CHAPTER 2:

2.0 REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter reviews literature on secondary school Head teachers’ role in school effectiveness, approaches used in appointment training of head teachers and their implications on performance of their management task areas. The review of literature also traces the history of the management schools of thought and their implications in educational institutions. The reviewed literature is presented under the following sub-headings:

2.1 Head teachers’ Role in School Effectiveness.

2.2 A Review of practices and policy on Head teachers’ Identification, Appointment and Selection in Kenya and possible impact on managerial performance

2.1.2 Head teachers’ professional preparation and Its Implications on Management performance.

2.2.1 KESI in-service training programme: Rationale for in-service training.

2.3 Management Task Areas in Educational institutions.

2.3.1 Curriculum and Instruction.

2.3.2 Student personnel.

2.3.3 Staff Personnel.

2.3.4 Management of the school plant.

2.3.5 Financial / Business Management.

2.3.6 Personnel Management and Development.

2.3.7 School-community relations

2.3.8 Evaluation of school programmes

2.4 An Appraisal of Management Training Programmes.
2.6 Priority Training Areas of School Managers

2.7 Educational Managers’ Preferred Training Approaches.

2.8 Summary of Literature Review

2.1: Head teachers’ Role in School Effectiveness

Educational administration is not an end in itself but it is a means to facilitate effective teaching and learning in order to have an effective and excellent school (Campbell et al 1983, Esp 1993 and Onyango 2001). Although there is no universally accepted blueprint on what constitutes effective schools, all the individuals with vested interests demand that schools must be effective. By demanding for school effectiveness, some of the stakeholders have academic achievement in mind. The rationale for such emphasis is that poor examination results reduce the students’ chances in admission to public universities and gaining employment in modern sectors, as witnessed in the Kenyan setting (Njuguna, 1998: 2).

To ensure higher chances of success in examinations, majority of parents are becoming very particular about the kind of secondary schools where they seek secondary school enrolment for their children. Stiff competition exists for joining secondary schools at form one (ninth grade) in some schools whose high performance is seen as the gateway to University or other middle level institutions or colleges. Although parents’ commitment to high examination grades is understandable, it is imperative to note that learning is supposed to be holistic and that school effectiveness needs to be examined from a broader prism than just passing of national examinations.

The Audit Commission (1991:7) acknowledges that: “There is no accepted definition of effectiveness and there is little systematic evidence of the relationship between management action and effectiveness. But there is evidence that educational quality is likely to be high if the necessary organisational pre-conditions are
in place, competent leadership, trained staff, sound buildings and adequate teaching materials."

Purkey and Smith (1985: 353-389) posit that there are five assumptions that underlie the concept of effective schools. (I) whatever else a school can and should do its central purpose is to teach. Schools’ success is measured by students’ progress in knowledge, skills and attitudes. (ii) The school is responsible for providing the overall environment in which teaching and learning occur. (iii) Schools must be treated holistically: - partial efforts to make improvements that deal with the needs of only some of the students and break up the unity of instructional programme are likely to fail. (IV) The most crucial characteristics of a school are the attitudes and behaviours of the teachers and other staff, not material things such as the size of the library or the age of the physical plant; (v) perhaps the most important, the school accepts responsibility for success or failure of the academic performance of the students. (vi) Students are firmly regarded as capable of learning regardless of their ethnicity, sex, home or cultural background, or family income. Pupils from poor families do not need a different kind of a curriculum, nor does their poverty excuse their failure to learn skills. [It is] differences among schools [that] do have impact on student achievement and those differences are controllable by the school staff.

The foregoing observations are crucial in this study in that they point to differences in organisational settings as being responsible for the performance of students not only in national examinations but also in their overall development as learners and human beings.

One of the features that came with the effective schools movement is that there was a change in that schools began to admit liability for performance of students unlike before learners were blamed for failure. It is therefore evident that effective schools take responsibility of meeting learners’ needs as opposed to those schools that are less effective. One of the most pressing questions is exactly what effective schools do to help meet students’ needs. After an analysis of effective schools literature in the mid 1980s, Purkey and Smith
observed that:

The most persuasive research suggests that student academic performance is strongly affected by school culture. This culture is composed of values, norms, and roles existing within the institutionally distinct structures of governance, communication, educational practices and policies and so on. Successful schools are found to have cultures that produce a climate of “ethos” conducive to teaching and learning... efforts to change schools have been most productive and most enduring when directed towards influencing the entire school culture via a strategy involving collaborative planning, shared vision, making collegial work in an atmosphere friendly to experimentation and evaluation.

Thus, the effective school suggests increased involvement of teachers and other staff members in decision-making, expanded opportunities for collaborative planning, and flexible change strategies that can reflect unique “personality” of each school. The goal is to change school culture; the means requires staff members to assume responsibility for school improvement, which in turn is predicated on their having authority and support necessary to create the programme that meet the needs of their students.

Scholars and educational practitioners seized upon the early effective schools research as a basis for developing programme for improving performance of schools. Owens (1991) however notes that while school improvement is a very complex process, it was made rather simplistic by suggesting that a five or six-factor formula could be a panacea for school management.

According to Stedman (1987:215-224) one of the early proponents of effective schools movement, such schools had a number of characteristics. Such characteristics include: (a) Strong leadership by the principal, (b) high expectations for student achievement on the part of the teachers and other members of staff, (c) an emphasis on basic skills, (d) an orderly environment, (e) frequent and systematic evaluation of students, and (f)
increased time on teaching and learning tasks. Although the above six factors do not constitute all that there is in designing effective schools, recent examination of literature on effective schools suggests that there are characteristics, which are essential and can be identified with effective schools. From the reviewed literature on effective schools, Purkey and Smith (1985:353-389) have identified thirteen characteristics of effective schools.

Owens (1991:33) notes that schools can quickly implement the first nine characteristics at minimal cost by administrative action. The characteristics that schools can implement quickly are: (i) School site-management and democratic decision-making, in which individual schools are encouraged to take greater responsibility for, and are given greater latitude for educational problem solving. (ii) Districts can increase schools’ capacity to identify and solve significant educational problems. This includes reducing the inspection and management roles of central office people while increasing the support and encouragement of the school level leadership and collaborative problem solving. (iii) Administrators can provide Strong leadership along with integrated teams of administrators, teachers and perhaps others. (iv) To create effective schools, staff stability needed to facilitate development of strong cohesive school culture. (v) Effective schools require a planned coordinated curriculum that treats students’ educational needs holistically and increases time spent on academic learning. (vi) Effective schools require school wide staff development that links the school’s organisational and instructional needs with the needs that teachers perceive should be addressed. (vii) Proponents of effective schools also recognise the need for parental involvement particularly in support of homework, attendance, and discipline. (viii) Moreover, school-wide recognition of academic success, in terms of both improving academic performance and achieving standards of excellence is required. (ix) Such schools also emphasise the amount of time spent on teaching and learning. Schools do this by reducing interruptions and stressing the pre-eminence of focused hard work to learn, and restructure teaching activities.

While it is true that the foregoing characteristics need to be taken into account in school
improvement, it is imperative to note that they neither are the only ones nor are they the most important. What is evident is that they can be used in a school setting since they are inexpensive. Moreover, they can set the stage for the second set of characteristics for renewal. The second set of characteristics has a greater power and capacity to increase the school capacity to continue to solve problems over time and to increase effectiveness over time.

These school characteristics are: (I) collaborative planning and collegial relationships that promote feelings of unity, encourage sharing knowledge and ideas, and foster consensus among those in the school. (ii) Schools also require a sense of community, in which alienation of both teachers and students is reduced and a sense of mutual sharing is strengthened. (iii) Similarly, schools equally need shared goals and high achievable expectations. Such goals and expectations arise from collaboration, collegiality, and a sense of community and which serve to unify those in the organisation through their common purposes. (iv) Effective schools require order and discipline that bespeak the seriousness and the purposefulness of the school as a community of people, students, teachers, staff and other adults; that is cohered by mutual agreement on shared goals, collaboration and consensus.

It is clear from the second category of characteristics for effective schools that achieving excellence in schools is not as easy as some scholars and practitioners made it to appear.

Other authorities in educational management see an effective school as one that maximises pupil achievement, cares for the development of the whole person individual and prepares pupils for adult life. (Bell and Rhodes, 1996:12) add to the foregoing view by noting that “An effective school is generally perceived to the one that meets locally identified needs from existing resources and ensures that its pupils attend regularly and perform well in public tests and examinations”. While scholars have different viewpoints on school effectiveness, Sammons (1994) acknowledges that the understanding of school effectiveness is contingent upon a
number of critical factors such as the type of school examined, the choice of outcome measures, methodology, time scale of the study, among other factors.

Bell and Rhodes (1996) however contend that effectiveness is concerned with achieving appropriate objectives whether these are determined internally or externally. Kalra (1997: 22) postulates that three sets of variables interplay in the planning and organisation of an educational institution. These are generally categorised as input variables, process variables and output variables. The output variables are in terms of goal achievement, such as the extent and quality of pupil achievements, retention rates, and pupils' personality development among others. The in-put variables pertain to learners, teachers, materials, media, administration, educational climate, instructional strategies, among others. An effective school is the one where there is careful planning of in-put variables and their interplay with process variables. In the educational management context, Mann (1989) identified the input variables as:

a) Administrators’ characteristics and behaviours;

b) Teachers’ characteristics and behaviours;

c) School learning climate;

d) Instructional emphasis; and

e) Pupil progress measurement.

A number of studies have indicated that effective principals have a number of notable characteristics. Such principals involve themselves in the instructional life of the school; they are more in the class and less in the office; they devote themselves to teaching and learning than on financial business; they are a visible presence and they use achievement data for planning further. It is important to note that school principals need to strike a reasonable balance in management of curriculum and instruction and general school management. A principal who has no hands-on- experience with teaching and learning may soon lose touch with the students as
well as the teachers who may tend to see the administrator as an armchair bureaucrat.

The school principal will therefore need to cultivate those aspects that promote effectiveness like time management, instructional management, supervision and institutional planning (Kalra, 1997: 23).

Rutler et al. (1970) conducted a longitudinal study on school effectiveness over a period of eight years among secondary school in London. Among other factors, the school climate and ethos (culture) were important in quality school. Weber (1971) conducted a study to determine the effectiveness of the inner city schools in New York, Kansas and Los Angeles cities focusing mainly on reading achievement. Among the factors identified as critical to school effectiveness included strong leadership by the head, a purposeful climate, high teacher expectation and cogent (strong) focus on reading. Lezotte et al. (1975) also identified the principal as one characteristic of effective schools.

Austin (1978) compared eighteen high achieving and twelve low achieving schools, to determine the factors, which distinguished the two sets of schools. The findings of the study indicated preference of strong principals who held high expectations for teachers, students and school. School principals who put emphasis on intellectual goals characterized the effective schools. In a study involving two sets of schools categorised as declining and improving schools, Brookover and Lezotte (1979) corroborated the fact that principals played a very critical role in improving school. Edmond and Frederick son (1979), proponents of the effective school movement initiated the school improvement project in the USA. They conducted several case studies of effective schools from mid 1970s. Among the five key characteristics identified in effective schools included principals who exhibited strong administrative leadership.

A number of studies conducted in 1980s and 1990s continue to point to the important role-played by head teachers in school effectiveness. Bossert et al. (1982) strongly acknowledged the role played by principals in creating effective schools. Mulford (1987:1) identified the following ten factors as indicators of school
effectiveness: (I) Sense of mission- clear sense of purpose (ii) Great expectations-high teacher expectations (iii) Academic focus:-emphasis on basic academic skills (IV) Feedback on academic performance-pupils’ progress consistently and frequently monitored. Positive motivational strategies-pupils have self-image fostered by a positive friendly atmosphere,(vi)Conscious attention to positive, safe, ordered community climate-sense of community.(vii)Administrative leadership:-strong instructional leadership from the principal and systematic staff development. (viii)Teachers take responsibility- staff autonomy. (ix) Parental involvement- i.e. parent initiative conduct, and (x) system support-federal, state and local support.

In a study on indicators of school effectiveness, Machura (1991) found significant differences between effective schools in relation to ten administrative variables and five specific school attributes that included administrative leadership. Effective schools exhibited strong managerial leadership. Similarly Hmaidan (1991) in a study on characteristics of effective and non-effective schools in Jordan found that factors such as principals who had good management skills, positive school climate, high expectations in academic achievement and participatory decision-making distinguished high achieving (effective) from low achieving (ineffective) schools.

In a related study, Dhaundiyal (1989) conducted a study to determine institutional performance in intermediate colleges of Garhwal region of India. Among the key areas of the study focus were to identify the ingredients of efficiency in institutional performance. The study examined among other things the institutional functional style, teachers’ personality, achievement motivation and the study habits of the students as measures of institutional efficiency. The study collected data from 562 students, 316 teachers and administrators by use of Institutional Functional Style Scale developed by Cattel and adapted for Indian conditions by Kapoor. Achievement Motive Test of V.V. Bhargava and test of study habits and attitudes by Mathur were also used. The collected data was analysed by use of Standard Deviations, mean among others. Significant difference existed between perception of the teachers of efficient and inefficient institutions on Institutional Functional Style. A
significant difference existed on achievement motivation between students of efficient and inefficient institutions. Likewise, the perceptions of students on study habits differed significantly between the efficient and inefficient institutions. In light of the foregoing observations, this study will establish whether there are significant differences in ratings of schools regarding their management practices between schools that the public perceives as efficient and those lowly rated by the public in all educational aspects.

Emmanuel (1990) conducted a study of autonomous colleges with a view to determining their functional efficiency and finding the possible weakness in terms of developed criteria. Emmanuel (1990) studied four colleges using the survey and interview methods. The study administered questionnaires to students, lecturers heads of departments, Dean of students, Welfare directors, Directors of physical education, controllers of examinations and principals. A comprehensive set of criteria was evolved under the nine dimensions, viz. (I) Societal need for fulfilment (ii) Faculty excellence (iii) The quality of learning experiences provided (iv) Evaluation (v) Co-curricular excellence (vi) Student services provided (vii) Material resource management (viii) Academic management and (ix) Personnel management. The study findings indicated that the four colleges were functionally strong in terms of one dimension, i.e. material resource management and five sub-divisions thrust of the courses offered to full-time students, character formation programme, college material management and interpersonal relations management. However, the colleges were weak in one dimension, i.e. faculty excellence and two sub-divisions of faculty qualification and production.

The colleges for women seemed to stand at the same level followed by the colleges under male principals. There were common weaknesses and strengths between colleges under male and female principalship. The current study will establish whether there are differences in ratings of management practices in secondary schools based on school categories. Moreover, this study examined some of the dimensions used in Emmanuel’s study (1990) like the adequacy of staff.
In a related study, Malhotra, Tulsi and Sawant (1990) investigated the factors that contribute to quality or deterioration of programme of an institute. The study explored among other things the student input, the required resources, the in instructional processes used to transform the input. The study sample included two directors and Heads of departments, three section heads, six lecturers, three instructors, 35 students, 7 post-graduates and 12 professionals from industry. The researchers collected data by use of interview schedules, eleven questionnaires, annual reports and brochures. The study findings indicated that certain factors contributed to a quality technical institute. Such factors included: (i) the ability of the institute to attract a large number of students with high scholastic achievement higher than the one prescribed for admission. (ii) The students’ level of interest in studies as well as co-curricular activities was also a factor in contributing to the quality of a college. (iii) Staff interest and enthusiasm in organising curricular and co-curricular activities was also highly rated in contributing to the quality of a college. (iv) Respondents also indicated the necessity of adequate number of classrooms, well-equipped laboratories, adequate student amenities and workshops in having a quality college. (v) Respondents perceived specialised fields such as engineering technology with in-plant training to be important for ensuring a quality engineering college. (vii) Adoption of instructional strategies promoting learning to learn; (viii) providing equal weight-age to theory and practical work; (ix) systematic planning and scheduling of various activities. (x) Establishing of internal structures with adequate involvement in industry; (xi) Selecting staff with adequate industrial experience; (xii) Setting up committees and councils involving students and staff; (xiii) Conducting an entrance test; (xiv) Staff development; (xv) Participation of industry in training and management; (xvi) Securing funds from industry; (xvii) High demand ratio for courses; (xviii) Presence of healthy instructional climate; (xix) High graduate ratio; (xx) High graduate employment ratio; (xxi) High self-employment level of college graduates; (xxii) Linkages with industry.
Although foregoing characteristics were applied to technical college, they can serve as criteria of evaluating any educational institution regarding its efficiency, even at secondary school level. Some of them were adopted for this study since it has been noted that a sound instrument can come partly by adapting an existing instrument as well as getting items from reviewed data. The study by Malholtra, Tulsi and Sawant (1990) also established factors that can lead to decline of an institution. Such factors include:

a) Increasing number of students with low scholastic achievement;

b) Decline of students’ and staff interest in studies,

c) Lack of integration between theory and practice;

d) Decreasing emphasis in practical work;

e) Increasing use of unfair means in examinations;

f) Decreasing efficiency of the maintenance system for school buildings;

g) Recruiting staff with little or no industrial experience;

h) Decreasing funds and decreasing generation of institutional resources;

i) Political interference and

j) Emergence of groups for and against the administration of the institution.

Some of the factors cited above factors are in a way responsible for decline of some secondary schools. Of particular concern is admission of students having low academic achievement in eighth grade examinations. Other critical factors responsible for decline or stagnation in secondary schools is decline of students’ and staff interest in studies, poor infrastructural maintenance, decreased funding and decreased generation of institutional resources. Moreover, camps for and against the institutional management can adversely affect the smooth running of an institution.

Attempts to review literature on effective schools have been made by number of scholars. Clark and
Lotto (1982) identified fifty-three variables related to effective schools. They categorised these variables into eight groups:

(I) Programme leadership direction (ii) Goals and standards of performance (iii) Characteristics of school learners (iv) Technical tasks of administration (v) School climate expectations (vi) Acquisition and allocation of funds and resources (vii) Staff personnel development (viii) Community relations. While it is evident that head teachers perform similar tasks, it is important to realise that what matters most is the quality of the tasks being executed to the overall well being of a school.

Hersh (1982) on the other hand also identified eight broad factors, which determine effective schools. These include clear academic goals, order and discipline, high expectation, teachers’ efficacy, pervasive caring public, reward and incentives, community support and administrative leadership. Hersh (1982) further acknowledged that school leadership had control over the other seven factors and therefore how effective a school became was contingent upon how competency the school head controlled the factors.

Khader (1992) undertook a study to determine the reasons for better performance by private schools over public schools in Mysore. The study further sought to establish whether private schools had better learning environments as well as the features that explain academic performance. Using the stratified random sampling, ten high schools covering Christian missionary private schools and 5 government schools and 455 students from tenth class were selected from calicut district of Kerala. The investigator used a school inventory for teachers and head teachers, a School Environment Scale, a Personality Characteristic Tool, a language proficiency test and a Science Achievement Test. The collected data were analysed by use of multiple regression and multivariate analysis.

The findings were that private high quality schools had effective management systems and low teacher-student ratio. At the other extreme, private and public low-quality schools had weak management
systems and open-door admission policy, which affected results despite the low student-teacher ratio. The public and high-quality schools had a higher student-ratio and management systems ranging from average to moderately effective and maintained high work ethics. Khader (1992) found that students from high-quality and average public schools and average quality private schools perceived their environments as either average or high. Students from higher social classes were more academically oriented as compared with those from the lower social classes. It was also found that the tendency to show similar patterns of behaviour among students of the same schools was highly visible in private schools and low in low quality schools. Khader’s study found intelligence, educational aspirations, school environment, language proficiency; linguistic level and academic emphasis to be critical factors for school success.

In a related study, Mary (1990) carried out an appraisal of the schools run by the Society of Jesus, Mary and Joseph in Andra Pradesh with a view to establishing their strengths and their weaknesses.

The sample was drawn from 25 schools hence had 25 principals, 233 teachers, 346 students and 276 parents of the selected students. The researcher obtained the relevant data using the School Appraisal Questionnaire, a general information schedule and observation schedule. The researcher analysed the collected data and obtained mean, standard deviations, correlations, multivariate analysis and a profile analysis. The schools under survey were above average or high in almost all aspects under consideration. Such aspects included institutional planning, leadership, organisation, curricular programme, co-curricular activities, system maintenance, system renewal, investment and innovations. The study did not find any significant differences between English medium and Telugu medium schools regarding the ratings on management aspects.

The study recommended entrenching appraisal in all schools in an effort to strengthen management systems in schools as well as addressing the issues that were lowly rated in some schools. This study worked a long similar line and the findings will be compared in chapter four.
In one of the studies that have some aspects that are very much similar to the present research, Upasani, et al (1991) conducted a survey on administrative and management practices in secondary schools of Pune district. The study also studied various school aspects with a view to establishing the correlates of effectiveness of a head teacher.

The leadership behaviours of head teachers were examined in relation to school organisation climate. The study surveyed 122 volunteer secondary schools along the lines of rural and urban, corporation aided and boys and girls schools. For the case study, eight schools were picked. The questionnaires developed by the investigators were mailed to secondary schools in Pune district, out which 122 schools responded. The questionnaire was analysed on the six aspects of efficient school administration and management. In each of the schools, the head teacher and two other teachers were interviewed. Questionnaires for organisational climate and leadership qualities were also administered to them. The tools used for the study were the adapted version of Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description (LEAD), developed by the Centre for Leadership Studies, University of Ohio and Organisational Climate Description Questionnaire (OCDQ) developed and standardised by Halpin and Croft and adapted for Indian conditions by Sharma.

The study found significant differences between efficient and inefficient schools on the scores obtained for the following aspects: planning and implementation of the curricular and co-curricular activities, scholastic and other achievements of students, efficiency and enriching of the teaching staff, administration and relationship with the community. The organisational climate varied from open to close to autonomous. Yet, all the three kinds of schools were identified as efficient. The correlates of efficiency of a head teacher were found to be planning, implementation of curricular and co-curricular activities, good relationship with the staff and the community as well as providing extra facilities for students. The findings of the current study are very similar to the findings of the study by Uppasani et.al (1991).
Sammons, Hillman and Montimore (1995) carried out an in-depth analysis and review of literature on effective schools. According to them, the characteristics of effective schools can be summarised as follows:

a) Professional leadership: that is firm and purposeful in selecting effective teachers and creating a consensus and unity of purpose. In such institutions, head teachers share responsibility with other teachers (delegation) and involve staff in decision-making but are professional in their leading.

b) Shared vision and goals: involves collegiality and collaboration so that the teaching staffs are able to lift aspirations and ensure school-wide consistent practice.

c) A learning environment that is attractive, orderly and encourages self-control among pupils, a prerequisite to positive classroom ethos.

d) High expectations and self-esteem among teachers, pupils and parents to a common culture that places high demand on everyone. Such expectations are high, involving all the stakeholders, they are clearly communicated and there is provision of intellectual challenge.

e) Purposeful teaching that is characterised by efficient organisation, clarity of purpose, structured lesson and an adaptive practice that is well organised and clear about its objectives well prepared and appropriately paced structure. Research suggests that effective questioning is an important way of focusing pupils’ attention.

f) Positive reinforcement this constitutes clear feedback, rewards and well-understood disciplinary rules rather than punishment and criticism.

g) Concentration on teaching and learning is one of the indicators of effective schools. This is done by maximising the amount of time spent on teaching and learning as well as focusing on individual pupil’s progress.
h) Progress monitoring to focus attention on how well the school achieves its goals, inform planning
and teaching and demonstrate to pupils that teachers are interested in their progress. Effective
schools have a clear system of monitoring pupil performance as well as evaluating the overall
school performance with a view to doing better in future.

i) Pupils’ active participation—pupils have a right and responsibilities that enable them to play an
active role in the life of the school, raise self-esteem, and encourage them to take responsibility
for their own learning.

j) Home-school partnership in most of the effective schools, there is a requirement for parental
support in pupil learning since parental involvement is known to foster more effective pupil
learning.

k) Learning organisations—effective schools are learning organisations in which a practice of school-
based staff development is nurtured involving teachers, managers as well as pupils. All are
involved on the premise that they are all constantly learning and seek to improve their practice
by keeping up with change.

Scholars are at variance regarding their perceptions of school effectiveness. This however does not
mean it is impossible to arrive at criteria for determining school effectiveness. Bell and Rhodes (1996:15),
postulated that, “however difficult it is to arrive at a definition of a good school or list the factors which
contribute to school effectiveness, it is quite clear that sound classroom organisation, good teaching and
leadership for staff with curriculum and whole school’s responsibilities are vital but the role of the head teacher
is of paramount importance.”

It is clear that a head teacher’s role is central to effective operation in a school. Some scholars
however argue that the roles of a head teacher are very amorphous and it is not always clear what he or she
should be doing. Notable among them is Russell et al (1985:1) who postulate that: “For all the emphasis on the importance of the principal’s role it is still unclear what this role is or how it is related to characteristics of effective schools.” It is worthy noting that leadership in secondary schools is not just about certain specific attributes of secondary school principals or head teachers but it is important to underscore the role played all the stakeholders (Mbiti, 1974: 48, Griffin, 1994:2, Sammons et al, 1995 and Onyango, 2001: 38).

