THE INDUCTION OF BEGINNING SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN KENYA

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THESIS

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AND UNTO THE KING IMMORTAL, INVISIBLE, ETERNAL THE ONLY WISE GOD, BE HONOUR AND GLORY FOREVER AND EVER AMEN!

"Mwana wakwa Mwaya asomete na akaandika mavuku manene na manini"

DEDICATION

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SUMMARY

The induction of beginning school principals in Kenya

Entry is a quintessential situation, when the hopes and fears of all the years are again rekindled, when the dreams and visions of both the person (principal) entering and the organization (school) inviting him are aroused, when all the anxieties of facing the unknown are at their highest pitch, and when one experiences the ritual of initiation into the mysteries of this particular tribe (Tobert, 1982).

More than ever researchers are becoming aware of the veracity of Toberts' (1982) claim and this has heightened and increased their awareness of the importance of identifying problems facing newcomers (beginning principals) to the profession of education. However, despite this growing awareness of the problems faced by beginning principals and the importance of the school principal as the key integral ingredient for success in school, very little is known about problems and induction needs of beginning principals in developing countries. Similarly, little attention has been paid to assisting and supporting beginning principals in Kenya.

Therefore, the purpose of this study was to determine the problems, challenges, difficulties and concerns facing beginning principals in Kenya and the essential skills they require in order to be effective and efficient in their principalship. The ultimate goal of the study was to design an induction programme for beginning principals in Kenya.

The subjects of this study were stratified random samples of both beginning (n=100) and experienced (n=100) secondary school principals selected from all 8 provinces of Kenya. Beginning secondary school principals include those appointed to the principalship for the first time between June 1991 and June 1994 (0-3 years) while experienced principals included those with 3 and more years' experience.

Results from 142 respondents were analysed. The study revealed that beginning principals in developing countries like Kenya face unique problems that could be ascribed to the educational system's failure to provide enough financial support for schools. As such, beginning principals in developing countries deal with problems like inadequate physical facilities, shortage of school equipment, overcrowded classrooms, and students who cannot afford to pay school fees or buy books. Additionally, the study revealed that beginning principals in developing countries need essential skills such as self-awareness skills, technical skills and socialization skills.

The conclusions derived from both the theoretical and practical parts, that is, the literature study and the empirical investigations, formed the rationale for the design of a well-structured induction programme for beginning principals in Kenya.

The study recommends the implementation of the Beginning Principals' Induction Programme. The mentoring system has been described as the panacea for inducting beginning principals because it is cost and time effective. The induction programme strongly recommends the use of experienced principals as mentors to beginning principals.

Undoubtedly the most important influence on the quality of educational managers (principals) is their competencies and the induction of capable principals is one of the **sine qua non** of the development of competent educational managers.

It is postulated that the implementation of the **Beginning Principals' Induction Programme (BPIP)** could be the catalyst for change in the **status quo** regarding the monumental and formidable problems, challenges, difficulties and concerns facing beginning principals in developing countries like Kenya.

OPSOMMING

Die inlywing van beginnerskoolhoofde in Kenia

Toetrede is 'n heel basiese ervaring, wanneer al die hoop en vrees van vroeër jare weer terugkom en wanneer die drome en visies van beide die toetredende (die skoolhoof) en die organisasie (die skool) wat hom uitnooi weer voorop staan, as al die bekommernisse wat gepaardgaan met die onbekende sterk uitkom, en wanneer mens die ritueel van inisiasie tot 'n spesifieke "stam" ervaar (Tobert, 1982).

Navorsers is toenemend onder die indruk van wat Tobert (1982) sê, en dit het hulle meer en meer bewusgemaak van die belangrikheid om die probleme wat toetredendes (in hierdie geval beginnerskoolhoofde) ervaar onder die loep te neem. Ten spyte van die hierdie toenemende bewuswees van die belang van die probleme wat hulle ervaar, en ook van die belang van die skoolhoof as 'n sleutelfiguur in die sukses van 'n skool, is min bekend oor die probleme en die inlywingsbehoeftes van beginnerskoolhoofde in ontwikkelende lande. Net so min is nog gedoen aan die kwessie van hulp en ondersteuning aan beginnerskoolhoofde in Kenia.

Die doel van hierdie studie was dus om te bepaal wat die probleme, uitdagings en ander sake van belang is binne die kader van beginnerskoolhoofde in Kenia, en wat die belangrikste vaardighede is wat hulle moet hê om doeltreffend en doelmatig te kan optree. Die uiteindelike doel van die studie was dan ook 'n effektiewe inlywingsprogram vir beginnerskoolhoofde in Kenia te skep.

Die proefpersone in hierdie studie was deel van 'n gestratifieerde ewekansige steekproef van beginnende (n=100) en ervare (n=100) sekondêre skoolhoofde uit al agt provinsies van Kenia. Beginnende sekondêre skoolhoofde sluit diegene in wat vir die eerste keer as hoofde aangestel is tussen Junie 1991 en Junie 1994 (0-3 jaar ondervinding), terwyl ervare skoolhoofde diegene insluit wat drie en meer jaar ervaring het.

Die resultate wat van 142 skoolhoofde ontvang is is ontleed. Die studie het getoon dat beginnerskoolhoofde in ontwikkelende lande soos Kenia unieke probleme ervaar - probleme wat toegeskryf kan word aan onvermoë van die onderwystelsel om genoeg finansiële steun aan skole te verskaf. Beginnerhoofde in ontwikkelende lande word in die gesig gestaar deur probleme soos onvoldoende fisiese fasiliteite, tekorte aan skoolvoorraad en toerusting, oorvol klaskamers, en studente wat nie skoolgeld of boeke kan bekostig nie. Die studie het ook getoon dat beginnerhoofde in ontwikkelende lande essensiële

vaardighede soos selfbewussyn, tegniese vaardighede en sosialiseringsvaardighede nodig het.

Die gevolgtrekkings waartoe gekom is vanuit die teoretiese en die praktiese deel van die navorsing vorm die rasionaal vir die ontwerp van 'n goedgestruktureerde inlywingsprogram vir beginnerhoofde in Kenia.

Die studie beveel die implementering van hierdie Beginnerskoolhoofdeprogram aan. Die mentorstelsel is al beskryf as die wondermiddel om al die probleme van beginnerhoofde aan te spreek omdat dit beide koste- en tydeffektief is. Die inlywingsprogram beveel die aanwending van ervare hoofde om as mentors vir beginnerhoofde op te tree baie sterk aan.

Sonder twyfel is die belangrikste invloed op die kwaliteit van onderwysbestuurders (skoolhoofde) hulle eie bekwaamhede en die inlywing van beginnerhoofde is een van die **sine qua non** van die ontwikkeling van bekwame onderwysbestuurders.

Dit word gestel dat die implementering van die **Beginnerskoolhoofdeprogram** die katalisator kan wees vir verandering in die **status quo** wat betref die monumentale probleme waarmee beginnerhoofde in ontwikkelende lande soos Kenia gekonfronteer word.

CHAPTER 1

1 ORIENTATION

1.1 Introduction

Entry is a quintessential situation, when the hopes and fears of all the years are again rekindled, when the dreams and visions of both the person (principal) entering and the organization (school) inviting him are aroused, when all the anxieties of facing the unknown are at their highest pitch, and when one experiences the ritual of initiation into the mysteries of this particular tribe (Tobert, 1982).

More than ever before, there is a growing awareness of Tobert's (1982) claim, as demonstrated by research on educational management and school effectiveness. Researchers are increasingly becoming aware of the importance of identifying problems faced by newcomers (beginning principals) to the professional education management situation and essential skills needed for them. Pincipalship is a critical point of leverage in obtaining the desired improvement in schools.

Within the context of this chapter an orientation to this study is provided. A statement of the problem is also provided in order to forge an understanding of the problem under investigation. Additionally, the research design is articulated and terms relevant to the study defined.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Van der Westhuizen (1991:49) points out that a defined field of activity consists of operationally specialised work and other work (management work). In education the implication is that the areas of managing and teaching work (operational work) function in a specific relation to each other. Therefore, as a teacher is promoted, his management duties and responsibilities increase proportionally as the teaching work decreases (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:52).

Typically, good subject teachers are promoted to managerial positions (principalhips). Van der Westhuizen (1988:378-379) asserts that good teaching abilities are not necessarily an indication that the person concerned will be a capable educational manager. Therefore, a head needs certain basic knowledge and skills before taking the appointment as head (Buckley, 1985:27).

Literature on effective educational management points out that if a teacher is expected to have the necessary professional and academic qualifications in order to teach, the same could be expected from the school principal he should be academically trained and professionally qualified for his managerial post (Van der Westhuizen, 1988:378).

