seven professional competencies that are aligned to the role of the principal as an instructional leader, in the following:

**Visionary Leadership:** Only a clear vision of the future and a flexible blueprint for arriving at those visions will equip instructional leaders adequately (cf. 2.3.2.4.1).

**Strategic Planning:** This is a proactive mode based on the school principal's understanding of the dynamics of an organisation such as the school. An effective, excellent school principal will always have a good feel for the organisational pulse and temperature of school community (cf. 2, 3.2, 4.1.2.6).

**Change Agency:** The school principal must be an effective leader to understand change and be able to implement it with minimal disruption for the vision of the school. It is helpful for principals to know stages of change and also be aware of the leaders and blockers in the process so that roles can be properly assigned for successful adoption, implementation and institutionalisation of TQM and assessment practices (cf. 2.6, 2.7.8.1).

**Communication:** School principals as instructional leaders must be master communicators of the successful curriculum implementation. They must be able to communicate their expectations with clarity and meaning. Administration presentation must be varied to accommodate the individual styles and unique experience of all learners.

**Role modelling:** Principals as instructional leaders must model their expectations in all settings of the school learning environment. The vision and the strategies for achieving them must be manifested in the behaviour of the principal and his/her school management teams. This includes modelling a variety to teaching styles in forums such as staff meetings and development sessions so as to demonstrate to teachers an awareness of the needs of listeners.

**Nurturing:** The principal must foster a positive school climate where failures are safe and reflection is encouraged. He/she must look after the teachers and they, in turn, must provide the same for learners. The spirit should be team oriented and co-operative both at the building level and in the classroom. The instructional leader should be sensitive to the needs of all shareholders, with an ability to not only see but act on other view points. The nurturing principal is also sensitive to the history of the organisation, knowing when to maintain the traditional and when to introduce the new. (cf. 2.3, 2.4.1, 2.4.2).

**Disturbing:** Principals as instructional leaders are expected to perform beyond expectation because there must be progress in teaching and learning. Principals as leaders must find ways to disturb those who are comfortable with development brought about by our principals (cf. 2.3, 2.4.2, 2.5).

Several scholars indicate that instructional leadership means having a clear, personal vision of what one wants to achieve. (cf. 2.4, 2.8.11). Good leaders are in the midst of operations, working alongside their colleagues. They lead by example. Leadership means respecting teachers' autonomy, protecting them from extraneous demands. Furthermore, good leaders look ahead, anticipate change and prepare people for it so that it does not surprise or disempower them (cf. 2.8.4, 2.8.5). Good leaders are pragmatic. They are able to grasp the realities of the political and economic context and they are able to negotiate and compromise (cf. 2.8.8, 2.8.9).

Emanating from these statements, it follows that a vital component of leadership in schools is that of instructional leadership. Instructional leadership issues are those concerned with the planning, implementation and assessment of teaching and learning activities at school level. Moreover, Squelch and Lemmer (1994) are of the view that agree that the instructional leadership roles of a principal are to act as counsellor, manager, communicator and evaluator to ensure that the curriculum is being implemented in the school (cf. 2.8.4, 2.8.7, 2.8.11).

On the other hand, a discussion of the concept of servant leadership is a very important construct as part of the unique serving leadership role of the principal at the school in ensuring quality of teaching and learning. The servant leadership model is about understanding strengths and weakness of individuals in an organisation. How can this help the principal as an instructional leader? It can help the principal to understand educators at school, so that effective teaching and learning can take place. The principal should listen to educators' problems and support them. This model was seen as the transformational theory in leadership. The model was coined by Greenleaf as a model of leaders that ensures that other people's priority needs are being met (cf. 2.5, 2.6, 2.10). Moreover, Greenleaf (1977) professes the best test, and most difficult to administer, is this: Do those served, grow as persons? Do they, while being served, become healthier, wiser, freer, more autonomous, more likely themselves to become servants? And, what is the effect on the least privileged in society? Will they benefit or,

at least, will they not be further deprived? The servant leader makes it a priority to establish a strong level of trust among all members of an organisation. This is an integral aspect of positive leadership. A servant leader focuses on the need to serve other first, to nurture the human spirit. She or he exudes patience, has faith and demonstrates humility. The servant leader displays readiness and preparedness for goals and possible outcomes, is task oriented, collaborative and has a strategic sense. There are ten identified characteristics of servant leadership: listening, empathy, healing, awareness, persuasion, conceptualisation, foresight, stewardship, a commitment to the growth of people, and building community (cf. 2.5, 2.8.11, 2.8.12).

The main difference between servant leadership and other leadership models is that servant leadership is more organic and non-hierarchical in nature. Most leadership models that are hierarchical implement a top-down structure of organisation where the leader uses positional power to instruct the followers on how to implement the organisation's vision. The servant leader is more holistic, valuing both the leader and follower equally, based upon shared values, encourages collaborations, trust, foresight, listening, empathy and the ethical use of power.

The servant leadership model establishes a foundation for a way of existing that opens up the possibilities for leadership opportunities for many people throughout the organisation (cf. 2.5, 2.8.1, 2.8.5).

Servant leaders affect the culture to lead an organisation in a manner to conduct itself in a way that creates a positive, empathetic and enabling work place and environment, such as the school. Research studies indicate that an instructional leadership model including the construct of servant leadership provides individuals and groups with an opportunity to grow and develop intellectually, professionally, emotionally and spiritually. It provides guidance for people to search for opportunities to both lead and serve others in developing the possibilities to elevate the quality of life individually and collectively (cf. 2.5, 2.8.1, 2.8.5).

Principals, as instructional leaders utilise servant leadership, demonstrate a sense of good listening skills, support all the teachers and learners within the school organisation, and provide opportunities for both personal and professional growth and development within the school. To enhance instructional leadership at the school, the communication skill of listening is extremely valuable in effective leadership. Principals as communicators spend a great deal of time communicating through time: speaking, reading, writing and most importantly listening by daily communiqué at the school. It is listening that takes up almost half the time in relation to other skills, yet we are trained less in this area than the other three. The act of listening creates a bond of understanding between the leader and follower. Through listening and enquiry, the leader provides guidance rather than gives orders. This allows the principal as a leader to understand in depth the strengths and weaknesses of followers; therefore the leader is able to meet individual and school needs on an empathetic level (cf. 2.5, 2.8.9, 2.8.10).

Several studies reveal that an effective principal must ensure that he/she is highly knowledgeable in all aspects pertaining to instructional leadership and should possess the following characteristics:

- At the onset it must be understood that the principal as an instructional leader should ensure that all his/her requests and instructions are underpinned with diplomacy. This will be the key to the smooth running of the school (cf. 2.9, 2.8, 2.8.9)
- An effective principal has a vision for the school and dedicates himself/herself toward the goals of the school and the community. He/she is committed to academic goals, shows an ability to develop and share long-term goals for the school as well as strong achievement goals that are consistent with the Department's requirements (cf. 2.9, 2.2, 2.4.1).
- An efficient curriculum developer who prioritises curriculum and instructional issues is a crucial feature of an effective principal. He/she must be able to implement change and display a thorough knowledge of curriculum and teaching strategies (cf. 2.3, 2.4.2, 2.5).

It is an obvious and accepted fact that a principal needs to ensure that a democratic climate prevails, conducive to learning and teaching. A climate of

high expectations within the school is characterised by a valuable feeling of respect for educators, learners, parents and community (cf. 2.8, 2.8.1, 2.8.2). The role of the principal as an instructional leader is essentially about providing guidance to educators. He/she should continually monitor and evaluate learners' progress and the educators' effectiveness in meeting goals (cf. 2.2, 2.4.1, 2.3). Staff development and training should currently receive more attention than in the past. The principal needs to be a definer and communicator of policies. The principal as an instructional leader should help establish opportunities for teaching and learning (cf. 2.2, 2.8.4, 2.8.7).

It is crucial that an effective principal is knowledgeable and well skilled in evaluating his/her staff effectively. Educator appraisal helps staff to improve their instruction for quality teaching and learning. Leaders provide support and motivation to their followers by attending to curriculum, sociological and staff relational and appraisal issues (cf. 2.2, 2.8.12, 2.5). Effective principalship entails being a good communicator and counsellor. Principals should ensure that open communication exists between themselves and the staff and learners. An effective principal is a good listener and resolves problems in an amicable manner. Consulting with other principals will lead to the exchange of valuable educational ideas (cf. 2.8.4, 2.3, 2.8). It is essential that a principal understands the strengths and weakness and capabilities of his/her staff. This allows for efficient organisation and delegation of duties. In a participative approach it is even more apparent that a principal delegates accordingly (cf. 2.8.4, 2.7, 2.8.5). Effective evaluation of learners' progress and educators' teaching for quality education can only take place through visible practices such as visits by the principal.

An effective principal must make himself/herself visible to learners and staff (cf. 2.8.8, 2.8.9, 2.8). As an instructional leader the principal's task is multifarious. However, it is solely related to the improvement of curriculum and teaching (cf. 2.8.10, 2.8.11, 2.8.4.).

It is imperative that the principal should ensure that sufficient resources are provided for quality teaching and learning. As a resources provider, the principal must also ascertain that all technological equipment is in good

working order (cf. 2.8.2, 2.8.6, 2.8.11). Educators must be creative in their design of lesson plans. They need to consider and be knowledgeable about various aspects during lesson preparation, namely, the syllabus, components of the curriculum in respect of NCAPS, subject content and resources (cf. 2.5.1, 2.8.6, 2.8.6, 2.8.11, 2.8.12). In order to plan effectively, educators must have a clear understanding of the learners' background and their existing knowledge to take them from the known to the unknown and from the simple to the complex. Lessons must also be planned according to the learners' development level. Activities must be authentic and stimulate problem-solving and critical thinking skills. Educators must ensure to present their lessons in an interesting manner and captivate learners' attention. Various teaching resources need to be utilised to facilitate learning and achieve the desired outcomes. (cf. 2.8.16, 2.8.7, 2.8.10, 2.8.11).

The instructional leader must ensure and enhance an effective and conducive teaching and learning environment, educators must ascertain that a positive democratic climate prevails in their classrooms. Educators must be flexible during their teaching to cover aspects to the hidden curriculum ensuring total learner development (cf. 2.4.1, 2.8, 2.8.1, 2.8.3). The role-function of the principal as an instructional leader is vital in ensuring the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom, as he/she needs to oversee all educational activities. It is the responsibility of the principal as an instructional leader to see to it that educators teach and assess learners according to assessment policies. He or she should be seen as an assessment leader at school (cf. 2.8.9, 2.8.10, 2.8.11, 2.8.12).

**7.3.2 Findings with regard to the second problem question and the aim of this study:** *What is Total Quality Management (TQM) and how does this concept foreground quality and effective assessment practices at school level?*

The principal creates the conditions required for the appropriate use and reporting of learners' achievement information and can communicate effectively with all members of the school community about learner assessment results and their relationship to improving curriculum and instruction. The assessment tasks in CAPS should cover the content of the



subject; the designed tasks should ensure that a variety of skills are assessed.

The effectiveness of a school within the TQM paradigm will therefore depend on its guiding philosophy, values, beliefs and particular purpose, but also on the extent to which role-players perform their duties in moving towards the common visions and objectives defined by the organisation where they work, i.e. the school (cf. 3.1., 3.1.1, 3.1.2). In this context, quality of services, in particular at school, becomes a process by which information is provided in order to keep all functions on track; the total of the activities that increase the probability that the planned results will be achieved (cf. 3.1.3, 3.3.1, 3.2).

Davies (2003:93) believes that the requirement for school improvement and commitment to strive for is one of the strategies for creating continual change (cf. 3.5, 3.5.1, 3.5.2). Several studies report that it is the responsibility of the principal as an instructional leader to bring about change in schools as the curriculum changes from time to time. The principal as an instructional leader at school should know all those changes that involve assessment (cf. 3.7.1.3.8, 3.8.1). Leadership in schools should foster an environment for resourceful and enterprising behaviours where all stakeholders are considered to be important in the achievement of personal and school quality of teaching and learning. The principal as an instructional should show his/her leadership role by ensuring that there are resources for all educators so that teaching and learning takes place effectively (cf. 3.7.1, 3.8, 3.8.1).

According to Harris (2004:28), collective leadership is very important because all educators work together to create a TQM framework, where the principal as a leader develops educators in totality so that they can perform well (cf. 3.8, 3.8.1, 3.8.2). The school as an organisation is to promote teaching and learning. Schools should work according to specific norms and values with learners, parents and the school community (cf. 3.1.1, 3.5, 3.6.1, 3.6.2). Sahney (2004:162) argues that TQM will also work in education provided that its adoption is part of a strategic planning process that has TQM as its purpose and is customised according to specific contexts (cf. 3.1.1, 3.5, 3.6.1, 3.6.2).