To be able to play their roles effectively, the stakeholders should have regular consultative meetings in which issues regarding school effectiveness and efficiency are openly discussed. While it is appreciated that district and provincial education offices have the role in management of schools, it should be realised that such a role is at best that of facilitators it is therefore the onus of the school to plan appropriately for the desired changes in the school. As such, the effective schools’ characteristics should be seen as guideline where schools can appraise themselves and chart the way forward. That is the reason for the design of a self-appraisal questionnaire report to enable head teachers time for sober reflection in the kind of educational management practices that they are engaged in and why. The next section explores the policies, practices in head teachers’ appointment and selection in Kenya.

2.2A Review of Practices and policy on Head teachers’ Identification, Appointment and Selection in Kenya and possible impact on managerial performance:

Recruitment, according to Okumbe (1998: 244) is “The process of making a worker interested in a particular job so as to apply for it”. The Teachers’ Service Commission appoints head teachers’ from amongst teachers who have served for a particular duration after their graduation and who show interest in administration work. Head teachers mainly are selected from, among others: (I) Effective classroom teachers; (ii) Teachers who are actively involved in co-curricular activities; (iii) Teachers with a teaching experience of not less than three years; (iv) Deputy head teachers who have served for a minimum of three years (Ministry of
From the fore-going list of possible candidates for leadership of secondary schools, it is important to note that although effective classroom teachers would have an advantage in supervision of the curriculum; it may not automatically mean that a good teacher is likely to be necessarily a good administrator (Maranga, 1993:19). It is also necessary to realise that though experience in teaching is important, it can be the wrong kind of experience. As a result, there is need to expose prospective secondary school head teachers to management training, their experience in teaching not withstanding. According to Ministry Of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST, 1999a), the following parties are involved in identification of prospective secondary school head teachers: (I) Incumbent head teachers, (ii) District Education Office, (iii) Religious and other Sponsors, (iv) Provincial Education Office, (v) Boards of Governors or Boards of management and (vi) politicians and other opinion makers in society.

The list of interested parties in appointment of head teachers is an indicator of how crucial such an office is in the day-to-day management of the school and for various reasons. The incumbent head teachers may want to identify who is to take over after their transfer or retirement in order to perpetuate some good management practices and keep the school on a sound management footing. In instances of suspected financial malpractices, some head teachers may want to influence the appointment or transfer of the in-coming head teacher to avoid a situation where shady financial deals are exposed. Other head teachers may wish to have their cronies appointed just as a way of rewarding loyal friends by appointment to headship.

The District Education and Provincial Education offices are interested in appointment of head teachers because of their supervisory role in provision of Education management. Such a role makes the offices duty-bound to appoint a head teacher who can provide sound management to an educational institution to enhance educational standards. The religious and other sponsors are usually interested in who becomes a head teacher in
their institutions to inculcate and preserve their religious and moral values upon the students (Kenya Episcopal Conference, 2000). It is upon such considerations that sponsors insist on consultation by the Teachers’ Service Commission before appointment of a head teacher.

On their part, politicians are interested in who becomes a head teacher in a given school for a number of reasons. Protection of political influence, advancing in political career through their presence in schools and being truly development conscious and willing to assist head teachers who are focused on school management issues could be part of reasons for interest in who takes over in schools.

From the given observations, there is need to follow the policy on appointment of head teachers so that the standards of performance in schools will not be compromised by appointing officers on non-professional considerations. Such appointments are likely to have far-reaching ramifications on head teachers’ performance, which is a detriment to organizational progress. In view of the many interested parties in the appointment of head teachers, this study will explore the existing practices and their ramifications on job-performance of head teachers, as respondents will express them.

According to the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology policy contained in circular No. 1 of 1999, selection of head teachers is to be done after the advertisement of the positions through circulars to schools by the Provincial Director of Education, Municipal education officer, or the District Education Officer. Prospective secondary school head teachers should fulfill the following criteria: (I) be a professionally qualified graduate; (ii) have a minimum of five years continuous, post-qualification experience, two of which must be as a Deputy Head teacher or at the level or at the level of a Head of a Department. (iii) Such candidates need to have portrayed professional competence and ability in one’s own work; (iv) Be at a minimum grade of Job- Group L on the scheme of service for Graduate Approved Teacher/Approved teacher Schedule. (v) Prospective head teachers need to have attended at least one in—service course in school management conducted by Kenya
Education Staff Institute (KESI). (vi) More over, such head teachers require a clean record of service professionally and morally. (vii) In addition, they need to be individuals who have shown or expressed interest in school management by applying for consideration to an advertised deployment vacancy for headship. (viii) Be one who will have proved through performance Appraisal to possess the needed qualities of a head teacher i.e. pass selection test and successful attachment and respect on performance.

Although the policy on appointment of head teachers is very clear on paper, a number of infractions may occur due to the many groups with vested interests. The Catholic Church, for example stipulate in Kenya Episcopal Conference (2000:23) “The head teacher is appointed by the Teachers’ Service Commission after appropriate consultation-Consultation here means agreement in writing between the sponsors and the T. S. C. No appointment should be made without consultation”.

In view of the policy position by the Catholic Church, cases of conflict of interests have been witnessed where the TSC appoints head teachers only for such head teachers to be rejected by religious groups on grounds that they do not subscribe to the faith of the sponsor. In other instances, the Catholic Church has demanded transfer of head teachers on the perception that such head teachers may not be either willing or capable of perpetuating the religious traditions of the sponsor. Chances of misunderstanding might exist between head teachers may not be adherents of the faith of the schools’ sponsors.

In other instances, their communities on little else apart from ethnic balancing on grounds “he is our son” have recommended some head teachers for appointment. This has made clan-ism a major obstacle standing in the appointment of competent head teachers. To avoid cases where head teachers are rejected due to such misunderstandings there is need to revisit the issue of the sources of dissatisfaction among the interested parties so that head teachers can be appointed on the basis of their job competence and in due consultation with those with vested interests.
In underscoring the importance of policy guidelines in recruitment of officers, Okumbe (2002: 60) postulates, “It is important to develop recruitment policies to guide educational administrators during recruitment process. Education administrators must plan the course of action, which will be undertaken during the entire recruitment process. The written policies help to standardize the whole recruitment process”.

From the foregoing observation, it is imperative to have realistic recruitment and appointment policies, which ensure fair play in the appointment of secondary school head teachers. Such realistic and practical policies are necessary in the light of the observations of inquiry into the education system of Kenya, also known as Koech Report (1999:225), which noted that:

There is enormous political interference in appointment of head teachers and education officers, and that in most cases, experience, academic and professional qualifications for the job do not count. Yet, heads of educational institutions are central to the successful management of educational institutions and the implementation of the total curriculum. The commission was informed that such appointments are usually made from serving teachers, most of whom have had no prior training in institutional management. Lack of training was perceived as one of the factors that continue to adversely affect effective management of educational institutions as well as maintenance of high quality standards of education and training.

According to Koech Report (1999: 225-226), head teachers are supposed to be “persons with appropriate academic and professional qualifications, integrity and initiative. They must also have undergone courses in institutional and financial management.” In view of the above, the policy guidelines are supposed to underscore the above characteristics and professional attributes so that the prospective heads of institutions can be individuals who are sound in institutional management. Okumbe (2001:6) posits that human resource management policies need to be clear on a wide range of issues. Such issues include policy matters on deployment and promotion that may include among others: (I) Policy on age, sex, national background, race,
The issue of creed has pitted the Teachers’ Service Commission and some sponsors into sharp
conflicts when it comes to appointment of head teachers to their sponsored schools, there have been cases where
schools have been closed where the two parties are not able to come up with compromise candidates for head
teachers. Such scenario has mainly been common mainly in Catholic sponsored and Seventh Day Adventist
schools in such areas as Embu, Kisii and Nyamira. Such high schools included Cardinal Otunga, Mang’u and
Mosocho.

Before appointment to institutional management, the Ministry of Education demands that head
teachers and education officers should have undergone management training conducted by Kenya Education
Staff Institute (KESI). This however has been difficult due to a number of factors. Since the withdrawal of donor
funding by World Bank, KESI conducts induction-training programme through Cost-sharing. This approach has
made it difficult for some head teachers to raise the in-service fees since the same is borne for by the schools,
some of which are experiencing financial difficulties. Another hindrance to timely training of educational
administrators is the fact that KESI depends on grants from the Directorate of Education since it has no budget
line of its own. Postponing of training programme has also occurred in the past due to unreleased training
funds due to some bureaucratic hitches.

Understaffing of KESI has also militated against effective training because the institute does not have
permanent employees but depends on staff deployed by the Ministry of Education or the TSC, a factor that has
hindered smooth operations of KESI.

In stressing the importance of identifying the right people for leadership of educational
institutions, Campbell (1983) contended that some individuals need to be encouraged to try their hand in
educational management while others should be seriously discouraged from attempting it. The Koech report (1999) emphasizes the use of appraisal systems in identification of head teachers and thereafter an exposure to requisite management training. This is because the role of a head teacher is so central that an organisation such as a school mainly thrives or shrivels on head teacher’s administrative performance (Mbiti, 1974, Griffin 1994 and Ogunniyi, 1974).

To be able to attract school administrators who can competently discharge their roles and responsibilities, it is important to take into consideration the factors, which affect recruitment success. Such factors that affect recruitment success are analysed by Cascio (1992:152) as enumerated below:

a) Sources of resumes—where direct recruitment is compared with the use of employment agencies scanned resumes.

b) Type of position—the application rate reduces with the level of position.

c) Time constraints—where during the entire process of recruitment unexpected resignations, retirements and dismissals may place too much demands on the recruiting team. The recruiting teams strain may lead to compromise of the validity and reliability issues.

The Teachers’ service Commission relies on direct receipt of prospective head teachers’ resumes in form of appraisal forms from their immediate supervisors. The Teachers’ Service Commission receives interview results from the districts and acts upon depending them according to existing vacancies. Where a vacancy exists for a head teacher on job Group N and above, the Teachers’ Service Commission conducts such appointments at its headquarters, in Nairobi. The rationale for holding interviews of head teachers in Job group N and above at the TSC headquarters is that there is need for very scrutiny by senior officers from the commission as well as the Ministry of Education because such officers are deployed to schools with two or three streams are in charge or deputies.
Such schools have many students, teachers and many other stakeholders who require a head teacher who has been “carefully selected” to ensure that one is fit for the job. This however does not imply that those head teachers below job Group N are not holding serious positions. On the contrary, it is expected that extensive and broad ranging consultations have to be done by provincial and district education Offices in liaison with other key players in education to arrive at a consensus on acceptable candidates for headship (Republic of Kenya, 1999a).

There is need to put in place mechanisms for ensuring fair play in recruitment and selection of secondary school head teachers. Such control measures include, which processing, which requires being cost-effective in time, human and financial resources. The following aspects need to be borne in mind: (i) Cost: - a careful accounting of the recruitment expenditure (ii) Recruitment sources- the school or the organisation must be able to identify the recruitment sources, which provide the best quality of applicants. (iii) Successful placement: recruitment must lead to successful placement (Okumbe, 2001: 65 and Meija, 2002: 260).

The stated recruitment control measures are very relevant in the recruitment of teachers and the non-teaching staff members. However, the recruitment of head teachers conducted at the district, province and the national level, may be subject to a number of non-professional dynamics. It is however, imperative to carry out the process of identifying head teachers in a judicious and transparent way so that the appointed officers can be individuals who command respect and people of unquestionable professional integrity.

To realise this, appropriate appointment process will require available information, which can help to predict the job performance of the prospective head teachers. Such information may include teaching performance, interpersonal relations, and ability to mobilise different groups for achievement of a stated community goal among others.

Although the appointment process may be faulty to a certain extent, there is need for proper control
of the process, so that it achieves its stated objectives by bearing in mind: (i) the effectiveness of the personnel on the assigned tasks. How well did the selection predict performance? (ii) How many applicants are accepted compared to those who are rejected? (iii) How well is the educational organisation attracting and retaining component personnel? (iv) Areas of adjustment in order to improve organisational expectations, (v) the time taken in the whole process, (vi) The money spent on the whole process. It should be a cost-effective and efficient process (Okumbe, 2001: 77).

In reviewing the above control measures on appointment of head teachers, it must be borne in mind that the Ministry of Education and the Teachers’ Service Commission in Particular have no way of establishing the performance of officers who are appointed as head teachers. As such, there is a need to put in place mechanisms, which can give some prediction on performance through either inspection or any other appraisal system. Beard well and Holden (1994: 335) and Okumbe’s (2001: 77) posit that recruitment must also take into consideration the number of applicants accepted compared to those rejected, it is necessary to have such records because they can help to determine causes of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction as well as motivational levels of head teachers. In considering the areas of adjustment in recruitment, the TSC work in conjunction with KESI to carry out courses meant to rectify weaknesses identified during interview of head teachers. The next section examines head teachers’ preparation and its implications on performance management in secondary schools.

2.1.2 Head teachers’ Preparation and Its Implications on their Management Performance

The subject of professional preparation of secondary school head teachers has been the concern of Ministries concerned with education, Teachers’ Service Commissions, policy makers, planners, educational practitioners and head teachers themselves. In noting the necessity for training of head teachers, Cleary and Hencley, (1970:10) contend “Many administrative failures in secondary schools result from head teachers’ lack of understanding of the nature of administration and lack of technical knowledge and essential skills”.

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The Kamunge report noted the many shortcomings that occurred in schools were due to lack of professional preparation and recommended expansion of Kenya Education Staff Institute to provide in-service training to all head teachers. Similar sentiments were contained in the Sessional Paper No. 6 of 1988 of the Government of Kenya, which among other things underscored the role of the government to ensure that those appointed as heads of educational institutions have appropriate academic qualifications, experience, competence, integrity and initiative.

A number of educationists have correctly observed that a school either stands or falls because of its own leadership (Koech 1999 and Griffins, 1994). The success of an educational institution depends on the competence of the head teacher to harness human and material resources for efficient realisation of effective teaching and learning. In the Kenyan setting, there has been frequent outcry on the manner in which educational institutions are managed. Such outcry becomes more pronounced after release of results of national examinations. During such times, most of the stakeholders demand an explanation on what is perceived to be dismal performance in national examinations.

Head teachers are more under scrutiny than other professionals by the virtue of being chief executives of schools. Parents and surrounding communities at times demand transfer of head teachers for alleged incompetence on the premise that the future of their children is at stake due to mismanagement.

Although parents and other stakeholders usually confine themselves to results in national examinations as the only parameters of measuring the well-being of an educational institution, there are many aspects of the school, which need to be equally of concern to them and whose efficiency requires to be underscored. Head teachers are in charge of a variety of certain administrative and management tasks according to different scholars. Okumbe (2001) and Ozigi (1977) identified the following administrative task areas that are attended to by all managers. In the Kenyan setting, they include:(I) General school administration and
A number of scholars have delved into the subject of unsatisfactory performance of head teachers and its causes. Onyango in a study of competencies needed by secondary school head teachers and its implication for pre-service and in-service found that head teachers possessed low levels of proficiency in competencies pertaining to the general school management. The study found low proficiencies in the management of the curriculum and instruction, financial management, Physical and material resources, management of student, staff personnel and school community relations.

The study recommended the need to monitor and assess the performance of secondary school head teachers on their operational tasks. A number of studies that have been conducted in the Kenyan setting have indicated that there is lack of proper coordination of activities in many secondary schools (Obonyo1984 and Onyiengo1996).

Obonyo (1984) indicated that contrary to popular belief that school administration is a matter of common sense and experience on the field, this is far from the truth. The study indicated that in actual situations, administration of schools requires that the following aspects be taken into account: (I) qualifications of the head teacher, ii) the school category, iii) sex of the head teacher and (IV) the type of school. The study concluded that poor performance of secondary schools in Siaya district was caused by administrative task performance of head teachers. Management of school finances was cited as the most affected task in management of schools. The reason that head teachers gave in Obonyo’s study for poor performance in financial management was lack of adequate preparation in the task area.

In a study to determine the administrative problems faced by secondary school head teachers in Kanduyi division of Bungoma district in Kenya, Odenergo (1984) found that staff and student relations posed a
major challenge in secondary school administration. Odengero (1984) further noted that the increase of student enrolments had compounded head teachers’ roles in relation to discipline of students. The recent enactment of the children’s Act 2001 further aggravated the situation by banning corporal punishment in schools. In absence of effective system of guidance and counselling, many head teachers have found themselves in awkward positions since many of them were used to using the cane and not counselling as required under the new Act.

The study by Odengero (1984) further noted that head teachers had challenges in all their administrative tasks. Strained relations between school administration and the surrounding communities were cited, thereby affecting management of schools. In school management, human and public relations is very central in achievement of school aims since head teachers have to work with and through people. Ongeche (1997) noted lack of consultation between head teachers and staff, students and support staff, a factor that led to mistrust and poor performance of duties as well as poor performance in national examinations. Onyiego (1996) noted that there was laxity in secondary schools regarding preparation of schemes of work and lesson plans by teachers. This may indicate poor leadership because with sound and focused leadership in place, such laxity would be minimised or done away with altogether. In a study on financial management practices and issues in secondary schools in Kenya, Kamau (1990) observed that secondary school head teachers exhibited low competencies in financial management. The study recommended in-service training as a remedy to the situation.

Apart from the cited loopholes in the management task areas, head teachers also require sound preparation in dealing with teachers, students and the community at large. According to Griffins (1994), most of the head teachers are to blame for indiscipline and unrest in schools. Although these were purely personal views not based on research, it is possible they hold can be logically tenable since they were borne out of many years of administrative observation and experience.

Moreover, the Koech report (1999) and Wangai report (2001) attest to the observations made by
Griffins. It is out of such shortcomings in school management that the present study seeks to establish ways that head teachers would wish to be used to help them address their management challenges.

In a principals’ conference held in South Africa in the year (2000), principals made a number of observations regarding management of secondary schools. The conference attendants noted that: (i) Management of secondary schools was not so much an issue of devotion to duty but rather a question of whether principals had adequate skills for running schools more effectively. (ii) School administrators needed skills in resource allocation, forward budgeting, staffing and staff appraisal. (iii) Principals as recognised opinion leaders in their communities required skills to effect good community relations.

The contention that management of secondary schools has not been an issue of devotion to duty but that of lack of skills cannot be applicable in all cases. There are cases of principals in various parts of the country who cannot be accused of lacking knowledge in administration and yet the schools they are in charge of are not only inefficient in their day-to-day operations but are also performing dismally in national examinations.

What is evident is that if a reasonable number of head teachers may be lacking skills, there are also those who have the skills but commitment to excellence in leadership is not among their top priorities. It could be a question of whether they were interested or committed enough to educational management or not. Transfer of head teachers to stations that they detested led to lack of commitment in that such head teachers simply moved to such stations to retain their jobs whereas they had no attachment to such institutions. Head teachers with such a mentality may care little whether such institutions remained afloat or whether they sunk.

There are however genuine training needs among many well-intentioned head teachers and such need to be assisted to become better professionals while those who have outlived their usefulness need to be kindly but firmly advised to seek alternatives to school management.
Inadequate understanding of administration has a number of causes. One of them is joining the educational management arena by effective classroom teachers without the requisite preparation. Eshiwani (1987) attributed poor performance of educational systems to, among other factors, weak managerial capabilities in those systems. Such poor managerial capabilities stem from a number of factors. First, peoples’ perceptions of education before and after political independence remained a major impetus for mushrooming of schools because of the perception of education as a vehicle for social and economic advancement (Sifuna, 1993: 161). As a result of the mushrooming of schools, a number of teachers and education officers found themselves thrust into educational management without the appropriate training in institutional management. Second, schools increased due to the commitment by the Government of Kenya to the realization of Universal Primary Education (UPE) by 1980 as well as provision of education at the middle and high level cadres to replace the then outgoing personnel through the Africanisation policy. Increased enrolments led to serious challenges on educational administrators who were ill equipped to handle such challenges as well as lacking requisite skills for resources mobilization for expansion.

Managers of educational institutions faced challenges because according to the Government policy through the Ominde Report of (1964) educational institutions were integrated in order to correct social and economic disparities, which had existed before the political independence. The integration of the school system posed a challenge to educational managers who had not been prepared for such changes (Otiende, Wamahiu and Karagu, 1992: 92). In highlighting the dilemma of head teachers assumed educational administration responsibilities without the requisite preparation, Bennison and Shenton (1987: 170) cited the British head teachers’ experience, which made them unable to discharge their roles effectively because “Principals had been recruited as teachers and suddenly were confronted with different managerial tasks. Subsequently, they learnt by watching others, perhaps reading an occasional book, discussing with their colleagues and by use of common
Although head teachers might have been effective classroom teachers, it is worthy noting that without adequate and necessary preparation, it would be difficult to shift from teaching into management roles, even for those with some natural propensity to organisational leadership. The Presidential Working Party on Manpower requirements, for this Decade and beyond (Republic of Kenya, 1988: 111) noted with concern that:

Although the position of a head teacher is very central for effective functioning of all educational institutions, heads of institutions are appointed from serving teachers most of whom had no prior training in institutional management. Such lack of training adversely affects effective management of educational institutions and maintenance of high standards of education and training.

It is evident that most of the Kenyan educational administrators in general and secondary school head teachers in particular lack adequate training in institutional management. Such lack of training adversely affects the administrative performance of the head teachers. A number of research studies have noted that head teachers under perform in many of their administrative tasks. Okumbe (1987) found that head teachers needed training in order to apply the appropriate supervision approaches and skills.

Orwa (1987) also found that some head teachers were in charge of financial management but had very scanty understanding of the specialized area. Maranga (1993) noted that the supervision approaches used by head teachers were traditional rather than embracing progressive approaches in inspection and supervision. Koech (1993), Morumbasi (1993), Kalai (1998) and Onyango (2001) noted that the in-service programmes conducted by Kenya Education Staff Institute were wanting in meeting head teachers’ needs. Koech (1993) noted that head teachers needed conceptual skills while Kalai (1998) underscored the need for further training of head teachers in financial management, human relations, public relations, and legal aspects of education. Kalai (1998) indicated that the organisation of KESI courses was also unsatisfactory because of crash programme of two
weeks, a period within which head teachers opined that they could acquire only a few skills within such limited duration.

Given the chronicle of lamentation about inadequate preparation of head teachers, this study will assess the activities, which are currently in use in preparing head teachers for their roles and the implication of the same on their job-performance.

Given the above litany of administrative shortcomings, a number of countries have established institutions to offer remedial training programme to educational administrators. Such institutions include Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI), departments Educational Administration and Planning in Kenyatta, Nairobi, Moi, Maseno and Egerton universities in Kenya. In Tanzania, Management Training Institute (MANTEP) conducts management training for educational (for Educational Personnel) is responsible for training of all educational personnel. The Standard Control Unit in the Ministry of Education conducts in-service training for head teachers in Zimbabwe, together with the Department of Educational Administration in the University of Zimbabwe as well as the Institute of Development Management. In Zambia, Chalimbana National In-service Teachers’ College conducts in-service for teachers. Commonwealth countries have also initiated programme of distance learning under the auspices of Common wealth of Learning Centre in Vancouver, Canada that disseminates programme to member countries in the African region (Mbamba, 1992).

Although the Teachers’ Service Commission places a high premium on experience as a classroom teacher in appointment of secondary school head teachers, a balance between placing undue weight on experience and no experience is imperative. Everard (1986:2) decried the over-emphasis on charisma, and experience alone in British Organizations and noted “Schools and firms together with their employees surely deserve better than to be governed by amateurs, however naturally gifted they could be”.

Whatever personality and leadership attributes one may possess as a leader, it is imperative to expose
educational administrators to adequate and systematic training so that such leadership traits can be refined and
their skills honed. Mbamba (1992: 2) attributes lack of preparation for educational management to the recent
growth of the discipline in Africa. He postulates that:

Viewed as a profession or discipline, education management is relatively young in the African
continent. Professional educators in Africa have however managed their educational systems and sub-
sectors. Nevertheless, they have very much depended on on-the-job experience that they were
expected to acquire knowledge, skills and the attitudes that they needed for managing educational
systems effectively. Available evidence however shows lack of formal training and other forms of
training in management skills have been largely responsible for a great deal of inefficiency and in
effectiveness observed in the performance of many educational systems in Africa.

The practice of using experience as the yardstick for promotion into administrative posts
needs a scrutiny than before. This is necessary in order to stem the tide of inefficiency and the ineffectiveness
exhibited in schools by head teachers, so that it is not only experience that is given prominence at the expense
of other equally important qualities which need to be considered. The new requirement that a head teacher
should have served as a Deputy head teacher or Head or Department for two years and then attend an induction
course in educational management before appointment into headship is a laudable move supported by such

Olembo (1975:29) captures the need for head teachers’ exposure to management training by
contending, “The public has invested a lot in the education of the young in this country. If the investment is not
entrusted in the hands of well-trained headmasters (head teachers), there is no guarantee that much can be
expected from our schools”.

From the foregoing observations, education is a form of investment, which requires prudent
management of the physical, human, financial and other available resources. It is however unfair to place such demands on educational managers without the commensurate preparation for the task.

Saben (1972) found that majority of the school principals faced problems, which were largely due to lack of effective administrative approaches. Consequently, the study recommended adequate training of head teachers in order to exercise participatory decision-making, a key area posing a major challenge to school principals. Mutunga (1978) highlighted a need for training in this area among others. The study on recruitment selection, training and recruitment of secondary school head teachers in the then Government maintained secondary schools found that in spite of the significant roles played by head teachers, little had been done in terms of their training. The study recommended instituting of effective training programme for school administrators. The study noted that by then there was little in terms of policy and systematic efforts to orient newly appointed head teachers in their roles as school administrators. As such, it recommended training programme for heads of educational institutions in order to make them more proficient in their job performance.