Recent recommendations by numerous groups looking into the improvement of educational leadership, including the School Management Task Force in Great Britain (SMTF, 1990) have emphasised two critical issues. Firstly, the next several years will see tremendous rates of turnover among head-teachers and others involved in school management. Secondly, there is an increasing recognition that the transition into headship is often a difficult one, and that special forms of professional support for the beginner principals are needed (Daresh & Playko, 1992a:147).

In their research, Daresh and Playko (1992b:99) point out the importance of the need of some kind of specialized support when they say (referring to the USA) that "at present, seventeen states require local school districts to provide induction programmes to the beginner school principals".

These issues have led to recent calls for structured induction programmes to be provided to beginner school principals, with the assumption that time spent supporting their first steps as beginner school principals will lead to more successful careers. In order to address the needs of beginner principals, induction programmes have been researched and developed in the United States (Daresh, 1986, 1987b, 1989, 1992b; Anderson, 1991), England (Weindling & Earley, 1987), and in Australia (Beeson & Matthews, 1992).

Virtually all these studies were carried out in different cultural settings and education systems. Thus, the findings of these studies cannot be directly applied in Kenya without modifications. Induction programmes for beginner school principals in developing countries must address the relevant needs of the principals.

It must be pointed out that even those programmes that are labelled good abroad cannot merely be transferred and implemented in the African context without modification to suit the local needs. Lungu (1983:87) asserts that "it would be presumptuous to prescribe a standard curriculum for educational managers [principals] since their problems are not standard both in terms of individual, country, and time".

Bogonko (1992:135) points out that in 1981 Kenya ushered in a new educational system (8-4-4). Regrettably, neither the old nor the new educational system gives attention to either formal training or induction of beginning school principals. Traditionally, deputy principals as well as assistant teachers are appointed to principalships without any prior proven managerial competencies. This is unlike other countries, for example the United States, where training in managerial competencies is mandated (Anderson, 1991:5).

In developing countries like Kenya the traditional view of selecting principals from successful experienced teachers without any formal preparation is still the norm (Bogonko, 1992:171; Griffin, 1994). Virtually no research has been conducted on the induction of new school principals. In most cases beginning principals are left on their own and the problems they face are causing concern.

Mbiti (1980:48) also says that when teachers are appointed to be school principals, they find themselves in a different world with new responsibilities, new committments, new problems, and in most cases, less free time. Unfortunately, many of these new principals experience what Anderson (1991:48) calls "sink-or swim, learn on your-own" forms of induction to the job that, in turn, increase their anxiety about fulfilling their responsibilities.

Given the importance of a principal's leadership and the potential influence of the induction on the beginning principal (Anderson, 1991:50) it is clear that the Kenyan Ministry of Education must begin addressing the needs of beginner principals, enabling them to lead rather than merely survive on the job.

It is in the light of this problem that it is deemed imperative to investigate what problems beginning school principals in Kenya face and what skills they need to do their job efficiently and effectively.

1.3 Aims of the research

The overall aim of this research was to investigate the problems beginning principals experience and the skills they need in order to function efficiently and effectively in their posts.

Specific aims of the research were:

Aim 1: to determine the nature of induction;
Aim 2: to determine the problems and skills beginning principals require;
Aim 3: to examine existing induction programmes for school principals;
Aim 4: to find out what problems beginning school principals in Kenya face and what skills they need; and
Aim 5: to develop an induction programme for beginning school principals in Kenya.

1.4 Research methodology

1.4.1 Literature review

An intensive review of the literature related to the topic was carried out. Use was made of journals, books, and other sources of information related to the study. In addition, a DIALOG-search was was performed using the following descriptors: Induction, principal, beginning, problems, and skills.

1.4.2 Empirical study

1.4.2.1 Questionnaire

Questionnaires developed by Weindling and Earley (1987) and Daresh and Playko (1992c) were used as a basis for this research. From the literature study and interviews, the questionnaires were modified to suit the population of this study.

1.4.2.2 Population

The population consisted of beginning secondary school principals in Kenya appointed between June 1991 and June 1994 (0-3 years). Out of the total number of beginning principal (N=413) reprenting the 8 provinces in Kenya, a sample of (n=100) beginning principals were selected. In addition, out of a total number (N=1,125) of experienced principals a random sample (n=100) was selected as well.

1.4.2.3 Statistical techniques

With the help of the statistical consultants of the Potchefstroom University, suitable computer-aided statistical analyses were employed. The **t-test** was used to determine the significance of the difference between the means of the two samples. The **p-value** was used to indicate whether there was a statistically significant difference between the two means of samples (beginning and experienced principals). The **d-value** was used to determine whether there was a practically significant difference between the responses of the two groups. Additionally, **rank order** was used to indicate the highest and the least ranked problems and skills.

1.5 Structure of the research

Chapter 1: Introduction and orientation
Chapter 2: The nature of induction
Chapter 3: The problems of and skills for beginning principals.
Chapter 4: Induction programmes for the beginning principals
Chapter 5: Empirical study (research design)
Chapter 6: Statistical analysis and interpretation of data
Chapter 7: Induction programme for beginning principals in Kenya
Chapter 8: Summation, findings, recommendations and conclusion

1.6 Definition of terms

* **Beginning principals** refers to all secondary school principals in Kenya who were appointed for the first time between June 1991 and June 1994 (0-3 years).

* **Experienced principals** refers to all secondary school principals in Kenya with more than 3 years of principalship experience.

* **Induction** refers to a process with phases, each phase having its own programme or programmes

* **Induction programme** refers to a comprehensive, well-structured programme with clearly articulated goals that give support to beginning principals in their entry year as well as enhance their professional development.

1.7 Summary

In this overview, an orientation to the entire study has been provided, including the problem to be investigated and the aims of the study. The major focus of the study is twofold, viz. to investigate the problems facing beginning principals and to determine the critical skills they need, and to develop an induction programme for them that will address these particular needs most effectively.

CHAPTER II

2 THE NATURE OF INDUCTION

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to review the literature related to the nature of induction. In doing so, a summary of issues such as recruitment, selection, definitions, and different approaches of induction is presented. A synthesis and perspective of areas given and discussed in view of making a point of departure that forms the basis and theory for this study are provided.

2.2 Induction in the context of personnel management

Personnel management involves the planning, organizing, directing, and controlling of the procurement, development, compensation, integration, maintenance, and separation of human resources to the end that individual, organizational, and societal objectives are accomplished (Flippo, 1980:5).

From this definition it is obvious that management of people is an integral part of the process of management. It is in essence what Beach (1982:7) calls the "heart of management".

Procurement is the first operative function of personnel management and is concerned with the obtaining of the proper kind of personnel that can accomplish organizational goals. It deals with aspects such as recruitment, selection and induction (Klingner & Nalbandian, 1985:83).

Therefore, induction of the beginner school principals must be seen in the context of personnel management as a whole and not in isolation. Thus, steps that are taken to bring principals into the school are as important as steps taken to retain them.

Gorton (1983:149) maintains that it is axiomatic that a school system is as good as the people who make it. Jensen (1987:5) also points out that the quality of any school district depends more upon the quality of its staff than upon any other factor. Additionally, Meek (1988:15) asserts that it is the calibre of the people in a school district and not procedures, handbooks, regulations, or curriculum guides that is the most important tool a district has to work with when seeking to improve the school. In the same vein Beach (1980:202)

maintains that the successes and failures of a school district are largely determined by the calibre of the work force and by the effort it exerts.

Thus, it can be deduced from Gorton (1983), Jensen (1987), Meek (1988), and Beach (1980) that if the quality of any school district is to be realized, serious consideration must be given to recruitment, selection, and the overall improvement of the quality of the professional staff (principals).

There are three important steps by which school systems can achieve quality and improvement of professional staff, namely personnel recruitment, selection, and induction (Beach, 1980:214). Bondesio and DeWitt (in Van der Westhuizen, 1991:243) identify personnel recruitment and selection as two of the three phases that can be used in the process of filling a vacant position. Additionally, Bondesio and De Witt see appointment as the last phase involved in filling a position.

Professional improvement and development of personnel are important. Thus, its success is determined by how the personnel are recruited, selected, and inducted. The activities of personnel recruitment and selection are part of the whole process of induction. They are in essence part of what Bondesio and DeWitt (1991:245) call "personnel provision".

Jensen (1987:5) considers recruiting and selection as the most important task that school districts perform. Thus, the quality of education in any school depends largely on the personnel recruited and selected. Therefore, each time a new personnel member (principal) is hired the local school and its district have the opportunity to improve education. This can only be realized if the recruitment and selection processes were thorough and properly conducted.

There are many aspects of personnel management and each aspect is important. Thus, induction as one of those aspects must be seen in the light of recruitment and selection aspects of personnel management.

In educational management the implication is that school principals must be effectively recruited and selected before they are inducted.