The researcher's opinion is that the principal as an instructional leader should develop a strategic plan that will help the school produce the desired outcomes through an assessment strategy. Davidoff and Lazarus (1997:46) maintain that such a process ought to be a creative strategy. This means that the principal as an instructional leader should develop a creative strategy for the improvement of results at school, for example, in order for principals to produce good results they should develop an assessment tool that will help educators improve the desired result at schools (cf. 3.6.3.1, 3.8.1). Principals need to drive the adoption and implementation of customised TQM philosophy in schools by communicating the objectives and policies and by modelling commitment to quality cultures (cf. 3.7.1, 3.8.1.7). According to Grant, Mergen and Widrick (2002:11), TQM becomes a management responsibility of the school principal; this means that the principal as an implementer of the TQM plan to facilitate achievement of specific TQM goals for the school. Moreover, Matthews (2001:52) supports the idea that one of the objectives of schooling is to encourage a change that will be regarded as valid if it has the improvement of teaching and learning in mind. The principal as an instructional leader should be accountable to bring about change, which implies changes to the whole school, structures, relationships and the way people think and feel (cf. 3.1, 3.2, 3.3). The roles of the principals have to change in their schools. This is supported by Van der Linde (2001:535) who says a key task of a contemporary school is to stay ahead of change, meaning that the principals must not resist transformation at schools. Several changes in the South African school system were experienced in the past seventeen years in the development of a new curriculum. TQM as a construct could be considered as a tool towards the continuous improvement of South African schools and especially the teaching and learning culture in dysfunctional schools (cf. 3.3.1, 3.4.1, 3.5, 3.5.1). According to Banwet and Karunes (2004:146), the purpose of TQM is support to learners and educators by the principal as an instructional leader in monitoring and providing opportunities as a means to enhance good results of the school and quality services (cf. 3.5.1, 3.5.2, 3.5.3). In support, Quong and Walker (1999:5) further state that schools can no longer maintain their traditional structure and its accompanying approaches to management, but the principal must provide

a learning and teaching culture by a sound TQM for the school (cf. 3.4.1, 3.5, 3.6.1.1, 3.6.1.2).

The researcher's view is that schools should accept that their business is providing efficient and quality services and that their primary customers which are learners and parents. Principals at schools should do what is right for the benefit of the learners in the context of TQM without compromising quality (cf. 3.6.2, 3.6.3, 3.6.5).

The researcher believes that the implementation of TQM in schools is the responsibility of the principal, the SMT and school governing body (SGB) to devote total commitment to the continuous improvement plans of the school at large. The SMT leadership focus should be learner-centred with the attempts to ultimately be the responsibility of citizens who display balanced attitudes and an awareness of moral and best practice of quality of life and quality work. It is the responsibility of the principal's leadership to be committed to efforts elevating schools toward academic excellence, with a view to create and improve quality teaching and learning at all times (cf. 3.6.2, 3.6.5).

There is a concern about how the strategy is implemented and, according to Kruger (2001:16), there are needs to be taken into consideration for the implementation of a TQM at school. These needs are outlined as follows:

- The cognitive thought processes are directed at implementing the goal, which is the implementation of TQM to improve teaching and learning. The social and organisational processes that constrain the choice of school structure are most important (cf. 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.7.3).
- Bureaucratic processes of using power to influence the implementation of TQM must be quality assured. According to Loewen (1997:24), there are reasons for strategic quality planning to take place within schools to control the future of the school, to focus on the role of the principal, SMT and educators in defining specific tasks and roles, to develop leadership skills within the school, to improve communication, encourage commitment and to focus on the learners' abilities to improve the product and services (cf. 3.7.4, 3.8, 3.8.1).

In general, the introduction of the TQM philosophy in schools has been perceived as desirable, even though some attempts to implement it have been unsuccessful. Those who have advocated TQM effectors in schools argue that there are clear parallels between organisational quality culture in industry and in schools and that TQM principles are as relevant to the learning processes in classrooms as they are to organisational learning.

TQM is particularly applicable to education since the central concept of TQM, namely continuous improvement, it is fundamental to education (cf. 3.9.1, 3.9.2, 3.10.1).

The focus has to be on the persons closest to the learners (classroom teachers) as the principal managers of the resources of the school being fully used to meet the needs of the learners.

TQM is all about empowering the people closest to the client to make decisions about how best to improve. In schools, this means the teachers, not just school leaders, working together to improve learning and teaching. This structure puts the focus of responsibility and decision making on the teachers themselves; the task of the principal is to empower and facilitate, to coach, counsel, educate, guide, champion and encourage set standards – rather than to control, manipulate, coerce, correct or instruct TQM (cf. 3.10.2, 3.10.3).

The current interest in TQM as a management approach in schools has to do with the quest for survival through restricting and changing. The school is also seen as a business organisation who employ educators to serve their learners' needs, the parents and community who support the schools. It is imperative that schools will only be able to survive and prosper by offering quality teaching and learning. By providing quality services, schools as places of good management set goals, identified needs, desires and interest of learners in servicing them as customers with quality education (cf. 3.8, 3.8.1, 3.8.2).

Quality cannot be dictated; it must be led and managed from the top of the organisation. Furthermore, Murgatroyd and Morgan (1993:68-69) agree about

the crucial role of school leaders and list the following characteristics of TQM leadership:

- It is about imagination, enabling and empowering the ordinary worker - not about status (cf. 3.7.1, 3.7.2, 3.7.3).
- The role of the principal as a leader is to activate, coach, guide, mentor, educate, assist and support colleagues so that they focus on a shared vision, strategy and set of intended outcomes for the school (cf. 3.7.1, 3.7.4).
- Leaders with vision realise that it is cost-effective to empower those nearest to a process to manage that process themselves (cf. 3.7.1, 3.7.4).
- Leaders concentrate on the whole picture and keep it at the forefront of people's thinking (cf. 3.7.1, 3.7, 3.1.2). They believe that challenges and fun go together - laughter is healing; real leadership seen as healing, meaning that it helps people to understand their own feelings and optimise pleasure in their lives (cf. 3.7.1, 3.7.3, 3.2).
- The need for leadership is also emphasised by the fact that TQM has probably generated more failures than successes, caused largely by the reluctance of people to change.
- This is why leadership is so important in the implementation of change. Carlson (1994:16) contends that South Africa's most urgent education need is for people with leadership and management skills in line with TQM principles (cf. 3.6.1.1, 3.6.1.2, 3.6.1.3).

**7.3.3 Findings with regard to the third problem question and the aim of this study:** *How will this study implicate quality management for improvement of assessment practices in schools?*

Quality management is a very important issue relating to assessment; it is therefore the responsibility of the principal to see that specific processes are being adhered to for the improvement of assessment practices as guided by CAPS. Continuous assessment implies that constructive feedback should be provided to learners after assessment. Strategies that the educator could use can be in the form of whole-class discussion or teacher-learners' interaction if necessary. The principal understands and therefore sets the standards of quality for learner assessment and how to verify their use in the school and

district assessment plans. The principal is compelled to see to it that the principles of assessment for, of and as learning are implemented; furthermore, to improve assessment as an integral part of classroom instruction for the sake of quality teaching and learning. With reference to this thesis, assessment involves the way learners should be measured; their understanding by means of written or oral work. In this process, the principal plays a crucial role by including all stakeholders at school who must ensure that all learners are assessed fairly and given the results of the assessed work.

Assessment for learning occurs throughout the learning process. It is designed to make every teacher's understanding visible, so that teachers can decide what they can do to help learners progress. Learners learn individual and idiosyncratic ways, yet at the same time, there are predictable patterns of connections and preconceptions that learners may experience as they move along the continuum from emergent to proficient. ARG (1999:29-30) further emphasises that in assessment for learning the wide variety of information that teachers collect about their learners' learning processes provides the basis for determining what they need to do next to move learner learning forward. It provides the basis for providing descriptive feedback for learners and deciding on group instructional strategies and resources.

On the other hand, in assessment for learning the intent is to enhance learners' learning; teachers use assessment for learning to uncover what learners believe to be true and learn more about the connection learners are making, their prior knowledge, preconceptions, gaps and learning styles. Teachers use this information to structure and differentiate instruction and learning opportunities in order to reinforce and build on productive learning, and to challenge beliefs or inhibit the next stage of learning.

Teachers also use assessment for learning to enhance learners' motivation towards and commitment to learning as the focus of assessment; they change the classroom culture to one of learner success (cf. 4.3.1, 4.3.1.1, 4.3.1.2).

Furthermore, assessment for learning forms an integral part of successful teaching and learning, and should be well planned and co-ordinated to ensure quality assessment practices at school.

In addition, the review committee report (DoE, 2001:19) states that planning should occur at three levels. That is, at a school level (macro-planning), in a phase (meso-planning) and in a day-to-day planning (micro-planning). These levels are described in the following sections (cf. 4.3.1.3, 4.3.1.4, 4.3.1.5, 4.3.1.6).

Assessment of learning refers to strategies designed to confirm what learners know, demonstrate whether or not they have met curriculum outcomes or the goals of their individualised programmes, or to certify proficiency and make decisions about learners' future programmes or placements. It is designed to provide evidence of achievement to parents, other educators, the learners themselves and sometimes to outside groups (e.g. employers, other education institutions) (cf. 4.7, 7.4.2, 4.7.3).

According to Linn and Gronlund (2000:55), assessment of learning is the assessment that becomes public and results in statements or symbols about how well learners are learning. It often contributes to pivotal decisions that will affect learners' futures. It is important that the underlying logic and measurement of assessment of learning be credible and defensible (cf. 4.7.4, 4.7.5, 4.7.6, 4.8).

Assessment as learning focuses on learners and emphasises assessment as a process of metacognition (knowledge of one's own thought processes) for learners. Assessment as learning emerges from the idea that learning is not just a matter of transferring ideas from someone, but is an active process of cognitive restructuring that occurs when individuals interact with new ideas.

Within new learning, learners are to be actively engaged in creating their own understanding; they must learn to be critical assessors who make sense of information, relate it to prior knowledge, use it for new learning, and use what they discover from the monitoring what they are learning and use what they

discover from the monitoring to make adjustment, adaptations, and even major changes in their thinking (cf. 4.11.2, 4.11.3, 4.11.5).

According to Afflerbach (2002:41), assessment as learning is based on research on how learning occurs, and is characterised by learners reflecting on their own learning and making adjustments so that they achieve deeper understanding. Accumulation and comprehension monitoring is demanded by the particular act of reading. The ability to self-assess is multifaceted, and good readers can apply their self-assessment strategies on demand (cf. 4.10, 4.10.1, 4.10.2, 4.10.3, 4.10.4, 4.10.6).

**7.3.4 Findings with regard to the fourth problem question and the aim of this study:** *Are there any significant differences between male and female primary school principals' qualifications and years of experience in relation to the roles and responsibilities as an instructional leader, the implementation of a total quality management system and in ensuring effective quality assessment practices at primary schools in the Free State Department of Basic Education?*

The responsibilities of the principal are to accurately analyse learners' assessment information, use the information to improve curriculum and instruction and assist teachers in doing the same.

Assessment of learning in CAPS provides teachers with a systematic way of evaluating how well learners are progressing in a particular subject and in a grade. With reference to Appendix B, the majority of the principals agreed that they have basic knowledge as far as their responsibilities are concerned. This means that principals need to fully understand their responsibilities so that they are able to be excited about their work. In Appendix C, the majority of principals agreed on the responsibility of the principals and their role as far as TQM is concerned. In Appendix D, the majority of the respondents strongly agreed in terms of qualifications, the majority of the female principals are more highly educated than male principals (cf. Table 6.14).



In terms of experience in relation to their responsibilities, principals differ according to their experience. Principal B has 10 years' experience as a principal and Principal C has 12 years as a principal; the two principals have more experience, better than other principals (cf. Table 6.14).

According to 6.1 (sub-theme 1.1), Principal D is a male and Principal E is a female. They differ in a sense that when it comes to learner information on portfolios, Principal D is more specific on practical work and written tasks, whereas Principal E is focused on formal and informal activities. The two principals indicate an understanding of what takes place in the classroom; they have experience of being in the classroom. It is evident that Principal E holds a BA degree and Principal D holds both a PTD and ACE. The majority of principals have indicated basic knowledge regarding the curriculum concerned. They fully understand and indicated far below percentage, which indicates that the principals lack information and more knowledge to fully understand the CAPS (cf. Appendix B).

Appendix C, the majority of principals indicated that they agree that principals must implement quality assurance practices as part of the TQM process. Only a few strongly agreed on what is expected by the principals. According to Appendix A, the majority of principals indicated high on teaching experience. Additionally, principals indicated that they strongly agree that the role of the principal is in promoting quality assurance as part of TQM at school. It is further evident that principals need more in-service workshops and training on how to promote quality assurance practices as school which is to promote quality teaching and learning. Furthermore, findings from Appendix D indicated that the majority of respondents agreed that the principal facilitates assessment task teams in the school.

To support this finding, Principals A to E (male and female principals) who have experience between 5 and 12 years, agree that a staff development plan is to empower teaching staff at the school (cf. sub-theme #9.1.)

### **7.3.5 Findings with regard to the fifth problem question and the aim of this study: *What are the current training needs of school principals***

*regarding the roles and responsibilities of an instructional leader, the implementation of total quality management systems and in ensuring effective quality assessment practices at primary schools?*

In CAPS, teachers must ensure that assessment criteria are clear to the learners before the assessment process. This involves explaining to the learners which knowledge and skills are being assessed and the required length of responses. The principal needs to understand the issues related to the unethical and inappropriate use of learner assessment and protect learners and staff from such misuse.

Appendix B indicates the current training needs of school principals regarding the roles and responsibilities of an instructional leader checking educators teaching portfolio. This means that principals need training as far as checking educators' teaching portfolio is concerned. Principal E indicated that formal and informal activities must be part of the evidence in a teaching portfolio. It was further stated that there is a clear indication that principals must be trained as far as their responsibilities on checking educators' teaching portfolios are concerned (cf. sub-theme #1.1). Few principals (57%) indicated fully understanding and understanding this role which clearly indicates that principals need training in promoting a culture of teaching values, because principals need to promote a culture of teaching and learning at school.