It is one of the objectives of this study to determine whether the level of preparation (professional development) has any significant impact on head teachers’ job-performance. This is done in light of the fact that the more the exposure an officer has appropriate training programme, the better that officer is presumed to be in job-performance.

Nevertheless, if there is no change in performance after exposure to many administrative training programme, there is a dire need to review such programme with a view to meeting the objective of producing consummate and proficient educational managers who have what it takes to be institutional managers.

Hove (1979) in a study that aimed at preparing a professional development model for primary and secondary school head teachers in Rhodesia noted an urgent need for continuous in-service and growth activities
for educational administrators. The rationale for such recommendation was to revitalize education so that it could meet societal needs. Training of educational personnel in general and administrators in particular must address the changing needs and aspirations of the dynamic society. This need is expressed in a Kenya Episcopal Conference (2000:5) in which a need for training of educational administrators is underscored on the understanding that “Schools are faced with many challenges from within and without due to fast changing world, especially in print and electronic media, dynamic cultures and religious pluralism. Many educators in Catholic schools have expressed a need for direction and reflection on the role of the society in education, especially in these times when all want to participate in development of education”.

A number of educational issues are highlighted in the foregoing observation. Key among these issues is that constant change makes educators to require further direction on how to manage change from within and from without. Second, religious and other sponsors are concerned about maintaining of religious traditions and values in face of a quickly evolving pluralistic society. Third, educators need to be able to know how to deal with the influence of the mass media on learners and teenagers who are in schools and outside the school system. Similar concerns for preparation of educators in view of changes in the society are expressed by Kowalchuk (1990) who observed that school Principal ship is constantly changing due to increasing expectations, pressures and responsibilities, factors which must be addressed during the planning and execution of professional development programme. Management of change is an issue that requires to be addressed in head teachers’ professional preparation.

Kalai (1998) in a study on the KESI in-service programme as perceived by secondary school head teachers noted that the socio-political situation in Kenya had changed remarkably since the re-introduction of multi-party politics in the early 1990s. The study underscored need for high conceptual ability in human and public relations among the head teachers in order to deal impartially with various interest groups in education.
This becomes important in view of the fact that instances have been reported where a head teacher was branded an opposition sympathizer for receiving building materials for the school from the area Member of Parliament.

The head teacher took a forced punitive transfer, which could not have been revoked were it not for intervention by the president of Kenya in the issue (Mutua, 1996:16). The stated Saga points to need on policy guidelines on head teachers’ relationships with politicians and the school community at large without any fear of victimization by politicians.

Barth (1984) noted that head teachers were not the focus of professional development programme in many countries until late 1970s and 1980s. Before then, Barth (1984) argues that educational administrators were somewhat neglected in professional development efforts, the result being poor school management practices. In a discussion paper on improving school effectiveness, Makau (1986) observed that while rationally administered attractive salary scales would encourage the teaching force to work for excellence, professional management improvement through in-service would motivate and guide teachers to facilitate higher achievements by students. Makau (1986) further noted the crucial role that head teachers play because any change in the education sector puts them squarely at the helm of implementing changes at the school level.

According to Wong (1999), there has been a general concern with regard to the approaches to principal preparation programme. The changing context of education in many countries has created a need for a different type of a school leader and calls for more flexible forms of leadership preparation unlike in the past when the head teacher was viewed as the only main player in management of a school. As noted by Leith wood (1996), an emphasis on leadership implies a shift in role behaviour away from implementing systems policies and rules towards supporting and developing the organisation’s capacity for change. This requires active application of knowledge, skills and attitudes in a changing work place. Recently much attention has been drawn to the idea of Problem-Based Learning (PBL, Hallinger & Bridges, 1997).
According to Hallinger and Bridges, PBL in a school leaders’ preparation programme starts with a problem, which is used as a stimulus for learning. They believe PBL represents one of a number of promising approaches that warrant attention of the professionals. PBL employs cooperative team building and the instructor acts as a facilitator who seldom provides knowledge and information directly. Participants therefore enact proposed solutions to the PBL problems via work-place products such as action research.

Murphy (1992) also depicted some principles of PBL, which include the fact, that: (1) learning should be learner-centred. (2) Active learning should be stressed, (3) personalised learning should be emphasised, (4) a balance of instructional approaches is needed, (5) cooperative approaches to learning and teaching should be understood, (6) outcome-based learning should be stressed, (7) delivery structures should be built on developmentally based learning principles.

Jack (1983) in a study to determine the professional preparations of school principals found that they were inadequately prepared for their occupational roles. The study further noted that there was lack of specific role description for school principals. The study recommended that school districts needed to develop specific role descriptions for school principals to enable them function effectively as organizational leaders.

In a study to determine the effectiveness of administrative training, Hewitt (1981) found that school principals did not feel adequately prepared on specific competencies regarding their administrative work. The principals regarded leadership competencies to be more important than all other competencies. As a result, the principals were eager to be trained as school leaders. A number of factors have been cited for inadequate preparation of secondary school head teachers in Kenya. One, the pre-service training in Diploma colleges or Universities mainly focuses on developing pedagogical skills rather than preparing educational administrators (Koech 1994), Kalai (1993), Orwa (1987) and Onyango (2001). In pointing out some inherent loopholes in preparation of secondary school head teachers during their pre-service training, Ogunniyi (1974:48) aptly
observed, “Institutes of higher learning tend to treat questions of Educational Administration either too narrowly or too academically. Consequently, the graduates of such institutes acquire insufficient knowledge and skills as school administrators”.

Onyango (2001) supports the above sentiments by observing that much of what was done during pre-service training was aimed at preparing teachers and not educational managers. To reverse the trend, there is need to have teachers grounded in such areas of educational management as financial management, human and public relations, legal aspects of education (Okumbe, 1987 and Kalai, 1998) and modern supervision and inspection approaches. In light of the stated challenges, a need exists to conduct the training programme in a practical way that can enhance transfer of the skills to their job environment. Ilove (1979) argues that training institutes should regularly review their curriculum to adapt to changing global education trends and other conditions.

Okumbe (1987) in a study on effectiveness of supervision and inspection practices of secondary school head teachers noted the importance of taking into consideration head teachers’ past professional experiences. Such consideration is necessary in order to tailor head teachers’ professional development programme to their critical areas of their operation. Wilmore and Erland (1993) postulate that school principals must not remain the same in the face of constant change. Remaining static in face of change in the educational sector can breed professional stagnation. To realise professional vibrancy, Roberts (1993) concurs with the sentiments expressed by Okumbe (1987) that experiences of head teachers need to be taken into account during their training. Consideration of participants’ experiences is important in that it is possible to make professional projections on what needs to be trained at a given point in time.

Fungo (1984) in a study to determine the implications of eight years of primary education in Kanduyi sub-district in Western Kenya found out that there were substantial numbers of incompetent head teachers in
the field. The study came up with an intriguing finding that in-service training programme seemed to have had very little impact on equipping head teachers for their leadership roles. The head teachers under investigation exhibited very little understanding on the implications of the educational structural and curriculum change. The effected change made schooling in primary to be eight years, from the previous seven. Secondary schooling was changed to four years and university education changed to a minimum of four years; hence the abbreviation of the two systems of education as 7: 4: 2; 3 to 8: 4: 4. Although the study focused on primary school head teachers, the numerous cases of reported mismanagement in secondary schools might lend credence to the fact that, the findings may not be any significantly different among secondary school head teachers. Orwa (1987), Okumbe (1987), Maranga (1993), Nxumalo, (1993) Morumbasi (1993), Koech (1994), Kalai (1998), Wachira (1998) and Onyango (2001) and Irungu (2002) have conducted studies which indicate many wanting aspects in the preparation of secondary school head teachers for their roles.

Considering that education is a sector which attracts comments from professionals and non-professionals owing to its central role in any country’s social and economic development, educational administrators are constantly under scrutiny and pressure to perform according to societal expectations. Ironically, such pressure is exerted even among head teachers who have not been exposed to requisite programme in educational management. The Kenyan public seems fully committed to pursuing excellence in management of resources and the overall institutions at large. The manner in which issues in the field of education elicit wide-ranging comments and interest may serve as evidence of their commitment and seriousness.

In view of the above, (Purkeys and Parker, 1993) contend that progressive educational managers who intend to make any remarkable differences in their work need a carefully planned professional development framework. Such programmes are necessary to enable administrators to demonstrate flexibility when there are
conflicting demands and expectations. The need to adapt to changing situations cannot be over-emphasised in survival of organizations and especially in education. In noting this, the then deputy vice-chancellor of University of Nairobi (Administration and Finance) Professor Kiamba cited some observations made by the chancellor of Michigan state University, Dunderstadt (2000) in which the chancellor contends “We can no longer afford the luxury of uncritical preservation. Obsolescence lies in store for those who cannot adapt in some manner to new reality. Universities (and other organizations) must find ways to respond vigorously to the opportunities of a rapidly evolving world” (Kiamba, 2001). The foregoing quotation stresses the importance of organizations to adapt themselves to new changes as well as re-inventing themselves to suit the current organizational realities. Miklos (1974: 5) noted the need for continuous training because educational and other institutions frequently experience pressures of increasing complexity, expansion and diversification. In the same vein, Onyango (2001: 77) noted, “the multifarious problems facing secondary schools in Kenya have been attributed to head teachers’ ineptitude”. In view of this, it would be plausible to postulate that head teachers are under performing in their roles and responsibilities due to lack of adequate preparation for their task execution. As such the call for training and further professional development of head teachers is made on the understanding that the pre-service training of teachers in Kenya has only a unit on educational Administration under which the fundamentals of school administration are perfunctorily covered (Onyango 2001: 77).

Even if the unit was rather elaborate in those aspects of school management that head teachers require, it should be noted that it takes quite some time after graduation for teachers to rise to the position of head teachers and deputies. Such a length of time may mean that even the well-covered pre-service work on school management might have been forgotten. In light of this, secondary school head teachers will be required to make suggestions on what they perceive to be an appropriate training package for their functioning as institutional heads. Moreover, their perceptions will be sought on what may constitute the core training of head
teachers and deputies for now and in future.

2.2.1 Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) in-service training Programmes: Rationale for In-service training


Under the education Act Cap 211 of 1968, Revised in (1980) a legal Notice 565 of 1983 gave KESI a legal status. The legal Notice recognizes KESI as an autonomous body corporate managed by a council (Republic of Kenya, 1994: 94). The functions of KESI in line with the legal Notice stipulating its functions are :(I) to liaise with various sectors of the Ministry of Education in identification of education staff development needs and in-service for designing programme and strategies to meet the needs. (ii)To organise and conduct training for personnel involved in administration and management of programme in education. (iii)To design, produce, assemble, repair staff training materials and equipment for use in dissemination of managerial and administrative knowledge, skills and attitudes to all personnel working within the Ministry of Education, with a view to setting and maintaining the highest possible standards of administration and management of the Ministry’s programme. (iv)To coordinate the preparation and publication of institutional materials for the professional and administrative personnel working in the field of education; (v) To run an educational consultancy and a resource centre to provide services on administrative and managerial principles and skills required for both effective and efficient planning, implementation and evaluation of approved programme in
education. (vi) To function as a resource centre for the production and dissemination of information on education and training programme in liaisons with other training institutions running professional and administrative courses, and (vii) To conduct research and evaluation on staff training and development programme (Republic of Kenya, 1994: 95-96).

Although the institute has a very ambitious mandate, its operations have remained mainly on staff training, which has mainly focused on secondary school head teachers. Other programme touching on District Education Officers, Inspectors of schools, Education Officers and Auditors have been conducted. The main impediment in conducting in-service-training programme has been lack of a budget line, which leads the institute to resort to cost sharing with the educational personnel. The institute previously had limited numbers of training staff owing to its dependence on deployed staff from the Ministry of Education and the Teachers’ Service Commission.

The in-service training curriculum of the institute (KESI) comprises of two main areas namely: the core-curriculum and the areas of specialisation. The core-curriculum is uniform for all educational personnel with an exception of specifics for each category of personnel. The core-curriculum comprises of the following areas:

a) Management theory and practice in Education

b) Human and Public Relations

c) Communication as a tool of Management

d) Legal aspects of education

e) Leadership in education

f) Decision-making and problem solving

g) Curriculum Implementation
h) Supervision and Evaluation

i) The National examinations, KCPE and KCSE

j) Appointment, deployment and discipline of Teachers

k) Financial management and Control

l) Delegation of duties

m) Guidance and counselling

n) Motivation and staff development

o) Discipline in schools: pupils, teachers and parents

p) Physical planning and development-focus having on school mapping (KESI prospectus, 1999).

The specialised areas of KESI curriculum include:

a) The role of Kenya National Union of Teachers in promotion of education standards;

b) The role of Provincial Administration in Educational Management;

c) Family Life Education- Christian, Islam and Hinduism;

d) Public Health education in schools

e) Special Education Needs/Special Needs education

f) Policy Analysis

g) Statistical techniques and Data collection

h) Analysis and Interpretation, and


Although many of the topics listed above reflect the core aspects that can be addressed in management of educational institutions, it would be hardly possible to produce a proficient administrator in a crash programme
of two weeks of the KESI courses.

Moreover, imparting of cognitive knowledge does not guarantee putting the acquired knowledge into practice. A need therefore exists to establish the current educational management practices in secondary schools with a view to re-orientating head teachers’ development needs to the organisational realities as they are facing them in today’s rapidly changing world. Such re-orientation becomes pertinent in view of observations of the then Director of KESI, Lodiaga (1994:2) who noted inability of some of the head teachers who had undergone KESI programme, especially during their interviews on crucial aspects of school management.

A study by Onyango (2001) indicated that the in-service courses conducted by KESI are woefully inadequate in meeting secondary school head teachers’ training needs. Although terming such programme as woefully inadequate could be a little bit subjective, there is need to assess objectively the factors, which might lead to such inadequacies in training by KESI. Part of the problem could stem from the fact that the KESI relies heavily on experienced head teachers and Ministry of Education officials for its training and very little has been done to transform majority of them into proficient educational management staff trainers.

The Koech Report (1999:225) noted an anomaly in the tendency to deploy Ministry of Education’s under performing officers (professional rejects) to KESI. This trend needs to change to attract a formidable training team, which can face all aspects of management training. Moreover, even where KESI depends on educational field officers and experienced head teachers, there is need to identify such group of people and train them in such aspects as training approaches for adult learners, managing the training function, preparation for paper presentation, communication skills among others. In view of the above, the Ministry of Education needs to put in place appropriate measures to attract and retain competent management training staff for KESI.

Such a move is necessary in light of findings by a study by Sullivan (1989), which indicated that Kenya required more trained educational administrators than the case was in the field. The study further noted
that many secondary school head teachers had no meaningful and systematic preparation for school management.

Sullivan (1989) supported the research findings by Koech (1994: 163-164) who found wide disparities in preparation of head teachers. Koech (1994) noted that a reasonable number of head teachers had little preparation in institutional management while a few others had undertaken post-graduate training programme in educational Administration and Management.

If we expect head teachers to perform their duties effectively and efficiently, it is imperative that such officers are thoroughly prepared. In light of the above Maranga (1993:19) notes: “The education system, like many other systems have grown so complex that managerial training of personnel for educational administration and supervision is now mandatory if the system is to realise its educational objectives. (Maranga, 1993:19) notes that the use of pre-service and in-service as an instrument for meeting development targets therefore becomes imperative”. This is why, KESI as the training arm of the Ministry of Education has been conducting courses for head teachers, which aim at enabling them to: (I) Define their roles clearly as head teachers, (ii) Delegate tasks and responsibilities to members of teaching and non-teaching staff, (iii) Relate appropriately students, teachers, parents, and non-teaching staff among others. (iv) Make rational decisions based on careful assessment of prevailing circumstances, (v) Set up an appropriate filing and record keeping (vi) Communicate clearly and effectively (vii) Manage and control finances in the school (viii) Motivate students, teachers and members of non-teaching staff to the highest possible levels of work performance (Olembo, Wanga, Karagu, 1992:223).

Although the Kenya Education Staff Institute has been conducting training programme since 1981, a need exists to establish whether schools under head teachers exposed to management training by KESI indicate higher scores in management practices through data obtained by self-appraisal questionnaire, a recommendation that Okumbe, (1987) deemed necessary to gauge the institute’s programme.
A study by Olembo and Lodiaga (1991) indicated that over 65.2 percent of secondary school head teachers had not been exposed to in-depth training in Educational Administration and Management. Although the situation must have improved considerably with the mounting of many KESI in-service programme over the years, there is need to ensure that professional development programme meet the professional development needs of school principals. Musella and Leith wood (1991) also underscore training to enable head teachers to cope with ever changing expectations in educational administration and management. They also note that effective schools can only result from deliberate efforts to provide opportunities for professional growth and renewal for both principals and teachers.

According to Bush (1998), preparation for school leadership has become a global concern. Overall, the programme can be classified as those for serving, prospective, or aspiring principals. In this regard, different countries vary in their provisions. The Governments of England and Wales have started to propose a move from programme for serving principals to the idea that there should be a mandatory headship preparation for prospective or aspiring principals. The idea is based upon the emerging National Professional Qualification for Headship devised by Teacher Training Agency (Wong, 1999:141).

In contrast to what is happening in Britain, United States of America requires successful completion of a structured Master’s programme in Educational Administration before being permitted to apply for principal’s or assistant principal’s post (Hillman, 1992). France provides a three-month partly residential course for teachers appointed to headship or deputy headship, while Sweden and Denmark both provide more than 20 days of training. These programme share assumption that “leadership can no longer be exercised on the basis of experience and natural ability alone” (Hillman, 1992:516).

In Singapore, since 1984, prospective principals are given the opportunity to take the Diploma in Educational Administration course, which is organised jointly by the Ministry of Education and National Institute
of Education. This is a one-year full-time programme for selected vice-principals who receive full pay during training. The content of the Diploma includes teaching and course work on management, leadership and curriculum management and two four-week attachments to a school as an associate principal. These schools are selected for their exemplary leadership and their principals both mentor the trainees and participate fully in the training process (Wong, 1998).

Cawetti (1982: 329) noted a dire need for preparation of educational managers because the scope of their job continues to be a major source of bewilderment. Principals faced bewildering challenges in roles that were aggravated by accountability in education. Although competency testing, and mandated curriculum negotiation has not been applied in the Kenyan setting, dealing with limited resources, involving other interest groups in education and accountability are thorny issues that demand astute management skills on the part of school administrators. Through systematic training, it is possible to have educational administrators prepared in such a way that they can clearly understand their day-to-day administrative and management functions. The next section deals with educational Management task areas.

2.3 Management Task performed by heads of Educational Institutions

Training and professional development programme need to take cognisance of what categories of officers do in their day-to-day work if such training is to have any desirable impact in performance of officers’ functions. Among other things, this requires proper planning that ensures a systematic and incremental professional development is realised. In stressing the need for planning, Okumbe (1998:11) posits that “A school, and by implication the educational system, must be able to afford a foresighted educational leadership which is based on sound management principles”.

The implication of the foregoing observation is that head teachers need systematic inculcation of educational leadership and sound management principles through training and organisational development
approaches. Deliberate efforts to acquire, enhance and sustain such skills need to be made through exposure to diverse experiences in educational management. Such efforts will give head teachers an operational focus so that they are not wrapped up in all manner of tasks including those that they need to delegate. A number of schools of thought have delved into analysis of what head teachers actually do. According to Olembo, Karagu and Wanga (1992:70) “Different scholars have presented different categorizations of administrative tasks. It is however only useful to identify the tasks those others have mentioned”. Such administrative task areas include:(I)Curriculum and instruction (ii)Pupil personnel (iii)Staff personnel (iv)School community relations (v)Provision and maintenance of physical facilities (vi)Financial management (Olembo, Karagu &Wanga (1992: 72), Campbell et al. (1977:122).

Lipham and Hoer, (1974) in Onyango (2001: 39) have identified five task areas of a head teacher, namely; instructional programme, staff personnel, student personnel, financial and physical resources and school community relations. What Lip ham and Hoer (1974) have done is that they have merged financial and physical resources task area into one hence emerging with five task areas rather than six as advocated by Olembo, Karagu and Wanga (1992: 72) and Campbell et al (1931).

Nikolakis (1979) in a study to determine the role of the principal identified the following task areas (a) school management, (b) staff personnel (c) student activities (d) community Relations (e) curriculum and instruction. From the list, tasks like financial management and physical facilities provision and maintenance are left out. It could be that Nikolakis (1979) presumes that a school cannot operate without finances, physical facilities, and hence assuming them as “given” task areas of school principals. Moreover, the task area of school management is so broad that it can entail every other aspect of management, including finances.

Cawetti (1983) in a paper presented to American Association of School Administrators (AAA) identified four key areas, considered critical for principal leadership in which skills must be possessed. These consisted of
curriculum development, clinical supervision, and staff development and teacher evaluation. The central focus of Cawetti (1983) appears to be based on the correct assumption that whatever is done at the school setting is meant to enhance teaching and learning as noted by Campbell (1983: 4).

Dadey et al. (1991) assert that the main tasks of a school head is to interpret policy, execute curriculum programme, provide physical facilities, equipment, finances, retraining staff, and maintaining school community relations. Wong (1999) noted that in Singapore, preparation programme also vary in terms of programme components, which according to Lunenberg (1995) include regular courses, problem solving practicum and internship for prospective principals. These differences in programme reflect diverse cultural philosophies, values, beliefs, and practices. Fiedler (1998) therefore suggests a framework for analysing programme by concluding that they should range from ‘academic’ to ‘practical’ and from ‘award-bearing’ to ‘non-award-bearing.’ Some programme are categorised as ‘academic’ as they are longer, provide a relatively comprehensive understanding of principles, and lead to a recognised qualification, while ‘practical’ programme are usually shorter and focus on practical knowledge and skills (Wong 1999). The differences between ‘award-bearing and ‘non-award-bearing’ are also found in terms of time requirement, assessment of learning, theoretical content, comprehensiveness, research training, practical relevance and nature of provider, tutors and participants. However, these classifications are in relative and not in absolute terms, as programme usually involve mixed forms.

According to Chen (1996), academic preparation as a standard requirement for principals is relatively new. The move towards academic preparation of principals represents a response to the trend of preparing principals in ever-changing educational systems. Training programme in educational administration can maintain schools, as they exist today, rather than preparing leaders who can guide them in their transition into the future, according to Hallinger and Bridges (1997). Academic rigour in training programme can help serve
the purpose of preparing of a ‘leader’ instead of a ‘manager.’ Chen also supports the notion that effective training programme should be the joint effort of schools, government administrators and academics. The foregoing observations point to a need for close liaison between Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) and the public universities especially with those specialists in education who have practical experience in management of secondary schools as well as teaching in areas of specialisation with a direct bearing with secondary education. Such areas include psychology of Education, Communication and Technology, subject study skills as well as individual subjects.

Since the leadership and management roles seem to evoke different emotions and understanding, some clarity is fitting here. According to Bennis and Nanus (1985), a manager is a person who does things right, that is accomplishes goals, assumes responsibility and coordinates resources and people. On the other hand, a leader is a person who does the right things. Katz and Kahn in Okumbe (1998:86) present a more apt definition that defines leadership as “the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with the routine directives of the organisation.” In this definition, leadership is a process in which the leader influences others to do something of out of their own volition. The task done by others is neither done because it is required nor because of the fear of the consequences of non-compliance.

Leadership is thus a process of encouraging and helping others to work enthusiastically towards objectives. The human factor binds the group together and motivates a group to achieve the set goals. According to Sergiovanni (1984), principal leadership has five aspects, namely technical, human, educational, symbolic and cultural. Bolman and Deal (1991, 1997) suggest four aspects of leadership namely structural leadership, human resource, political and symbolic. Integrating Bolman and Deal (1991) and Sergiovanni (1984), Cheng (1994) suggests five dimensions of principal-ship, which includes structural leadership, human leadership, political leadership, symbolic leadership and educational leadership. No matter what sort of categories on would opt for,
the bottom line is that principals cannot be regarded as leaders if they are unable to cultivate or establish a proactive and a harmonious working culture.

According to Cheng (2000), principals in Hong Kong were strong in structural and educational aspects, moderate in human leadership, but relatively weak in political and cultural dimensions. Given Hong-Kong’s centralised system of education, and the nature of its past preparation and induction programme for principals, it is not surprising that Cheng concludes that most of the principals tend to be ‘manager’ types. This called for preparation of school leaders rather than just mere managers who maintain the status quo.

According to Bridgewaters (1979), head teachers operate within the following administrative task areas: (a) Administration and school management b) Curriculum and supervision, c) Pupil welfare and services d) Clerical work and e) School community relations.

Kochhar (1988) supports the five administrative task-areas postulated by Campbell et al. (1983) but omits the school-community relations and hence having five task areas. What is evident in each of the listed task categories is amalgamation or elaboration of tasks depending on scholars’ inclination to detail or brevity.

Onyango (2001:40) identified the following operational areas as constituting what head teachers do: (I) Curriculum and instruction (ii) General school management (iii) Finance and Business (iv) Staff personnel (v) Material and physical resources (vi) Student personnel (vii) School community relations.

Okumbe (2001: 13) posits that educational administrators attend to the following task areas: (I) Curriculum and instruction; (ii) Student personnel (iii) School plant (physical facilities) (iv) Business management; (v) Staff development (vi) School community relations (vii) Evaluation. According to Okumbe (2001), staff development and evaluation are such key tasks of a head teacher that they need highlighting on their own.