2.2.1 Recruitment of school principals

Gorton (1983:159) sees recruitment as the active pursuit of potential candidates for the purpose of influencing them to apply for positions in their school district while Musella (1983:19) maintains that recruitment implies a pro-active seeking of the best candidates.

Rebore (1985:74) describes recruitment as a process that is geared to seeking the best potential applicants for anticipated vacancies. Castetter (1986:126) says that the term *recruitment* refers to those activities in personnel management that are designed to attract the numbers and quality of applicants needed to carry on the work of the school system. As such, the recruitment facet has both short- and long-range implications.

It is thus evident that the recruitment process must be seen as a systematic way of developing a pool of qualified persons willing to work for a school system. The process must involve defining the expected results, developing practices and procedures to achieve expectations and appraising progress in the recruitment efforts.

In the literature by Wonous (1977) Beach (1980), Gorton (1983), Jensen (1987), Castetter (1986), Harris and Monk (1992) it seems that there is enough support for the process of recruiting school principals and that recruitment is seen as the first vital step in an attempt to improve the quality of schools and the professional development of principals.

Furthermore, unlike other aspects of personnel management, it seems that there is agreement in the literature that the primary goal of recruitment is to attract the best candidates for the position of principalship (Rebore, 1985; Meek, 1988; Musella; 1983; Bondesio & de Witt, in Van der Westhuizen, 1991; Klingner & Nalbandian, 1985; Carrell et al., 1986).

Recruitment is positive in that it aims at increasing the number of qualified applicants. Thus, an effective recruitment process must result in attracting the best candidates who will finally be selected as school principals.

The recruitment process of school principals entails different
methods such as advertisement and interviews. It is noted, however, that there is no single method that is ideal for the recruitment of school principals.

Research by Jensen (1987), Harris and Monk (1992) points to the current practices of recruiting principals as less than ideal. Because of the critical position that the school

principals occupy, these researchers call upon school districts to put in place a sound process of recruitment.

Jensen (1987:10-11) recommends the following strategies that can help improve the recruitment of school principals.

- Develop policies and budget.
- Select recruiters carefully.
- Recruit throughout the year.
- Be prepared to "sell" the district and the area.
- Combine efforts to recruit the right personnel.
- Publicize your intention to obtain qualified candidates.

Since only proper recruitment strategies can lead to the attraction of the best candidates, Jensen's recommendations cannot be ignored. Additionally, Harris and Monk (1992:90-91) see the key to successful recruitment as:

- active and creative leadership;
- financial and philosophical support;
- implementation of the recruitment in harmony with the overall goals and mission of the school;
- analysis of the job requirements and tasks, translated into written documents, prior to any other recruitment efforts;
- predetermination of criteria and predictors of on-the-job success and use of these data in recruiting;
- training of recruiters; and
- an on-going recruiting process that operates throughout the year.

Thus, it is clear from Jensen's (1987) recommendations and from Harris and Monk's (1992) strategies that the recruitment of school principals cannot be taken lightly. Additionally, it seems that if these strategies and recommendations can be adopted by school districts, they may enhance the possibility that each principal hired will truly be selected from the pool of highly competent and qualified applicants.

It is thus evident from the above discussion that recruitment as an aspect of personnel management cannot be ignored. Thus, the recruitment function should be planned, decisions about recruitment goals and who to do the recruiting should be made, and the methods of recruitment must be clear. Since recruitment is part of the whole process of

personnel management, it must be done in a way that provides linkage with other processes of personnel management such as selection and induction.

2.2.2 Selection of school principals

Klingner and Nalbandian (1985), Gatewood and Heild (1990) and Harris and Monk (1992) describe selection as the process of collecting and evaluating information in order to offer employment to the best person.

This description of what selection is implies that before a principal is selected all the information pertaining to effective selection must be evaluated thoroughly.

The selection and employment of the best qualified personnel for a school district is one of the most difficult administrative responsibilities (Harris & Monk, 1992:105). Thus, the ability to select the school principal from a large or small pool of applicants is a skill that, without doubt, directly impacts on the quality of educational programmes.

According to Bondesio and DeWitt (1991:245) personnel selection is the most critical link in the chain of activity involved in the filling of a post. As such, it should be done carefully and with due consideration.

There are formidable problems associated with the selection process (Gorton, 1983:163; Musella, 1983:14; Castetter, 1986:221). According to these researchers, the selection process is faced with problems such as establishing role requirements, determining the kind of data needed to select the most competent candidates, deciding what devices and procedures are to be employed in gathering the data, the screening of qualified from unqualified candidates, and selecting suitable candidates for the positions.

These problems, however, do not mean that it is impossible to select the most suitable candidates for certain positions. With a careful selection plan, the problems can be overcome and the best school principal can be hired.

Musella (1983:14) asserts that, regardless of the position to be filled, certain procedures such as identification of goals, job analysis, data collection and selection decisions are essential to the selection process.

Although research suggests little consensus regarding what valid criteria for the selection of school principals entail, there is general agreement as to what the primary objective of

selection is. Thus, whereas the goal of recruitment is to attract the best candidates, the selection process has as its primary objective the elimination of those deemed unqualified and selection of the best candidate for the position of principalship (Flippo, 1980; Beach, 1980; Musella, 1983; Gorton, 1983; Rebore, 1985; Castetter, 1986; Jensen, 1987; Harris & Monk, 1992; Carrel et al., 1989).

It can thus be argued that recruitment tends to be positive in that it seeks to persuade people to apply for work at school, whereas selection tends to be negative because it tends to reject a good portion of those who applied for principalship.

As was noted (2.2.2) research suggests little or no consensus regarding selection criteria and methods. Therefore, a few of selection criteria, strategies, and recommendations that have been identified as being effective for principal selection will be considered.

Gorton (1983:165) identifies five steps involved in the selection process as:

- Identify and define selection criteria.
- Collect and examine application forms and placement papers; identify most promising candidates to be interviewed.
- Plan carefully for the interview.
- Invite and interview the most promising candidates.
- Make selection decision and inform all candidates.

Gorton sees these steps as important in selecting the right candidates for the right positions. They are, according to Gorton of paramount importance to a successful selection process.

Castetter (1986:159) maintains that the selection process is crucial and should involve a systematic process that includes steps on how to:

- prescribe position guides;
- compile appropriate information on candidates;
- evaluate information and screen applicants;
- make employment decision;
- make employment offer; and
- place in position.

According to Castetter, these steps ensure that all candidates are screened and only the best are selected. The crucial step is the evaluation of information and screening of applicants. Only with careful evaluation and screening can the best candidates be employed.

Noting the difficulties involved in the selection process, Jensen (1987:26) asserts that there is nonetheless no panacea for those who seek to chose the best candidates. Jensen (1987) maintains that personnel selection processes must be improved. She recommends some strategies that can be applied in an effort to improve the selection process. These strategies include the following:

- develop written policies for selection;
- treat candidates with fairness;
- train those who will do the selection;
- involve more people in the decision of selection;
- consider a variety of information about candidates; and
- learn from success and mistakes and validate your process.

Jensen (1987) considers these recommendations to be necessary and urges their adoption by every school district that is concerned with effective personnel selection and effective personnel management.

Literature suggests that in the U.S.A. several tools and processes are used to select school principals. These tools and processes include application forms, resumés, letters of recommendation, rating scales, transcripts, telephone investigations, interviews, tests, and more recently assessment centres (Gorton, 1983; Musella 1983; Jensen, 1987; Harris & Monk, 1992).

It must be noted, however, that these selection methods used in the U.S.A. may not be applicable in other countries especially developing countries where pre-service training is virtually non-existent and where traditionally principals are selected from the ranks of assistant teachers and deputy principals.

2.2.3 Recruitment, selection and appointment of school principals in Kenya

In Kenya, the government has since independence established a large centralized system of education. The system is characterized by a clearly defined hierarchy of authority and regulations designed to ensure fair treatment of teachers and an equitable distribution of personnel and other resources to schools throughout the country. Therefore, the procedures

developed in recruiting, selection and appointing of school principals in Kenya reflect the tight central control.

Griffin (1994:2) points out that in Kenya, following independence, the tremendous mushrooming of schools allowed no time for the development of educational managers (principals) and this forced the appointment of unprepared and insufficiently competent people as principals.

Unfortunately, after three decades of independence, the traditional view that good teachers without any formal managerial training in educational management could be effective principals is still the vogue in Kenya. Resulting from this, good schools are very few but poor schools very numerous (Griffin, 1994:2). Further, Griffin (1994) maintains that, although some may be fair academically, their systems of managing students are inferior and often downright bad.

Although teaching, like medicine, is not a good preparation for managerial responsibilities, within an established and stable school system like Kenya enough teachers can be found who have administrative potential, and this potential improves into good performance as they move slowly up the system.