To reinforce the statement above, Principals A, C and E indicated that principals lack this type of ability, but need specific workshop training in assessment strategies (rubrics, assignments, worksheets, etc.) so that they can improve the quality of teaching and learning at schools (cf. theme #3).

Findings reveal in Appendix C of the questionnaire that principals strongly agreed that the principal as an instructional leader must promote quality assurance as part of leadership in TQM. This is supported by principals who feel that using TQM principles and practice are only tools and techniques to reach excellence.

Principals must be trained in TQM so that they run schools successfully; there is a need for training principals to achieve excellence (cf. sub-theme #10.1). Appendix C indicated less on strongly agree on quality assurance so that educators have direction as part of TQM. The shown percentage is very low, meaning that principals need training in this matter.

To support the statement above, Principal D is a female, has 14 years of experience and 9 years' experience as a principal. She holds a PTD and ACE qualifications. She indicated that the concept of quality means ensuring that errors are designed. This is a clear indication that there is a need for training on quality assurance so that they can produce good and desired results at school (cf. theme #6). Appendix D indicated few of the principals strongly agree that it is necessary to have skills to support staff in classrooms. The indicated percentage is very low for principals. It is an indication that principals need training on how to support staff. On the other hand, the latter finding is supported by a female Principal C who holds a BA, BEd and ACE qualifications. She indicated that curriculum development helps educators to develop confidence in teaching different subjects. It is evident from the findings that principals need training on curriculum development so that they can achieve the desired results (cf. theme #9).

With reference to Appendix D, few respondents indicated that they strongly agree that the principal's task is to regularly monitor assessment practices in the classroom. Principal A concurred that it is the primary task of the principal to monitor whether educators implement assessment tasks in terms of assignments and investigations regarding classroom assessment. It is further evident that there is a need for training principals in classroom assessment practices. In-service training will enable principals to assess both educators' and learners' work effectively (cf. sub-theme #10.1).

#### **7.4 STRATEGIES FOR PRINCIPALS TO IMPLEMENT QUALITY ASSESSMENT**

The following are the strategies for principals to implement quality assessment as highlighted by Stiggins (2001:191-198):

- Principals promote school-wide efforts to establish, implement and refine appropriate expectations for curriculum, instructional practices assessment and use of data on learners' learning based on scientific research and evidence-based practices that result in learner academic achievement.
- The principals use the current school evidence and assessment data to evaluate the performance and practices of their schools in order to continually improve attainment of learners' academic growth. They take responsibility and devise an international plan for ensuring that staff is knowledgeable in how to utilise evidence and data to inform instructional decision making to maximise the educational opportunities and instructional programme for every learner.
- The principals evaluate staff performance using the district educator evaluation system to ensure that teachers and non-teaching staff (administrative staff) are evaluated in a fair and equitable manner with a focus on improving teacher performance and learners' academic achievement.
- The principals provide mentoring, coaching and other resources for staff whose performance needs improvement as per school improvement plan (SIP).
- The principals establish systems for marshalling all available school resources to facilitate the work that needs to be done to improve learner learning, academic achievement and overall healthy development for all learners.
- This includes allocating resources to fund priority needs first, support the development of external partnerships that support teaching and learning and participate in the budgeting and prioritisation process as requested.
- The principals facilitate the design and utilisation of a variety of forms of formal and informal communication with all school stakeholders, learners, parents and the community on a regular basis. The principals respond to contact from parents and community members in a timely and meaningful manner.

- The principals collaborate on developing the vision, mission, values, expectations and goals of the school, collaboratively determine the process used to establish the foundations and facilitate their integration into the life of the school community.
- The principals ensure that a plan is in place that supports improved academic achievement and development outcomes for all learners and provide for data-based progress monitoring.

## **7.5 RECOMMENDATIONS**

The researcher contends from a constructionist perspective that the responsibility of a school principal as an instructional leader is to collaborate and collectively inspire educators to achieve excellent teaching and learning. The new CAPS curriculum for South African schools is learner-centred and problem-based driven. To achieve this goal, principals as instructional leaders should always lead, manage and provide a conducive environment in ensuring that effective teaching and learning can take place at school level. The principal is also seen as an assessment leader who knows how learners are to be assessed by supporting educators to employ a variety of assessment tools and strategies. Derived from the findings of this doctoral study, several recommendations are formulated to strengthen the instructional leadership role of principals in enhancing quality assessment practices in Free State primary schools.

### **7.5.1 Recommendations in relation to the instructional leadership role of the principal in ensuring assessment practices at school**

It is evident from this study that the principal as an instructional leader should ensure that the primary service or educational purpose of the school is to offer quality instruction. It is recommended that the principal leads by example at the school through proper collective planning and implementing sessions regarding CAPS curricula to achieve and to ensure effective assessment practices at all times.

It is recommended that principals be capacitated by the education district office or school development officer to understand what and how to execute his or her instructional role as a principal at school. It is further recommended

that primary school principals in this study be empowered through specific workshops on the CAPS curriculum implementation and how to ensure a learner-centred and problem-based driven approach and how to implement the new curriculum through effective classroom-based management practices. The principal as an instructional leader should provide regular quality control checks on the daily lesson preparations of educators by checking teaching portfolios. The principal should show leadership skills on how to design and achieve curriculum outcomes. The principal needs to keep the instructional leadership style flexible so that it fits into different situations at the school.

It is further recommended that some of the primary school principals urgently need training on how to ensure effective assessment practices regarding the planning, organising, designing and implementing in the school to achieve quality teaching and learning for all learners. It is further recommended that support be given by the school development officer, subject advisors and district officers to primary school principals to create and promote a culture of teaching and learning by ensuring that teachers implement the new curriculum and CAPS policy in their respective classrooms. It is recommended that the principal leads, supports, promotes and provides an enabling environment for the successful implementing of CAPS. Principals in the demarcated area of investigation need urgent support from educators, learners, the SMT and the SGB on promoting a culture of teaching and learning by implementing the CAPS policy. It is also recommended that principals be empowered in the use of a continuous instructional process regarding knowledge of curriculum theory, teaching techniques, instructional methods and teaching strategies to be excellent curriculum implementers in developing a school culture of learning.

#### **7.5.2 Recommendations on the total quality management role of the principal at school level**

It is important for the principal to understand the purpose and functioning of a TQM framework for the school and how to implement the framework successfully to support learners and educators in monitoring and providing regular opportunities as a means to enhance quality services. To achieve this

objective, a TQM system is required for the school, SMT and role-players to strive for the strategies for continual change.

It is the responsibility of the principal as an instructional leader to bring about change in schools as the curriculum changes from time to time. It is recommended that the principal as an instructional leader should develop a TQM strategic plan that will help the school to produce the desired objectives through different assessment strategies and practices. It is further recommended that principals be trained in TQM processes and procedures to understand and implement changes in the curriculum that involves different assessment practices to be responsive instructional leaders at schools. It is recommended that principals maintain effective leadership in the school that fosters an environment where all stakeholders are considered to be important in the achievement of quality teaching and learning practices being implemented in the classroom.

Recommendations are made for the implementation of a TQM framework as a strategic instructional role of the school principal. The following aspects are formulated to enhance the TQM role of the principal:

- Establish mutually beneficial relationships with all stakeholders and the community to ensure quality teaching and learning at school level.
- Envision, support and enhance implementation of the CAPS curriculum through instructional leadership by the principal.
- Set clear objectives for a TQM system to support all learners and educators as a strategic focus on the delivery of quality teaching and learning in the school.
- To be effective as an SMT, establish clear commitment targets and continual improvement of all assessment practices implemented and monitored.
- Invite and involve role-players such parents, educators, school community in collaboration and collective decision making to ensure the implementation of quality assessment practices.
- Adopt a factual approach to collective decision making and mutual collaboration among stakeholders in the school to achieve set goals.

- Adopt a systematic approach to manage and ensure sound assessment practices to be adhered to at all times.

### **7.5.3 Recommendations regarding quality management for the improvement of assessment in schools**

It is important for the principal to understand the purpose and functioning of quality management and how to implement it successfully to assist learners and educators by providing opportunities to enhance quality. To achieve quality management, assessment is needed for the school management and role-players for continual change. It is the responsibility of the principal to bring about transformation in schools as different changes take place in assessment in the education system. It is recommended that principals as instructional leaders should strategise a plan that will assist in improving assessment in schools.

It is recommended that principals who have ideas on assessment should become assessment leaders in this regard and help those educators struggling to do as expected. It is also recommended that principals maintain effective leadership in the school for the achievement of teaching and learning practices that are implemented in the classroom situation.

### **7.5.4 Recommendations regarding the improvement of assessment in schools**

The principal must lead in the implementation of CAPS policies on assessment and set some objectives for quality assessment at school. The principals must also monitor the proper implementation of assessment practices at school. Parental involvement will also help in the explanation of different levels that learners are expected to achieve for the benefit of our learners. The implementation of different assessment tools such as assignments, checklists and observations will further help much to ensure sound assessment practices.

It is also recommended that educators should submit their assessment plan activities to the SMT to inform an annual assessment plan for the school. Quality activities will help much with regard to quality management for the



improvement of assessment and internal moderations conducted by members of the SMT on the quality of work to be used for assessment.

#### **7.5.5 Recommendations regarding the instructional leadership role of the principal to ensure quality assessment practices**

It is vital for principals to understand the purpose of the instructional leadership role of the principal in terms of ensuring that both educators and learners work together to achieve quality assessment that is needed for the school to achieve the desired results.

It is recommended that principals must execute their leadership role at school so that quality is achieved by both educators and learners. It is also recommended that the principal as an instructional leader should initiate staff development programmes that will help the school to produce the desired objectives through different assessment strategies.

A further recommendation is that principals must understand how to motivate educators and workshop them in terms of ensuring quality assessment practices at school. It is also recommended that principals should work together with the subject advisors of different subjects so that challenges faced by educators are addressed. Principals should also work with the NGOs and consult with other principals of well performing schools to ensure quality assessment practices. It is also important that the principals analyse the results of the school quarterly so as to identify challenges that are encountered. The principal must establish good relations with the community and implement curriculum policy documents that will help to ensure quality assessment practices at schools.

Collaboration with the principal as an instructional leader achieves the best results. Twinning of schools is also recommended; former learners and business people will also help to ensure that quality assessment practice is achieved by the school; working with the universities will also help much because educators will be developed from time to time with regard to changes that take place in the curriculum. Educators will also learn to use different teaching methods to face their challenges.

School leaders need to determine the assessment needs of educators with regard to policy interpretation, clarification of terms, changes in classroom assessment practices and the construction of reliable assessment instruments in order to conduct staff development activities to optimise educators' assessment competencies. Staff development in schools need an assessment leader; principals should be trained to provide effective staff development in schools. As an assessment leader, principals should be trained to provide effective staff development to equip educators with the necessary assessment skills.

#### **7.5.6 Recommendations regarding female principals in the FSDBE**

It is recommended that the FSDBE revisit the appointment policy on school principals' in particular female principals. It is also recommended that the FSDBE identifies inexperienced female principals to empower them in instructional leader roles, issues of total quality management system and effective quality assessment practices. It is further recommended that the FSDBE must allocate funds (study bursaries and study tours) to female principals to further their studies as school principals at institutions of higher learning. It is recommended that experienced male and female school principals must be identified as mentors and coaches to empower inexperienced female school principals.

#### **7.5.7 Recommendations regarding the current status of the principals' assessment training needs at school level**

School leaders need to optimise communication as a tool for quality. It is recommended that principals should be able to create a culture for continuous improvement in schools by communicating quality principles to educators. They should have adequate training in the principles of quality management. The principals need equality exposure to development opportunities which ensure that every school principal is equipped for the assessment leadership task. It is also necessary that departmental authorities monitor principals' assessment leadership practices to ensure that every school, irrespective of its location, is facilitating a system of continuous improvement to enhance the quality of assessment practices.

It is further recommended that assessment leaders should be aware that educators require them to create opportunities for staff development, establish a culture of quality improvement and provide support for the implementation of the assessment policy. It is, therefore, necessary to provide adequate opportunities for the development of principals, which would enable them to act effectively. Principals play a decisive role in the quality of assessment practices at school; they should therefore be empowered for their tasks as assessment leaders. It is also recommended that the Department of Basic Education should investigate the assessment needs of both teachers and principals in order to equip principals for their assessment leadership task. Furthermore, principals need to acquire an understanding and insight into the official assessment policies and guidelines to inform the staff and clarify inconsistencies in assessment practices in schools.

## **7.6 CONCLUSION**

The thesis has thus far provided an overview of the literature study of the instructional leadership role of the principal in ensuring quality assessment practices in primary schools, and findings and recommendations in respect of the aim of this study. Improving the quality of assessment should be performed by a leader who can determine learners' needs as well as weaknesses in assessment practices and accordingly create opportunities to empower educators to strive for the expected standard and meet learners' expectations. The latter reflects the changing role of the school principal to a lifelong learner and learning specialist. The need to empower principals for their task as assessment leaders is therefore imperative for enhancing the quality of education in South Africa, as quality management demands a leader to facilitate the process. Further research on leadership toward the enhancement of assessment quality is required. Pursuing the management of quality assessment practices in schools will be a challenging venture for both principals and educators, as quality management demands the constitutor's improvement of skills.