Other scholars like Onyango (2001), Olembo, Karagu and Wanga (1992) seem to have presumed that
evaluation is very imperative in all programme hence their subsuming it. The focus on staff development is a newly re-discovered area that educational administrators have to conduct school based training and professional development programme to make the teaching staff better equipped for emerging professional trends. Although there may be no consensus amongst scholars in their categorizations of the tasks performed by head teachers, there are generally some agreed key areas of what head teachers do in their day-to-day operations. In light of this, the details of what head teachers do are presented by examination of the details of the administrative task areas namely: (I) Curriculum and instruction; (ii)Student personnel (iii) School plant (physical facilities) (iv)Financial or Business management; (v)Staff personnel (vi)School community relations.

2.3.1 Curriculum and Instruction (Curricular Design and Planning)

Curriculum is defined as “all subjects taught and activities provided by the school and may include the time devoted to each activity” (Republic of Kenya, 1999:25c) This definition of curriculum goes beyond the subjects taught to activities that are provided in a school for the purposes of achieving the goals, aims and objectives of education. Oluoch (1992:7) clarifies further the meaning of curriculum as “All that is planned to enable the student to acquire and develop desired knowledge, skills and attitudes”. Coddeiro in Ubben and Hughes (1997:19) notes that “in effective school leadership the principal needs to anticipate and eliminate potential stumbling blocks and create a climate conducive for students’ and teachers’ learning... the principal needs to nurture opportunities for the staff to learn the skills of collaboration.” The curriculum in schools is derived from the National goals of education, which aim to develop and promote :(I)National unity (ii) National development (iii) Individual development (IV) Self-fulfilment (v) Social equality (VI) Respect and development of cultural heritage (vii) International consciousness (Republic of Kenya, 1999: 26)

Sergiovanni et al. (1980: 259) developed five tasks in the curriculum and instruction task areas. These sub-tasks are: (I) Development of a philosophy of education and objectives consistent with that philosophy in
which the educational administrators involves individuals with varied expertise and diverse backgrounds in view of the past in order to shape the future of mankind. (ii) Construction of programme to fulfil these objectives by development of curriculum guides, preparation of educational materials for students, review of textbooks and other instructional materials, learning from the practices and success of others. (iii) Educational administrators have to bear in mind in theories of learning, motivation, curriculum development and effective use of instructional resources. (iv) They have also to engage in constant appraisal of curriculum and instruction in which the relevance of objectives, the effectiveness of the instructional resources and the overall assessment of curriculum and instructional programme is evaluated. (iv) Engender a climate, which displays a readiness for change, an area, which requires the head teacher to provide an environment, which appreciates and incorporates evaluation of results in order to improve organisational effectiveness. (v) Provision of support materials for curriculum and instructional activities which involve providing teachers and other personnel with instructional materials, provision of opportunities to learn-off-the-job by attending meetings, seminars, workshops and visitations.

Campbell et al. (1977:122) describes curriculum and instruction as “those activities in which school workers, sometimes assisted by lay citizens, engage to plan, implement and evaluate an instructional programme. In this understanding of curriculum and instruction, the parties involved are teachers only. Olembo, Wanga and Karagu (1992:71 and Management Training institute for Educational personnel (MANTEP 1995) postulate that curriculum and instruction involves (i) Translating educational policies into specific instructional objectives (ii) Development of programme of instruction (iii) Selection of instructional materials and resources (iv) Allocation of subjects to teachers (v) Preparing school timetables (vi) Evaluation of the programme of instruction.

To be able to implement the curriculum effectively, head teachers need to bear in mind some of
challenges in subject allocation. Such challenges may include: (i) unwillingness and inability of some staff to take up certain subjects and classes (ii) general imbalance in teachers’ representation in terms of sciences and arts. (iii) Teachers’ study leave, maternity and sick leave (iv) Shortage of teachers (v) Traditional or cultural attitudes against some activities in the curricular (vi) Lack of essential utilities, i.e. water, electricity among others (Republic of Kenya, 1999: 28).

Head teachers have to take responsibility for selection and procurement of instructional materials. However, head teachers need not be the only ones involved in procurement of educational materials but subject teachers can make their recommendations of instructional materials through the Heads of Department. The involvement of teachers in decision-making can enhance their morale. They can also use alternate teaching, which can boost the level performance in internal and external examinations.

According to Onyango (2001:45) curriculum constitutes the cog around which the learning wheel revolves. Campbell et al (1983: 4) points out that the essence of administration is to facilitate teaching and learning. As such, the role of head teachers in curriculum and instruction is to ensure effective management through appropriate delegation to the members of the teaching staff (Bell and Rhodes, 1996:6). In the overall management of the curriculum, Onyango (2001: 46) observes that the head teacher is responsible for: (i) articulating school aims and objectives ; (ii) delegating in curriculum implementation (iii) Coordinating curriculum implementation, and (iv) monitoring and evaluating curriculum implementation.

In light of the foregoing and other observations, the head teacher is a very instrumental person in teaching and learning. a lot of planning will need to take place if the school goals are to be realised. All organisations need to plan if they have to operate effectively and efficiently to meet their goals.

Ubben and Hughes (1997:102) capture the need to have systematic planning by putting forward a supposition that “if you don’t know where you are going, it doesn’t matter where you are and what you do”.

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In exploring management tasks, Okumbe (1998:23) views planning as one of the management tasks that can be understood as “working out abroad outline, of things that need to be done and the methods of doing them to accomplish the purpose set for the enterprise”. From this definition, it is evident that schools need clearly defined goals, aims and objectives.

The school administration needs to state the methods for achievement of such goals explicitly as well as articulating their vision to all stakeholders with a view to eliciting their total support in their accomplishment. All organisations require strategic plans as well as operational plans. Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert (1999: 265) capture the main highlights regarding mission statements by delineating the components involved. They postulate, “Strategic plans are designed by high-ranking managers and define the broad goals for the organisation. Operational plans contain details for carrying out or implementing those strategic plans in day-to-day activities”. In light of the foregoing observations, this study sought to find out whether schools had mission statements and goals for their existence apart from general transmission of knowledge, skills and attitudes.

Mbamba (1992) identifies the strategies that a head teacher needs to adopt as an instructional supervisor which include: (i) Classroom visitation. (ii) Conferences with teachers (iii) General staff meetings (iv) Demonstration teaching (v) Inter-teacher observation (vi) Clinical (vii) Supervision as head teachers adopt different approaches to supervision, it is imperative to bear in mind the students and teachers’ viewpoints regarding who an effective teacher is. This is important because head teachers have to strike a balance between seemingly contrasting expectations between students and teachers. The table below highlights the differences.
Table 2.2.2: The Effective Teacher: Teachers and Students’ Perspectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students’ viewpoint of a Good teacher</th>
<th>Students’ viewpoint of a Good teacher:</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Establishes and maintains good class room ethos (atmosphere)</td>
<td>Is kind, generous and forgiving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sets high expectations of pupils</td>
<td>Listens to you and encourages you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Has good classroom management and organisational skills</td>
<td>Has faith in you and time for you</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sets good example and fosters relationships with others.</td>
<td>Keeps confidence and cares for your opinion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plans, prepares and organises lesson well</td>
<td>Likes teaching children (students)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ensures that students are clear about what they learn</td>
<td>Likes teaching his or her subject.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides tasks that are matched to students’ needs</td>
<td>Helps you when you are stuck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses assessment to check students’ progress</td>
<td>Tells you how you are doing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Monitors, evaluates, and continuously improves his or her own teaching</td>
<td>Makes sure you understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Enables students to work independently and collaboratively</td>
<td>Helps learners who are slow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides clear explanations</td>
<td>Does not give up on you and makes allowance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Develops good student-teacher dialogue.</td>
<td>Makes you feel clever, treats students equally and stands up for you</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To implement different supervision approaches and strike a balance between students and teachers’ expectations, Onyango (2001:48) posits that a head teacher should be a competent teacher who keeps abreast with the recent curriculum development trends and the latest instructional supervision practices. This will make head teachers to be exemplary professional leaders. Induction of new members of the teaching staff will be a major concern of such exemplary leaders as well as creating an appropriate learning and teaching environment. A school with sound learning and teaching ethos will find it easy to reach the highest heights of academic
ladder, thereby becoming a source of inspiration for teachers, students, parents and the community at large.
2.3.2 Student Support and Progression Services (Student personnel Services)

Olembo, Wanga and Karagu (1992:74) define the student personnel administrative task area as “those services to pupils, which supplement regular instruction. The head teacher’s role in this task area is to integrate personnel functions with instruction and co-ordinate and supervise the various kinds of personnel services”. Students’ welfare personnel therefore are involved in activities such as qualitative and quantitative data evaluation. According to Onyango, (2001: 50) and Okumbe (2001: 15-16) quantitative data deals with: (I)

Elaborate programme of student accounting (ii) Maintenance of records (iii) Reporting information to various agencies (iv) Students’ progress (v) Discipline data (vi) Projection of students’ enrolment.

Sergiovanni (1980:266) posits that qualitative data include those services that seek to help students adjust better to the school, develop more effectively as social and emotional persons, become better learners and develop skills for dealing with the future beyond the school. Under the qualitative data, Okumbe (2001: 15) identifies three major sub-tasks, which include: (I) Establishing and maintaining a system of record keeping which includes data on days present, days absent, credits earned, tardiness, and health problems. (ii) Developing a fair and equitable system of student discipline in which minor infractions, disruptive behaviour and alcohol and drug abuse, are handled. (iii) Providing special assistance to students’ calls for provision of health guidance and counselling programme to students. Either part-time or full time staff can provide guidance and counselling.

MANTEP Institute’s handbook for primary school head teachers (1995) concurs with the administrative functions provided by Okumbe (2001) who aptly captures what is involved in student personnel. Since the reason for existence of school administration is to facilitate teaching and learning (Campbell, et al (1983: 4). Onyango (2001) aptly contend that the instructional head must be well versed with factors, which lead to poor attendance, wastage and stagnation. Kochhar (1993) captures such factors, which include poverty, low
achievement, negative peer influence, lack of a sense of belonging to school and inadequate curriculum. In underscoring the role played by a head teacher in ensuring effective teaching and learning, Mbiti (1974:53) posits that the school must give direction to young inquisitive minds since at that stage of growth they are prone to being pessimistic or optimistic in worldview. This then calls for constant review of the kind of experiences being offered to students by a way of evaluating the facilitators of such experiences (teachers).

The guiding question on the appropriate teacher should be “is this person (teacher) able to provide the pupils with the proper educational growth experiences needed in this area?” further, the head teacher must keep in mind the need of reminding the members of teaching staff constantly the importance of learning experiences being student-centred. Exposing students to recreation activities like sports, music, drama, clubs, school publications, etc may reduce such negative effects. Moreover, there is also a dire need for the school administration to explore diverse ways of addressing students’ psychological needs by creating appropriate networks as through orientation, guidance and counselling as well as having a deliberate effort to offer sound guidance and counselling programme.

In exploring various factors that affect students’ interests in learning, Aggarwal (2004:206-207) attributes lack of motivation for learning to (a) child’s physical health and physical development, (b) child’s mental health and development, (c) child’s age, (d) child’s sex, (e) child’s instinctive behaviour, (f) child’s aptitudes, (g) child’s ideals, motives and wishes, (h) child’s emotions, sentiments, and complexes. Other factors may come into play including (a) socio-economic status of the family, (b) rearing practices of the family, (c) cultural status, (d) education and training (e) opportunities to the child for exploring interests. Learners can be motivated to learn by addressing those factors that hinder their learning. Aggarwal (2004:206-207) in exploring ways of making learners more interested in learning recommends principles that are tested by psychologists, which include among others (i) enhancing the physical conditions in the classroom. (ii) Students
can also be motivated by giving those exercises that are stimulating and challenging enough to keep them interested in learning. (iii) Having set goals so that learners understand what they are aiming at. (iv) Teachers can use the concept of association so that learners can easily see the connection between what they know and what the teacher is aiming at imparting. (v) Provision of guidance and counselling. (vi) use of reinforcement—use of praise to stimulate learners to aim higher, (vii) organising learning experiences in such a way that they are in conformity with psychological principles. (viii) A pleasant teacher’s personality that is sensitive and interested in learners as individuals. (ix) Teachers could also evaluate the impact of the various classroom dynamics in promoting teaching and learning. In view of the foregoing sentiments, it is necessary for head teachers to provide the necessary professional guidance and material resources to teachers to address the diverse students’ needs in order to facilitate effective learning.

Aggarwal (2004:312) cites Burt who conducted a study in London in 1925-1935 and identified some of the causes of slow learning among students as: (I) socio-economic status of the learner, (ii) school conditions that included inefficient teaching, poor school organisation, lack of individual and group counselling, and absence of the child from school. (iii) Educational performance of learners was also cited as influenced by the home conditions in that students and parents who lacked accommodation, lived in overcrowded neighbourhoods usually had emotional challenges that affected learners; (iv) The physical and mental health conditions of the learner are also closely related with performance at school. Malnutrition, diseases, sensory defects may cause poor mental health, hence causing slow learning. (v) Intellectual defects may cause slow learning and such defects may be as result of intellectual deficiency, perceptual and associative disabilities; (vi) Other students may be slow learners due to temperamental defects such as emotional instability, excitability, apathy, lack of industry and lack of honesty. Whereas the causes of learning may vary from one student to another, it would be necessary to capture the most common causes of
slow learning so that teachers can deal with different groups of slow learning according to the cause of their slow learning.

The next section deals with types of counselling available in schools.

**Guidance and Counselling in Educational Institutions:**

The essence of education is to lead to individuals who are healthy on all aspects of life. The youth need to know a variety of issues if they are to develop to be balanced in life. According to Rao (2003:58), the problems of the youth fall broadly under three broad categories: (I) emotional problems that include anxiety, hypersensitivity, impulsiveness, immaturity, moodiness, withdrawal, etc. (ii) motivational problems which include lack of ambition, low aspiration levels, feelings of frustration, negative attitudes, lack of interests, etc. (iii) moral problems which include feelings of guilt, sense of being lost, confused ideas about being right or wrong, delinquencies and its concomitant vices like lying, stealing and unruly behaviour, etc.

**Social, Ethical, Emotional Guidance (Psychological Guidance & Counselling)**

According to Makinde (1993:8) adolescents need to (I) be helped to understand the nature of the teenage transition and its marginality. (ii) Students also need to be helped to understand the special needs and the developmental tasks attached to this transitional period. (iii) They also need to understand the role of peer groups in influencing adolescents. (iv) Students need also to be helped to understand the effects of somatic variations on adolescent behaviour. (v) Equally, students need to be helped to be clear about the special problems arising out of sexual maturation, (vi) better understanding of adolescent behaviour; (vii) The strains and stresses associated with this stage.

The foregoing issues can still be added by the day since the change of technology raises issues of concern as each day unfolds. Guidance and counselling becomes necessary in light of drug abuse in schools, teenage pregnancies, and peer pressure, increased pressure to perform better and increase in juvenile
delinquency. Moreover, poor parenting has led to poor self-concept, low self-esteem, boredom, lack of interest in studies, violence in forms of arson, wanton destruction of property and many types of disasters, demanding that secondary schools be exposed to skills that can enable them to deal with such challenges that arise out of their social life. Given the central role of careers in education, the next section focuses on this crucial aspect.

Career Guidance

According to Makinde, there are studies, which indicate that students often face tremendous problems when planning for their careers. For example, Makinde (1993:172) cited studies by Ogunlade (1973), Gesinde (1977) and Okolo (1980) which pointed out that many young people intended to prefer to pursue Medicine, Engineering, Law Architecture, and Pharmacy even when many of them did not have the aptitude or preparation for the said courses.

Mutie and Ndambuki (1999:55) have made an elaborate discussion of functions of vocational guidance, which include: (i) aiding in placement of talent where it is needed by assisting a student to make the best possible vocational choice. (ii) Strengthening educational system in motivation by ensuring that the academic and co-curricular activities are useful and will culminate in something worthwhile. Students are encouraged to make maximum use of all educational opportunities since these will enhance their chances of being able to adjust to their future careers. (iii) Adding a sense of security to the nation, schools and the students by helping the students to develop the ability to control their future. (iv) Provide information for occupational opportunities thus be aware of the world of work and the range of available opportunities. (v) Encourage students in the decision making process on the basis of their interests, values, abilities, skills and the motivation to learn. (vi) Helping students to be able to relate their interests, potential and abilities to the world of work. (vii) Helping students to cope with different environmental problems that beset them in the process of learning. (viii) Helping students to understand the problems of unemployment, its causes and appropriate ways of responding to it. (ix)
Assisting students to understand the process of decision-making and the possible consequences their choices. (x)

Enabling students to acquire knowledge of the practical skills of getting a job and progressing in it. As such, career guidance needs to embrace more than just pointing students to a career. It is also necessary to foster in students commitment, sincerity, honesty, manual work, hard-work and enjoying work rather than trying to avoid it.

Makinde (1993:176) cites Hoppock (1976) who offers guidelines of avoiding errors in career guidance that interested people need among other things to: (a) carefully study the history of the profession, its importance and relevance to man and the society, the number of people engaged in the profession, the anticipated supply and demand for workers and the special duties attached. (b) Study reputable institutions where training is available, the methods and requirements for entry; find out the level of competition for entry, the length and cost of the training, the contents of the training, availability or not of a bond, details of travelling and funding and whether employment is by posting, appointment or application. (c) Consider related occupations and whether training may lead to opportunities for advancement, in these occupations; indoor and outdoor duties; earnings and hours of work, regularity of employment; health and accident provision; medical care, allowances and trade unions.

Aggarwal (2004:396) underscores the importance of having career guidance services, by noting that as reflected in the American Congress Act for improvement of education “Every young person, from the day he enters school, shall have opportunity to develop his gifts to the fullest. In view of this, it is evident that school guidance programme need to have clear operational objectives so that they can be of help to learners. Such objectives should include offering assistance that can enable a student to make a choice on appropriate subjects to pursue at secondary school and post-secondary educational institutions. Career guidance should also inculcate in students work values, appreciation of personal talents, limitations and how to overcome them
among other issues. Although it is possible to operate career guidance under the general psychological
guidance, there is a need for striking a balance so that one is not done at the expense of the other. There is a
faulty notion in some quarters that career guidance is only about subject choices and how to work towards
one’s desired career. Professional knowledge however runs contrary to such notions. A holistic approach to
understanding of careers must incorporate such aspects as educational talks, orientation, career conferences
where many professionals attend and expose students to what is involved in different careers, industrial visits
among others (Mutie and Ndambuki, 1999:106-107).

Although teachers design most of the career guidance programme with little involvement of
students, Rao (2003:276) notes the importance of involving students if counselling is to have its desired effect
of behaviour change among students. The manner in which guidance and counselling has been conducted in
schools may be indicative of lack of training because majority of the officers managing such programme had
only attended short-duration courses and could not be taken as professional counsellors due to limited
training. The move by the Teachers’ Service Commission to grant study-leave to those who are aspiring to
pursue counselling related courses is not only plausible but also laudable since it is likely to ensure that
students are guided in a better way than before.

Other forms of guidance that exist in schools include health guidance that explores ways of
maintaining hygiene among students, ways of keeping physically healthy, common diseases in society and ways
of combating them among others. Health guidance should also focus on causes of stress, stress management
techniques, poor self-concept, low self-esteem, causes of frustration and academic disinterest among others.
Students also need to be exposed to various ways of managing disasters and coping with difficulties. They
should also be prepared on being responsible citizens through regular programme in diverse areas. The next
part traces the historical development of student support in form of career guidance and counselling.
A Historical Survey of Guidance and Counselling in Kenya:

Guidance and counselling has been an issue of concern to all the educational commissions in Kenya and has been addressed in National Development Plans. The Kenya Education Commission (Ominde, 1964) recommended that children should be given courses that are best fitted to their needs. It was further recommended that pupils be provided with information on careers and openings for employment. In 1970, the Ministry of Education established a unit or Section of Guidance and Counselling. The National Development Plan (1974-1978) recognised the fact that the section of Guidance and Counselling under the Ministry of Education was involved in issues as diverse as dealing with problems of psychological adjustment of pupils and students and running seminars on vocational guidance. There was an expectation that head teachers would guide timetabling in such a way that the members of teaching staff responsible for Guidance and Counselling would have ample time to deal with issues raised by pupils on students’ career questions as well as personal problems.

The National Committee on Educational Objectives and Policies (Gachathi report, 1976) noted that if well utilised, Guidance and Counselling could play important roles in enhancing individual adaptability as does academic schooling. Moreover, it was noted that that guidance and counselling was dependent on voluntary efforts of some teachers who felt motivated to render such services. To address such a problem, the committee recommended: (I) Training of all teachers in Guidance and Counselling as well as making it a requirement for teachers to do it as part and parcel of their normal teaching duties. (ii) Compulsory training of all teachers as part of their teaching preparation, (iii) In-service training on Guidance and Counselling for practising teachers, (iv) integration of Guidance and Counselling with other topics such as careers, ethics, human relations, family life and sex education, and (v) Involvement of parents and other competent members of the community in provision of Guidance and counselling services.

The National Development Plan (1979-1983) recognised that there was need to make Guidance and
Counselling to be more effective. The approach for achieving the stated goal was envisaged as through strengthening of the Guidance and Counselling Unit of the Ministry of Education as well as appointment of professionally qualified officers to be responsible for co-ordinating and organising workshops for teacher counsellors. It was also stipulated that Guidance and Counselling was to form part of the Teachers Training Colleges’ curriculum and at university level. The Presidential Working Party on Education and Manpower Training for the Next Decade and beyond (Kamunge Report, 1988) underscored the role of Guidance and Counselling in helping individuals to face realities of life, identify talents, interests, needs and aptitudes. The working party noted that whereas some teachers as undergone some in-service courses, it was imperative to expose more teachers to training in Guidance and Counselling. The working recommended appointment of a mature teacher at every school to coordinate all Guidance and Counselling programme. It was further recommended that the activities of the Guidance and Counselling section of the Ministry of Education needed to be decentralised to enhance provision of such services. The recommendations of the party have been partly implemented regarding appointment of officers in charge of counselling at school level though some schools lack such officers. The Kamunge report also addressed matters pertaining to the needs of the specially gifted. Since there have been many misunderstandings regarding gifted students, such myths are explored here.

**Common myths about gifted Students.**

According to the Council for Exceptional Children Council, there are some common myths that societies entertain regarding gifted students. Such notions include the assumption that: (i) Gifted students are homogeneous group, all high achievers. (ii) Gifted students do not need help. If they are really gifted, they can manage on their own. (iii) Gifted students have fewer problems than others do because their intelligence and abilities somehow exempt them from the hassles of daily life. (iv) The future of a gifted student is assured: a world of opportunities lies before the student. (v) Gifted students are self-directed; they know where they are
heading. (vi) The social and emotional development of the gifted student is at the same level as his or her intellectual development.  (vii) Gifted students are nerds and social isolates.   (viii) The primary value of the gifted student lies in his or her brainpower.  (ix) The gifted student’s family always prizes his or her abilities.  (x) Gifted students need to serve as examples to others and they should always assume extra responsibility. (xi) Gifted students make everyone else smarter.   (xii) Gifted students can accomplish anything they put their minds to. All they have to do is apply themselves.   (xiii) Gifted students are naturally creative and do not need encouragement.  (xiv) Gifted children are easy to raise and welcome additional classroom work.  The foregoing assumptions are not only erroneous but they are responsible for much of the neglect that takes place in schools.  This mainly stems from the examination-oriented systems that labels any one scoring high grades as okay regardless of whether their full potential has been realised or not. As such, some ideas have been discussed concerning some truths about gifted students.
**Truths about Gifted students**

(I) Gifted students are often perfectionist and idealistic. They may equate achievement and grades with self-esteem and self-worth, which sometimes leads to fear of failure and interferes with achievement. (ii) Gifted students may experience heightened sensitivity to their own expectations and those of others, resulting in guilt over achievements or grades perceived to be low. (iii) Gifted students are asynchronous. Their chronological age, social, physical, emotional, and intellectual development may all be at different levels. For example, a 5-year-old may be able to read and comprehend a third-grade book but may not be able to write legibly. (iv) Some gifted children are "mappers" (sequential learners), while others are "leapers" (spatial learners). Leapers may not know how they got a "right answer." Mappers" may get lost in the steps leading to the right answer. (v) Gifted students may be so far ahead of their chronological age mates that they know more than half the curriculum before the school year begins! Their boredom can result in low achievement and grades. (vi) Gifted children are problem solvers. They benefit from working on open-ended, interdisciplinary problems; for example, how to solve a shortage of community resources. Gifted students often refuse to work for grades alone. (vii) Gifted students often think abstractly and with such complexity, that they may need help with concrete study- and test-taking skills. They may not be able to select one answer in a multiple-choice question because they see how all the answers might be correct. (viii) Gifted students who do well in school may define success as getting an "A" and failure as any grade less than an "A." By early adolescence, they may be unwilling to try anything where they are not certain of guaranteed success.