Typically, the common path to the principalship is from being a classroom teacher to deputy principal followed by promotion to principalship. Other educational positions such as head of the department are not viewed as important preparation for the principalship.

2.2.3.1 Recruitment of school principals in Kenya

According to the coordinator of secondary school principals in Kenya (Nzomo, 1994) recruitment of principals is a process that mainly involves the District Education Officer (DEO), the Provincial Education Officer (PEO) and the Teachers' Service Commission (TSC).

Therefore, if there are principalship vacancies the Teachers' Service Commission sends circulars to schools through the District Education Officer's (DEO) office. Once these circulars reach the (DEO's) office, they are further given to the Zonal Education Officer (ZEOs) who then distributes them to the schools within his juridiction for advertisement. Only deputy principals are supposed to apply upon the recommendation of the principal.

2.2.3.2 Selection and appointment of school principals in Kenya

According to Nzomo (1994) once the applicants applications and recommendations have been received by the Zonal Educational Officer (ZEO), candidates are called for the interview. After the zonal level interview, the names of all the applicants are forwarded to the District Education Officer and the Provincial Officer for selection.

Based on the Zonal Education Officer's remarks, the DEO and the PEO select the candidates they deem qualified for principalship. Those who qualify are notified through their principals.

After the DEO and the PEO have made a selection, the names are further forwarded to the Teachers' Service Commission (TSC) for approval and appointment. The TSC then sends an appointment letter giving the new principals the office of the principalship. Those appointed are put on probation for six months after which another letter of confirmation is sent to them by the TSC.

It is noted, however, that some school principals are appointed politically. Thus they are given the principalship without having to go through the interview process.

After appointment it is assumed that the principal is qualified for the job. As such, no assistance is given to the beginning principal. Rather, he is left alone to either swim or sink.

It should be remembered, however, that although recruitment and selection processes are there, they are rarely followed due to the above noted political interferences.

2.2.4 Conclusion

It is clear from the literature reviewed that recruitment and selection form very vital aspects of personnel management. The two, however, do not operate independently of each other. Thus, personnel selection does not operate independently of the personnel recruitment process. They are in essence intertwined and the way in which recruitment is done determines the effectiveness of selection.

Jensen (1987:5) warns that the hiring of incompetent personnel will continue unless more effective recruitment and selection procedures are devised. Hence, mistakes made in personnel recruitment and selection are costly and have long-term effects.

Thus, if personnel professional development is to be realized, attention should be given to effective recruitment and selection. In educational management this means that the way in which principals are recruited and selected will determine how they will be inducted and to a greater extent how effective they are going to in their principalship.

It thus seems from the literature reviewed (2.2-2.2.3) that if school districts are to improve the quality of education and enhance the performance of school principals, they must recruit and select the most capable principals, utilize effective methods of induction, and incorporate structures and attitudes that encourage retention of the best school principals.

Therefore, it seems from the foregoing discussion that developing sound personnel recruitment and selection practices is imperative and not merely an option for consideration.

2.3 Definitions of induction

Induction is derived from the latin word **inductio** which means to lead, usher or guide a person inside. Literature and research, however, show no consensus regarding what induction is. Therefore, induction is defined differently by different researchers. Thus, these definitions are considered separately, followed by a synthesis and definition of what induction is considered to be for purposes of this study.

Van der Merwe (1982:2) defines induction as an attempt to help the newcomer to adjust as quickly as possible to the new social group and to achieve efficiency in the shortest possible time. Further, Van der Merwe (1982) asserts that it is helpful, in understanding and planning an induction process, to note that there are two distinct adjustments to be made by the new worker, namely to a new social group and to a new working situation.

In his view Hall (1982:53) asserts that induction is a career-long professional continuum, the transition between pre-service and the onset of in-service training. Induction is further described by Hall as stretching through the first three years following the completion of pre-service training.

It is thus already clear that these two authors see induction from different viewpoints. Van der Merwe describes induction from a sociological standpoint where the newcomer is

inducted into a social group, whereas Hall defines induction from career and professional point of view thus-induction brings continued professionalism to one's career.

Induction must be seen in the light of new staff development. According to Gorton (1983:174) induction means the process by which recently employed staff are helped to become oriented to a new environment, which includes the community, the school system, the position, and the people with whom they will be working. Accordingly, the induction process should begin immediately the new member is hired.

In the same vein, Griffin (1983:42) describes induction as the provision of assistance for the beginner, that person who is making the transition from pre-service to full-time service either as a teacher or principal. Normally, the induction period stretches from one to three years of actual experience after appointment.

Induction is therefore seen by Gorton and Griffin as targeting different groups of people. To Gorton it seems that induction is for those who have been recently employed, for example from other organizations (schools), and to Griffin it would seem that induction should be directed towards those who have joined the profession either as teachers or principals for the first time.

Induction is further illuminated by the definition of Rebore (1985:180) who describes it as a process designed to acquaint newly-employed principals with the school system and the relationship they must develop in order to be successful. Rebore (1985) sees induction as both informational and educational. Thus, due process should be given to the induction process since it determines the future of the new employee.

According to Castetter (1986:263) induction is synonymous with placement and orientation. It means the process by which personnel newly appointed to positions are assisted in meeting their need for security, belonging, status, information, and direction in both the position and the organizational environment. Accordingly, the process is conceived as beginning in the recruitment stage and ending when the inductee has made the necessary personal, position, organizational, and social adaptations that enable one to function effectively as a member of the system.

Therefore, from the perspective of Rebore, induction is crucial to a new employee for his future success hinges on it, while Castester's view suggests a holistic approach to induction in the sense that induction must meet the needs of the whole person.

As was pointed out earlier (cf. 2.2-2.2.2) personnel management encompasses recruitment, selection, and induction. According to Jensen (1987) and Wallance (1982) induction must be seen in the light of these other aspects of personnel management. Accordingly, Jensen (1987:29) describes induction as the step that follows after recruitment and selection of personnel. Subsequently, she refers to induction as a programme designed to induct an employee into a new job, a new setting, and a new status.

Skeats (1991:16) maintains that the induction process covers any and all arrangements made to familiarise the new employee with the organization, safety rules, general conditions of employment and the work of the department in which they are employed. It includes everything from the very mundane, such as where to find paper and pens, to imparting a sophisticated understanding of the business. Accordingly, good induction should follow on from good recruitment and selection, and will involve the initial welcome, on the-job-training, acclimatisation, and often a formal course.

Skeats' definition reinforces that of Jensen in that both see induction as following on recruitment and selection. However, they differ in the sense that Skeats views induction as a process whereas Jensen refers to induction as a programme.

Fowler (1991:13) says that induction, then, is about all the steps an employer can take to try to ensure that new recruits settle into their new jobs quickly, happily, and effectively. It must include some aspects of pre-employment procedures, cover formal and informal training activities during the early parts of the employees service.

Additionally, induction must consider the respective roles of line and personnel managers in the various procedures, for example; performance appraisal and have regard to employment legislation when such issues such as contracts of employment, formal probationary service and dismissal are dealt with.

Fowler's view adds a definition of the scope of induction and further points out that employment legislation such as contracts, probation, and dismissal should be regarded as part of induction.

Castallo et al. (1992:113) see induction as synonymous to orientation, and hence define it as a school district's effort to assist employee adjustment to a new community, school district, school, and the job. Furthermore, Castallo et al. maintain that induction may also

be viewed as a method by which a school district educates employees about the work performed and the relationship between the work and the school and community.

Daresh and Playko (1992a:100) define induction as a process for developing among new members of an organization the knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values essential to carrying out their roles effectively.

It is evident from Castallo et al.'s (1992) view that induction means assisting and educating an employee, whereas for Daresh and Playko (1992) induction is a process that develops some critical skills in the new employee.

From the above discussion and definitions it can be observed that there are different ways of defining induction. However, there are some identifiable threads that are common to all the definitions. It seems that each definition involves an organization, a job, a new environment and a new individual and that induction is seen as a process.

Induction as a process and as an aspect of personnel management deals with supplying information, giving direction, extending a welcome, and making a new employee (beginner principal) aware of what the school district expects and can offer.

It is necessary too, to distinguish the similarities and differences in the induction needs of different categories of employees, and of different sectors of industry, commerce, and public employment.

Therefore, for the purpose of this research induction is defined as a **process through which beginning principals are helped to adjust to the principalship position so that they can do their jobs effectively and efficiently. This process comprises a phase or phases, each phase with its own programme or programmes tailored to meet individual needs.**

2.4 Different induction approaches

The nature and scope of induction are not easy to define and determine. There are as many differing views concerning the nature and scope of induction as there are definitions. Induction is defined and viewed differently by different researchers and authors.

The true nature of induction can only be determined by examining different approaches that have been developed. There are a multitude of principal induction models that have

been formulated. Because they are many in number, this study will confine itself to only a few of them.