A quantitative analysis indicated that staff development in schools results in improved assessment practices, emphasising the need for staff development, while qualitative analysis determined that educators are particularly in need of the support and development provided by the curriculum leader. The quality of

assessment in Free State schools may, therefore, be improved by quality management whereby ample opportunities for staff development, in assessment in particular, are provided.

The next chapter deals with a proposed instructional leadership framework to ensure effective and quality assessment practices at school level.

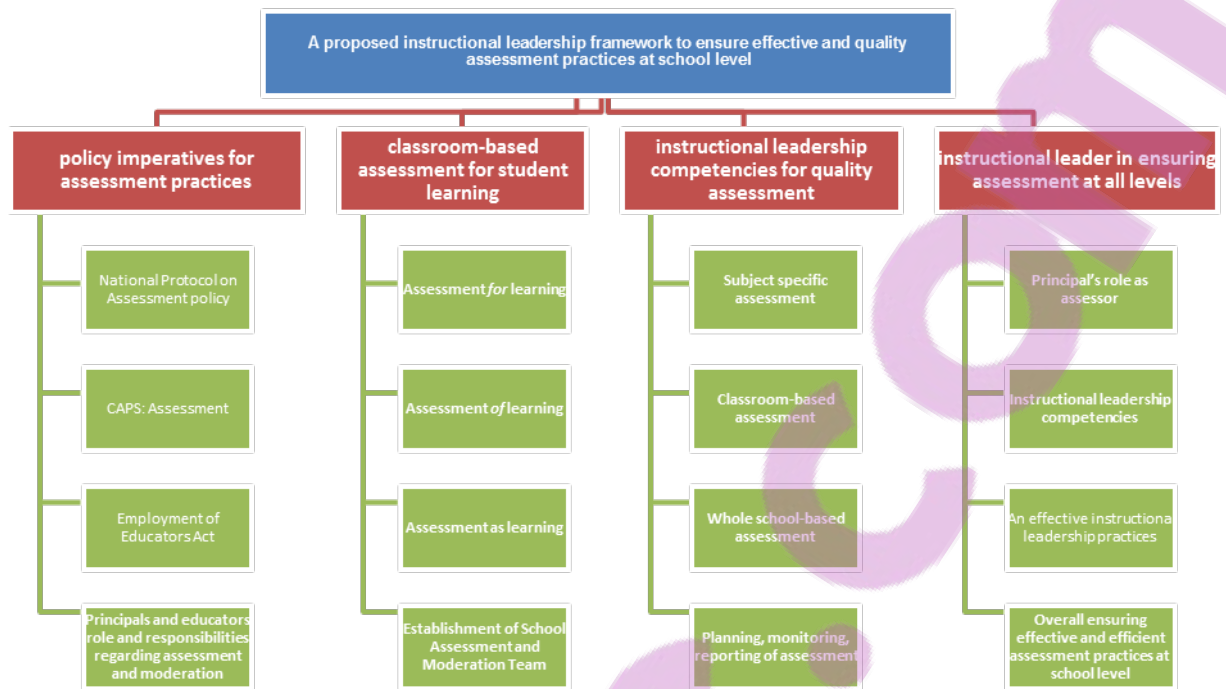
## **CHAPTER 8**

### **A PROPOSED INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP FRAMEWORK TO ENSURE EFFECTIVE AND QUALITY ASSESSMENT PRACTICES AT SCHOOL LEVEL**

#### **8.1 INTRODUCTION**

In the previous chapter the focus was on the summary, findings and recommendations based on the literature study which includes chapter 2 on instructional leadership, chapter 3 which entails total quantity management and chapter 4 which is based on assessment practices. Chapter 8 is based on the literature review, findings of the empirical investigation and recommendations in identifying components for the design of an instructional leadership framework (ILQAP) to ensure effective and quantity assessment practices at school level.

This doctoral study formulates a framework as strategies for school principals on how to use and execute their instructional leadership role in ensuring effective assessment practices at their respective schools in the Free State Province. The framework is also meant for school principals to use for their own development in ensuring quality assessment practices. Figure 8.1 below outlines components in guiding school principals toward being competent instructional leaders during the assessment process at school level.



**Figure 8.1: A proposed instructional leadership framework to ensure effective and quality assessment practices for school principals**

## **8.2 POLICY IMPERATIVES AS DIRECTIVES FOR ASSESSMENT PRACTICES**

This doctoral study formulates a proposed *Instructional Leadership Framework for Quality Assessment Practice (ILFQAP)* for school principals on how to use and execute their instructional leadership role to ensure effective assessment practices at their respective schools in the Free State Province.

The following policies, the *Employment of Educators Act*, 76 of 1998, Hand Book Policy of Educators, Education Labour Relations Council, National Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements for all the approved subjects for Grades R-12 (CAPS), National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12 (NPA) and the National Policy Pertaining to the Programme and Promotion Requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (N4PR) serves as legal imperatives in providing principals with specific information on the manner in which assessment and moderation should be planned,

implemented, monitored and upheld as custodians of quality teaching and learning in their respective schools in a South African context.

### **8.2.1 Employment of Educators Act, 76 of 1998**

The *Employment of Educators Act*, 76 of 1998 (EEA, Chapter 6, Section 6.1) propagates and promotes learners' academic performances and puts in place instruments to measure quality through results analysis. The professional conduct of school principals is regulated within the code of conduct of educators (*South African Council of Educators Act*, 31 of 2000) (SACE). Educators, including principals who contravene the provisions of the *South African Council of Educators Act* are mostly charged, suspended, dismissed, transferred, and/or have their contracts terminated, are dismissed and/or demoted when found guilty.

Furthermore, in 2000 the Department of Education printed *The Hand Book Policy of Educators*, Education Labour Relations Council (ELRC) containing the entire legislative framework that regulates the operations of education in South Africa. The *South African Schools Act*, no. 84 of 1996 (SASA) defines a principal as an educator appointed or acting as the head of a school. A principal is a school manager, an individual who directs and monitors the academic and non-academic activities within a school environment. He or she plans and implements the daily routines within an educational setting, being the head of that educational setting.

Some scholars call the principal the school manager or head of the school. He or she manages staff and supports staff members at his or her jurisdiction. Teachers are key contributors to the transformation of education in South Africa. The curriculum envisions teachers who are qualified, competent, dedicated and caring. They will be able to fulfil the various roles outlined in the norms and standards for teachers. These include being mediators of learning, interpreters and designers of learning programmes and materials, leaders, administrators and managers, scholars, researchers and lifelong learners, community members, citizens and pastors, assessors and phase specialists. In view of these roles, teachers are the change agents for the South African education system in the 21<sup>st</sup> century and beyond.

According to the *Employment of Educators Act*, 76 of 1998, other responsibilities of the principal are to engage in class teaching according to the workload of the relevant post level and the needs of the school. This means that the principal should teach and assess learners' work according to the assessment policy as stipulated in CAPS. The principal assesses and records the attainment of learners taught; this is part of the principal's mandate as an instructional leader in ensuring quality assessment practices at school level. Furthermore, the principal must ensure that all evaluation and forms of assessment conducted in the school are properly and efficiently organised for quality assurance and whole school evaluation purposes.

### **8.2.2 National Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS): Section 4 Assessment**

The CAPS documents cover all aspects of every subject. This one single policy document replaces the subject statements, learning programmes, guidelines, subject assessment guidelines and Foundation for Learning documents for every subject. The information contained in the CAPS includes what and how assessment should be conducted. This is covered grade by grade within specific subjects. The CAPS contains content for every grade; CAPS breaks up topics into teaching terms and weeks (cf. 4.2) and prescribes formal assessment per term, midyear and end of year examination requirements. The CAPS is very important because it focuses on the aims and skills of the learners; it is therefore the role of the principal as an instructional leader to ensure effective quality assessment practices at school.

According to the National Protocol for Assessment (cf. 8.2.3) and CAPS (cf. 4.2), the principal's responsibilities are to meet parents on learners' progress and conduct.

The Subject Heads of Departments (HODs) at school level should co-ordinate, evaluate and assess activities of all the subjects in that department, meaning that the HODs ensure that there is effective teaching and learning by both teachers and learners at school level.

HODs should furthermore control reports submitted to the principal as required, as well as test and examination papers and memoranda, for quality assurance at school level. The HODs should also ensure that all different types of assessment are used, such as assessment for learning, assessment of learning and assessment as learning (cf. 4.3.1.4.7, 4.10.1). The school management team (SMT) should ensure that all three main levels of planning for CAPS, that is overview, annual teaching plan and programme of assessment, are implemented to ensure effective quality teaching and learning at school level.

### **8.2.3 National Protocol on Assessment Policy and Annual National Assessment (ANA)**

School principals must execute their responsibility as instructional leaders to ensure that they create an environment by continuously empowering the teaching staff regarding assessment and moderation practices at school. As the instructional leaders they must therefore see to assessment and moderation policies and that practices and procedures are implemented by the teaching staff. The principal and SMT must plan, implement and monitor CAPS and ANA which are guided by and must be read in conjunction with:

- The *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa*, 1996 (Act No. 108 of 1996), as amended.
- *National Education Policy Act*, 1996 (Act No. 27 of 1996) as amended.
- The *South African Schools Act*, 1996 (Act No. 84 of 1996), as amended.
- The National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 as published in the Government Gazette No. 34600 of 12 September 2011 comprising the following policies:
  - National Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statements for all the approved subjects for Grades R-12 (CAPS).
  - National Protocol for Assessment Grades R-12 (NPA).
  - National Policy Pertaining to the Programme and Promotion Requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R-12 (N4PR).



With reference to this proposed framework, the National Protocol on Assessment Policy applies to public ordinary and special schools and those independent schools that offer the National Curriculum Grades R-12 which comprises CAPS and the National Policy Pertaining to the Programme and Promotion Requirements of the National Curriculum Statements Grades R-12. These policies provide a policy framework for the management of school assessment, school assessment records and basic requirements for learner profiles, teacher files, report cards, record sheets and schedules for Grades 1-12. The policy document focuses on assessment comprising school-based assessment and practical assessment tasks, where applicable, and the end of year examinations.

ANA is an assessment tool supporting the action plan to 2015, towards the realisation of schooling 2025. It has three goals in increasing the number of learners in Grade 3 who by the end of the year have mastered the minimum languages and mathematics requirements for Grade 3. It also has a goal in increasing the number of learners in Grade 6 who by the end of the year have mastered the minimum language and mathematics competencies for Grade 6. The other goal is to increase the number of learners in Grade 9 who by the end of the year have mastered the minimum language and mathematics competencies. ANA has key expected effects:

- Serve as a diagnostic tool to identify areas of strength and weakness in teaching and learning. The SMT of the school should plan and develop action plans to remedy serious assessment and moderation practices.
- Expose teachers to better assessment practices, provide districts with information to target schools in need of assistance through in-service training.
- Encourage schools to celebrate outstanding performance, empower parents by regularly providing them with information on the education of their children.
- ANA measures the level of performance by the school to ensure quality assurance.

With reference to ANA and the role the principals play, as instructional leaders they should support teachers and buy necessary resources needed by

teachers to ensure quality assessment practices at school. ANA prepares learners for independent thinking to be ready for the Senior Certificate required results.

The role of the principal as indicated in the ANA and the *Employment of Educators Act, 76 of 1998*, is to ensure that the education of the learners is promoted in a proper manner and in accordance with approved policies. ANA specifically provides clear guidelines regarding the principal as the chief invigilator in ensuring quality assurance, drawing up the examination timetable, and the safe keeping of question papers and memoranda. The principal is also responsible for ensuring that all teachers are in possession of relevant mark sheets, attendance registers and the invigilation policy.

In the next part of this proposed framework, classroom-based assessment for, of and as learning is discussed.

### **8.3 CLASSROOM-BASED ASSESSMENT FOR STUDENT LEARNING**

#### **8.3.1 Assessment for learning**

Assessment for learning occurs through the learning process. It is designed to make every learner's understanding visible, so that teachers can decide what they can do to help learners progress.

##### **8.3.1.1 Principles of assessment for learning**

The following principles of assessment for learning are explained in the context of classroom-based assessment:

#### **Assessment begins with effective planning of all activities related to lessons**

When teachers plan lessons, they must consider how they are going to assess the learners' understanding of the information and select an assessment method that is aligned with the learning goals for optimal effectiveness. Teachers should educate learners in their personal learning styles and allow them to demonstrate their understanding in a way that is aligned with their personal styles of learning.

### **Assessment tasks in classroom practice**

Nearly everything done in class should be considered an assessment. Assessment as such does not have to be formal and written. Even watching a learner complete an assignment can be a form of observational assessment.

### **Exploring learner motivation**

Teachers must take learner motivation into account when assessing. If a teacher notices that a learner appears to lack motivation when completing an assignment, rescind the assessment as it is more likely not a true testament of the learner's abilities.

### **Formulate and state learning goals and objectives**

Teachers should explicitly state the goals of every lesson. By so doing, teachers make it clear what is expected of learners and allow them to see what they must do to meet education expectations.

### **Assessment should be part of effective planning of teaching and learning**

A teacher's planning should provide opportunities for both learner and teacher to obtain and use information about progress towards learning goals. It also has to be flexible to respond to initial and emerging ideas and skills. Planning should include strategies to ensure that learners understand the goals they are pursuing and the criteria that will be applied in assessing their work. How learners will receive feedback, how they will take part in assessing their learning and how they will be helped to make further progress should also be planned (cf. 4.3.1.2).