There are a number of ways of addressing the needs of the academically gifted. According to Aggarwal (2004:401-405), such students can be assisted through any or a multiple of the following ways: (I) Acceleration- a method that offers the gifted an opportunity to move at a pace that is appropriate to his or her level of ability and maturity and to complete an educational programme in less than ordinary amount of time. It
involves advancing the gifted child rapidly from grade to grade so that some students enter college earlier than others do; (ii) Homogeneous or ability Grouping or Segregation- the gifted students may be placed in special groups for all or part of the day. The purpose of such grouping is to provide enrichment of children’s experiences in both depth and breadth and to permit learners to stimulate one another; (iii) Enrichment programme-consists of giving the gifted student an opportunity to go deeper than the range that id covered or experienced by the average child; (iv) The track plan- involves introducing elasticity in classification of students with a uniform syllabus. The normal children can cover such a syllabus within the normal period whereas the “not- so-well endowed students” can take a longer period. The academically gifted students on the other hand cover it in a shorter time; (v) Rapid promotion or double promotion- this implies more than one promotion per year, where a student who shows extraordinary achievement is placed in a class that is suited to his or her ability. However, there is evidence that such promotions can prove detrimental to the child in that the child might have been gifted in comparison with others in the previous class, which may not be the same in a new class and setting. These methods have not been extensively employed in Kenya due to the position taken by school administrators that learning is not just about educational achievement but exposure to diverse in and out-of-class experiences, which all students need to profit from. Johnson (1993: 15) in an article by Silverman postulates that, “Every gift contains a danger. Whatever gift we have we are compelled to express. Moreover, if the expression of that gift is blocked, distorted, or merely allowed to languish, then the gift turns against us, and we suffer”. According to Silverman, to understand the true meaning of giftedness requires that we separate the concept from achievement. High achievers are those who are motivated to do well in school. Gifted students may be high achievers or they may be high school dropouts. They have learning needs that differ from other students, just as developmentally delayed students have different learning needs. When giftedness is seen as the mirror image of retardation, it becomes clear that we have a responsibility to meet their needs, whether or not
they are high achievers. Silverman (1999:1) further notes that:

Even gifted students who are achieving A’s may be severely underachieving. The Talent Searches, which involve more than 150,000 junior high school students annually, demonstrates how this is possible. Seventh and eighth grade students who are at the 95th percentile in mathematics and reading in grade level assessments are eligible to take the SAT or ACT as above-level tests. These tests were designed for college-bound seniors and juniors. Some junior high school students score much higher on these assessments than their high school counterparts. In fact, some may score high enough to meet the entrance requirements for Massachusetts Institute of Technology or Stanford when they are only 12. There are 12-year-olds who have attained scores of 780 or 800 on the SAT-M.

When one of these students obtains an A in 7th grade mathematics, what does that [grade] A mean? Is the student sufficiently challenged? If this student has already mastered enough algebra and geometry to obtain a score comparable to that of a top high school senior, wouldn’t the pre-algebra sequence be a waste of time even if the student achieved all A’s?

For gifted students, achieving an A is not the goal. The real purpose of education is to learn new information, new experiences and some adventure that the conventional teacher may fail to provide without further reflection. Students who achieve A’s based on what they have already learned are gaining daily practice in underachievement. All students have the right to struggle. Struggling is essential to growth. It means that the student is stretching to attain new power in learning. In addition, gifted students actually enjoy struggling to master new material if they have not been so pruned into grade-getters that they are afraid of a challenge. Girls, in particular, are at risk for shunning challenges in favour of performing perfectly what they already know.

From the foregoing observations, it is evident that their mode of learning must be adjusted to suit their level of awareness. This calls for engaging the students in academic planning. It is amazing what a heart-
to-heart talk with a gifted student will reveal. There is also a need to assess what they have already learned before teaching them. There is no use in relearning what one already knows. By looking at achievement test scores, giving them pre-tests of the material to be covered, informal talks about the subject matter or teacher-constructed diagnostic tests; it can be possible to assess the suitability of teaching materials. In addition, very advanced students can be allowed to test out courses. The testing will involve receiving feedback on course content from students on whether the content is appropriate for their needs in terms of it being challenging and sustaining interest.

The foregoing measures seem to suggest either a parallel mode of teaching the gifted students or having them in mainstream schools but allowing them a lot of latitude in learning. This study also focuses on the assistance that is afforded to fast learners in secondary schools. In administering remedial programme, teachers need to understand the concept of being talented beyond the traditional sense. It should be broad enough to cover a wide range of mathematical, verbal, artistic and experimental skills. Scholarships and encouragement should be available, based on equality, to all talented at all stages of education. In respect to students with special needs, the Kamunge report (1988) indicated that there was a need for proper systems of identifying and meeting such needs. The Kenya Institute of Special Education (KISE) aims at training teachers to identify and meet such needs as well as offering some services to field officers and teachers. Kenyatta University has also established a centre for identifying gifted students and making the appropriate recommendations.

According to the Koech Report (1999:61-62, 79), the Ministry of Education’s Guidance and Counselling unit provided effective services to secondary schools and Teachers’ Training Colleges by conducting in-service training. As much as the training component is important, a need exists to avoid duplicating work that is already being executed by Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI). It would be more cost-effective if the unit concerned
itself with planning, policy research, and publication of Career booklets and Training Needs Assessment and then work closely with KESI to help in bringing to the mainstream the latest trends on counselling rather than doing what KESI is doing. The Koech report (1999:79) however noted that that although the Guidance and Counselling unit was trying to change with the times, it was not as vibrant as it used to be due to retirement of officers, deployment of officers to other sections of the Ministry of Education. This was identified as an indicator of training for officers operating the unit.

The Koech report (1999:68) observed that other countries were using Peer Approach Counselling by Teens (PACT) and recommended implementation of such an approach across the country to help combat such challenges as HIV and AIDS, teenage pregnancies and peer pressure. The report underscored the need to use diverse approaches in counselling peers. Such approaches include drama, information education and communication (IEC) materials that could be used to address counselling among peers on emotional, physical and mental development.

The Report of the Task Force on Student Discipline and Unrest in Secondary Schools (2001) recommended strengthening of Guidance and Counselling by equipping teacher counsellors with the appropriate knowledge and skills to make them more effective than the case was by then in performance of their duties.

The Report (2001) further recommended establishment of a strong Guidance and Counselling division under the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology. The need for enhancement of pastoral care programme was underscored and such were to be handled by trained religious personnel capable of relating the teaching to moral implications. The Task Force noted the need for close liaison between the Ministry of Education and National Agency for Campaign against Drug Abuse (NACABA) since the two share their goal of educating the youth. As a result of a finding that teachers were ill-equipped to handle Guidance and Counselling, the report recommended that all teachers be exposed to Guidance and Counselling in their pre-service and in-
service training. The report further recommended strengthening of counselling programme organised by teachers as well as among peers.

The need for strong prefect system with clear role definition was also highlighted and the need for training such prefects as well as peer counsellors stressed. The analysis of the counselling status in Kenya has revealed a number of gaps that require immediate attention. Unlike their counterparts in the developed countries, Kenyan teacher counsellors are picked on basis of interest, motivation rather than because of training. This situation needs to be redressed so that professionals can deal with students in light of the present challenges that have made many untrained teacher counsellors to be baffled and overwhelmed by their challenges. The organisation of guidance and counselling programme can be diversified in such a way that it addresses the needs of those with special needs such as slow learners, gifted students, disinterested students and those with low self-esteem.

In seeking to realise the goals of guidance and counselling, Gesinde (1980) in Makinde (1993:176) suggested in a Benin workshop specific means of obtaining and disseminating information on careers and other educational, social and personal needs. Some of his proposals include: (I) Group guidance (ii) the teaching of occupations (iii) Career day or week activities (iv) Trips and excursions (v) School career clubs (vi) Vacation job or work-study programme (vii) Bulletin boards and libraries (viii) School subjects. At present, counselling in the Kenyan setting has been incorporated and infused in certain subjects so that it can be apart and parcel of learning process. Such subjects include Social Education and Ethics, Biology and Religious Education. Counselling however needs to address some of the most common challenges in schools that affect a reasonable size of the student population.

According to Kirk and Gallagher (1986), exceptional children are grouped together for purposes of instruction. Such groupings include: (I) intellectual differences including learners who are intellectually
superior, as well as those who are slow to learn. (ii) Learners with sensory differences which hence having auditory and visual impairments, (iii) learners with communication differences such as disabilities of language, or language impairment, (iv) learners with physical differences that result to non-sensory handicaps that impede physical mobility, (v) learners with multiple sensory problems that include combinations of impairments such as cerebral palsy, mental retardation, deafness and blindness.

Learners with the aforementioned disabilities are different to the extent of requiring modification of school practices or having special education services, if they are to develop to their maximum academic and other forms of potential. Such approach is used because slow learners exhibit such characteristics as poor memory, inattentiveness, and lack of motivation, negative attitude, lack of interest and poor emotional states. Moreover, educators have observed that slow learners are not able to perceive and use possible association that can help them in learning. As result, such learners exhibit limited mental abilities in schoolwork and result to a withdrawn non-assertive behaviour. In many educational institutions, dealing with individual differences has been perceived as the most daunting challenge. This is because learners have various traits, capabilities, aptitudes, attitudes and skills, which require teachers to provide appropriate level of instruction (Phatka, 1999: 2).

Phatka (1999) noted that slow learners demand more attention from psychologists, educators and various social agencies. Such learners constitute about 18 percent of a school population and exhibit an Intelligent Quotient (IQ) ranging between 70 and 90. Such learners pose a serious challenge to the public school due to their difficulties in learning and their scope of achievement. The basic characteristic of slow-learners is that they have a certain degree of intellectual retardation that inhibits them from acquiring basic academic knowledge and skills as rapidly as or to the same extent as the average child. Phatka (1999) notes that slow learners usually have a chronological age that is greater than their mental and social age.
Shaw in Phatka (1999) identified serious shortcomings with policies for addressing borderline intelligence educational needs of children (slow learners). Although advocacy for improved policy is important, slow learners need to be taught today—not at some point in the future when the perfect educational policies are created. Giving teachers concrete support for addressing the academic challenges of slow learners is a substantial role for school psychologists.

**Instructional Strategies for borderline-intelligence learners:**

The three major components of teaching slow learners include: 1) making the abstract concrete, 2) not assuming generalisation and 3) working toward making of basic concepts automatic in their world of thought. Teaching slow learners demands making information as explicit and concrete as possible. If they can see it, touch it, or do it, then learning will be easier. For example, the slow learner learns mathematics much easier if it is taught the way 60 percent of the world learns mathematics on an abacus. Pencil paper math is symbolic and abstract. An abacus is systematic (unlike most teacher-used manipulative) and concrete; yet, unlike a calculator it helps teach concepts. Reading skills can best be taught through a combination of direct and systematic phonics based instruction and heavy use of concrete reading material. Examples of concrete reading materials are directions for assembling models, car repair manuals, cookbooks, and how to books of games, dance or sports. Teaching gifted students can be done through challenging tasks such as field trips, dissecting animals, Internet projects, writing books, special projects. Yet, gifted children learn well with the abstraction of books. Slow learners would benefit from the touching, seeing and doing curricula at least as much as high intelligence children.

Contrary to popular belief, slow learners can learn discrete academic facts at grade level and can learn them quickly. The major problem is that slow learners do not generalise problem solving strategies and skills effectively. This is a problem because, in the name of efficiency, academic instruction must be
incomplete. Students are left to fill in the blanks themselves. Thus, when a teacher presents a concept, most children understand the concept and apply this concept to new situations independently. However, the slow learner may understand the example, but have a difficult time acquiring and applying the general concept to new situations due to limited deductive and inductive reasoning skills. Slow learners often understand exactly what is taught and little more. Slow learners require that most facts be taught discretely without the assumption of generalization until concepts eventually can be internalised. To achieve this level of instruction to slow learners, teachers must teach at a much brisker pace than traditional instruction.

A goal of instruction for slow learners is to make the basic sub skills of academic tasks automatic. If a person had to sound out every word in a newspaper, then it would take days to read. In addition, this slow reading style leads to poor comprehension. Good readers use phonic skills automatically and without conscious thought. To transition from consciously applying phonics, mathematics facts, or other academic rules to applying the correct rules automatically is difficult for all children. By requiring children to respond faster using timed performance and computer-assisted instruction, children are forced to conceptualise these sub skills. In addition, the results can be charted so that children see their progress in words read per minute or digits correct per minute. Encouraging high rates of speed of response improves automaticity and is a motivating tool. Teach quickly and encourage children to respond quickly.

(Gani 1998) conducted a study in which the total wastage in high schools was in form of dropouts and stagnation precipitated by family economic conditions, early marriages, educational level of parents, being members of large families and social perceptions gender prejudice regarding education provision. The study also established that some school-related factors were responsible for wastage. Such factors included insufficient teaching and rigid school timings, which led to stagnation and irregular attendance. The issue of dropouts in secondary schools has been posing serious challenges. The Government of Kenya noted the
situation in Republic of Kenya’s Master Plan for Education and Training (1998). Coombs and Cooley (1968) cited socio-economic background as the main factor in school drop. The study indicated that more 51 percent of the male and 68 percent of the female dropouts came from the lowest quartile of the population. Martha as cited in Weis (1998:56) points out that those pupils who repeat any class in elementary school tend to drop out.

According to Bachman et al, (1971:26) the social economic level of students is the most critical determinant of school dropouts. They postulate that those students who drop out usually have endured problems with learning experiences, repeated grades, failure from early years and the family not regarding education as a priority. Cervantes (1965:16) reported that the parents of children who drop out have low educational level; they were likely to have dropped out of school, and tended to marry early and have large families. Children from such families lacked understanding and acceptance since their parents operated such families in authoritarian manner. As such, students from such backgrounds were not to be well integrated in school activities hence the desire to drop out due to alienation.

According to Stobo (1973), Cutbill (1974), Zamanzoden and Prince (1978), students drop out of school owing to a number of factors. Students who are likely to drop out of schools are usually from broken homes, or from single parents. Such students were anti-social and more prone to drug-abuse, alcoholism, lesbianism, gay-ism and prostitution than others (Cutbill, 1978:116) were. Weiss (1979:15) expressed similar sentiments and noted that children from broken families are on average one day per month more absent than others, they are likely to be later than their colleagues in boarding schools, have more discipline problems and show more drop out rate than children from intact families do. Surdharma (1988) conducted a study to establish the efficacy of the measures adopted by the state government of Kerala to prevent wastage and stagnation of students. The findings indicated that only four out of the eight measures adopted were effective. The effective measures used to curb wastage and stagnation were lump sum grants, meritorious scholarships,
upper secondary scholarships and coaching classes for the scheduled castes and scheduled tribes. The foregoing findings suggest that areas that are disadvantaged in a number of ways may require some affirmative action in receiving Government financial support.
2.3.3 Staff Personnel (Human Resource) Management

This task area deals with activities related to the individual, individuals or groups of individuals who facilitate teaching and learning. Among the key functions of head teachers in this task area are: (i) Acquisition and retention of personnel. (ii) Writing the confidential reports of teachers; (iii) Organising teachers’ welfare; (iv) Delegating administrative tasks to teachers; (v) Developing a system of staff personnel records; (vi) Formulating (translating) personnel policies guiding employment standards; (vii) Appraising teachers’ performance and stimulating and providing opportunities for professional growth of the teachers (Management Institute of Training Educational Personnel, 1995). In the Kenyan setting, the head teachers’ role in the task area is to advise the educational authorities like the Teachers’ Service Commission, District, Provincial and Municipal Education office on staff needs. The head teacher will be required to make decisions on duties to be assigned to teachers, maintaining objective communication channels, motivating, stimulating and influencing teachers through effective discharge of administrative tasks and processes.

To achieve their roles effectively, head teachers will be required to be team-players so that the achievement of schools goals and objectives can be a collective responsibility and not a single person’s efforts. In stressing the importance of leadership, Hewton and West (1992:12) aptly note, “Headmasters (head teachers), to a greater degree than other members of staff, have to achieve goals with, and through other adults. The appraisal of head teachers will therefore be a much as concerned with the head’s capacity to promote professional development of staff, as with how he or she brings about improvements in the quality of learning that is offered to pupils in schools”. Important in the foregoing quotation is the role of head teachers in improvement of teaching and learning through improvement of teachers’ pedagogical skills. Such improvement can be done through class visitations, organised seminars both within and without and instructional supervision in its diverse forms. To be able to achieve the desired results in curriculum and instruction, head teachers need
thorough preparation in their management tasks, an aspect found to be largely missing in many professionals.

Hewton and Hewitt (1992:13) note “The majority of head teachers have received very little systematic training in the management of schools, although more attention has been given to this in recent years”. In human resource management (staff personnel), Dean (1995:130) and Onyango (2001:56) outline the head teacher’s responsibility, which involves: (I) Leading and motivating (ii) Delegating responsibilities effectively (iii) Conflict management (iv) Staff-development: a number of authorities in education and general management have identified techniques of personnel leadership and motivation. Katz and Kahn (1978: 528) define leadership as “the influential increment over and above mechanical compliance with routine directives of the organisation”.

In this definition of leadership, emphasis is on the leader to influence personnel to work out of their own volition. Such voluntary actions differ from those that are executed due to fear of consequences of failure to execute a task or even because it is required of them. Leadership is therefore a process that requires that a head teacher enthuse the members of teaching and non-teaching staff with the overall institutional goals and objectives to the extent that they develop an ownership and loyalty for the institution. While adherence to lay down rules and regulations is important, a consummate educational leader can seek to use a blend of approaches, which make it possible to make rules appreciated.

Steers (1991:130) in assessing Fiedler’s contingency theory notes the strength of the contingency model of leadership and posits that group performance or effectiveness is dependent upon interaction of leadership style and the amount of control that a supervisor has over the situation. Okumbe (1998:98) notes situation favourableness is a key variable in contingency model of leadership characterised by: (I) Leader-member relations that refer to the degree of confidence, trust and respect that followers have for the leader. (ii) Task structure-the degree to which task assignments are clear both to the leader and to the subordinates; (iii)
The second key variable in Fiedler’s model of leadership is the leader-orientation. The first types of leaders are relationship-oriented and are more lenient and exhibit a people-oriented style. The second group of leaders is inclined towards task accomplishment. According to Fiedler (1967), relationship oriented leaders were more effective in facilitating group performance when the situation was moderately favourable to moderately unfavourable. On the other hand, the task-oriented leader was more effective in securing group performance when the situation is either highly unfavourable or highly favourable (Steers, 1991: 382-383). Teachers require being motivated just like every other employee. Okumbe (1998:70) notes that one of the key ways of motivating teachers is to involve them in setting goals. Such goals motivate teachers if they are neither too rigid nor unachievable.

**Motivating teaching and non-teaching personnel:**

According to the job characteristics model, there are certain job characteristics that contribute to certain psychological states. In the model, Okumbe (1998:70) identifies five characteristics; which include skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy and feedback. The model also notes that the need for employee growth has an important moderating effect. The three critical psychological states are experienced meaningfulness of the work; experienced responsibility for work outcomes; and knowledge of results from work outcomes (Okumbe, 1998:70).

The foregoing observations suggest that there is a need for planning of tasks at the schools level so that each task can be related to teachers’ needs as well as those of the students. It is imperative to ensure that the strategies that are adopted by schools for students’ improvement are not done without regard to teachers and their needs for professional development. Observations have shown that some head teachers are usually reluctant to release some of their best teachers to take up promotional positions due to fear that their schools
would decline. Such cases rather than motivating may demoralise teachers and make them to lose interest due to professional stagnation. Okumbe’s (1992) study on motivational levels among graduate secondary school teachers attests to this observation.

A part from trying diverse motivational strategies, head teachers need to have a knack of human-relations so that they can deal with various groups of teaching personnel and support staff. Mbiti (1974:6-9) contends that head teachers need the personnel skill factor to be effective in personnel management. Head teachers need to take into account the type of workers in schools so that they can manage them effectively. Such types include: (I) loyalists (ii) bargainers (iii) vegetates (iv) the agitators and (v) the rejecters. The knowledge of such types of workers is important since it will help head teachers to know how to deal with bargainers, with trade union mentality. Such knowledge will also equip head teachers with knowledge to seek ways of motivating the vegetates who like living complacently in their place of work as well as containing the agitators and rejecters who are bent on brewing trouble for the school administration. Moreover, head teachers would require being conversant with the latest trends in human resource management trends to create positive organisational climate.

Kilonzo (1999) noted that members of the teaching and non-teaching staff can be motivated in a number of ways. Such methods of motivation include money in form of wages, work bonuses and medical benefits. Members of staff can also be motivated through participatory decision-making, which makes them to own decisions and appreciate such decisions as their own. Making their jobs to be dignified and attractive motivates staff personnel. The jobs of the staff personnel can be made more attractive through improved communication, changes in work arrangements to allow time off and effective supervision. A job can also be made attractive and enriching through and making it more challenging and meaningful. It is incumbent upon the head teacher to consider appropriate ways of dealing with members of teaching and non-teaching staff so
that such members can be able to have peak performance.

According to Mbiti (1974:53), peak performance can be achieved by head teachers doing a number of things. Such actions include: (i) setting an example of courtesy and trust towards other people. (ii) Avoiding showing any form of favouritism to particular teachers. (iii) Treating confidential matters about other teachers with great care; (iv) Provides opportunities with for teamwork among members of staff. (v) Creates a sense of respect and trust in every teacher, (vi) Creating a high sense of morality and professional commitment between the teaching and support staff. (vii) Delegating certain responsibilities to teachers on basis of ability, experience and trust; (viii) consulting members of staff on issues affecting the school as well as their well-being. (ix) Communicating all-important matters to both students and teachers well in advance, and (x) offering professional counselling to individual teachers as well as groups of individuals where necessary. It would prudent if the counselling is done verbally and in strict confidence. Counselling is pertinent especially in management of change where teachers and other staff tend to be resistant to change.

**Personnel Resistance to changes and head teachers’ role:**

Some staff tend to have a fixation with the past especially the older and conservative members of the institution. Such fixations make them to insist on doing things “the way we have always done them around here”. This is particularly the case amongst the personnel who had served under many head teachers who were either pioneers or those who had played a key role in shaping an institutional history and culture. Apart from stone-age obscurantist mentality, personnel tended to resist change when changes introduced without any consultation or before arriving at a consensus. Change could also be resisted when there is a feeling that the one introducing changes is not an “insider”. Such feelings could emerge when a newly posted head teacher introduces changes considered as too radical for smooth adoption within a short time. There are a number of strategies need to be explored to deal with the problem of managing change.
According to Eichols and Rogers (1964) in (Mbamba, 1992:258), people reject change due to the following reasons among others:

a) Rejection through ignorance- “I do not know”.

b) Rejection through default-“I do not use.”

c) Rejection by maintaining the status quo- it was not used in the past. I teach mechanically because books say so.” Esp (1985) refers to this as the Stone Age obscurantist mentality.

d) Rejection through social mores- others don’t do it, why should I?”

e) Rejection through substitution- I do more with... than with...

f) Rejection through fulfilment- “I know the best or the only way to teach numbers”.

g) Rejection through experience-they may like it now, but what about later?” Those who use this approach invoke the past by indicating that such innovations were tried possibly thirty or forty years before and they flopped.

In view of the foregoing observations regarding management of change, head teachers and other managers need to be well versed with the concerns of personnel resistance to changes so that they can be in a position to manage change amicably and to the total satisfaction of the majority and with desired results.

Mbamba (1992:258) cites Rogers and Shoemaker (1971) who postulate that there are five characteristics, which contribute to adoption of change and its subsequent adoption. Such characteristics include: (a) Perception of relative advantages. The innovation is important because it can produce certain results. (b) Perception of compatibility of this innovation with value needs and experiences of members of the social system. (c) Absence of complexity (complex and difficult innovations are adopted more slowly). The possibility of personally verifying new ideas in one’s own experience and (d) The possibility of observing
positive results obtained by other people. The foregoing observations indicate that head teachers need to manage change in such a way that it is acceptable by the virtue of being able to communicate the expected results that are not too removed from personnel experiences. Such changes can be introduced by using participative approach in introduction of change, its management and evaluation of results.

Heads teachers can reduce personnel problems by team-building so that the changes can be viewed as for the general good rather than being interpreted as if they are meant to punish a few who may not be ready to toe the line of the school administration. This resistance to change would require that head teachers use participatory methods in introduction of change to lead to its acceptance. The next section explores the functions that head teachers engage in managing infrastructure and learning resources (school plant).
2.3.4 Management of the School Plant (Infrastructure and Learning Resources)

Secondary school head teachers have to deal with the school plant (physical facilities) under which a number of activities are performed. Such activities include: (i) diligent sighting of school plant and facilities; (ii) maintenance and repair of school plant facilities; (iii) enhancing cleanliness in classrooms, dormitories, and halls, eating areas and within the surrounding environment and (iv) Enhancing health and safety concerns through appropriate school plant design, maintenance and repair (MANTEP 1995 and Okumbe, 2001:16).

Many educational institutions in third world countries have limited facilities due to limited financial resources and at times because of lack of innovative leadership. Mittal (1990) conducted an intensive study of the higher secondary school buildings in the states of Himachal Pradesh, Karnataka, Madhya Pradesh and Orissa on sample basis. Among the issues of focus in the study was the quality of the buildings, the suitability of such facilities for curricular and co-curricular activities, hygienic conditions and their expansion potential. The study covered 534 schools from 19 districts from the above states, giving due representation to all the available regions. Among the key determinants of the schools to be chosen included was the school management type, area and the type of schools. A comprehensive questionnaire was designed for data collection. Besides, the project investigators developed guidelines for tabulation of data. An additional questionnaire was prepared for an in-depth study of the school buildings. The findings of the study indicated that Bihar and Karnataka states had adequate portion of land but the rest of the states had unsatisfactory boundary walls and poor buildings, coupled with poor, inadequate ventilation and lighting. The science laboratories in Bihar had poor lighting and inadequate water. Quite an alarming percentage of schools did not possess separate library rooms in all the four states. The drinking water facility and toilet facilities were quite unsatisfactory in all the four states.