The models considered are those that have been designed for beginning principals and those, although not specifically designed for beginning principals, that have implications that address the needs of these principals. These are models that Van Vuuren (1989:11) says are designed to make the adjustment of the beginner school principals to the position and profession as pleasant as possible.

2.4.1 The model of Hunt (1968)

Although Hunt's induction model is designed for beginner teachers, some aspects of it have value and implications for the beginner school principals. It is important for Hunt that an induction process be well planned and instituted timeously.

Hunt's (1968:130-135) induction model comprises the following characteristics:

- assistance and support in obtaining facilities; and
- access to mentor, community, staff, and pupils of the school.

These characteristics are embodied in four phases that make up the induction process as Hunt views it.

- **Phase 1: Before commencement of service**

Since the role of the mentor is of crucial importance to Hunt, the mentor already plays an important role during this phase and can do the following:

- introduce the beginner principal to the staff;
- explain his task to him;
- explain school and district policies and other information; and
- furnish him with the background of the community.

This phase is important in the sense that it provides the beginning school principal with an opportunity to know his school before he reports for duty on the first day of the job.

* **Phase 2: Initial orientation**

This phase is especially appropriate during the first few days of the new school year. The beginner principal becomes acquainted with the school. Additionally, the following aspects are focused on:

- opening of the school;
- dealing with administrative personnel; and
- dealing with stock.

* **Phase 3: The first term**

During this phase, the following aspects of the induction process are focused on:

- discipline of the pupils;
- school policy;
- auxiliary service; and
- parents and community.

It seems that the focus on this phase is entirely on management areas.

* **Phase 4: The first term**

Once the beginner school principal has become acquainted with the aspects mentioned in phase three, certain facets, such as the following, may be examined in greater depth:

- studying the reaction of staff and pupils in some issues;
- analysis of the principal's own leadership skills by utilizing video recordings or sound cassettes;
- participatory management; and
- improvement of participatory management of teachers.

Hunt's four phases of the induction process show characteristics of interwovenness. One phase leads and reinforces the other. Therefore, all these phases are essential to an integral induction process of a beginning principal.

2.4.2 The model of Wesencraft (1982)

Wesencraft's (1982:145-154) model is designed for beginner teachers. However, if one looks at its contents critically, it would appear that it is applicable to the beginning principals as well.

Wesencraft's model entails the following:

* **Weekly group discussions**

During these discussions the emphasis falls on orientation, adaptation, and professional development of the beginning principal.

* **Weekly individual sessions**

During these sessions the novice principal is afforded the opportunity to ask questions and to talk about problems and solutions as well. This session also endeavours to help the principal to reconcile theory and practice and to monitor his progress. Normally, this activity takes place under the guidance of a mentor.

* **Attending experienced principals' meetings**

It is important that the beginning principal attend meetings of experienced principals which take place in a structured way. Note must be take of the beginner principal's management skills during these meetings. At the conclusion of each meetings a discussion with the mentor must be held.

Attending experienced principals' meetings affords the beginning principal an opportunity to learn from those who were once beginners.

* **Visits to other schools**

Contact with other schools is important for the beginning principal in order for him to know what is happening in those schools and to get a glimpse of different school settings. These visits help the beginning principal to compare what is happening in his school with other schools.

2.4.3 The model of Gorton (1983)

It is important for Gorton (1983:160) that the induction process begins when the beginner school principal is employed and that it must continue through the first year until the principal adjusts to the school environment.

Gorton's (1983:160-162) model includes the following phases and provisions:

* **Phase 1: Before the beginning of the school year**

- a letter is sent to the beginner principal by the superintendent, welcoming him to the school and offering help with any questions or problems in advance;
- materials which would help orient him to the school or community should be sent as well; and
- a mentor should be identified and assigned to help the beginner principal to become oriented to the school and to aid with any special problems.

* **Phase 2: Initial workshop and orientation**

- the beginning principal should be introduced to the entire faculty during the first meeting; and
- a workshop should be conducted for the beginning principal which focuses on the nature of the student body and community, school philosophy and objectives, school policies and procedures, discipline policies and procedures, attendance policies and procedures, and requisitioning procedures and use of supplies.

* **Phase 3: Follow-up induction activities**

Induction should be a continuous process during the first year of the beginner principal. Gorton sees the following activities as beneficial during the principal's first year:

- holding monthly rap sessions with the mentor to discuss questions, problems, and experiences encountered;
- holding regular conferences as needed with the mentor;
- regularly visiting other schools to see what other principals are doing; and
- receiving specific supervisory assistance early in the year, especially with the evaluation of teachers.

- **Phase 4: Evaluation of the induction process**

Gorton puts great emphasis on this last phase. He sees evaluation as the only viable means of determining whether the needs of the beginning principals are being met and to what extent.

Gorton (1983:162) asserts that the whole induction process should be evaluated at the end of the year focusing on the strengths and weaknesses and with recommendations for improvement. Additionally, the beginner principals should be the key people to do the evaluation.

Therefore, the school district should attempt to obtain an evaluative feedback from the beginner principals, especially towards the end of the year. By securing such feedback, the school district will not only convey the fact that it cares about the feelings and perceptions of its beginner principals, but it will be in a much better position to improve the induction process in the future.

2.4.4 The model of Castetter (1986)

It is important for Castetter (1986:274-295) that induction be systematised so as to achieve its goals. Aspects such as objectives, organization, coordination, follow-up and control are crucial in the induction process.

Figure 2.1 shows a model of the induction process as Castetter formulates it.

Figure 2.1: Model of the induction process

Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 4	Step 5
Determine induction objectives	Organize induction process sequence	Order and coordinate induction	Follow-up inductee adjustment	Control induction process

Step 1: Determine induction objectives

Objectives must focus on the needs of the beginner principal such as information, need satisfaction, position compatibility, support, development, acceptance, assimilation, orientation, adjustment and security.

Step 2: Organize induction process

The organization of the induction process is built around the following variable;

- scope of the induction process;
- variation in individual adjustments;
- adjustment needs; and
- variation in induction approaches.

These variables influence the implementation of the induction process. Moreover, these variables provide a framework and foundation for examining the induction process.

Step 3: Order and coordinate the induction process

The third step in the induction process, according to Castetter (1986), is the ordering and coordinating of the induction sequence. Castetter sees this step as comprising linkage of phases, agents, and activities of the individual induction.

Castetter divides this step into the following periods and activities:

- *Pre-appointment period*

During the pre-appointment period competent candidates are attracted and conditions of employment are explained.

- *Interim period*

During this period, the conditions of employment are confirmed and the inductee is acquainted with the community, system, personnel and position. During this period the school system agents, for example the Board of Education, Superintendent of schools, committees, and unions play a big role in acquainting the beginner principal with their respective functions.

Additionally, community agents such as organizations, committees and sponsors are important during the interim period.

* *Initial service period*

During this period, the role of the beginning principal is explained. The principal is also assisted in performing his role at this period. His performance is appraised and follow-up done at this period.

Step 4: Follow-up inductee adjustment

Follow-up is the fourth step in Castetter's model. There are a variety of ways that are suitable to do follow-up. Castetter (1986:290) identifies visits and interviews as some of the forms of doing follow-up. Subsequently, follow-up should focus on quality of performance and difficulties encountered by the inductee in the position.

Step 5: Control induction process

This is the final step in Castetter's model. Castetter views this step as vital in that it determines the success or failure of the whole induction process.

The control process is intended for the elicitation of information from the inductee about the quality of the induction experience to which he was exposed. The control process is based on feedback from the inductee on aspects such as the attitudes of the inductee toward the system, effectiveness of induction sessions, balance given to induction topics, impressions about the value of a career in the school system, perceptions on those aspects of the induction most helpful in adjusting to the position (Castetter, 1986:285).

Castetter's (1986) model points to the fact that an induction process is needed to assist beginning principals to resolve community, school system, position, human, and personal problems with which they are confronted.

Also inherent in this model is the assumption that the main determinant of motivation is the attraction the position holds for the beginning principals; and that induction activities are designed to enhance potentialities for motivated action that will result in more effective role performance.

2.4.5 The model of Wubbels, Creton and Hooymayer (1987)

The model of Wubbels, Creton and Hooymayer (1987:81-94) is designed for beginning teachers. However, its contents and process are suitable for the beginning principal as well.

This model is particularly focused on narrowing the gap between pre-service training and initial service of the beginning principals. The mentor plays a very important role in this model. Three phases of this model are broached:

* **Phase 1: The diary phase**

This phase covers the first six weeks of the beginner principal's initial service. During this period, the beginning principal diarizes everything which is important. Then all the problems faced during this first week are discussed with the mentor during sessions.