### **Assessment for learning should focus on how learners learn**

The process of learning has to be in the minds of both learners and teacher when assessment is planned and when the evidence is interpreted. Learners should become as aware of the 'how' of their learning as they are of the 'what' (cf. 4.3.1.3).

### **Assessment for learning should be recognised as central to classroom practice**

Much of what teachers and learners do in classrooms may be described as assessment. That is, tasks and questions prompt learners to demonstrate their knowledge, understanding and skills. What learners say and do are then observed and interpreted, and judgements are made about how learning can be improved. These assessment processes are an essential part of everyday classroom practice and involve both teachers and learners in reflection, dialogue and decision making (cf. 4.3.1.3).

**Assessment for learning should be regarded as a key professional skill for teachers**

Teachers require the professional knowledge and skills to plan for assessment; observe learning; analyse and interpret evidence of learning; give feedback to learners and support learners in self-assessment. Teachers should be supported in developing these skills through initial and continuing professional development.

**Assessment for learning should be sensitive and constructive because any assessment has an emotional impact**

Teachers should be aware of the impact that comments, marks and grades can have on learners' confidence and enthusiasm and should be as constructive as possible in the feedback that they give. Comments that focus on the work rather than on the person are more constructive for both learning and motivation.

**Assessment should take account of the importance of learner motivation**

Assessment that encourages learning fosters motivation by emphasising progress and achievement rather than failure. Comparison with others who have been more successful is unlikely to motivate learners. It can also lead to their withdrawal from the learning process in areas where they have been made to feel they are 'no good'. Motivation can be preserved and enhanced by assessment methods that protect the learner's autonomy, provide some choice and constructive feedback, and create an opportunity for self-direction (cf.4.3.1.7).

**Assessment for learning should promote commitment to learning goals and a shared understanding of the criteria by which they are assessed**

For effective learning to take place, learners need to understand what it is they are trying to achieve - and want to achieve it. Understanding and commitment follows when learners have some part in deciding goals and identifying criteria for assessing progress. Communicating assessment criteria involves discussing them with learners using terms that they can understand, providing examples of how the criteria can be met in practice and engaging learners in peer and self-assessment (cf.4.3.1.8).

**Learners should receive constructive guidance about how to improve**

Learners need information and guidance in order to plan the next steps in their learning. Teachers should: pinpoint the learner's strengths and advise on how to develop them; be clear and constructive about any weaknesses and how they might be addressed; provide opportunities for learners to improve on their work.

**Assessment for learning develops learners' capacity for self-assessment so that they can become reflective and self-managing**

Independent learners have the ability to seek out and gain new skills, new knowledge and new understandings. They are able to engage in self-reflection and to identify the next steps in their learning. Teachers should equip learners with the desire and the capacity to take charge of their learning through developing the skills of self-assessment (cf. 4.3.1.10).

**Assessment for learning should recognise the full range of achievements of all learners**

Assessment for learning should be used to enhance all learners' opportunities to learn in all areas of educational activity. It should enable all learners to achieve their best and to have their efforts recognised (cf. 4.4.1).

**8.3.1.2 Strategies of assessment for learning**

When they assess *for* learning, teachers use the classroom assessment process and the continuous flow of information about learner achievement that it provides in order to advance, not merely check on, learner learning. The following strategies of assessment for learning are highlighted (cf. 4.3.1.10):

- Understanding and articulating *ahead of teaching* the achievement targets that their learners are to perform;
- Informing their learners about those learning goals, *in terms that learners understand*, from the very beginning of the teaching and learning process;
- Becoming assessment literate and thus able to transform their expectations into assessment exercises and scoring procedures that *accurately reflect learner achievement*;
- Using classroom assessments to build learners' confidence in themselves as learners and help them take responsibility for their own learning, so as to lay a foundation for lifelong learning;
- Translating classroom assessment results into frequent descriptive feedback (versus judgemental feedback) for learners, providing them with specific insights into how to improve;

- Continuously adjusting instruction based on the results of classroom assessments;
- Engaging learners in regular self-assessment, with standards held constant so that learners can watch themselves grow over time and thus feel in charge of their own success; and
- Actively involving learners in communicating with the teacher and their families about their achievement status and improvement.

In view of these strategies, collaboration on formulating questions plays a crucial part in assessment. Collaboration between teachers, either in the same subject or across subject areas, saves time and effort all round. It is important that both learners and teachers understand the type of question being asked and a suitable response structure. Another strategy that is very fruitful is providing *instant and constructive feedback on assessment tasks*. Feedback should be as immediate to the task as possible. It should be related to the learning intention, otherwise learners' expectations will be that the learning intention is of secondary importance to other issues like spelling, presentation and others. The use of peer and self-assessment can help to make feedback immediate. Lastly, providing an enabling space where *learner to learner dialogue is promoted for reflection*. Encourage a dialogue between learners rather than between teacher and learner. Learners can take turns to be the 'teacher' when pair marking; they could discuss each other's work together.

To summarise, the effect of assessment for learning, as it plays out in the classroom, is that learners continue learning and remain confident that they can continue to learn at productive levels if they keep trying to learn.

### **8.3.1.3 Tools of assessment for learning**

Teachers use focused observation, questioning, conversations, quizzes, computer-based assessment, learning logs or whatever other methods are likely to give them information that will be useful for their planning and their teaching (cf. 4.3.1.6, 4.4).

### **8.3.2 Assessment of learning**

Assessment of learning is the assessment that becomes public and results in statements or symbols about how well learners are learning. It often contributes to pivotal decisions that will affect learners' futures (cf. 4.7).

### **8.3.2.1 Principles of assessment of learning**

Provision of effective principles of assessment of learning in classroom-based assessment practices are to enhance the learners' active involvement in their own learning and teachers must adjust their teaching to take account of the results of assessment tasks. Motivation and learners' self-esteem are critical influences on the learning process during the assessment of learning. One strategy could be that learners assess themselves and understand how to improve learning (cf. 4.7).

### **8.3.2.2 Strategies of assessment of learning**

- Provide learners with a clear and understandable vision of the learning target.
- Use examples and models of strong and poor work.
- Offer regular descriptive feedback. Teach learners to self-assess and set goals.
- Design lessons to focus on one learning target or aspect of quality at a time.
- Teach learners focused revision.
- Engage learners in self-reflection and let them keep track of and share their learning (cf. 4.7, 4.7.6).

### **8.3.2.3 Tools of assessment of learning**

Assessment of learning methods include not only tests and examinations, but also a rich variety – portfolios, exhibitions, performances, presentations, simulations and a variety of other written, oral and visual methods (cf. 4.7, 4.7.6.).

### **8.3.3 Assessment as learning**

Assessment as learning focuses on learners and emphasises assessment as a process of metacognition for learners.



### **8.3.3.1 Principles of assessment as learning**

Learners are capable of adapting; they are independent in their learning and decision making and learners undertake their own learning wisely and well.

Self-monitoring and evaluation are complex and difficult skills that do not develop quickly or spontaneously. In assessment as learning learners learn independently; it is therefore the role of the teachers to guide them so that learners decide correctly in their learning. To ensure quality assessment practices it is therefore very important that learners are exposed to projects to unfold their potential. The principal should ensure that teachers' work is constantly monitored to ensure quality assessment practices (cf. 4.10).

### **8.3.3.2 Strategies of assessment as learning**

It is the teachers' responsibility to employ the following strategies of assessment as learning, namely:

- Model and teach the skills of self-assessment.
- Guide learners in setting goals and monitoring their progress towards them.
- Provide regular and challenging opportunities to practise, so that learners can become confident, competent self-assessors.
- Work with learners to develop clear criteria of good practice.
- Monitor learners' metacognitive process as feedback.
- Create an environment where it is safe for learners to take chances and where support is readily available (cf. 4.10.6).

### **8.3.3.3 Tools of assessment as learning**

Teachers teach learners how to use the methods so that they can monitor their own learning. Many assessment methods have the potential to encourage reflection and review. What matters in assessment as learning is that the methods allow learners to consider their own learning in relation to models, exemplars, criteria, rubrics, frameworks and checklists that provide images of successful learning (cf. 4.7.6).

### 8.3.4 Comparison of assessment for, of and as learning

The National Protocol on Assessment Policy should be to make certain that assessments *of, for* and *as* learning are accurate in their depiction of learner achievement and are used to benefit learners at school. The Annual National Assessment (ANA) is introduced as standardised assessments *of learning* that have been developed by professionals and are currently in place; they are poised to detect any improvements in the level or rate of learner achievement (cf. ANA, CAPS). But these ANA tests provide information only once a year and we must not delude ourselves into believing that they can serve all assessment purposes. They can reflect large group increases or decreases in learning on an annual basis, and they can serve as gatekeepers for high-stake decisions, but they cannot inform the moment to moment, daily and weekly teaching plans (CAPS) with decisions faced by learners and teachers seeking to manage the learning process as it unfolds. They cannot diagnose learner needs during learning, tell learners what study tactics are or are not working, or keep parents informed about how to support the work of their children. This kind of usage requires assessments *for learning*. The critical question for school improvement is what would happen to standardised test scores if we brought assessments *for learning* online as a full partner in support of learner learning? One hallmark of both experimental conditions was the extensive use of classroom assessment *for learning* as a key part of the instructional process. The analyses revealed differences ranging from one to two standard deviations in learner achievement attributable to differences between experimental and control conditions.

In their 1998 research review, Black and William (1998:139-148) examined the research literature on assessment worldwide, asking whether improved formative (i.e., classroom) assessments yield higher learner achievement as reflected in summative assessments. If so, they asked, what kinds of improvement in classroom assessment practice are likely to yield the greatest gains in achievement? Black and William uncovered and then synthesised more than 250 articles that addressed these issues. Of these, several dozen directly addressed the question of the impact on learner learning with sufficient scientific rigor and experimental control to permit firm conclusions. Upon pooling the information on the estimated effects of improved formative

assessment on summative test scores, they reported unprecedented positive effects on learner achievement. They reported effect sizes of one-half to a full standard deviation. Furthermore, Black and William reported that “*improved formative assessment helps low achievers more than other learners and so reduces the range of achievement while raising achievement overall*” (cf. 4.3.1, 4.7, 4.10).

Assessment is a continuous, planned process of identifying, gathering and interpreting information about the performance of learners, using various forms of assessment. It involves four steps: generating and collecting evidence of achievement; evaluating this evidence; recording the findings; and using this information to understand and thereby assist the learners’ development in order to improve the process of learning and teaching. Assessment is integral to teaching and learning. Assessment informs teachers of learners’ specific needs. It provides teachers with feedback that enables them to adjust their teaching strategies. Assessment also provides learners with feedback, allowing them to monitor their own achievement. Assessment that takes note of learners’ needs is called “assessment *for* learning” (informal assessment). Assessment for learning is developmental; it helps learners improve and progress by informing them of their strengths and weaknesses. When the focus of assessments is on the results of learning, assessment is referred to as “assessment *of* learning” (formal assessment). Assessment of learning usually takes place at the end of a period of work, such as a topic, term or year. Assessment of learning is typically used for promotion and certification purposes. Both assessment for learning and assessment of learning strategies should be used during the school year.

Table 8.1 provides a comparison of assessment *for*, *of* and *as* learning for classroom-based learning.

**Table 8.1: Comparison of assessment *for*, *of* and *as* learning**

	<b>Assessment <i>for</i> learning</b>	<b>Assessment <i>of</i> learning</b>	<b>Assessment <i>as</i> learning</b>

Why assess?	To enable teachers to determine the next steps in advancing learner learning	To guide and provide opportunities for learners to monitor and critically reflect on their learning and identify next steps	To certify or inform parents or others of learner's proficiency in relation to curriculum learning outcomes
Assess what?	Every learner's progress and learning needs in relation to the curricular outcomes	Learners' thinking about their learning, what strategies they use to support or challenge that learning, and the mechanism they use to adjust and advance their learning	The extent to which learners can apply the key concepts, knowledge, skills and attitudes related to the curriculum outcomes
What methods?	A range of methods in different modes that make learners skilled and understanding	A range of methods in different modes that elicit learners' learning and metacognitive processes	A range of methods in different modes that assesses both product and process
Ensuring quality	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Accuracy and consistency of observation and interpretations of observations and interpretations of learner learning</li> <li>• Clear, detailed learning expectations</li> <li>• Accurate, detailed notes for descriptive feedback to every learner</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Accuracy and consistency of learners' self-reflection, self-monitoring and self-adjustment</li> <li>• Engagement of learners in considering and challenging their thinking</li> <li>• Learners record their own learning</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Accuracy, consistency and fairness of judgements based on high quality information</li> <li>• Clear, detailed learning expectations</li> <li>• Fair and accurate summative reporting</li> </ul>
Using the information	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provide learners with accurate descriptive feedback to</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Provide learners with accurate feedback that will help them develop independent learning</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Indicate learners' level of learning</li> <li>• Provide the</li> </ul>

	<p>further his or her learning</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Differential instruction by continually checking where each learner is in relation to the curricular outcomes</li> <li>• Provide parent or guardians with descriptive feedback about learner's learning and ideas for support</li> </ul>	<p>habits</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Have learners focus on the task and their learning (not on getting the right answer)</li> <li>• Provide learners with ideas for adjusting, rethinking and articulating their learning</li> <li>• Provide the conditions for the teacher and learners to discuss alternatives</li> <li>• Learners report about their learning</li> </ul>	<p>foundation for discussions on placement or promotion</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Report fair, accurate and detailed information that can be used to decide the next steps in a learner's learning</li> </ul>
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Adapted from Black and William (1998:139-148)

#### **8.4 PRINCIPAL'S ROLE AS AN INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER IN ENSURING ASSESSMENT AT ALL LEVELS IN THE SCHOOL**

Literature indicates that school principals can play a significant and pivotal role in the improvement of learner learning. There is consequently widespread agreement by scholars in the field of instructional leadership that principals should function as assessment leaders in ensuring and the implementation of effective and quality assessment practices at their respective schools (cf. 2.2). It is therefore imperative that the principal must ensure in preparation school programmes offer courses on instructional leadership, and supporting educators on assessment practices in the subject at the school. These empowerment seminars, courses and books emphasise knowledge and skills related to curriculum alignment, teaching methods, classroom observation and evaluation and supervision of teaching. While all of these dimensions of instructional leadership are crucial, they do not encompass the entire domain. Moreover, instructional leadership also requires an understanding of the role of sound assessment practices in efforts to improve teaching and learning.