Sidhu (1996:60) in discussing some significant features of a school site notes that a school site needs some distinctive characteristics. Key among such characteristics is:
a) planning the school in such a way that it has adequate space to satisfy the curricular and co-
curricular requirements,

b) Establishment of Physical and hygienic facilities that guarantee physical and health safety of the
population.

c) Designing of the school buildings in such a way that most, if not all the wings and sections of the
school are interconnected for easy co-ordination.

d) Efficiency—where the school site is planned in such as way that it can give maximum benefit to all
concerned;

e) Aesthetics and beauty — in form of neatness and cleanliness coupled with simplicity.

f) Flexibility—in planning so that it is possible to put existing school site into various uses according to
changing needs of the school.

g) Economy—each item in the school site needs to be constructed economically so that it is possible to
put available facilities into multiple uses. The school plan should also be economical in terms of
original cost, operation, maintenance and one that avoids duplication of facilities.

According to Dean (1995), educational resources are scarce and this poses certain challenges on the
head teacher or the principal in terms of identification, organisation and use in order to ensure maximum
educational out-put. Material resources include those items designed, modified and prepared to assist teaching
and learning operations (Mbamba 1992:142). Such resources include items like textbooks, teachers’ guidebooks,
manuals, magazines, charts, maps and raw materials such as laboratory chemicals.

The management of material resources entails sound planning, acquisition, allocation, distribution
and controlling the use and maintenance of the materials (Onyango, 2001:42). Planning for material resources
involves identification of the resource requirements, assessing the quality in terms of the needs, establishing the
criteria for standards, determining the costs per unit and the use of the materials whether by an individual
group or whether by a group of individuals. In procurement of the required reading materials, head teachers
have to take into account suitability of the content for the age of the learner, readability, illustrations,
assignments, durability of the books and the relevance of the books from a cultural standpoint. This calls for
thorough understanding of the policies on procurement.

In procuring the required resources, the Standard Tender Document for Procurement of Small Works,
head teacher has to bear in mind the requirements established by the Ministry of Education for the education
system. Such requirements include: (I) Use of requisition forms that contain information such as the description
of items, amounts of items, costs in Kenya shillings, purchase orders, and vouchers. (ii) The purchase should be
done in advance of the need, preferably before opening of the school. (iii) The item specifications need
to be clear e.g. Trademark, item number, the catalogue number, type of material etc. (iv) Materials need to be
purchased at the lowest cost and in bulk for the purposes of cost-effectiveness. It must however be pointed out
that the head teacher ought be careful not to acquire low-quality goods simply because they are cheap but care
needs to be taken on their durability. (v) Purchases need to be made from a reputable business firms. (vi) There
should be clear tendering procedure and bids should be obtained to eliminate any allegations of lack of fair play
in form of favouritism. (vii) Before any purchases are made, there is need to make complete inventory analysis to
ensure that the materials being purchased are not already available. (viii) Upon receipt of the items ordered, it is
imperative for the head teacher to make sure that the materials are carefully checked before committing any
payments. The materials should thereafter be properly stored or issued following the right procedures and in the
stores ledgers. (ix) The classrooms, workshops, laboritories, equipment, stores, library, hostels, offices, staff
houses and school play grounds should be maintained in such a way that they reflect a positive image of the
school as well as ensuring their durability.

The physical outlook and cleanliness of an institution is important not only for health reasons but also as a source of motivation, creating a sense of pride and giving the right image to the society at large. The next section deals with Financial and Business management as it is practiced in a school setting and the implication of various preparation practices in its management.

2.3.5 Financial /Business Management

One of the major tasks of secondary school heads is management of school finances. Efficient management of school finances is very central to effective provision of education (Republic of Kenya, 1988). Head teachers are required to identify schools’ short, medium and long-term funding priorities and quantify the resources required to accomplish them. Head teachers have to secure the necessary financial resources that they have to raise either internally or externally. Thereafter, they are required to ensure effective internal control mechanisms in line with the statutory requirements (Spear 1994 and Professional Training Consultants, 1996).

Management of school finances is a task area which head teachers require preparation through pre-service and in-service training (Ministry of Education, 1987). This is necessary in light of budgetary constraints on the part of the government and the public who have to be involved in cost-sharing policy in provision of secondary education (Republic of Kenya, 1988). Head teachers therefore require training in order exercise prudent management of the financial resources entrusted to them by the public (Republic of Kenya, 1998). The public expectations on head teachers to manage efficiently are very high as evidenced by regular media comments on education. However, Karani, et al (1995) established that due to inefficient financial management practices by head teachers, public secondary schools were experiencing a general annual deficit of thirteen percent (13 %) on unit cost. The private schools however experienced eighteen percent (18 percent) surplus on unit cost with no significant differences in fees charged.
Wachira (1996) found that head teachers indicated financial management to be the most difficult task area in school administration and management. The Eleventh Conference of Commonwealth Education Ministers’ Report (1991) observed that although head teachers are primarily instructional supervisors, they however require training in efficient ways of managing school resources and budget. Lungu in Dadey and Harber (1991) asserts that training has a major advantage over trial-and-error or apprenticeship because it minimises the prolonged and wasteful experiences in gaining knowledge and skills. In expressing the disadvantage of learning on-the-job, Lungu in Dadey and Harber (1991:3) contends “…Administrative quacks learn at great expense of clients and high costs to the system. African education has suffered more from trial-and-error than it has gained”.

The fore-going observations show that there is a dire need to prepare secondary school head teachers in financial management as well as other task areas. Campbell et al. (1983) postulate that financial management entails drawing a budget plan, which involves three basic plans. Such plans are (i) Education plan: which shows the purpose, aims and objectives of the school and identifies activities, services, personnel and facilities needed in realization of educational goals; (ii) Expenditure plan: which involves translating educational programme into costs under various vote heads like: tuition, personnel emoluments, local transport and Travelling, boarding, school equipment and stores and electricity water and conservancy (Republic of Kenya, 1987).

Income plan- identifies the source of income that could be grants, fees, donations and funds raised in various methods like dinner dances, from students’ alumni among others. This study therefore will establish whether there are any challenges facing head teachers in finance and business management.

In educational organisations, Business Management has four sub-tasks, namely:

i) Understanding the sources of revenue for the school, which include school fees, government grants, donations, fundraising and income generating activities.
ii) Preparation of the school budget, an aspect that involves analysis, modification and ratification of budget proposal by the school Board of Governors;

iii) Monitoring expenditure in light of approved budget, which entails appropriate record keeping, accounting and auditing procedures- concerned with bidding and purchase of materials and supplies;

iv) Management of services of non-teaching certified personnel, which includes travel and transport, catering services, insurance and legal advice. It is in the said operations that head teachers are likely to have challenges especially in proper accounting and bookkeeping which many head teachers may not have been prepared in their pre-service training.

Kamau (1990) noted that head teachers exhibited inadequate performance in financial management in the above cited areas. This was evident from the fact that the head teachers under investigation lacked sufficient skills in budget preparation and administration. According to the findings by the study by Kamau (1990), the head teachers under survey seemed out to provide services disregarding the costs involved. Moreover, head teachers were not conversant with budgeting procedures. The study further established that schools lacked programme planning budgeting systems where plans are provided for attaining educational objectives.

In view of the stated shortcomings, it was noted that they (head teachers) just got ahead with the “job” of incomes and expenditures by addition and subtraction so that expenditures would not exceed the receipt (Kamau, 1990:103). It is in light of this observation that the current study sought to identify the strengths and weaknesses that head teachers have in school organisation and management as well as dealing with financial management. The next section explores the role of head teachers in personnel management and development.
2.3.6 Personnel Management and Development

Staff development is aimed at maintaining a teaching force that grows in competence, inspiration and motivation during a long and rewarding career. The beginning point of staff development should be at the point when a member of staff reports in a new school. It is imperative for such a member of staff to be properly inducted into the vision, aims, objectives of the institution as well as the ethos that hold the school community together. From then onwards, the member of staff can be integrated and developed along with other members of staff through in-house seminars, off-the-job workshops, off-the-job seminars, school-based teachers development programme among others. In essence, staff development aims at assisting teachers to be more proficient in their areas of specialization through interaction with other teachers and their immediate supervisors. Apart from developing teachers, school heads have to deal with day-to-day issues concerning teachers such as supervision of instructional programme, discipline of errant teachers, assisting those with social issues that may impede their professional performance among other routine activities.

Dennison and Shenton (1987 and 1989) have noted the importance of staff development to ensure that teachers grow adequately to assume new roles as they become through training, mentoring, and exposure to symposia among other avenues of professional development. Koech (1994) noted the need for diverse ways of ensuring professional development among educational personnel. The next section explores the school community relations.

2.3.7 School-Community Relations

Educational practitioners and scholars are in agreement regarding the importance of school-community linkages. In underscoring this point, Mbiti (1974: 51) observes:

A school is not an island but a part of the community in which it is located. The pupils in the school are members of that community. The school activities must therefore reflect as far as
possible the nature and the aspirations of the community. The headmaster must get to know the
community well enough to make the members of the community interested in what their children
are doing. On the other hand, most of what taught in the classroom should be for improving living
standards in community.

In supporting the above sentiments, Sidhu (1996:442) notes, “community builds its schools and the
schools build their community. Their interdependence is unbreakable. Theirs is a give-and-take relationship”.
Mbamba (1992) also supports the necessity of schools forging contacts with the communities around them.
There is observable and overwhelming evidence regarding the positive role that different groups in the
community can play in growth and development of schools.

According to Ubben and Hughes (1997:50), the entire school community is involved in the process of
education. A high performing school requires a broad-based community support, which will come from
communities that are well informed and well engaged in educative processes that go on in the school. This does
not happen automatically but head teachers and the schools at large must consistently cultivated for such
relationships. This will involve communication with parents, citizens, and business people, health and social
care agencies, different levels of government departments, teachers, and administrators among others. The key
issue is for the principal to harness these groups to marshal their efforts to realise the aims and goals of the
school. This is important because schools do not exist in a vacuum but they exist to serve socio-economic and
political ideals. In noting the importance of community service, Kyungu (1999:1), the then Director of
Education in Kenya pointed the need for community service by observing that:

Schools are places of social control that teach the values and the practice of what the society
regards as an appropriate and legal behaviour. Schools are factories of human behaviour, where
the manufacturing for behaviour change involves involving voyages (expedition) of personal
discoveries among communities of learners. Schools are expected to function as effective agencies of social control. At the centre of the school are teachers and pupils. The teacher must hold the attention of the ten or more pupils as required by the Education Act Cap 211—Laws of Kenya over a series of thirty minutes to one-hour sessions. The teacher must constantly observe and correct instances of behaviour including insolence, intransigence, or intolerance.

Given the above observations, head teachers have to be keenly aware of the expectations placed upon them by their society. Head teachers perform five-main sub-tasks in managing matters touching on the school and the community, which include:

a) Assisting the community to understand its current sense of what schools ought to do with other conceptions of education.

b) Interpreting the educational programme to the community;

c) Working closely with the representatives of the community.

d) Working with other non-governmental organizations involved in health of the community and the youth.

e) Enabling staff to understand and appreciate the community, through socio-economic and cultural activities of the community.

Individual schools need to develop effective feedback mechanisms to receive information and disperse information to neighbourhood leadership. This is important because research evidence points that the decision to support or not support school programme is more often based on influence of friends and neighbours than on objective data. Besides the neighbouring institutions, there are educational authorities that need to be consulted on a variety of issues regarding management and development of education. Some of the authorities include Education Officers at the zone, division and district level. At the district level, the most influential body is the
District Education Board established under Section 27B (1) of the Education (Amendment) Act of 1971. Under this Act, each District Education Board shall consist of not less than ten or more than fifteen members appointed by the Minister. Educational practitioners at secondary schools need to appreciate the role played by different groups that have vested interests [stakes] in management of schools.

2.3.8 Evaluation of School programmes and its implications:

The Commonwealth secretariat (1992) identified the purpose of evaluation as that of helping the institutional administration to determine the extent to which needs are being met as a basis for establishing realistic objectives for training and support programme. Evaluation also aims at establishing the support needed by administrators against what may be on offer currently. In view of the stated observations, there is a need to establish the training programme, which offer secondary school head teachers what they actually require for efficient and effective task performance.

A number of scholars agree that appropriate and timely evaluation would bring about adequate changes in physical facilities, special services and teaching methods (Feyereisen et al., 1976). In addition, it would help in reaffirming allegiance to stated objectives, planning and determining instructional programme. Harris (1978) asserts that evaluation can help teachers to understand their pupils better, furnish teachers with information for desirable changes, necessary remedial measures to be instituted in learning content and serve as basis for promotion, guidance of pupils and their assignments.

Head teachers as evaluators have to play the role of supervisors and professional helpers to teachers on matters of curriculum implementation. In conducting evaluation, it is important to use the acceptable procedures and techniques for the success of the process. If teachers with the co-operation of their supervisors do the process, it is considered desirable whereas if it is done to teachers, it is considered undesirable (Mutua,
Harrison (1971) in Mutua (1988) advocates self-evaluation in determining level of personnel performance and this seems to be the basis of using self-appraisal reports in places of work as well as in research studies. It is in light of these sentiments that this study will use self-evaluation questionnaire for head teachers so that they can rate themselves in their management practices rather than depending only on official records and reports to evaluate performance management in schools.

Focusing on evaluation as an Administrative task area can help educational personnel to make rational decisions on programme effectiveness. It can also make administrators to understand the relative worth of programme and hence take other courses of action regarding school programme, whether of an instructional nature or otherwise (Hove, 1979 and Okumbe, 2001). Ayot (1980 and 1982) established that there is usually very little programme evaluation conducted after training involving either teachers or head teachers. Where such evaluation was conducted, it was noted to be haphazard and very little was done to follow-up programme participants to establish how they were performing on their jobs after training (Maranga, 1993).

Maranga (1993) further noted that in-service training programmes in Kenya were haphazard and without well thought-out curriculum hence the cause of failure of head teachers to improve in performance of their tasks. It is important to note that such sentiments could have some place especially in early 1990s when KESI had very limited number of teaching staff who could come up with an appropriate training curriculum.

The essence of evaluation is to identify weaknesses by ensuring all-round organisational performance.

According to Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert (1999:231) “managers today are aiming at Total Quality Management, which occurs when an entire organisational culture becomes focused on quality and customer satisfaction through an integrated system of tools, techniques and training”. Although such concepts may not necessarily be new, they serve as a pointer to a school that may be wanting in reading culture. In most of the
Educational Administration publications and studies reviewed, it has emerged that evaluation is subsumed in other task areas. Okumbe (2001) treats the task area on its own presumably out of the importance he attaches to the area. The next section deals with the necessity for appraisal of training programmes for educational practitioners in general and head teachers in particular.

2.4 An Appraisal of Management and Administrative Training Programmes:

The quest for fulfilling national goals of education as well as realising Education for All initiative has made Kenya to invest heavily in the provision of quality education. The investment has been quite high in relative comparison with other essential services. Eshiwani (1992:208) in evaluating the investment levels noted the country’s high levels by observing that; “Her recurrent education budget averages about 35 percent of the total national budget; and this does not take into account the constitution of communities and parents in the provision of school facilities.” In view of the foregoing observations, prudent management of institutional resources is imperative to ensure school and educational goals are optimally achieved.

Although prudent management of educational resources and institutions is desirable, it has been cited to be largely missing in schools due to a number of factors. Some of the head teachers have been lacking in appropriate levels of experience, training as evidenced in some studies (Morumbasi 1993, Koech 1994, Wachira 1996 and Onyango 2001). Prudent management is a combination of on- and-off the job experience, systematic training, reasonably high levels of intelligence, personality traits and the kind of professional staff that an office is working with. In light of these factors, it is necessary to evaluate the programmes that head teachers are exposed to with a view of making them more responsive to their needs.

According to Olembo, Wanga and Karagu (1992:69), evaluation is concerned with "determining the extent to which a school or any other organisation has achieved its goals and unintended outcomes”. As such, evaluation seeks to determine the extent, to which stated objectives have been achieved, the obstacles to their
achievement and dealing with such obstacles to facilitate achievement of the stated goals, aims and objectives. Campbell et al. (1977:172) provide the following guidelines for evaluating effectiveness of a programme:

   a) Are the objectives and the means chosen to achieve them consistent with one another?

   b) Are the procedures operating as intended?

   c) To what extend and how well the organisational objectives been met?

   d) To what extend and how well has the organisation been maintained?

   In a further examination of evaluation, Olembo, Wanga and Karagu (1992:69) postulate that there is need for a further question in programme evaluation, which could be; “what recommendations could be made for improving the programme and the school as a whole?”

   Such a question is pertinent in the provision of feedback. Goldstein (1982:370) defines evaluation as “A systematic collection of description and judgmental information necessary to make effective decision related to the selection and adoption of various training techniques.” The critical issue is that evaluation is meant to improve programme by use of collected data to change content delivery modes. Evaluation is also necessary in programmes in orders to re-invest, re-innovate and include pertinent knowledge, skills and attitudes that can enable the organisation to meet changing job demands in a rapidly changing world. Evaluation is a necessary function as an element of improving the existing programmes.

   Hove (1979:57) correctly observes the necessity of continuous evaluation to ensure that programmes are addressing the current administrative challenges. why it is prudent to evaluate training programmes is by Ballinger (1989:11) captured a further reason for evaluation by postulating that there is a possibility of a discrepancy between what is offered in training programmes and what educational managers perceive to be their actual needs. Keys (1989) in a study to determine programme participants’ perceptions after attendance of Administrative Leadership Development programme in Saskatchewan found that the participants’ needs were
The participants also indicated that Administrative Leadership Development Programme conformed to the guidelines for effective in-service programmes.

The principals who participated in the programme expressed appreciation of the leadership programme, because according to them, the programmes made them to produce real and identifiable changes in their places of work. The foregoing observations underscore a pertinent aspect of training programmes; that they should help those who attend them to be able to produce real and identifiable changes in their places of work.

Contrary to the Saskatchewan Leadership Development Programme, where participants expressed tangible identifiable changes in their places of work after in-service, a number of studies have conflicting findings. Hariri (1982) in a study to determine the adequacy of Educational administrators’ preparation in Saudi Arabia found that the training of participants did not account for any significant variations in the proportion of dependent variables of (a) competence of principals as perceived as teachers.

However, the location of schools proved statistically significant in the training of principals in relation to school climate. Consequently, the study recommended modification of training programme so that they could produce pre-determined-changes in the behaviour of school principles.

Howell (1990) conducted a study to determine the perceived effectiveness of Administrators’ Academy in Northern Illinois. The study further sought to identify the principals’ professional development needs. It also sought to determine whether there was improved professional competence after attendance of the Administrators’ Academies among the 100 school principals, who attended such programmes.

The study found that the Illinois administrators’ Academy (IAA) did not significantly benefit Northern Illinois’ principals in terms of their professional development. The principals noted that the academy was a viable concept but it did not effectively meet principals’ professional development needs.
This study, in line with Howell’s study (1990) sought to establish whether significant differences existed in mean scores between schools under head teachers exposed to management training by KESI and those who lacked such exposure. The underlying reason is that it is possible to conduct programme that may be serving little or no useful purpose. Such programme would need to be modified to meet the clients’ needs or even overhauled, if it has outlived its efficacy.

Daresh (1985) conducted a study to ascertain principals’ perception regarding five in-service models. A self-administered survey questionnaire was sent to a group of 250 Ohio Elementary and high school principals. Many principals under the study indicated that they had attended education institutes and academies because of their perceived need of professional growth. Principals expressed a desire to learn specific skills, which they could apply in their jobs.

The state-sponsored institutes were the least preferred mode of professional development because they tended to be prescriptive in outlook. This study will determine the secondary school head teachers’ preferred growth activities in order to be able to meet their needs. Contacting of participants to understand their preferred mode of professional development is crucial because those who are consulted will appreciate such programme because of the feeling that they had some input in the formulation of such programme.

Loacker (1986:38-40) advocates involvement of participants in programme design owing to their role in pinpointing learning principles to be taken into consideration for effective training of programme participants. Such adult learning principles include voluntary participation, respect for and among participants, and co-operation among learners, encouraging and fostering critical reflection, self-directed learning and building upon learners’ experience. Concurring with the principles of adult learners, Jonasson (1993:18-21) asserted that change will take place more readily when and if the targeted group understand the need for it and provide the necessary moral and material support.
Heck (1992) conducted a study to determine the relationship between training conducted by Indiana Principal Leadership Academy (IPLA) and the resultant performance and practices of graduates. Two survey instruments were used to collect perceptual data on graduates rating of IPLA training, the degree of improvement observed in the principal’s leadership and their perceptions of their capacity to bring change in students’ achievement. Of the respondents contacted, 84 percent expressed great satisfaction with the training. None of the respondents expressed total dissatisfaction with the programme. The study concluded that IPLA had continued to have impact on public schools through the training it offers to school principals.

Hallinger and Anast (1992) conducted a study of a similar nature, which explored the nature of professional development conducted by Indiana Principal Leadership Academy. The study examined the degree to which the academy accomplished its goal for administrative leadership training during the four years of its operation. Data was collected through observation, documentation and a series of interviews with the graduates of the academy.

The respondents expressed satisfaction over the quality of instruction and the multi-dimensional approach adopted to achieve the objectives of the learning content in the programme. Respondents appreciated the applicability of knowledge gained and expressed that they preferred the initial presentation of the materials followed by group discussion, which focused on practical aspects of their jobs. The study by Hallinger and Anast (1992) had in essence similar results to that of Hecks (1992), which noted that Indiana Principal Leadership Academy provided safe, supportive learning environment, which fostered a sense of closeness among the programme participants.

Hallinger and Anast (1992) noted that feedback on school-based changes after training was limited and principals considered such a lack of feedback a limitation on their efforts to produce the best results. In spite of the stated limitations, principals declared that because of their training, they could clarify their roles as
instructional leaders and could take risks owing to the confidence, which they had acquired because of training.

The principals also indicated that they perceived themselves as better communicators, role models and felt they were performing in a more professional manner according to the Indiana Principal Leadership Academy conception of Instructional Leadership. They also indicated that they were more flexible in working with members of teaching and support staff as well as being clear in the vision of their schools. Such principals also indicated that they were using intrinsic and extrinsic rewards appropriately because of training.

Wong (1999) noted that the preparation of school principals has become a global concern since the late 1990s. In Hong Kong, the establishment and implementation of school-based management in the 1990s made significant demands on school principals. In 1999, the Government of the Special Administrative Region initiated a leadership development and training programme for serving and aspiring principals after visits to study similar programme in England, Scotland Australia (State of Victoria) and Singapore. The School Management Programme for principals (SMP) was part of the primary refresher training programme run by the Hong Kong Institute of Education (HKIEd) and sponsored by the Department of Education from 1998-2000.

SMP was offered as a three-credit point with 45 direct contact hours. The course programme lasted for five weeks and all the course participants were granted paid study-leave. The enrolment exercise of SMP was open to all serving primary school head teachers including newly appointed ones. Apart from being serving primary school head teachers, there were no further requirements. The various management issues were all focused on educational change in Hong Kong and their allocation of sessions were as follows:

1. Overview,
2. School-Based Management
3. Leadership
4. Team building
5. Communication
6. Motivation
7. Home–School Relations
8. Conflict Management
9. Management of Change
10. Staff Evaluation and Appraisal
11. Staff Development, and
12. Financial resources management.

The programme faced a host of constraints as imposed by the Department of Education; in terms of time, finance and resources. The significance of the Hong Kong programme is that it addresses similar educational realities and challenges as addressed by the Kenyan counterpart institute, Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI).

Although there may be no uniformity in conducting of training programme for managers, Carroll, Paine and Ivancevich (1972:495-509) conducted an opinion survey of 200 training directors of large American companies, which revealed that: (i) for acquisition of knowledge, programmed instruction is the best and lectures are the worst. (ii) For changing trainees’ attitudes sensitivity training is the best, television lectures are the worst. (iii) For increasing trainees’ problem solving skills, case study method is the best but lectures are the worst. (iv) For increasing trainees’ interpersonal skills, sensitivity training is the best but television lectures are the worst. (v) For increasing trainees’ acceptance of the training method; conference (discussion) is the best and television lectures the worst. (vi) For trainees’ retention of knowledge, programmed instruction is the best and television lectures are the worst (Tripathi, 2001:234).
From the foregoing observation, it is very crucial to identify the appropriate training methods so that participants can be assured of gaining the most from training programmes. Identification of appropriate training approaches is vital in view of the fact that adults have different modes of learning compared to youngsters.

Evaluation is an important element in preparation or training programme. Much of the idea of evaluation can be traced to the work of Tyler (1949) who regarded evaluation as an integral part of educational process. Tyler’s rationale postulated three major elements in the educational process: objectives, learning experiences and evaluation. Tyler viewed evaluation primarily as the assessment of learner performance in terms of programme objectives. For Tyler and his followers, evaluation has a crucial role to play in improving education.