* **Phase 2: The observation phase**

Wubbels, Creton and Hooymayer (1987) refer to this phase as the observation phase as well. This phase comes after the first weeks of initial service and covers the following six week as well. During these six weeks the beginner principal visits other beginning principals and tries to compare notes with them.

During these visits the beginner principal discusses the problems he is facing with the other beginner principals as well. The effects of the visits are also discussed with the mentor during their regular sessions.

* **Phase 3: Guidance phase**

This phase covers the six months following the observation phase. Since the mentorship is critical to this model, the mentor is very involved with the beginner principal during this phase.

The mentor must at this stage give a written report to the beginning principal about what s/he has observed so far. The mentor and the mentee must discuss the report in details.

Therefore, since this model is keenly focused on mentorship, it should be used to complement other efforts that are also necessary for inducting beginner principals.

2.4.6 The model of Castallo, Flencher, Rossetti and Sekowski (1992)

It is important for these researchers (Castallo et al., 1992:113-125) that an induction process be well-structured and its goals well-stated. The school district must ensure that the induction process is well-planned to accomplish its goals and that the induction effort should begin with identifying induction goals.

This model is content-goals and process- goals oriented and involves the following steps.

Step 1: Sharing general information

Beginning principals always have general concerns that should be addressed as soon as possible, starting with the interview process. Information regarding the community and its make-up, housing availability and support for the school should be provided. Specific information about the position, such as expectations, size of the school, support assistance personnel services staff, and size of the district should be provided as well.

Step 2: Supplying assignment data

In addition to the general information provided, the beginning principal will want to know the specific duties and responsibilities of the position. Another matter of concern to most beginning principals is how they will be evaluated. This data must be supplied as well.

Step 3: A formal welcome to the district

After entry, it is important that the district formally welcome the beginner principal. The district must offer assistance to the beginner principal so as to show that it has a sincere interest in the smooth transition of the employee.

Step 4: Presentation sessions

There must be formal presentation sessions scheduled after the beginning principal reports to the district. These formal sessions can address topics such as: Job expectations, job performance, relationships with teachers, students and parents and some difficulties that are part of any job.

Step 5: Meeting with the mentor

Mentoring is part of this model. After the school district has done its part, the mentor now comes in and works with the beginning principal for the next two years. The mentor observes, guides and writes a report about the mentee. There are regular meetings between the two and details of difficulties faced by the beginning principal are discussed during these sessions.

Therefore, since entry is a quintessential and critical issue to the beginning principal, every effort must be made to seek help in the adjustment process. This can only be attained through a well thought-out process with clearly stated goals.

2.4.7 The model of Oosthuizen (1992)

Oosthuizen's (1992:25) model of personnel integration suits the needs of the beginning principals well. Although its content could be applied to any personnel in any organization, it seems better suited to the beginning principal.

Generally the model includes and encompasses four phases:

Phase 1: The introduction

According to Oosthuizen's (1992:25) model, induction begins prior to entrance and must include interviews and prior visits to the school. The interview and prior visit are important in that they provide the candidate with a knowledge of the environment in which he will work. The interview offers an opportunity to ask questions that are of future concern.

Phase 2: Orientation

This is the initial orientation and must take place immediately after formal appointment. Orientation affords the beginner principal the opportunity to get to know the school and the people he will work with; the teachers and students.

During this phase the background of the school should be provided to the beginner principal. Additionally, the objectives of the school must be explained. Other information such as the school buildings and facilities should be provided as well.

The overall organizational structure and administrative nature of the school are an important part of the orientation process. Information in these aspects should be made available to the beginning principal.

It should be remembered, however, that Oosthuizen's (1992) view is that induction is a phase which is continuous.

Phase 3: Induction phase

According to Oosthuizen (1992:25) this phase is continuous and it involves a mentor. Since the mentor plays an important role during this phase, he is the first to meet with the beginner principal.

The mentor's meeting with the beginner principal is both formal and informal. After meeting with the mentor, the beginner principal then meets with the superintendent, teachers and administrative staff of the school.

During these meetings, school policy should be explained, resources and facilities shown and other visits arranged to other areas of interest and concern.

Phase 4: Feedback interviews

The whole integration process is not complete until feedback has been done. This feedback is done in the form of interview both with the beginning principal, the mentor, and others who were involved in the integration process.

It is important to note that Oosthuizen's (1992) model offers phase-by-phase integration into the job. Each phase embodies different activities but all are intertwined.

2.4.8 The tri-dimensional model of Daresh and Playko (1992)

Daresh and Playko (1992a:18-19) view induction as a tri-dimensional conceptualization. Their view is that the induction process encompasses three distinct phases with three dimensions. The three phases and the three dimensions make up what they call professional development of the school principal.

Daresh and Playko (1992a:18-19) divide induction into three phases namely; pre-service preparation, induction, and in-service education.

Phase 1: Pre-service preparation

This phase consists of learning activities and other processes that take place prior to initial job placement, recruitment,
selection, training, licensure and placement in a first job. Typically, this phase involves taking academic courses from colleges or universities.

According to Daresh and Playko (1992a:18) this phase is important because it is the beginning of professional development of the principal's career and courses serve as the proper strategy for imparting theoretical knowledge to the principals. Courses that are taken during this phase help the principals to assimilate information.

Phase 2: The induction phase

Daresh and Playko (1992a:19) define this phase as the period in a person's (principal's) career when he is in a new position in an organization playing a new role.

The process of induction is not necessarily concluded in one year in a new job. It may take several years to complete, depending on the nature of the role and characteristics of the individual. It usually involves planned field activities that are deemed necessary for effective adjustment of beginner principals.

Daresh and Playko's (1992a) view seems to indicate that induction is only a phase with its own programme or programmes.

Phase 3: In-service education

This is the last phase of the tri-dimensional model of Daresh and Playko (1992a). It consists of learning opportunities that are provided to principals while they are engaged in the job. The learning opportunities are geared to helping the principals perform their duties effectively and efficiently. They are also intended to provide personal and professional growth and development on the part of the principal.

Typically, in the U.S.A. it is the colleges and universities who offer the in-service education. The instruction is provided by college and university professors.

Daresh and Playko (1992a) assert that the in-service education phase must bear the following characteristics:

- it is directed toward meeting local school needs;
- participants are involved in planning, implementation and evaluation of the process;
- it is based on participants' needs;
- effective in-service instructional methods are applied;
- it provides quality control and is conducted by competent people;
- it is part of the long-term systematic staff development plan;
- it allows participants to share ideas;
- it addresses the participant's needs, concerns and interests;
- it has both intrinsic and extrinsic incentives to participants;
- activities for in-service are provided during school time; and
- there is a plan for an ongoing evaluation process.

In summary, the three phases of the induction process must be seen in concert. Thus, they are interactive and interwoven in nature in that pre-service leads to induction, which in turn is related to in-service education. As Daresh and Playko (1992a:22) put it, the issues of professional development cannot be defined as isolated and separated events in a person's (principal's) career. Each phase gives credence to the other, hence they must be viewed more holistically.

2.4.9 The model of Wold and Bailey (1994)

The induction model of Wold and Bailey (1994:40-41) encompassses seven steps for inducting beginning principals. These seven steps, as outlined by Wold and Bailey, are:

* **Step one: The central office**

During step one, the beginning princpal is introduced to the central-office staff members, receives a description of each role and receives a review of budgetary and purchase order procedures and other routine.

* **Step two: Building services**

In this step, the beginning principal is introduced to the custodial and maintenance staff and and overview is given related custodial contracts, building rent and upcoming building mintenance projects.

- **Step three: School building and staff procedures**

Following the introduction of the beginning principals to the school's secretary and office staff, a review is made of the school's staff members and each of their assignments. Staff strengths and weaknesses, as well as various school issues including teacher contract and handbooks are discussed.

- **Step four: Special education staff and procedures**

The beginning principal is given an overview of his role within the district's special education framework. Included here is also an explanation of the support services available, a review of the special education cooperative services framework and introduction to the special education staff.

- **Step five: Community and parent involvment**

The beginning principal is introduced to the officers of the school's parent group. It is especially helpful if the beginning principal can attend a parent group meeting before the predecessor departs.

Also to be included at this step is a tour of the building and district attendance area, introduction of the beginning principal to board of education members as well as a description of the various local newspapers and news media outlets that cover the schools.

- **Step six: Evaluation process**

Discussion here centres on an overview of the often complicated and varied evaluation process for the various school employees. The beginning principal learns how he will personally be evaluated, including clear and concise expectations regarding the beginning principal's performance.

- **Step seven: District vision**

During this last step, special care is taken to outline the procedures and processes by which te district formulates its own goals. The district's mission statement, development of the objectives and districts long-term and short-term planning process are discussed.