The well-prepared principal is ready to ensure that assessments are of high quality and used effectively. Yet, historically, preparation for productive assessment has been missing from principal training programmes as revealed by most of the respondents in this doctoral study. It was also evident that school principals can be pivotal in the improvement of learner learning by helping educators develop and use sound classroom assessments that strengthen instruction and learner learning. Typical educators will spend a quarter to a third of their available professional time involved in assessment-related activities according to CAPS and ANA. If they do it well, both educators and learners gain access to evidence that can be used in making sound instructional decisions. If they do it poorly, learning will suffer. In spite of this, little of principals' preparation time is spent learning about assessments. In this era of accountability, classroom assessments are the foundation of a truly effective assessment system.

If classroom assessments are not working effectively in the classroom day-to-day, then accountability tests and benchmark assessments cannot remedy the matter. In other words, if teachers and learners constantly make bad decisions during the learning, then no interim or annual test yet invented can overcome the dire consequences for the learner. Yet, classroom assessments have been almost completely ignored over the decades of school improvement. The principal must be a key player in ensuring the accuracy and effective use of evidence of learner achievement at the school and classroom level. Therefore, preparation for this significant role must be part of principal preparation programmes in ensuring quality assessment (cf. 4.14).

#### **8.4.1 Classroom-based assessment**

Classroom based assessment involves a complex process requiring teachers' professional judgement. Teachers decide how to assess. They also interpret learners' learning according to reference points for success, such as curricular learning outcomes. The inferences about learners' learning that teachers make must be credible, fair, free from bias and connected to their intended purposes (cf. 4.3.1.1).

At classroom level, the context is one in which achievement standards have been arrayed in learning progressions that unfold within and across grade levels over time to map the learner's route to ultimate academic success. Assessment fits in as follows:

- Decision to be made?      What comes next in the learning?
- Made by whom?              Learners and teachers.
- Information needed?        Continuous evidence of every learner's current location on the scaffolding leading to every standard.

In order to know what comes next in learning, teachers must know where a learner is in the learning progression now. Classroom assessments must provide that information, not once a year or every few weeks, but continuously, as learners ascend the scaffolding toward the standard. Note that the focus of attention is on the achievement of every individual learner — there is no aggregation of data across learners. And note that the question is not whether learners are mastering standards. Rather, it is how *every* learner is doing on his or her journey to each standard. Principals must ensure that teachers are prepared to gather and productively use evidence of learner learning in their classrooms.

If they are not, then the school leader must either change the selection criteria for the hiring of teachers or secure appropriate professional development for those teachers in need. In either case, proper supervision is essential. This requires principals who are assessment literate (cf. 4.3.1.8).

### **Advantages and disadvantages of classroom-based assessment**

The following are the advantages of classroom-based assessment:

- Teachers access support from professionals and resource materials specific to the learners' particular learning needs; the learning needs of some learners are so significant and when learners learn they make meaning for themselves.
- Learners approach a learning task in different ways, bringing with them their own understanding, skills, beliefs, hopes, desires and intentions.

These are the disadvantages of classroom-based assessment:

- Individual learners' learning is not considered; the classroom is regarded as a homogeneous unit; learners for whom the lesson did not go well (with a learning disability) are seen as a single entity. The role of the principal as an instructional leader should be to develop learning in such a way that all learners learn equally. To ensure quality assessment practices, the principal should appoint teachers who are able to teach all types of learners to ensure quality assurance at school level (cf. 4.3.1.9).

### **Strategies of classroom-based assessment**

The following are strategies of classroom-based assessment:

- They emphasise progress and achievement rather than failure,
- Provide feedback to move learning forward,
- Reinforce the idea that learners have control,
- Responsibility for learners' own learning, building confidence in learners so they can and need to take risks, and
- Providing the scaffolding that learners need to genuinely succeed.

The principal as an instructional leader should motivate and encourage teachers, the SMT and learners for effective learning to ensure quality assessment practices at school (cf. 4.3.1.10).

### **8.4.2 Subject specific assessment**

The answers to the same three orienting questions are different at the *programme level* of instructional improvement:

- Decision to be made? Which standards are learners *not* mastering?
- Made by whom? Teacher teams, teacher leaders, principals and curriculum personnel.
- Information needed? Periodic, but frequent, evidence aggregated across classrooms revealing standards not mastered.

Programme evaluation relies on interim, benchmark or short-cycle assessments given every few weeks in order to identify where instructional programmes can be improved. Such formative assessment can tell faculties



precisely where to focus their improvement efforts and how to make those improvements in a timely manner. The focus of attention in this case is the achievement standard. Users seek to identify those standards with which learners struggle so as to bring programme resources to bear more effectively on their behalf.

Yet again, the principal must know how to ensure the quality of these assessments and that they are being used productively by programme planners and developers. This also requires a foundation of assessment literacy.

### **Advantages and disadvantages of subject specific assessment**

The advantages of implementing subject specific assessment strategies are discussed with the class, how they are going to approach the unit. Descriptive feedback and more complex challenges that would enable learners to apply new learning in a number of tasks in different contexts. The disadvantages of subject specific assessment is that if teachers are not well prepared it will have a negative implication for the learners' learning and their assessment (cf.4.5).

### **Strategies of subject specific assessment**

Learners must understand the nature of the task to be learned and the procedure to be followed in learning it. The subject specific assessment should be dismantled into small units of learning and tested at the end of each unit as stipulated by CAPS and ANA policies. The teachers should provide feedback about every learner's particular errors and difficulties of each test.

The teachers must find ways to alter the time some learners have available to learn. It is the responsibility of the principal as an instructional leader to ensure that teachers are empowered in their subject specific assessment strategies so that they could do well in their subjects as competent leaders for quality assessment practices. Training would help teachers to be effective classroom assessors and the entire school would benefit (cf. 4.6, 4.6.3, 4.6.4).

### **8.4.3 Whole school-based assessment**

Finally, at the institutional accountability or policy level, the accountability question comes to the fore:

- Decision to be made? Are enough learners meeting required standards?
- Made by whom? Superintendents, subject advisors, SGBs.
- Information needed? Annual summaries of standards mastered on accountability tests.

In this case, assessments serve summative purposes. It is a matter of CAPS and ANA policies that schools must administer annual assessments and moderation to all learners in certain grade levels to reveal the proportion of learners mastering knowledge and skills. The principal must both understand and be able to communicate with staff and the school community about these assessment results. The school leader must understand how to link those results to productive instructional improvement. As above, fulfilling this responsibility requires assessment literacy. Principals must understand the fundamental differences in the information needs of assessment users. Every assessment poses different questions because the individuals who use the resulting information have different needs.

The classroom level asks: How is the journey to competence? The programme level asks: How might programmes be improved? And the institutional level asks: Are schools as effective as they need to be? No single assessment can answer all these questions. A productive, multilevel assessment system is needed to ensure that decision makers have sufficient and appropriate information. Clearly, any assessment system that fails to meet the information needs of any decision maker disadvantages learners directly. The school principal as a leader must ensure that this does not happen (cf. 3.10.1, 3.10.2, 3.11). The principal can be pivotal in the improvement of learner learning by helping teachers develop and use sound classroom assessment that strengthens instruction and learner learning. Typical teachers will spend a quarter to a third of their available professional time involved in assessment-related activities.

If they do it well, both teacher and learners gain access to evidence that can be used in making sound instruction decisions. The principal must be a key

player in ensuring the accuracy and effective use of evidence of learner achievement at the school and classroom level. The principal as an instructional leader should show leadership competency in helping teachers to improve as subject specialists, to be assessment leaders in their classroom situation and to ensure effective teaching and learning at school. The SMT of the school should work with the principal so that the whole school assessment is done for the betterment of education. The principal should also work with the parents of the learners for quality assurance (cf.3.11.2, 3.11.3).

### **Advantages and disadvantages of whole school-based assessment**

The advantages of whole school-based assessment are as follows:

Classroom level assessment helps learners, teachers and parents make their instructional decisions. Programme level assessment enables teachers, leaders and teams, as well as principals, curriculum personnel and others to evaluate programme effectiveness, improvement, institutional accountability; policy level assessment enables school, district and community leaders to make decisions about resource allocation (cf. 3.8.4, 3.9).

### **The disadvantages of whole school-based assessment**

Literature shows there is a lack of insight into the expertise to offer assessment training. Principals lack opportunities to become assessment literate during their professional training and in effective teachers' training during their preparations to become teachers.

### **Strategies of whole school-based assessment**

The following are strategies to empower principals in whole school-based assessment:

- Principals promote school-wide efforts to establish, implement and refine appropriate expectations for curriculum and instructional practices that result in learner academic achievement.
- The principal supports teachers' efforts to engage in data-based decisions and evaluates professional development activities to assure that they result in improved instructional and assessment practices by implementing

an approach to learn research-based practices to address learners' cognitive, physical, social and emotional health and welfare.

- The principal understands the principles of assessment for learning and works with staff to integrate them into classroom instruction (cf. 3.9.1, 3.9.2, 3.10).
- The principal as an instructional leader should ensure effective and quality assessment practices by having an assessment plan which is constantly followed for school-based assessment.
- The principal should ensure that quality is achieved through planning and effective assessment by teachers and the SMT of the school (cf. 3.7.14, 3.8.1).

In the next part of this framework, moderation as an integral component of assessment is discussed.

#### **8.4.4 Moderation of school-based assessment**

School-Based Assessment (SBA) comprises forms of assessment which are conducted by the teachers at school level (DoE KZN, 2013). They include assignments, projects, simulations, research, demonstrations, role plays, tests, examinations and others. In the subject that has a practical component, in this case, languages with an oral component, is assessed differently. SBA includes assessment of the practical skills and in the case of languages, assessment of oral skills. SBA will be 100% at Foundation Phase, 75% in Intermediate Phase and 40% in Senior Phase. Provinces have the responsibility to ensure the reliability, validity, fairness and practicability of the SBA in terms of development, administration of the assessment task and assessment of the learners' evidence. Provinces also have the responsibility to ensure that SBA is uniformly implemented throughout the province. Moderation of SBA should be conducted at school, district and provincial levels to ensure credibility and standardisation of the SBA. Phases of moderation include pre-moderation, moderation and post-moderation. Moderation should ensure that the quality and standards of the internal assessment as contemplated in the CAPS have been met. The purpose of moderation of school-based assessment is the moderation of the assessment instruments and moderation of learner evidence of performance and system

compliance. Moderation must be conducted at school, district and provincial levels.

Moderation conducted at each of these levels will be to:

- Confirm the validity, fairness and practicability of the assessment instrument.
- Establish whether assessment was conducted in a fair and consistent manner.
- Establish the reliability, validity and fairness of the assessment scores.
- Provide feedback on the moderation findings with a view to improving the quality of teaching, learning and assessment (DoE KZN, 2013).

A record must be kept of all formal assessment tasks and evidence of every individual learner and teacher as prescribed in the CAPS policy or any other relevant document. Internal moderation findings must be reported to the SMT within the timeframes stipulated in the School Assessment Policy. In the event of district or provincial moderation, the internal moderation findings may be requested for reference and district or provincial reporting (cf. ANA, 2011).

#### **8.4.4.1 Moderation of assessment instruments/tasks**

All formal assessment tasks for all subjects (Grades 4-11) must be moderated by the Subject Head or specialist teacher deemed to be competent in the subject at the school or a HOD/Subject Head from a neighbouring school prior to the administration of the assessment tasks. Moderation of the assessment task should focus on the following:

- the assessment tasks are aligned to the assessment criteria for every subject;
- assessments tasks and marking guidelines are valid, fair and practicable;
- the instructions relating to the assessment tasks are clearly stated;
- the content must be in keeping with what is stated in the policies for the relevant subject and grade of the learner;
- the assessment task must be free of any bias;

- the language of the assessment task is in keeping with the language level of the learners for whom it is designed;
- the cognitive levels at which the assessment tasks are pitched are consistent with the level of development of the learners.

For subjects that have a practical or an oral component, moderation of practical and oral work will be conducted in accordance with the criteria outlined in the relevant ANA, CAPS and Moderation Policy documents. The moderator must also ensure that every assessment task is accompanied by a detailed marking guideline, which is accurately formulated and makes provision for the various alternatives that may be provided in the assessment task. The recommendations for improvement from the moderation process must be incorporated into the assessment task instrument before it is administered and this should be verified by the head of department/subject teacher deemed to be competent in the subject.