According to Spitzer (1999), programme evaluation can help turn training into powerful force that is of value to both the school and the society. Fashola (1999) also observes that evaluation can make programme more effective. However, Draper et al (1995) and other scholars like Freese (1991), Kerr (1992), Ross (1993) have been concerned to define what “effective management training” might actually be in terms of common principles guiding it. In their views, they contend that “effective” can only mean training that brings an improvement in practice, perhaps by changing attitudes, giving insights, confidence, information and the ability to exercise new skills.

Kerr (1992) observes that evaluations at the end of workshops tend to measure more immediate concerns of course members rather than the effect the course might have on long-term performance of participants. Harding (1991) found that changes, which focused on the process of management, that is communication, teamwork and day-to-day relationships of principals, seemed to have been particularly effective. Respondents in a study by Ross (1993) acknowledged that management training had changed their
management styles, but where unable to specify exactly how.

Draper et al (1995) recognised that other factors beyond training may also influence management development. Length of time in the post held, sector, size of the school and gender may influence management development. As such, these variables are examined in the current study to determine whether they might influence secondary school management practices. Yates (1981) points to the difficulties in evaluating the effectiveness of management training because of the absence of coherent evaluation strategy. According to Gorostiaga and Paulston (1999), there are various models or new approaches in training programme evaluation. Most of these models range from outcome to process and among those for outcome evaluation, Kirkpatrick (1994) has developed a four-level framework to evaluate programmes particularly related to management training in terms of reaction, learning (knowledge and attitude), behaviour and results.

According to Kirkpatrick (1994), there are many ways of evaluating a training programme. Completing the comment sheets at the end of a training programme, what programme participants learn, what programme participants change and school results are not separate concerns of evaluation but are all-important elements in evaluating a training programme. Kirkpatrick’s model has been widely used and adapted for use in evaluating training programme as reported by Basarab (1994) and Basarab and Root (1992). According to Bernthal (1995), Kirkpatrick’s model is a classic model and Abernathy (1995) as a supermodel in evaluating leadership training. Despite this, Adams (2001) integrates the model of Kirkpatrick with others and makes evaluation a continuous process with data collected through the pre-programme, during the programme and post-programme stages. Holton (1996) also stresses the importance of primary and secondary influences on outcomes, which means trainees’ ability, motivation and environment.

According to Wong (1999), the School Management Programme could be regarded as bringing about changes in the attitudes and behaviour of participants. The study of (School Management Programme-SMP) also
contributed to better understanding of principals’ training programme at large and in many ways. The views of
the participants clearly illustrated that they preferred to have a programme, which would integrate both
academic and professional elements. On the one hand, participants regarded the programme they attended at
the university as too academic, and on the other hand, they felt the professional or skill-based induction
programme offered by the Training Unit of the Government were inadequate. Even with integrated SMP
programme, which they regarded as excelling the previous programme that they had attended, they suggested
the need to include more elements related to philosophy of education and current reform issues.

The respondents held the view that inclusion of the suggested academic elements would widen the
scope of understanding school management and thus enhance their problem-solving capacities. The
participants’ suggestion of having peer-mentorship by experienced principals was consistent with current
developments in leadership training programme elsewhere. Given the nature of expertise required in training
programme, Cheng’s study (1996) further confirms the view that joint collaboration of the Government,
academics and principals was desirable.

The suggestion made by participants to include elements of philosophy of education in principals’
training programme deserves more attention in developing future principals’ preparation programme. To a
certain extent, it reflected that by academic elements, participants did not simply refer to theories of leadership
and management, but rather something that would help them make moral and ethical decisions in a rapidly
changing society. In this regard, the current direction of principals’ training programme, moving toward a
cultural leadership type and involving a solid understanding of values and ethics, is justified.

The evaluation of the results of the study provides technical insights to help develop principals’
training programme, particularly for principals with limited number of years of principal ship experience.

1) Firstly, according to the findings, principals showed their major incentives of enrolment as:
a) meeting mandatory requirements following promotion;

b) meeting professional needs by gaining insights to handle more effectively challenges or problems in school; and

c) Life-long learning: If these responses reflect general features and needs of principals, both immediate external-driven and internal driven needs of participants have to be considered in attracting enrolments in similar programme. In addition to the mandatory requirement, strategically it makes sense to establish some built-in features in training programme such as the problem-based learning pedagogies and thematic curriculum to attract principals from varying school with diverse needs and problems. Findings of this study have suggested that principals from varying school backgrounds face different problems in their schools. As for the overall, life-long, and professional development of principals, it was also suggested that a comprehensive preparation framework be integrated and balanced with pre-service, induction and in-service programme to better serve the professional needs of all principals. While pre-service training provided them with an initial professional education, induction and in-service training programme are needed to provide support for professional development as principals’ progress through their careers.

2. Secondly, successful elements of a principal’s training programme are identified in this study. Findings of the study suggested some specific elements for success of a training programme. Such elements include:

a) the programme should be theme-based or problem—based;

b) specific content items should be needs driven and relate more to current issues or technical difficulties faced by the course participants;

c) the programme should be professional, linking theory with the practical experiences of participants;
d) teaching strategies should include sharing and discussion or other means that would enhance critical thinking and reflective abilities; and

e) Assignments of the programme should be designed more flexibly and not merely for the sake of assessment. The factor of instructors’ qualifications was also noted among the various factors reported in the study. Both related academic background and practical experience in school administration were regarded as essential requirements for programme instructors. There was also a demand for a network of principals during or after the training programme for further professional development purposes.

f) Other characteristics such as the consultative and interactive process in developing the programme with serving principals, team teaching and small-group teaching, were considered by teaching staff as important elements in contributing to participants’ favourable feedback.

Cheng’s study has direct implications for the present study since it has raised issues of concern that are addressed by the present research. Such issues include: (1) head teachers’ perceptions regarding the content of their training programme in relation to how they perform their administrative and management roles; (2) the most critical aspects of school management that need to be addressed; (3) the most appropriate training approaches for addressing head teachers’ challenges; (4) the qualifications of the programme instructors among other aspects. Chapter four of this study addresses such issues in its report of research findings.

To enhance the acquisition of knowledge, skills and attitudes, Carrel, Paine and Ivancevich (1972:495-509) noted the need to use those methods which causes the interest of trainees’ during the training period, have competent trainers have adequate finances and time so that the training can have the desired impact on the programme participants. According to Tripathi (2001:235), training programme must have a built-in provision for evaluation. Such evaluation dimensions include: (1) Evaluation of contextual facts; which
examines (a) Evaluation of training inputs; (b) Evaluation of training process; (c) Evaluation of training outcome.

**Evaluation of Contextual Factors**

To evaluate the contextual factors, there is need to evaluate the pre-training and post training work. Pre-training work include proposal identification of training needs, developing a criteria of who should be sent for training, how many at a time and in what sequence, helping people to volunteer for training, building expectation for prospective participants from training among other activities. Post-training work includes helping the concerned managers to plan to utilise the participants training and provide the needed support for them, building linkages between training section and the line departments and so on.

**Evaluation of training inputs:** This involves the evaluation of training curriculum and its sequencing.

**Evaluation of training process:** The climate of the training organisation, the relationship between participants and trainers, the general attitudes and of approaches of trainers, training methods, among others are some of the important elements of training process, which also need to be evaluated.

**Evaluation of training outcomes:** Measuring the carry-home of training programme in terms of what has been achieved and how much is the main task of evaluation. This however is a complex technical and professional task. Benefits of training programme are not always obvious and they are not readily measurable. Pay off from training is intangible and rather slow to become apparent. A central problem is the absence of objective criteria and specific definitions of relevant variables by which to measure the effectiveness either of specific programme or of results in terms of general employee development or change in employee behaviours. Nevertheless, good personnel managers do make an effort to appraise systematically the benefits and results of their programme (Tripathi, 2001; 235-236).

As noted above, there is need to determine whether the kinds of programme that head teachers have
been exposed to have had any significant impact on their work behaviours so that the providers of such programme can adjust them accordingly. Such adjustments are necessary because on job related training where the objective is to train people for specific job skills so that their productivity can increase, evaluation can be done either accordingly to direct criterion of increase in output or according to the indirect criteria of decrease in cost, breakage or rejects.

Even more indirect are the measures that point out changes in absenteeism or turnover. The most difficult problems of evaluation lie in the area of human relation’s skills training which is given to supervisor and middle-level managers. Supervisors and managerial training programme are, for this reason, less amenable to objectives review procedures (Tripathi, 2001:236). To ensure professional objective evaluation of training programme, this study will use a number of methods to enhance content and instrument validity.

In-depth reading will enhance content validity so that what school administrators do can be reflected in the questionnaire. Lecturers will also be consulted to determine their perceptions regarding the appropriateness of the both the instrument to be used and the content of what is covered in head teachers’ professional preparation. The focus of the next section is various forms and aspects of evaluation. Most training evaluation method seems to fall into one of the following two categories: (i) Reaction evaluation and (ii) Outcome evaluation.

**Reaction Evaluation:** These involve: (i) Opinion surveys of participants or of people who have been the participants in action are reaction evaluations there are several variations of this method. (ii) Questionnaires given to the participants at the end of the programme that asked respondents to rate programme in terms of their perceptions regarding what they liked best, what was liked least and any other comments that one may have about the programme. (iii) Sometimes, scalar ratings are also given against every question and the trainee is required to check off the degree of satisfaction, which he found in each answer. (iv) Participants are required
to give daily rating for each segment of the programme. One advantage of this method is that it provides the
training manager an immediate feedback, which he can use for the adjustment and improvement of the
following day’s programme. (v) Sometimes, a management representative may drop around during a coffee
break and by putting questions to one or two participants informally collect information about the success of
the training programme.

In cases where researchers do not design samples scientifically, the results may not always be
accurate. (vi) Sometimes participants may be asked to send their opinions by mail on reaching their
organisations. The theory here is that opinions given immediately at the conclusion of the course cannot
possibly have the objectivity, which is not only desirable but also necessary in the appraised of the programme.

Reaction evaluation: though to some extent valuable, it does not take managers of training programme far
in understanding the impact of such programme. In light of the foregoing observations, scholars pay more
serious attention to outcome evaluation than other aspects of evaluation. Outcome evaluation deals with the
following forms of evaluation namely:

**Immediate Evaluation:** This measures improvement in learning (skills, knowledge and altitudes) of trainees
soon after they have finished training. Skill learning can be measured by performance test; information re-calls
test or problem solving exercises, which can be used to gauge knowledge. Devices such as attitude scales, role-
playing, simulations, and critical incident cases among others; which may throw light on the trainees’ progress
in attitude learning are used.

**Intermediate Evaluation:** Measures changes in behaviours of trainees when they have returned to their
jobs. The assumption here is that if positive transfer has taken place from training to the job, situation it
should be reflected in trainees’ improved behaviour.

**Ultimate Evaluation:** Measures changes in the ultimate results achieved by trainees. For this purpose,
indexes of productivity, labour turnover, absenteeism, accidents, grievances quality control are taken as the ultimate results achieved by the trainees (Tripathi, 2001:237).

In a school setting, this would mean that effective teaching and learning are taking place since schools exist principally for that purpose (Campbell et al 1983: 4). Oyaya (2001:12) quotes Cattey (1954) who noted that the essence of education is to ensure healthy physical and mental development by making pupils to be imaginative, unselfish people, capable of thought, sympathetic conduct and ability to act in accordance with self-impose ideals and acquired tests. A training programme therefore will be deemed successful if it has enhanced the capacity of the institutional head to realise the stated ideals, among others.

Evaluation of training programme on a summative way can be done through, (I) Controlled experimentation (ii) before and after experimentation, and (iii) after the training study. For evaluation to be effective, Tripathi (2001: 238) advocates the following principles: (I) Evaluation must be planned- what is to be evaluated, when by what means, and by whom must be determined in advance. (ii) Evaluation must be objective- It must not be a mere eyes wash- an attempt by the trainer to vindicate the programme instead of verifying it. (iii) Evaluation must be verifiable- Results can be confirmed by the same or different means. (iv) Evaluation must be co-operative- it must involve all those who are part of or affected by the training and development programme. It is not a contest between the evaluation and the subject of evaluation. (v) Evaluation must be continuous it is not a once-and for all activity but there is need for regular appraisal of the programme to ensure they are in line with the current needs and aspirations of the client group. (vi) Evaluation must be specific- it should tell specific strength and weaknesses and should not make vague generalisations. (vii) Evaluation must be quantititative. (viii) Evaluation must be feasible- It must be administrative manageable. (ix) Evaluation must be cost-effective- that the result must be commensurate with the costs incurred.

The essence of evaluation is to determine whether the pre-determined, training programme
objectives are being realised. If not, adjustment can be made so that the training can fulfil the participants’
expectations by enhancing their capacity through increased knowledge, honed professional skills and better
attitude towards students, teachers, parents and the school community.

The purpose of evaluating any training programme is to ensure that it is aligned with the realities of
work place and thereby address their key issues of concern. It is in light of the foregoing that the next section
examines competencies associated with effective secondary school head teachers.

2.5 Competencies Associated with Effective Head teachers:

It is not very easy to determine whether an officer is effective unless we first analyse the tasks
performed by such an officer and in what period. Ubben and Hughes (1997), Kalra (1997) and Walker (1990)
found the competency indicators in the skill areas of problem analysis, judgment, and organisational ability,
competence in oral and written communication, decisiveness, leadership, sensitivity, stress tolerance,
motivation and creativity as the key indicators of effectiveness among high school principals. Most of these
observations stem from the competence-based management.

Reynolds (1991) in observing the need for flexible leadership notes that the changed nature of
leadership and management tasks will complicate the future of the school effectiveness movement. The stated
changes will definitely be more associated with effective school principals. Among the anticipated changes are:
(I) A heightened public relations or marketing orientation and an ability to sell the product. (ii) The capacity to
relate to parents. (iii) The capacity to find sources of support in the community; (iv)The capacity to manage
rapid change, not to manage a steady state orientation; (v)The capacity to motivate staff in times when
instrumental rewards like promotion are rare; (vi)The capacity to relate to pupils, since the wave of
consumerism will increasingly involve consumer opinion surveys with pupils. To be able to cope with changed
situations where students need to be treated as consumers who have to be listened to, head teachers will
require a major paradigm shift. The paradigm shift will demand skill training not only on the head teacher, but also on the entire teaching and non-teaching staff. The evidence for difficulties in management of change exists, suggesting a crop of managers who are stuck in the past.

Wolcott (1973:1972) in an ethnographic study of one elementary principal found that school principals performed “almost endless services”. The underlying implication of these findings is that head teachers are usually very busy officers who have to move from one task to another and hence the endless services and interactions. Blumberg and Greenfield (1980:198) conducted in depth studies of four elementary and four secondary school principals and produced eight case studies concluding, “The principal is interpersonal competencies, particularly those relating to establishing and maintaining identities, are highly correlated to performance both for the effective and less effective principal”.

Time pressure, mediation of conflicting expectations and the interruption of work by immediate demands and problems characterises the principal’s role. Peterson (1981:2-6) in another observation study of urban elementary schools found that their day consist of short tasks, “some times several hundred separate activities with a wide range of individual with differing cognitive demands”. This fragmentation of daily work activities makes for ambiguity in the role. Other sources of ambiguity as noted by March (1978:228) are: lack of clarity of educational goals, lack of understanding of differing effects of educational technology and lack of identifiable cause and effect factors in educational process. If a head teacher is hopping from one activity to another, chances are that such a head teacher has little appreciation for time management and is inclined to do that which comes naturally rather than making deliberate effort to plan and organise what is to be done and when.

According to Morris et al (1980), Blumberg and Greenfield (1980), principals have a great deal of leeway in making decisions. The principals in the studies carried out indicated that their jobs were high in
independent thought and action. They also indicated that they experienced self-fulfilment, prestige, opportunity to help others, and job security (Byrne, Hines and Mc Cleary 1978:23) postulate that even though the general role functions are similar throughout the types of schools, the principals enjoy wide latitude in performing each task and using their own discretion in each function.

Effective principals tend to be able to cope with demanding schedules (Morris et al 1981:217-220). They find a variety of ways to handle task (Mc Cleary and Thomson, 1979:17) and they use a variety of approaches for developing uniqueness in their roles (Salley, et al 1975:97) and they exhibit different relationship styles (Kunz and Hoy 1976:49-64). According to a report on school reform by Us Education Department in Kalra (1997:24), effective principals are indicated as the ones who can tailor reforms to their schools, [they are] open to discovery, develop comprehensive educational plan for guiding reform; arrange extra training of staff to plan and carry out reform; have good relationship with the management and have values such as patience.

Mayhew (1974) enumerated the skills that are required for principals’ effectiveness as: (i) Peer skills: the ability to build a network of contacts with one’s equals; (ii) Leadership skills: the ability to motivate subordinates and cope with complications of authority, power and dependence; (iii) Conflict resolution skills: the ability to mediate conflict, handle disturbances, and work under psychological stress; (iv) Information processing skills: the ability to build networks, extract and validate information, to disseminate information effectively; (v) Skills in unstructured decision making: the ability to redefine problems and find solutions for which information and objectives are igneous; (vi) Resource allocation skills: the ability to decide on resource allocation, including allocation of time; (vii) Entrepreneurial skills: the ability to make sensible decisions and implement innovations and; (viii) Skills of introspection: the ability to understand the position of the manager and its impact on the organisation.
In discussing types of schools and what makes some schools to be regarded as good based on the Kenyan context, the inspectorate handbook (2000: viii ) gives two categories of schools in regard to their effectiveness. Although the categorisation may not be based no any research findings, it makes observation which can be subject for research. According to Republic of Kenya (2000: 29), two types of schools exist; i.e. the moving schools and stuck schools with the following characteristics:

**Table 2.5.1 Characteristics of Moving and stuck Schools:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Characteristics of Moving schools:</th>
<th>Characteristics of Stuck schools:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shared goals and values</td>
<td>Little indication of or attachment to shared goals or values.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collaboration of staff and pupils</td>
<td>Poor interpersonal relations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partnership between the school and the community</td>
<td>Lack of effective relations between the community and the school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desire for improvement</td>
<td>Contentment with status quo.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Air of optimism</td>
<td>Air of fatalism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Collective approach to change</td>
<td>Individual approach to improvement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dynamism high degree of staff and pupil activity</td>
<td>A passive attitude to management, teaching and learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective communication between staff, pupils and parents</td>
<td>Ineffective communication evidenced by sitting on key information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Desire to improve all pupils with attention to their specific needs</td>
<td>A homogenised approach to teaching and learning, focused on getting the majority through exams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attention to the needs of the whole person</td>
<td>A mechanical approach to education focussed on pushing pupils through examinations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From the foregoing observations, it is evident that the head teachers’ leadership is very crucial in making either a moving (progressive) or a stuck school (deteriorating). A school head needs to be adequately prepared to offer excellent and exemplary leadership. After examining the effects of schooling in England, Rutler, and et al. (1979:203-4) asserted: “The influence of the Head teacher (principal) is very considerable... our observations indicated that no one style was associated with better outcomes. Indeed it was noticeable that the Heads of successful schools took widely differing approaches.”

It is important to note that we cannot talk of one airtight approach to role performance for all
situations. Situations may dictate the approach. Since interpersonal relations make up such a large part of the principal’s workday, and since the expectations, one has of others is an element in how one chooses to perform in role, interpersonal skills become important.

Lacey (1981:63) compared Bank managers, Government Agency Managers, Mental health Directors, Directors of nursing and school principals on nine interpersonal skills. Interestingly, respondents rated school principals as the highest of all Managers on ‘express warmth and concern’, second on managers conflict, well consideration of others, shares relevant feelings well, expresses self worth and assertiveness. Principals rated lowest of all Managers on ‘receives feedback well’. In view of the foregoing observations, head teachers need exposure to those experiences, which can enhance their interpersonal skills in order to be effective interpersonal skill managers. Bauck (1987) compared two groups of principals; one being a random sample of public and private middle school principals, and the other a sample of effective principals to analyse the individual and group variables which account for principals’ success. The findings indicated that effective principals:

a) Have a very positive outlook of their work;
b) Experience higher job satisfaction;
c) View problems as surmountable;
d) Are more teacher oriented;
e) Are more eager to use time efficiently disregarding interfering matters;
f) Seek more parents and community participation.

Linda et al. (1987:72-76) reported an evaluation of comparative studies of highly effective and moderately effective principals. The findings showed that the outstanding principals: (I) Develop and maintain a healthy climate in which to work and learn; (ii) Emphasize good instruction; (iii) Regard personnel evaluation as good means of instructional improvement; (iv) Seek means to help their staff members to grow professionally; (v) communicate effectively with staff members, students and the community; (vi) Exercise
honesty and straightforwardness in communication rather than withholding information; (vii) They know and accept their own strengths and limitations; (viii) Recognise and reinforce others who do outstanding work.

Hoyle (1989) used the three technical skills postulated by Katz (1955) in describing categories of effective school administrators (school superintendents). The three technical skills are: human relations skills, technical skills and conceptual skills. Hoyle visualises a high degree of democratisation as an emerging feature and considers that efficient school superintendents as requiring a healthy measure of self-respect as well as respect for others, strong skills in persuasion and good status with the community leaders. School administrators would be required to practise integrity and honesty in their professional dealings. Hoyle (1989) noted that with increase in availability of technological support to education, the school superintendents will require a large repertoire of instructional strategies, uses of other technological innovations like micro-computer, interactive television and other innovations. Technical skills include expertise in the process of learning, analysis of instructional process and its classroom application of research findings on human cognition. The school superintendents would be required to deal with a large number of complex issues confronting technological and pluralistic society. In light of such challenges, educational administrators are required to be creative in order to translate ideas into practical solutions to the existing challenges.

In following the model formulated by Katz, (1955) Baker (1989) conceptualised the role of the principal into technical, managerial and institutional. Baker considers decision making as the key role of principals. The functions of principals are analysed in line with the classical management thought acronym, - P.O.S.D.C.O.R.B. The acronym stands for planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting. Ubben and Hughes (2002) Satibir (1989) have categorised the leadership approaches of secondary school principals into four categories: authoritative, consultative, administrative, and participative. Owens (1991), Ubben and Hughes (2002) have also averred that there is also use of transformational leadership.
Oyaya (2001:5) quotes Lezote and Levine who in their efforts to arrive at effective schools posit that such schools ensure: (i) Productive school climate and culture (e.g. orderly environment, staff cohesion, problem solving orientation). (ii) Focus on student acquisition of knowledge (e.g. maximum time, mastery of skills.) (iii) Appropriate monitoring of student progress. (iv) Practice-oriented staff development at school site. (v) Salient parent involvement. (vi) Effective instructional arrangements and implementation (e.g. grouping, pacing, materials). (vii) Highly operationalised expectations and requirements for students. (viii) Student sense of efficacy. (ix) Multicultural instruction and sensitivity to learners’ needs. (x) Rigorous and equitable student promotion policies.

According to Chhaya (1989), a successful principal is the one who develops human resources, conducts PTA meetings, manages timetable, provides opportunities for staff development, and inspires team spirit as well as general office management. In view of the plethora of literature on what school principals are supposed to be effective, a number of salient points emerge. Effective school principals do the same things as those done by their counterparts who are in schools that are lowly rated in terms of effectiveness and efficiency. The only difference is that principals on highly effective schools are more focussed on goal achievement, everything is meticulous planned and nothing happens by chance.

Although the above observations need to be keenly taken into account, it would be expecting too much from secondary school head teachers to require them to manage curriculum and instruction, student and staff personnel, physical and learning resources using limited resources. Requiring head teachers to manage schools without the appropriate training and appropriate experience would further aggravate their management approaches.

To be able to realise the stated characteristics of schools, there is need to have head teachers who are adequately socialised and trained in organisational management. Such training and improvement skill
programme should focus on the key areas of their operations as school leaders. A number of research studies in
the Kenyan setting have indicated that financial management, school business operations, human and public
relations, and legal aspects of Education are key areas of critical concern to secondary school head teachers.
The next section deals with priority areas of training for school administrators.

2.6 Priority Training Areas for School Managers and Administrators:

The position of a head teacher is very demanding because of the numerous expectations and the
demands placed upon the office. Njuguna (1998:4) noted that teachers expect the head teachers to demonstrate
friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in their relationship in order to gain commitment and co-
operation. Teachers further expect head teachers to afford them recognition, current information, opportunity
for growth and development, effective supervision and treatment as human beings (Fox and Schwartz, 1965 in
Njuguna, 1998:4). Such demands require an educational administrator per excellence who provides an enabling
environment for effective task performance by all the members of teaching and non-teaching staff.

Kochhar (1978:125) supports the view by asserting that the tone and the efficiency of a school
depend mainly on the ability, skills, personality and professional competence of the school principal. In
essence, a head teacher is required to offer educational leadership as noted by Roe and Drakes (1974:67) who
observe, “The head of a school is viewed from every quarter as being the leader of that school. The board of
education hires him/her to lead. The community holds him or her responsible if he or she does not lead”.

Training for educational leadership is a central facet in educational institutions since the leadership
provided affects all aspects of an educational institution. Fiedler (1967:4) asserts that in any organization,
skilled leadership is required to reconcile and utilize constructively different abilities, viewpoints, attitudes and
ideas in the performance of group tasks. Head teachers therefore, are expected to be highly skilled teachers in
order to be effective in realizing school goals. Krammer (1973) in a study to determine the needs of elementary
principals and vice principals for leaderships in California’s San metro county, found that majority of the
principals gained their expertise from on-the-job experience. There was great dissatisfaction with their level
of preparation and as a result, Krammer (1973) recommended further training for principals to enable them to
perform their roles more effectively.