Although Wold and Bailey (1994) see their seven-step induction process for beginning principals as ideal for every school district, they further assert that no induction process will salvage the principal who doesn't have what it takes to succeed in in a particular district. However, thoughtful induction can help to avoid failure by one who does.

2.4.10 The model of Legotlo (1994)

The model of Legotlo (1994) encompasses five phases. Each phase has activities which are geared to provide the beginning principal with smooth adjustment to the principalship. The five phases include the following:

Phase 1: Pre-appointment

The pre-appointment phase involves both recruitment and selection.

* *Recruitment*

According to Legotlo (1994), the induction cycle begins before the initial conduct between the institution and the beginning principal; more especially if he is an outsider. Therefore, when a vacancy occurs a position guide containing the person and position specifications should be prepared to give direction to those responsible for recruitment and selection.

* *Selection*

The initial interview should provide an opportunity for the recuiter to furnish the applicant with variety of inforamtion on a range of relevant matters. The interview should also enable the candidates to meet with the district official and to visit the community. The candidate should be fully informed about the conditions of employment, the school and the local community.

Phase 2: Principal-designate period

The following must be done during the second phase:

* a letter of appointment should be sent by the superintendent or board of education;
* an experienced principal should be assigned in consultation with the beginning principal ;

- a brochure should be prepared for the mentor that explains the aims and the goals of the induction programme and the responsibilities of the mentor;
- a preliminary conference is held between the mentor and the superintendent;
- a conference between the beginning principals and the superintendent is held;
- copies of school handbooks and records are furnished;
- the induction team should be established; and
- conditions of employment confirmed.

The above preparations should be made before the beginning principal assumes his duty.

Phase 3: Induction workshops, seminars and conferences

During this phase, the induction team should establish the concerns and the problems of the beginning principal and organize the initial workshops to address such identified needs. The next series of workshops, seminars and conferences should include experienced principals as mentors.

Phase 4: Follow-up

The superintendent should plan the follow-up steps. Follow-up visits and interviews are essential during the first few weeks of employemnt. These visits are important to clarify assignments and questions that may be raised by the beginning principals. Follow-up reports should be filed and can be used for appraisal.

Phase 5: Evaluation

Appraisal of the induction process is important and should attempt to minimise the rate of early turnovers. Additionally, the evaluation system should reveal the strengths and weaknesses of the induction process. However, the main purpose of controlling is to see how well the system is able to attract and retain competent principals and to achieve the induction goals.

Legotlo's (1994) induction model is among the first for beginning principals in developing countries. It is therefore of crucial importance for beginning principals in developing countries.

From the foregoing reviews on different induction approaches (cf. 2.3-2.4.10) it is clear that the nature and scope of induction are presented from differing points of view and

approaches. However, many of these views and approaches seem to suggest that the nature of induction encompasses a process, programme, phase or steps.

Thus, from the literature review, induction can be viewed in one of the two ways, namely induction as a whole process that consists of different phases each with its own programme or induction as a phase of a programme with its own components.

2.4.11 Synthesis and perspective

What has so far been discussed has highlighted a number of aspects about induction. It is clear that a structured induction process is essential for a beginning principal. This individual must be inducted formally into the new world (school).

Sometimes it is erroneously argued that induction of the beginning school principals is the task of the superintendent. Most investigations, however, point to the role of the mentor, who is not only a guide in respect to the field of school management (principalship), but also a confidant (Hunt, 1968; Wubbels, Creton & Hooymayer, 1987; Jensen, 1987; Oosthuizen, 1992).

Furthermore, induction of the beginning principals in the wider context is also a shared task of all the people concerned with effective educational management of the district. Active empathy for and involvement with beginning principals are not favours which those in the school district perform, but their duty. The needs of beginning principals are located in many aspects, of which the content of the subject is but one.

It is pointed out that some aspects of the induction approaches reviewed (cf. 2.4-2.4.10) may or may not be suitable to the subject of this study. Thus, the question that arises, however, is how induction should be defined and viewed. Therefore, a definition of induction and a model relevant for this study are necessary and must be established.

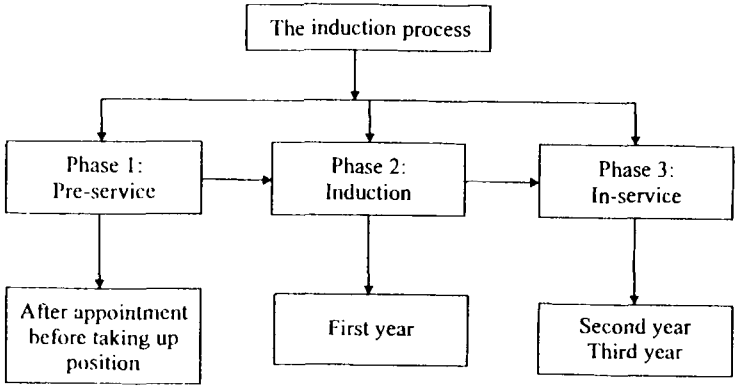
Certain aspects of induction can be ascertained from the literature that can lead to a definition of induction as a process and induction as a programme for this study. Gerber et al. (1987) say that *induction process* and *induction programme* are synonymous. Thus, they are the means used to develop in beginning principals the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values necessary to carry out their job effectively.

Therefore, for the purpose of this study,induction is seen as a process with phases, each phase with its own programme (cf. 2.3). The programme in each phase may be designed

to fit the needs of a particular individual. Furthermore, an induction programme is a well-structured comprehensive professional development strategies with clearly articulated goals designed to facilitate the induction process. Both the process are interwoven thus they provide support for the needs, concerns challenges and problems faced by beginning principals.

Figure 2.2 below represents the conceptualization of the induction process envisioned for this study while the induction programme with clearly articulated goals is developed and detailed in chapter seven..

Figure 2.2 The induction process



A clear examination of this figure shows that the process envisioned has linkage phases and includes activities normally associated with effective personnel management whose goal is to recruit, select the best candidates (principals), and that seeks to assist the beginning principal to adjust to his principalship position with ease. The goal of the induction process is to equip the beginning principal with the knowledge and skills that would enable him to perform his managerial tasks effectively and efficiently.

Phase 1: Pre-service

The pre-service phase is the period after appointment and before taking up the position. After formal appointment has taken place, a number of activities are necessary in an attempt to induct the beginning principal before he takes up the principalship. These activities must begin immediately after appointment until the first day on the job.

First of all, the conditions of employment must be confirmed. Subsequently, the beginning principal can now be acquainted with the school, community, position and personnel. A visit to the outgoing principal is in order for proper handing over before the school opens.

During this period the beginning principal is also introduced to Board of Governors (BOG), Parent Teacher Association (PTA), Personnel office and other committees within the school. Additionally, the beginning principal must be inducted into the community agents such as organizations, and sponsors in case of parochial schools.

This phase is important especially for an outsider and helps the beginning principal not to feel a stranger when he begins his job as a principal for the first time (Oosthuizen, 1992). Since the role of the mentor is important to this induction process, he already plays an important role during induction activities of this phase.

Phase 2: Induction (first year)

Athough this study focused on beginning principals with 0-3 years, the first year is deemed as the induction phase in this study. Therefore the induction phase and the induction programme focus mainly on the first year. The first year is seen as crucial, thus it is the real induction period while the second and third years are seen as in-service for professional development which is a continous process.

During the first year the beginner principal's needs are many and delicate (Louis, 1980). A lot of attention should therefore be focused on this first year of the principalship. It is the first year's activities that set the tone for the proceeding years of the principalship.

In this study, the beginning principal's school year begins in January and ends in December. The whole year is evenly divided into three terms with April, August and December set aside as school recess months. Therefore induction activities must be spread throughout the year, including workshops in the first term (April), seminars in the second term (August) and conferences in the third term (December).

Mentoring for beginning principals is a most desirable practice and this practice would work best if it were directed largely at supporting first year school principals in their effort to increase their levels of skills in the areas related to increased socialization and self-awareness to the job and to the new system(Daresh & Playko, 1994:43). As such, a mentor plays a very important role during the first year of the induction phase. The mentor must have regular sessions with the beginning principal throughout the three terms.

Therefore, in this study the first year is a complete induction phase with a complete induction programme with clearly articulated goals based on the needs of the beginning principals. In addition, follow-ups and evaluation of the induction phase are necessary.

Phase 3: In-service phase (second and third years)

This last phase has two components thus the second and third year. Theory and practice are the hallmarks of this phase. Praxis is imperative for effective educational management and the beginning school principal will need it. And as Jacobson et al. (1985:28) say, theory without the check of practice is empty, and practice without theory to guide it is blind.

Beginning principals are chosen from the ranks of effective classroom teachers and deputy principals without prior proven academic preparation for principalship (cf.1.2). Although some theoretical courses will be included in the workshops, seminars and conferences during the induction phase (first year), they should be more emphasized during the in-service phase(second and third year). Therefore, this phase must include some formal course work.