#### **8.4.4.2 Team moderation level of assessment**

The school-based assessment task, the marked learners' evidence of performance together with the teacher's record of assessment should be moderated at different levels, including the school, district and province.

- **School level moderation**

The school must take full responsibility for the moderation and monitoring of SBA. The principal must appoint the head of department to take responsibility for the moderation of SBA in every subject, in every grade. The principal must ensure that all teachers develop a formal programme of assessment which must be consolidated into a formal school assessment plan. The principal in collaboration with the School Management Team (SMT) must monitor the setting, marking and moderation of formal assessment. The HOD will moderate ten percent (10%) of learners' evidence in every subject. The sample must include well performing, average performing and underperforming learners' work. The HOD will check whether marking is in line with the memorandum, consider learner performance from previous assessments and ensure that teachers provide support evidence, based on learners' performance.

The principal must ensure that all irregularities or non-compliance discovered during moderation are resolved by the School Assessment Irregularities Committee (SAIC) and reported to the District Assessment Irregularities Committee.

- **Cluster and district moderation**

The district must take full responsibility and accountability for moderation at school level. The district directors are responsible for ensuring that all assessment conducted at school level is of the required standard and quality. The district directors must submit to the provincial office a clear district moderation plan for every subject offered in the district. The district moderation plan must be approved by the Provincial Quality Assurance Senior Manager. The moderation should encapsulate schools in rural, semi-urban and urban areas. The subject advisor should be responsible for the moderation of SBA across all schools in the district and ensure that the standard of moderation across all schools is comparable across the district.

- **Provincial moderation level**

The province should conduct moderation in sampled schools and sampled districts. The focus of the moderation is to ensure the comparability of standards across the district.

The moderators, including teachers and moderators, should be appointed by the province and the province should be responsible for compilation of the composite SBA district and provincial report. The submission of the computerised mark sheet should take place after the final moderation of SBA. The principal and SMT must implement and put in place comprehensive and appropriate moderation practices to enhance the quality assurance of assessment tasks and thereby ensure that all assessments are valid, fair, reliable and sufficient. Moderators at all levels are required to give quality comments based on the requirements of assessment so as to ensure that the assessment practices at school are enhanced. Moderation cannot simply be a monitoring exercise to check that the number of tasks has been done or that a memorandum has been applied correctly. It rather means that the moderator will give valid comments on, among others, the levels of questioning in

testing; the quality of assessment instruments and the developmental opportunities afforded and thereby enhance teaching and learning.

## **8.5 EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP COMPETENCIES FOR QUALITY ASSESSMENT AT SCHOOL LEVEL**

### **8.5.1 Principal's role in classroom-based assessment, subject and whole school assessment**

Assessment is, in part, the process of gathering information to inform instructional decisions. Truly productive, balanced assessment systems within classrooms, schools and districts serve the information needs of a wide variety of important assessment users. In other words, school leaders must ensure that their assessment systems provide a wide variety of decision makers with a variety of different kinds of information in different forms at different times to support or to verify learner learning, depending on the context. For this reason, the starting point for the creation of an assessment in any particular context must be a clear understanding of the information needs of the intended users (cf. 3.6.1, 3.6.4, 3.6.5).

While balance is important, the classroom assessment is the foundation of a truly effective system. Yet, the classroom level of assessment has been almost completely ignored over decades of school improvement.

When used effectively as a teaching tool, that is, to support learning, classroom assessment has proved its ability to greatly enhance (not merely monitor) learner learning. In their syntheses of dozens of studies conducted around the world, Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall and William (2003) report effect sizes of a half to a full standard deviation gain in learner test performance, attributable to the effective management of classroom assessment, with the largest gains accruing for low achievers. Keys to productive practice, they report, are increasing classroom assessment accuracy, increasing reliance on descriptive (versus judgemental) feedback to learners, and deep learner involvement in the self-assessment process. The principals themselves are becoming increasingly aware of the significance of effective assessment; for example, principals engaged in turning around low



performing elementary and middle schools as part of identifying the conditions that contribute to low learner performance. Without such data, teachers were less likely to target instructional interventions and provide effective assistance to struggling learners (cf. 3.7.7, 3.7.9, 3.7.11).

The principal as an instructional leader should lead the entire school to ensure effective and quality assessment practices at school level. Effective teaching and learning determines the leadership skills to work with teachers and the SMT to produce good results. Effective instructional leadership implies being able to change the school into a working situation where all learners are taught daily and where monitoring is constantly done by the principal and the SMT (cf. 2.2, 2.3, 2.6).

### **8.5.2 Specific instructional leadership competencies in assessment**

The principal, the SMT and teachers are therefore compelled to understand the principles of assessments *for* (that is, used in support of) learning and works with teaching staff to integrate them into classroom instruction (cf. 4.3.1.10). The principal must understand the necessity of clear academic achievement targets and their relationship to the development of accurate assessments. Knowledge of assessment practices by principals to evaluate the teacher's classroom assessment competencies can be of great help to ensure effective assessment practices. This helps teachers to learn to assess accurately and use the results productively.

The principal can plan, present or secure professional development activities that contribute to the use of sound assessment practices; accurately analyse learner assessment information; use the information to improve curriculum and instruction and assist teachers in doing the same; can develop and implement sound assessment and assessment-related policies; create the conditions necessary for the appropriate use and reporting of learner achievement information; and can communicate effectively with all members of the school community about learner assessment results and their relationship to improving curriculum and instruction (cf. 4.4.6).

Furthermore, principals must understand the standards of quality for learner assessments and how to verify their use in their school/district assessments;

understand the attributes of a sound and balanced assessment system, understand the issues related to the unethical and inappropriate use of learner assessment and protect learners and staff from such misuse.

Assessment for teaching and learning occurs in the classroom situation where activities are given to learners so that they learn effectively. The classroom manager being the teacher does all assessment practices at school. The principal and the SMT of the school draw up an assessment plan for both formal and informal activities (cf. 4.5). Many of these practices are common to different models of leadership, as well. These practices may be thought of as the “basics” of successful leadership. Rarely are such practices sufficient for leaders aiming to significantly improve learner learning in their schools, but without them, not much would happen (cf. 4.6). Three sets of practices make up this basic core of successful leadership practices, namely setting directions, developing people and re-designing the organisation.

#### **8.5.2.1 Setting objectives and directions**

Evidence suggests that those leadership practices included in setting directions account for the largest proportion of a leader’s impact. This set of practices is aimed at helping one’s colleagues develop shared understandings about the organisation and its activities and goals that can underscore a sense of purpose or vision. People are motivated by goals which they find personally compelling and challenging, but achievable. Having such goals helps people make sense of their work and enables them to find a sense of identity for themselves within their work context. Often cited as helping set directions, are such specific leadership practices as identifying and articulating a vision, fostering the acceptance of group goals and creating high performance expectations. Monitoring organisational performance and promoting effective communication throughout the organisation also assist in the development of shared organisational purposes (cf. 4.6.3).

#### **8.5.2.2 Developing staff for excellence in assessment**

Substantial evidence has been collected in both school and non-school organisations on the contribution of this set of practices to leaders’ effects.

While clear and compelling organisational directions contribute significantly to members' work-related motivations, they are not the only conditions to do so. Nor do such directions contribute to the capacities members often need in order to productively move in those directions. Such capacities and motivations are influenced by the direct experiences organisational members have with those in leadership roles, as well as the organisational context within which people work. More specific sets of leadership practices significantly and positively influencing these direct experiences include, for example, offering intellectual stimulation, providing individualised support and providing appropriate models of best practice and beliefs considered fundamental to the organisation (cf. 6.12, 6.12.1).

The role of the principal as an instructional leader is to develop staff in assessment to ensure effective and quality assessment practices at school level. The principal should ensure that workshops are regularly conducted to develop educators' skills in assessment. This should be done by inviting subject advisors and other experts in as far as assessment are concerned, for the sake of quality assurance (cf. 6.8.2, 6.9).

### **8.5.2.3 School vision: Re-designing the TQM of organisation**

The contribution of schools to learner learning most certainly depends on the motivations and capacities of teachers and administrators, acting both individually and collectively. But organisational conditions sometimes blunt or wear down educators' good intentions and actually prevent the use of effective practices. In some contexts, for example, high-stakes testing has encouraged a drill-and-practice form of instruction among teachers who are perfectly capable of developing deep understanding in their learners. And extrinsic financial incentives for achieving school performance targets, under some conditions, can erode teachers' intrinsic commitments to the welfare of their learners. Successful education leaders develop their districts and schools as effective organisations that support and sustain the performance of administrators and teachers, as well as learners. Specific practices typically associated with this set of basics include strengthening district and school cultures, modifying organisational structures and building collaborative processes. Such practices assume that the purpose behind the re-design of

organisational cultures and structures is to facilitate the work of organisational members and that the malleability of structures should match the changing nature of the school's improvement agenda (cf. 3.4, 3.4.1, 3.5.2).

#### **8.5.2.4 Understanding the school context**

Like experts in most fields, successful leaders have mastered not only “the basics,” but also productive responses to the unique demands of the contexts in which they find themselves. In this sense, all successful leadership is “contingent” at its roots. Indeed, impressive evidence suggests that individual leaders actually behave quite differently (and productively) depending on the circumstances they are facing and the people with whom they are working. This calls into question the common belief in habitual leadership “styles” and the search for a single best model or style. We need to be developing leaders with large repertoires of practices and the capacity to choose from that repertoire as needed, not leaders trained in the delivery of one “ideal” set of practices. We believe this evidence argues for further research aimed less at the development of particular leadership models but more at discovering how such flexibility is exercised by those in various leadership roles (cf. 2.10, 2.11).

##### **8.5.2.4.1 Organisational context: Mission of the school**

There is a rich body of evidence on the relevance to leaders of such features of the organisational context as geographic location (urban, suburban, rural), level of schooling (elementary, secondary) and both school and district size. Each of these features has important implications for what it means to offer successful leadership. For example, successful principals in inner-city schools often find it necessary to engage in more direct and top-down forms of leadership than do successful principals in suburban settings. The curricular knowledge of successful elementary principals frequently rivals the curricular knowledge of their teachers; in contrast, secondary principals will typically rely on their department heads for such knowledge. Similarly, small schools allow for quite direct engagement of leaders in modelling desirable forms of instruction and monitoring the practices of teachers, whereas equally

successful leaders of large schools typically influence their teachers in more indirect ways; for example, through planned professional development experiences. This evidence challenges the wisdom of leadership development initiatives that attempt to be all things to all leaders or refuse to acknowledge differences in leadership practices required by differences in organisational context. Being the principal of a large secondary school, for example, really does require quite different capacities than being the principal of a small elementary school (cf. 2.2).

#### **8.5.2.4.2 Understanding the student population in the school**

There is still much to be learned about how leaders can successfully meet the educational needs of diverse learner populations, but there has been a great deal of research on both school and classroom conditions that are helpful for learners from economically disadvantaged families and those with diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds. Almost all of the early research was conducted as part of the “effective schools” movement aimed to identify such conditions. In addition, a very large proportion of educational policy research on, for example, class size, forms of instruction, learner grouping practices and school size, has been conducted using evidence about and from such learners. This evidence suggests, for example, that economically disadvantaged primary learners will learn more in relatively small schools (250 to 300 learners) and classrooms (15 to 20 learners) when their teachers engage in active forms of instruction focused on rich, meaningful, curricular content using heterogeneous learner grouping strategies.

At a minimum, then, such evidence suggests that to increase the achievement of diverse learner populations, leaders should assist their staff in implementing the school and classroom conditions warranted by this research – “school leader as policy implementer.” This evidence also encourages leaders to engage with other agencies able to provide support for learners and their families, but without diverting leaders’ attention and influence on teacher learning.

The major shortcoming in much of this research, however, is that it does not identify leadership practices that are successful in improving conditions in the school and classroom suggested by this research, nor does it help unpack the

skills. A leader needs to wade through an often complex and not altogether coherent body of research evidence to determine which policies to implement. For example, on learner grouping in particular, we ought to know more about how a leader can generate high expectations, foster a faster pace of instruction, encourage sharing of effective learning among peers and adopt a more challenging curriculum (cf. 2.8.1, 2.8.4).

The principal as an instructional leader should ensure quality teaching and learning at school level. This should be done by working together with other stakeholders including former learners and the community at large and monitoring educators in ensuring quality assessment practices (cf. 2.8.12).

#### **8.5.2.4.3 The integrated assessment policy context**

Policy contexts change substantially over time but tend to be the same for many leaders at the same time. At the moment, large-scale, accountability-oriented policy contexts are pervasive for education leaders across the country.

Provincial departments of education, districts, clusters and school governing bodies are key role stakeholders in the enactment of educational leadership and the management of assessment. Currently, the focus on CAPS requirements, standards and accountability systems is driving local decisions and policies at school level in unprecedented ways. In addition, the funding of local school districts and clusters has, in many provinces, shifted increasingly to the province, while in others it remains a largely local responsibility (cf. 4.2, 4.3).

At best, the available evidence allows us to infer some broad goals that successful leadership will need to adopt, acknowledging that additional research will be needed to identify instructional leadership practices that are successful in achieving such goals:

- Creating and sustaining a competitive school: This is a goal for district and school leaders when they find themselves in competition for learners, for example, in education “markets” that include alternatives to public schools

such as charter, magnet and private schools, perhaps supported through tuition tax credits.