The same lack of adequate preparation for educational administration has been evident through
research studies and expert opinion as noted by studies conducted by Saben (1972), Orwa (1986), Olembo
(1977), Okumbe (1987), Lodiaga and Olembo (1991) and Koech (1994). In a study to determine the preparedness
of educational administrators, Joshi (1974) noted that the increasing concern to improve education had been
directed at improving educational administrator. Unlike most of the developing countries where administrators’
preparatory programmes are erratic, it was noted that developed countries like United States of America and
Canada have a systematic preparation of educational administrators. The study developed a model relevant to
meet school administrators’ crucial needs in India. The challenges that made professional preparation of school
administrators necessary were communalism, growth in population, unemployment and urban migrations. The
study called for addressing of such conditions to realise an effective school system in India (Joshi, 1974: 2583).

In a similar training model for primary and secondary school principals in Zimbabwe, Hove
(1979:26) aptly states that school administrators need a high conceptual ability and technical knowledge to
enable them to contend with the numerous challenges, which stem from their jobs. Hove (1979:26) further
noted that educational administrators’ chief concerns include responsibilities in supervision of instructional
programme, dealing with personnel matters, handling school business affairs, physical resources,
administering auxiliary services and managing a network of information within the school system and the
public at large. In observing the central role that educational administrators play, Mbiri (1974:48) notes that
effectiveness of a school mainly depends on the head teachers.
To become an effective school administrator, thorough training aimed at enhancing the head teachers’ professional proficiency is mandatory. Such training has to focus on priority areas of administrators’ challenges. Kroll (1975) investigated training levels and experiences that junior high principals had acquired in preparation for their administrative roles.

The study, conducted among principals in southern California contacted 234 principals using a two-page questionnaire. The findings indicated a need to establish continuing education in a bid to meet existing needs of school principals. The study indicated the need for professional development agencies to assume the responsibility of updating education existed in the management of school finances specifically in the sub-area of budget preparation, budget presentation to school committees, inventory management, accounting procedures, purchasing methods and projection of required facilities and equipment (Kroll, 1975).

Management of school finances continues to be a key area of concern in the Kenyan settling as research and expert opinion have pointed out. Orwa (1986), Olembo (1977), Morumbasi (1993), Koech (1994), Kalai (1998), Irung’u (2002) and recent audit reports and findings of the Presidential Efficiency Monitoring Unit have raised concerns of financial mismanagement.

Pinkcompee (1978) investigated the perceived training needs of secondary school principals in Thailand and the preferred techniques of meeting such needs. The respondents selected and ranked areas for further in-service educational as staff personnel services, curriculum and instruction, school business and management, school law, pupil personnel services, school community relationships, school plant, planning for facilities and human relations (Pinkcompee, 1978).

Yglesias (1978) conducted a study whose findings indicated that there are certain characteristics, behaviour and abilities, which head teachers, should possess to be competent school administrators. Pinkcompee (1978) cited such competencies and qualities as human relations, effective communication, public
relations, sincerity, intelligence, compliance, organizational knowledge, educational level and political orientation. It is in light of the stated competencies and attributes that this study will examine / identify characteristics of effective schools, as they perceive them.

A study by Bundy (1973) indicated that school principals required training in order to establish a plan for accountability for the school district, initiating curriculum study, implementing effective public relations, gaining a better understanding of professional negotiations and developing of professional negotiations and developing a staff organisation plan for implementing educational objectives of the school. The issues raised in the study by Bundy (1973) may have some similarity with what is happening in Kenya.

Head teachers are the key curriculum implementers through their supervision of teaching and learning process. A study by Okumbe (1987) found that to discharge the duties of supervision, it is also important to have trained head teachers who can set goals and objectives for their institutions and devise the appropriate mechanisms of implementation of such plans. Green (1976) in a study to identify the basic competencies perceived to be essential for successful performance of principal ship identified a need for competency training in human relations, communication, personnel management, evaluation, pupil control, fiscal matters, legal orientation, curriculum and instruction, central office relationship, students’ activities, school plant organisation and control. The study noted that the cited areas for training differed slightly based on educational systems and location.

Mohammed (1981) in a study to determine secondary school principals’ in-service needs in (Sabah) Malaysia found that such principals had a need for self- advancement both academically and professionally. The principals indicated that they had handicaps in educational administration and expressed a desire for remedial measures. The study pointed out the prioritised short-term needs as dealing with financial instructions, school statistics, staff establishment and education media. This study will seek the head teachers’ training profiles,
perceived training needs, and preferred approaches of meeting such needs.

Castruita (1982 in D.A.I: 2684) in a related study on the changing roles of secondary school principals discovered that competencies in personnel, selection, teacher performance evaluation, staff motivation, problem solving techniques, positive climate development, knowledge of various curricular areas, decision making process and techniques of open communication were rated as very important to secondary school principals.

The changing role of secondary school principals necessitated more skills in administration. The study observed that training needs were not being adequately used to equip the site managers during their residential training programme for school administration. For effective task performance, there is need for positive climate development and staff motivation in order to realise the goal of teaching and learning. It is also imperative to establish appropriate evaluation mechanisms, clear communication processes and have appropriate decision-making approaches. Such administrative behaviour is likely to reduce tensions between head teachers, students and members of teaching and non-teaching staff.

Turvold (1979: 3691) investigated the professional growth needs of Hawaii public school principals and vice-principals. The study also examined the preferred professional growth methods. A descriptive study was conducted by use of a questionnaire that had been validated by a panel. The study found similarity in professional growth needs between principals and vice-principals. Professional growth needs were perceived for the content areas of curriculum and instruction programme leadership and management, classified personnel administration and student personnel services.

A moderate need for professional growth was disclosed for financial and physical resources, school community relationships and auxiliary functions. It was recommended that state department of education and graduate training institutions should work together to provide a plan for professional development activities.
District site short-term workshops and guest speaker programme were the preferred methods for meeting training needs by the study respondents. In a study to determine the needs of public school principals in Thailand, Tongpradista (1983) noted that principals have the decision-making responsibility in management tasks. Principals perceived a greater training need in human relations, technical and conceptual skills than the cases were with other areas. Among the approaches of training used were the Ministry of Education training programme, experiential activities and workshops. Adkison (1983) in a study on in-service education priorities for professional development of secondary school administrators found that the significance of training needs seemed to be task oriented and directly related to principals’ job roles. Major differences emerged when contrasting the training needs of administrators in urban areas with those administrators in “out-state” areas.

Macharia (1992:92) in a study on strengthening of management initiative capacities at the local level noted that head teachers are the forces behind improved education. This is because they have to establish a working relationship between teachers, students and the local community. They also influence the organisational climate of their schools and ultimately determine the students’ performance.

Nxumalo (1992:61) indicated a strong correlation between the quality of school management and public achievement in national examinations supports this position. Although studies are not conducive on the extent to which school management affects the quality of results in examinations, it is plausible to suggest that effective school management is a prerequisite to any effective teaching and learning in an institution.

Maranga (1993:19) argues along the same lines and attributes a great deal of ineffectiveness and inefficiency in education that is so common in African countries to lack of formal preparation for educational administrators. In the same, view, Ogunniyi (1974:39) views training as “the single most important factor in improving educational systems in Africa. He postulates the need for training in educational administration because: (I) School heads need to involve various groups in decision-making; (ii) Improve efficiency in
distribution of materials; (iii) Organise and effectively collect vital school statistics; (iv) Provide educational facilities; and (v) Organise meetings with different groups and adopt new methods to improve the general school effectiveness.

School administrators face difficult challenges and harrowing times during their first-year of service. Holcomb (1989) assessed the orientation, the in-service and the support provided to principals in their first year of practice and their perceptions of its adequacy. A descriptive survey method was used in which a sample of 50 principals drawn from each of the nine geographic zones, for representative national sample of 450 respondents. The overall response rate was 54.7 percent. The survey instrument design was based in the twenty-seven proficiencies identified in the literature review as essential for success of a beginning principal. Subjects were asked to rate the overall perception of adequacy of the support provided for them and to specifically rate the importance of each proficiency and support they received for it.

Respondent were asked to rate the overall perception of the adequacy of support provided for them and to specifically rate the importance of each proficiency in terms of format and sponsor and identify one type of support they would recommend. Only 14.3 per cent gave the desired response indicating overall satisfaction with the support they received. Human relations’ skills topped the list of the most important of the skills they received while such skills received the least support. University was the preferred method for training principals in such areas as delegation of duties, decision-making and time management. District discussion groups were recommend in acquiring skills for building rapport with parents, teachers, students, community in building esprit de-corps (Holcomb, 1989).

In an effort to ascertain the aspects of principals jobs that presented problems different from those attributed to lack of preparation, school context or location; (Aitken (1992) cited in Morumbasi (1993) examined how principals viewed their various tasks and activities in terms of management and leadership distinction.
The findings of the study indicated that few head teachers were trained in fiscal and analytical matters. The principals stated that they least enjoyed financial responsibilities because of perceived lack of adequate preparation. There was a further indication that the weight of responsibilities did not correspond to the preparation that principals received in some areas of school management. Management of school finances has been repeatedly cited as a major challenge that school principals have to contend with by such scholars as Kroll (1975), Green (1976) and Pinkcompee (1978) while human relations is ranked a close second.

Rice (1984) designed a model for in-service for preparing secondary school administrators to be effective instructional supervisors. The model aimed at:

(a) Enhancing head teachers’ commitment to personnel professional growth and that of those who the school head is working with;

(b) Improve interpersonal skills in the areas of human relations and communication in the areas of human relations and communication

(c) Develop repertoire of instructional strategies,

(d) Improves head teachers’ planning, teaching and evaluation process and

(e) Equip administrators with the ability to plan for change and provide appropriate working environment.

To realise the stated objectives, there is need for continuous training and professional development activities. Wagman (1976) stressed that it is unrealistic to assume that a level of preparation in educational administration attained at a given time is adequate for all situations at all times during a professional career. It is important to provide experiences, which can effectively assist the trained professional to modify behaviour and obtain knowledge for contemporary society with its new technology as well as ensuring revitalization of educational systems from their lethargic state. Secondary school head teachers are operating in time of constant changes and there is a dire need for adequate training to cope with the current pressures that educational
Institutions have to go through.

In stressing the crucial role played by training programme, Ogunniyi (1974:38) notes, “the only panacea for educational administrative problems that for a long time have bedevilled Africa is only through training of educational administrators”. Training must not precede the identification of training needs. To train appropriately, the training programme in place must address the challenges faced in the field. In light of this, the next section examines research finding on preferred training approaches by secondary school head teachers. This is because of head school are adult learners and they must be trained in ways which appeal to them so that they can put into practice what they have gathered from the training programme.

2.7 Educational Managers and Administrators’ Preferred Training Approaches

Bundy (1973) in a study to establish in-service needs and education practices among selected Illinois school districts superintendents, found that training needs of such superintends varied according to the district served. The study recommended reflection of such differences during administrations’ training programme. School administrators cited heavy work schedules as the main hindrance to attendance of in-service training programme. The study recommended reinforcement of pre-service experiences for effective in-service (Bundy, 1973: 6610)

A study by Kroll (1975: 70) indicated a need to establish continuing education to meet the needs of school principals. Principals’ Professional societies were challenged to assume the responsibility of updating the needs of their members. Operation among state departments of education and universities was recommended. Respondents preferred handling of topics by experts through workshops and professional societies were the preferred sponsors while university lecture theatres were the preferred location (venue).
Research findings have raised the issue of co-operation between state sponsored departments of education and public universities in many different countries.

In the Kenyan setting, Okumbe (1987) recommended the affiliation of Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) to a public university so that the institute can benefit from the staff in the Department of Educational Administration and Planning. Research findings are far from conclusive on the preferred training approaches by secondary school administrators.

Ewen (1977) in a study to determine the required changes in in-service education for employees holding managerial positions found that programme participants valued their involvement in structuring of in-service programme. They also showed preference for conferences. Visiting other areas and participating in professional society activities were the most preferred approaches to training and acquisition of administrative expertise. From the stated sentiments, it is evident that programme participants value their involvement in programme design and evaluation. Involvement in design and programme evaluation is crucial for it develops a sense of ownership of the programme and hence giving moral and material support to the training programme.

Dix (1980) carried out a study to determine whether there were significant differences between principals’ need for continuing education to facilitate decision-making. The study revealed a great need for continuing education. Much as the university programmes were not highly rated as a vehicle for preparing competent school administrators, a need was expressed to use them for continuing education.

The study recommended a need for universities to have client tailored programme, which can address the challenges that are being faced in the field by educational administrators. In light of this, the school-based Masters of Education in Administration programme in some of Kenya public universities are laudable. This is because such programmes allow teachers to acquire skills and knowledge for school administration while they continue with their jobs, a factor, which leads to immediate use of the acquired
knowledge for those who are in the field of administration.

Rolithah (1981) in an in-service training model for educational administrators noted that there was wide spread obsolescence of previously learnt skills. Such obsolesce dictated a need for systematic, comprehensive, task oriented professional development of education administrators’ within the contemporary system. This recommendation recognized the need for client tailored programme in order to enable educational administrators to face their field challenges confidently. Such exposure should be done regardless of administrative experience of the administrator and the age of such an officer. Donaldson (1987) in a study to determine the main approaches of improving principal-ship noted that there was a main trend in administrators in-service, which puts emphasis in professionalism through facilitation and strengthening of strategies such as peer working, collegial co-operation and residential programme. Such approaches provide on going interaction, which helps to reduce the isolation of principals and encourage the development of common beliefs, knowledge and values. An example of the novel approach to staff development is the Maine principals’ Academy in which everything ranging from programme development, delivery of programme content and evaluation was carried out solely by the principals. The success of the Maine principals’ Academy was an evidence for principals’ self-propelled professional growth in the locale where the in-service centre was operating. This approach is beneficial because it allows school administrators to have programme objectives that are related to the principals’ perceptions of their training needs.

Beck (1987) conducted a study on principals’ perceptions of the skills required in the performance of their jobs. The study used questionnaires to collect data aimed at obtaining perceptions on four aspects related to principal-ship. Such aspects were source of expertise, skills necessary for the success of expertise, levels of expertise of the respondents in each of the identified skills and the adequacy of preparation received before appointment. Findings showed that on the job experience and common sense were the most important sources
of expertise among the respondents. University programme and experience outside the field of education rated as the least important sources of expertise. The respondents identified campus leadership, instructional leadership and interpersonal relations as the most important skills. Skills rated the lowest in importance were curriculum development, physical plant management, and budgeting and financial skills. The respondents perceived that the level of expertise matched the perceived necessity of that skill but that such expertise was lacking from university programme.

Ogunniyi (1974:40) made a similar observation that university programme are not very effective in meeting educational administrators’ needs because of their being either too narrow or being too academically inclined. The present study will seek secondary school headaches’ perceptions on preferred approaches of obtaining administrative expertise. In a study to determine the types of preparation of new principals, Holcomb (1989) found only 14.3 per cent who indicated overall satisfaction with the support they received in their first year as principals. Respondents expressed preference for self-initiated reading, university courses, district-sponsored peer support, relationship with subordinate, predecessors, workshops, formal mentors and professional associations. University courses were the preferred method of acquiring skills for task analysis in delegation, decision-making and time management.

The study recommended district discussion groups in acquiring skills for building rapport with parents, teachers, students, community relations and building esprit de corps. It is imperative to establish factors that are necessary for effective training of secondary school head teachers.

Grant (1970) developed a model for in-service training programme for secondary school principals. The study enumerated some factors, regarded as very crucial for effective in-service training programme. Such factors include (a) flexibility in content and training activity (b) readiness of the participants (c) democratic organization; (d) active participation of the participants; (e) appropriate physical conditions (f)
individualization; (g) intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and (h) dynamic leadership and application through follow-up activities. It is important to ensure that in-service training programme follows some stipulated requirements for effective training.

Rice (1984) explored the in-service practices for potential educational administrators by examining the programme characteristics, procedures and content of the school district administrations’ programme. It emerged from the study that such programme were aimed at contributing to individual growth, develop competent administrators, and increase the talent pool of administrators as well as creating an understanding of organizational goals and procedures.

The study identified lecture method, group discussion and observation as the main techniques used for preparing educational administrators in the school district. In light of these sentiments, it is important to spot talented individuals and training them for educational administration rather than using on-the-job train as a technique for acquiring expertise for effective administrative performance. The short-coming with learning on the job is that too costly mistakes can be done which may be incorrigible given that education administrators deal with youngsters who are at their impressionable stage.

Walden (1982) conducted a study to determine whether six days of intensive training done throughout the year could change attitudes and change pedagogical practitioners to be andragogy practitioners and yet remain effective teachers. The findings were that there were significant improvements in knowledge among participants on the twenty out of the twenty-six items on the specific and general knowledge areas. Given the findings of study, the present study will determine the desired training approaches by Kenyan secondary school principals so that they can run a breast with the current trends in education and adjust to the current information-technology-based management.

A study by Fults (1989) corroborates the view that there is significant relationship between
involvement in programme design and evaluation and its perceived effectiveness. Supporting such sentiments, Jonasson (1993: 18-21) contends that change will occur more readily in a training programme if those whom it targets understand the need for it and make a commitment to change by providing the necessary material and moral support. In understanding the necessity for consulting programme participants on their professional development activities, Loacker (1993:38-40) postulates that adults learn differently from youngsters and recommends taking into account principles behind adult learning before in-service programme can have their intended impact. Such principles include voluntary participation, respect among participants, co-operation among leaders and learners, encouraging and fostering critical reflection, self-directed learning, and building upon learners’ experience.

In a study to determine the preferred training approaches by school principals, respondents indicated that networking was the most effective form of in-service model because it solicited for and encouraged participants’ inputs and sharing among colleagues. The least effective mode of in-service was the state sponsored institutes, which were perceived to be merely prescriptive in outlook participants indicating that they only took university courses only to meet certification requirements mandated by the employers. Many principals indicated that they had attended institutes and academics because of their perceived need for professional growth. They also felt they could learn specific skills, which were a requirement for their jobs (Daresh, 1988).

Fullan (1991:141) states the major objective behind any training is foster specific alteration of attitudes, which can only be realised if programme personnel and participants have a solid understanding of dynamics of change. Green (1976) in determining the prime competencies used in the training of junior high school principals in the state of Washington used a seven–point-Likert scale to determine the manner of acquisition of such competencies. Graduate course work, pre-service teaching experience, experience as a
principal, administrative internship, independent study and in-service training programme were the preferred ways of acquiring competencies for principal-ship.

Hallinger and Anast (1992: 410-430) in a study to determine principals’ perceptions of the adequacy of Indiana principals leadership Academies found that principals expressed satisfaction over the quality of instruction and multi-media approach adopted to achieve the content of the programme. Respondents appreciated the practicability of the knowledge that they gained and indicated their preference of initial presentation of materials followed by group discussion, which focused on practical applications.

Murphy and Hallinger (1989) provided a synopsis of current shifts in the training of school administrators. They noted that the newer programme reflected more diversification in approach and there was a willingness to redefine the delivery models and develop new ones. There is also a difference in the venue of training programme to include the school site, regional and special centres. The role of the learners is being re-examined and redefined to make learners more inclusive. More learners are contributing significantly to the training content and they are playing a key role through networking and collaborating. Efforts are being made to engage in self-evaluation leading to discarding of irrelevant practices and embracing of new effective ones.

In a study to determine educational administration concepts and practices Lurenberg and Orrstein (1991) submitted that professional developers should take into account the fact that skill variety, task identity, task significance and autonomy are essential to principal’s job enrichment. They believe that these factors affect the participants’ critical psychological states and determine the outcomes of a professional development programme.

Barth (1990) posits that in-service can be an effective staff development tool as long as there is consultation and co-operation between the planners and target groups of in-service programme. In addition, programme content needs to have clearly defined goals reflecting and building upon experiences and should be
backed by research. Having examined the various approaches that are used in training of educational administrators, it is fitting to examine variables that may affect educational administrators perceived training needs. This is because there are assumptions that are made on some variables that may contribute to some significant or insignificant differences.

According to Ubben and Hughes (1997:14-15), effective and client-tailored administrative training programmes if well executed can enable secondary school head teachers to exhibit the following management practices (forms of administrative behaviour):

1) Create a constancy of purpose for improvement of products and services. This means that the focus will be on helping students to reach their maximum potential by providing a basis for students and teachers to work together continuously to improve.

2) Adopt a new philosophy. Continuous improvement will occur through greater empowerment of teacher student teams. Instructional decisions and decisions regarding scope and sequence of learning events are to be joint efforts involving all stakeholders.

3) Cease dependence on mass inspection to achieve quality. Using test scores as the primary way to assess student achievement and progress is wasteful and frequently unreliable. The end of a unit or term is too late to assess student [learning] process. Tests should be diagnostic to help prescribe new learning events rather than summarise evidence of achievement of short-term goals. Students too, should be taught to assess their own work and progress.

4) Stop awarding business based on price tag alone. Use high-quality instructional materials — the best available. Free or cheap materials are often that way because they do not serve learners well.

5) Improve constantly the system of production and service. The litany of the school organisation
should be asking, “Why are we doing what we are doing? (A goals question) “What are we
doing?” (An examination of the way we are trying to do “it”) and “can it be done a better way?”
(An evaluation question). The entire organisation needs to be empowered to ask and answer
these questions rather than maintaining the status quo for its own sake.

6) Institute training on the job. In-house programme for both new and “old” staff members should
characterise the work environment. Educators need to show students and community what
constitutes being a good learner. Skill improvement for all in the organisation should be the
goal and mechanisms to insure this must be put in place.

7) Institute leadership- Leadership acts should be encouraged irrespective, title or position.
Leadership consists of working with all members of the organisation and the community as a
coach and a mentor. Leading is helping others achieve worthwhile goals.

8) Drive out fear. Fear is counter-productive. In a free society and in a productive school no one is
motivated by fear. Positive institutional changes result from shared responsibilities shared
power and shared rewards.

9) The management needs to take the initiative to breakdown the barriers between departments
[and grade levels]. Synergy is required, not just collective energy. Competition between
departments dissipates energy that should be directed towards common ends. Create cross
department and multi-level teams devoted to quality. Implement link-pin task forces to break
down role and status barriers.

10) Eliminate slogans, exhortations and targets. Educators, students and community members may
collectively arrive at slogans and symbols that harness energy and cause them to pursue
common goals and celebrate success, but these develop out of their work together. Externally
imposed sloganeering is hollow, however and results in very little.

11) Eliminate numerical quotas. It is not possible to summarise all the ways a person can grow and
learn in the barest symbol of languages- a number or a letter. So, stop trying to do this. When
a grade or score becomes the basic symbol of success, short-term gains replace long-term
learning and development.
12) Remove barriers of pride of workmanship. Humans generally want to do a good work, and when they do, they take pride in it. They should be helped to do so. Self-fulfilment is a strong motivator. Realistically and cooperatively established goals lead to satisfaction and pride.

13) Institute a vigorous programme of education and self-improvement. Educators and students require continuous learning programme. Self-renewal must be goal oriented, systematic and regular. The effective organisation provides the mechanisms for this to take place within the work place.

14) Put every body in the organisation to work to accomplish the transformation. Teachers, administrators, staff, students and the community are stakeholders and should contribute to the realization of the new philosophy. Top-level commitment and community commitment are required. Teachers and students cannot do it alone. Nor can the administrator. (Adapted and modified from Hughes (1997:14-15 for the purposes of this study). Although most of the points raised here are applicable in most organisational settings, this study takes exception to point 10 above that is against slogans and quotas. The position held is that slogans, exhortations and targets have their place in educational settings. Caution however is needed on how such techniques are used. Without them, the society would tend to be lethargic and may require occasional rallying points by use different techniques, tactics and strategies. The next section examines a summary of the chapter.

2.8 Summary of the Reviewed Literature

At the outset of the chapter, the role of effective school principals in school effectiveness was examined. Researchers and scholars in education agree that head teachers’ role as change agents and in maintenance of day-to-day activities is crucial. A case was put
forward for timely, adequate and relevant training for secondary school head teachers before and after assuming their management roles to minimise and avoid managerial shortcomings. The cited management shortcomings have been attributed to lack of adequate preparation and dynamic school environments, hence requiring regular upgrading of skills and knowledge to keep abreast with changing times.

The numerous challenges faced by head teachers due to change in technology, curricular and social changes have been explored and put forward as concrete reasons for constant professional growth programme of head teachers. An analysis of research findings on performance of educational administrators after exposure to training programme has been presented. Some of these findings indicate that some training programme result in change of administrative behaviour of educational administrators while in other cases training neither produces anticipated results nor does it seem to have any significant impact on head teachers’ administrative behaviour.

Literature on characteristics of effective schools at different phases of the movement has been analysed with a view to finding practical guidelines for training of head teachers. While scholars have not been in agreement regarding the number of management task areas, this study explored eight management task areas but combined a number of them to come with six management task areas as used in this study’s research instrument. The rationale for school-based management training and improvement programme was explored. Research indications point that devolution in management training is necessary in some aspects with an exception of policy issues that apply uniformly across the country. By exploring the competencies associated with effective
educational administrators, a framework was set for management training based on a broad
range of critical aspects that affect day-to-day management of schools. Chapter four deals
with critical aspects in school management that are not adequately addressed in training
while chapter five gives recommendations.