- Empowering others to make significant decisions: This is a key goal for leaders when accountability mechanisms include giving a greater voice to community stakeholders, as in the case of parent-controlled school councils; encouraging data-informed decision making should be a part of this goal (cf. 6.12.1)
- Providing instructional guidance: This is an important goal for leaders in almost all districts and schools aiming to improve learner learning. But it takes on a special character in the context of more explicit grounds for assessing the work of educators, as, for example, in the setting of professional standards and their use for purposes of ongoing professional development and personnel evaluation (cf. 6.12).
- Developing and implementing strategic and school-improvement plans: When schools are required to have school-improvement plans, as in most school districts now, school leaders need to master skills associated with productive planning and the implementation of such plans. Virtually all district leaders need to be proficient in large-scale strategic-planning processes (cf. 4.3).

The principal as an instructional leader should work together with the SMT and teachers to ensure that plans that have been drawn up are followed and monitored for quality assurance. It is therefore important that parents must also be informed of such plans, including the school governing body (SGB) (cf. 4.3.1.3).

## **8.6 CONCLUSION**

This chapter outlines the proposed Instructional Leadership Framework for Quality Assessment Practice (ILFQAP) for principals to ensure quality assessment practices at school level. The framework involves principals' knowledge of implementing the departmental policies such as CAPS and ANA as assessment directives for teachers as far as their job descriptions are concerned. The framework is also built on classroom-based assessment which ensures quality assurance. This includes different types of assessment which learners must be assessed with and the leadership competence for quality assessment as well as the subject knowledge of teachers and how their knowledge should be imparted in the classroom situation for assessment.

To be an effective instructional leader, the principal should ensure that quality assessment and moderation practices are established at the school. It is the responsibility of the principal and the SMT at school to ensure that the CAPS and ANA policies as directives for classroom-based assessment and moderation practices are being planned, implemented and monitored for effective teaching and learning.

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**COVER LETTER**

Dear Sir/Madam

As a doctoral student at the University of South Africa, I was granted permission from the Free State Department of Education to conduct research in the province. My title for the study is:

**The role of instructional leadership in ensuring quality assurance practice at primary schools in the Free State Province**

The South African education system has undergone remarkable changes over the past eighteen years. These changes have presented us with an exciting set of opportunities for making learning and teaching relevant, qualitative and effective. It is against this background that the principal as an instructional leader should play a pivotal role to ensure quality teaching and learning to advance education generally.

The aim of this study is to ascertain whether the role of instructional leadership ensuring quality assurance practice at primary schools in the Free State Province. Your opinion is required since you are the first point of contact between the school and the department. One way of eliciting principal opinion is through a structured questionnaire. You have first-hand knowledge of problems experienced in quality assurance at your respective schools. We believe that without your opinion, we cannot make inferences about your role as an instructional leader in the education of the African child in the all schools in Free State Department of Education province.

Your confidentiality is assured at all times; and you may opt out of the study at any time if you so wish without a penalty or any form of duress from the researcher to provide reasons. Your name will not appear anywhere, as participants will be given fictitious names. All the necessary means will be undertaken to ensure that participants are not caused any harm by participating in this study. The results of the questionnaire will not be shared with anyone apart from my supervisor.

Should you wish to know about the outcomes of this research, this will be made available to you upon request.

Thank you for your participation

.....

L.H Tshabalala (Researcher)

Prof M. Van Wyk (Supervisor

.....





## APPENDIX A – BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

### 1. Gender

1	Male		Office use
2	Female		4

### 2. Educational district

1	Fezile Dabi		Official use
2	Lejewelputswa		
3	Motheo		
4	ThaboMofutsanyana		
5	Xhariep		5

### 3. Highest Qualification

			Office Use
1	PTD		
2	FDE		
3	HED		
4	ACE		
5	PGCE		
6	PGDE		
7	UED		
8	BA/BAHONS		
9	BCOM/BSc		
10	Bed		
11	BEd HONS		
12	M.Ed.		
13	PhD		6

### 4. Years of teaching experience (mark with an X)

			Office Use
1	1-5 years		
2	6-10 years		
3	11-15 years		
4	16-20 years		
5	20-30 years		
6	31+ years		7

### 5. Experience in years as a school principal ( mark with an X )

			Office use
1	1-10 years		
2	11-15 years		
3	16-20 years		
4	20+ years		8

6. Are you currently teaching? (mark with an X)

YES	NO	Office Use
		9

If yes, what grades do you teach?

-----  
-----

7. Are you currently trained in NCS-CAPS?

YES	NO	Office Use
		10

8. If yes what type of NCS –CAPS were you trained?

-----  
-----  
-----

## APPENDIX B PRINCIPAL AS AN INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER

This part of the questionnaire focuses on your role and responsibilities regarding the principal as an instructional leader at your respective school.

Mark with an X in the appropriate block to indicate your choice

1. No knowledge (NKAL)
2. Little knowledge (LK)
3. Basic knowledge (BK)
4. understanding (U)
5. Fully understand (FU)

To what extend do you agree or disagree with the following statements in relation to your roles as an instructional leader	1 NKAL	2 LK	3 BK	4 U	5 FU	Office Use
1. I know what to look for when checking an educator's teaching portfolio?						11
2. I know how to establish whether learners have not achieved the criteria's for learning outcomes?						12
3. I understand my role in promoting a culture of teaching values and create positive attitudes in National Curriculum Statement (NCS)?						13
4. I know how effectively manage cooperative learning as teaching strategy in the classroom						14
5. I fully understand how to create a learners centred classroom?						15
6. I have clear understanding of how to implement effective assessment strategies in line with the NCS and National Protocol Assessment						16
7. I know what LO and assessment standards are in each learning area or subject						17
8. I know how effectively manage the teaching of problems-solving and thinking skills						18
9. I have a working knowledge of the rational of each learning areas/subjects						19
10. I know how the contact time in NCS for learning areas and subjects different from pervious time allocation						20
11. I know the different between C2005, NCS and CAPS						21
12. I know how NCS/CAPS timetable differs from a traditional time table						22

## APPENDIX C: TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT (TQM)

This part of the questionnaire focuses on your role and responsibilities regarding Total Quality Management (TQM) at your respective school as an instructional leader.

Mark with an X in the appropriate block to indicate your choice

1. Strong disagree
2. Disagree
3. Agree
4. Strongly agree

To what extend do you agree or disagree regarding the effective TQM system on your role as the school principal	1 SD	2 D	3 A	4 SA	Office Use
1. TQM is an integral of the planning processes in my school					23
2. TQM model as a framework for the promotion of a quality cultural change to accomplish the school vision.					24
3. In our school we develop and implement quality assurance policy as part of the TQM.					25
4. In our school we plan, implement and workshop the staff on quality assurance issues as part of TQM procedures and processes.					26
5. As an instructional leader I adopt and inform all staff the purpose of quality assurance in enhancing TQM at our school					27
6. In our school I strive and implement quality assurance procedures as part of TQM to eliminate barriers for educators to work efficiently and effectively.					28
7. In our school quality assurance is a component of TQM as well the learners is regarded as the most important customers.					29
8. As an instructional leader I give and provide educators direction to promote quality assurance as part of TQM, at our school					30
9. In our school I promote quality assurance as part of my role as instructional leadership in the TQM process					31
10. As the instructional leader of the school, I have no fear towards continuous change and transformation as part of quality assurance in TQM.					32
11. The instructional leader, I establish effective and constant communication for quality assurance as part of TQM to motivate educators and learners.					33
12. In our school, the instructional leader participates with educators, SMT and SGB for quality assurance as part of TQM in decision making and monitoring.					34
13. The role of the instructional leader is to develop and set an enabling environment for educators in terms of quality assurance practices so that they have direction as part of TQM process.					35

## APPENDIX D: ASSESSMENT PRACTICE

This part of the questionnaire focuses on your role and responsibilities regarding Assessment practices at your respective school as an instructional leader

Mark with an X in the appropriate block to indicate your choice

1. Disagree
2. Strongly disagree
3. Agree
4. Strongly agree

To what extend do you agree or disagree regarding assessment practices in the following statements.	1 SD	2 D	3 A	4 SA	Office Use
1. The instructional leader monitors assessment practice in the classroom regularly.					36
2. The instructional leader establishes clear criteria to support classroom assessment practices.					37
3. The instructional leader provides for easy ways for the implementation of the assessment policy at school.					38
4. The instructional leader facilitates assessment task teams in the school.					39
5. The instructional leader supports educators in their assessment tasks					40
6. The instructional leader creates opportunities for staff development regarding assessment practices.					41
7. The instructional leader acts as an assessment leader at school					42
8. The instructional leader plays a fundamental role in the assessment practices at school					43
9. The instructional leader as part of the curriculum implementation role must see to it that the assessment policy is implemented and revised often as part of quality assurance					44
10. The instructional leader creates a culture for quality assessment practice in the school					45
11. The instructional leader engages in professional development activities to enhance the quality of assessment in the school					46
12. Staff development results in a noticeable improvement in assessment practices in the school					47
13. The instructional leader shows the necessary competency or skills to support staff in classroom assessment					48
14. The instructional leader creates a culture for the continuous improvement of educators assessment skills by communicating quality assurance principles					49

**THANK YOU FOR TAKING TIME OUT TO COMPLETE THIS QUESTIONNAIRE**



## **APPENDIX E INTERVIEWS**

### **Interviews**

The following questions were used as a point of departure, to guide the interview.

#### **1. Instructional Leadership**

- What is your role as an instructional leader in promoting a culture of teaching values and creating a positive attitude in Curriculum and Assessment Policy Statement (CAPS)?
- As an instructional leader do you know what to look for when checking educators and learners portfolios?
- Teaching and learning is learner centred, as an instructional leader do you know how to create a learner centred classroom?

#### **2. Total Quality Management (TQM)**

- As an instructional leader in the school how do you implement and workshop staff on quality assurance matters as part of TQM procedures and processes?
- How do you ensure TQM as an integral part of the planning processes in your school?
- In your school as an instructional leader how do you implement quality assurance processes as part of TQM to eliminate barriers for educators to work effectively?

### **3. Assessment**

- As an instructional leader how do you create a culture for quality assessment practices in your school?
- What is your role as an instructional leader in creating opportunities for staff development regarding assessment practices in your school?
- As an instructional leader how can you establish clear criteria to support classroom assessment practices in your school?

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2015/03/05

### **REGISTRATION OF RESEARCH PROPOSAL**

Prof MM Van Wyk (Supervisor), hereby confirmed that Mr LH Tshabalala (Student No: 08604223) has been registered as a Doctor in Education (D.Ed.) student in our Department of Curriculum and Instructional Studies, College of Education. He is currently conducting research in instructional leadership in primary and secondary schools. The Title of his D.Ed. Thesis is: **The role of instructional leadership in ensuring quality assessment practices in primary schools in the Free State Province.** With this research study my student hope to contribute to the effective teaching of in the Free State schools. It is further hoped that when the outcomes (Findings and Recommendations) of this study is completed, The Findings will be of great value for the empowerment of school principals, Head of Departments and subject teachers in the Free State Department of Education.

Regards



Prof MM van Wyk (0124296201)



---

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19 March 2015

### Declaration

To whom it may concern:

This is to declare that

I undertook the editing/proofreading of the dissertation

**The role of Instructional Leadership in ensuring quality assessment practices  
in Primary Schools in the Free State**

(Chapters 1,2 3,5 and 6)

by

Lucky Hendrick



CJ Barnard

# WordWorks

**TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN**

**DECLARATION OF EDITING**

**THESIS: MR L HENDRICK**

I, Louise M Grobler, as a freelance language practitioner and member of the SA Translators' Institute, hereby solemnly declare that I have edited chapters 4, 7 and 8 and section E of Mr L Hendrick's thesis, *The role of instructional leadership in ensuring quality assessment in primary schools in the Free State Province*.

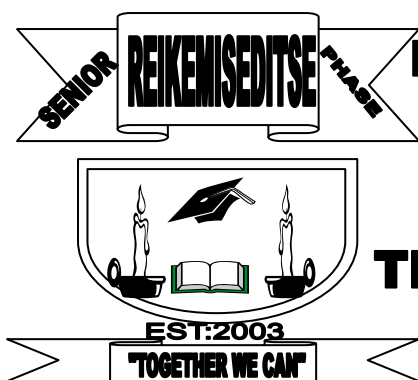


LOUISE M GROBLER

23 February 2015

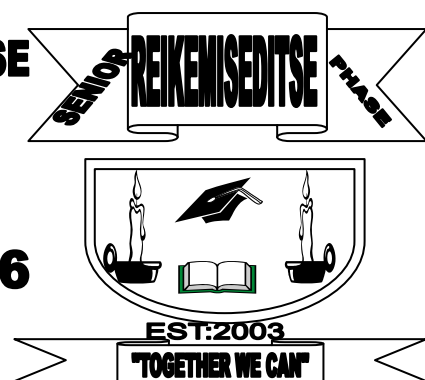
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Dear Sir/Madam

This is to certify that I Radebe M.J typed the whole thesis of Mr Tshabalala L.H for his DED in curriculum studies. I did all what I can do using arial writing. My contact numbers are 0839487071 for more information regarding this thesis.

Hoping you find this in order.

Yours in Service

\_\_\_\_\_ Radebe M.J  
Admin Clerk