Skeat (1991:16) sees the need for a formalised course work as part of the induction process when she says that good induction follows from good recruitment, selection, initial welcome, on-the-job training, acclimatisation and often a formal induction course.

In-service activities refers to the learning opportunities that are provided to the principals while they engaged on the job (Daresh & Playko, 1992a). Further, these learning opportunities provide personal and professional growth and development on the part of the principal. Therefore, beginning principals should be required to attend several management courses during the in-service phase.

In the final analysis the three phases of the induction process must be seen holistically. Thus, they are interactive, interwoven and inter-connected in nature. However, it must be underscored that the best induction process of the beginning principal can only be realized by the involvement and participation of concerned parties. It cannot be left to one individual to do it.

2.4.12 People responsible for the induction of beginning principals

2.4.12.1 The Ministry of Education and Teachers' Service Commission

In Kenya school principals are civil servants under the Ministry of Education. However, the Education Act (1968) established the Teachers' Service Commission (TSC) and mandated it to act as the employee of teachers and school principals with funding provided by the government (Ministry of Education).

Therefore, the Ministry of Education and the Teachers' Service Commission should provide all resources, time, money and personnel for the induction of the beginning principal.

2.4.12.2 The Area Education Officer (AEO)

The Area Education Officer as the representative of the Ministry of Education and the Teachers' Service Commission (TSC) should help the beginning principal by giving him an unqualified commitment to the induction process (Janson, 1989).

Therefore, he must orient the beginning principal to the school, school community and the zonal offices, including the Teachers' Advisory Centre.

2.4.12.3 The Teachers' Advisory Centre tutor (TAC-Tutor)

In the recent past, the Ministry of Education and the Teachers Services Commission (TSC) have established Teachers' Advisory Centres throughout the country (Mulwa, 1994). These centres, located in every zone in the country are run by TAC-Tutors who are employees of both the Ministry of Education and the Teachers' Service Commission.

The purpose of these centres is to provide training and consultations for teachers. Therefore, this study will attempt to recommend the utilization of these centres and the responsibilities of the TAC-Tutor be expanded to serve especially the beginning principal - including proving worshops, seminars and conferences.

2.4.12.4 The Chairman (PTA/BOG)

The school committee through its chairman must provide for the smooth adjustment of the school principal. Tt is the responsibility of the chairman to introduce the beginning principals to the school committee members (Janson, 1989).

2.4.12.5 The mentor

Mentoring for beginning principals is a most desirable practice and the use of mentors has become so widespread that it has come to be viewed as panacea for dealing with many existing limiations on professional role learning by teachers and administrators (Erasmus, 1993:5). The role of the mentor in the induction of beginning principal is summarized as (Daresh & Playko, 1992b):

- role model;
- role clarifier;
- provider of technical expertise;
- helper in the socialization to the school and system;
- confidant; and
- door opener.

In this study experienced principals will be used to guide the beginning principals into integration into the system and the profession. Serving as a mentor or as a resource person should also afford the experienced principals with an opportunity to reflect direct on their personal assumptions, values, and professional development needs in a different way from the ways in which they perceive their professional responsibility (Daresh & Playko, 1994).

There must be a commitment between the mentor and mentee to walk together especially through the entire induction phase (first year). Furthermore, effective mentors for beginning principals must portray the following characteristics (Daresh & Playko, 1990; Erasmus, 1993).

- good motivators;
- effective leaders
- good at what they do in their schools;
- well-supported by their schools;
- well-respected in the school system;
- sensitive to the needs of the beginning principal; and
- secure in their position in the school system.

Athough it may be difficult to find a mentor who meets all of the above charactetistics, a deliberate attempt must be made to locate a mentor with most of them.

- **The value of a mentoring system for the protégé**

A growing body of research indicates that the mentoring system has beneficial values to both the protégé and the mentor (Van der Westhuizen & Erasmus, 1994a; 1994b). As such, the mentoring system enables beginning principals to experience management practice and to analyse something which is not possible in traditional training programmes (Levin, 1989:242). Additionally, Cohen and Sweeney (1992:3) point out that people who have experienced mentoring achieve greater success in their managerial work than those who have not.

Citing the work of Smith (1990) Van der Westhuizen and Erasmus (1994a) say that the value of a mentoring system for the protégé lies in:

* the purposeful initiation of a planned and organized development programme which is directed at the specific developmental needs of the individual;
* the possibility of accelerated learning processes;
* the possibility of appropiate work experiences and promotion possibilities;
* recognition of of individual achievements which, in turn, makes provision work dissatisfaction and other motivational aspects;
* the immediate availability of support in respect of work-related matters;

* the possibility of socialization within the work situation by following the example of the mentor's behaviour and values; and
* the possibility of of a holistic and yet individualized approach to professional development.

Mentoring programmes have a profoundly positive influence on the professional growth of the protégé as well (Daresh & Playko, 1990). Further, Daresh and Playko (1990) assert that the fact that the mentee is associated with the person (mentor) who understands the nature and the essence of the specific work situation, is of immeasurable value to the protégé. This results from frequent interactions between the mentor and the protégé. The mentor system also facilitates the adjustment of the protégé to the principalship position and the school system at large.

Professional development is a journey and not a destination. Therefore an induction programme, whether pre-service induction or in-service induction, must be geared toward professional development of the protégé. The mentoring system forms an anchor for the professional formation during the induction phase. In this respect, Daresh (1988:16) underscores the value of mentoring in relation to the future management of the school principal as personal reflection, professional conviction, interpersonal style and personal professional development.

In the light of the foregoing, it can be axiomatically argued that the value of the mentoring system for the protégé is seen as a panacea for the woes and problems facing beginning principals. The professional and personal benefits derived from it are enormous. And although the value of a mentoring system can only be realized when the protégé moves from under the mentor's wings and is accepted and respected as a colleague, its importance cannot be overemphasized.

- **The value of mentoring system for the mentor**

The mentoring system is a dual benefit system. Both the mentor and mentee are beneficiaries in their personal as well as professional lives. In this regard, Daresh and Playko (1992a) maintain that mentors benefit as much, if not more, through the mentoring system.

Furthermore, Van der Westhuizen and Erasmus (1994b) argue that to serve as a source of help for other people offers ample opportunities for personal reflection with respect to

personal convictions and values in addition to personal and professional developmental needs.

The mentoring system also provides for the personal career progress of the mentor (Legotlo, 1994). The mentor is charged positively by the enthusiasm and energy of the protégé as new ideas and techniques of handling problems are recognized. In this sense the mentor learns from the mentee as well.

Van der Westhuizen and Erasmus (1994b), referring to Prutt (1990) and Daresh and Playko(1992d) summarize the value of a mentoring system for the mentor as:

- it makes personal growth of the mentor possible;
- teamwork, shared values and improved communication are promoted;
- work satisfaction is promoted;
- increased motivation occurs;
- the recognition of colleagues is enjoyed; leadership skills are developed; and
- a stable organizational culture is promoted.

From the above brief overview, it is clear that the mentor reaps benefit from the mentoring system in a peronal and professional way. The mentee is not a **tabula rasa** (empty slate) but brings into the mentoring system new ideas, enthusiasm and norms and values that contribute to the growth of the mentor. The mentoring system forces the mentor to keep abreast of the latest management practices and research findings which will make both the mentor and mentee grow.

2.4.12.6 The beginning principal

In addition to the forementioned induction major players, there are also some practical strategies rookies can employ to make their entry year smooth and successful. Anderson (1991:71) proposes the following entry year checklist for beginning principals.

- Be clear about your mission.
- Seek information about school system procedure.
- Prepare a list of questions for the outgoing principal.
- Find a veteran buddy.
- Be yourself.
- Get to know your staff.
- Initiate change slowly.

- Ask for feedback on performance.
- Develop a support group.
- Maintain a sense of humour.

The responsibility for induction, however, is that of the Teachers' Service commission (TSC) and Ministry of Education whose service the beginning school principal joins. Furthermore, it must be noted that the problems and needs of the beginning principal continue even after the induction period is over. Thus, follow-up must be made in the succeeding years.

And although there are some problems involved in the induction process and a lot of sacrifice is needed to make it work, its importance cannot be over-emphasised neither can the problems and needs of the beginning principal be ignored.

2.5 The goals of induction

An induction process must have goals that are explicit. These goals must conform to the educational system philosophy and mission. Goals provide direction to the whole induction process, hence it is only through well-stated goals that the effectiveness of the induction process can be determined through evaluation.

According to Rebore (1985:180) an effective induction process must have well-defined goals that will help the new employee (beginning principal) to feel welcome and secure, become a member of the professional team, be inspired to excel, adjust to the new environment and become familiar with the school community.

Accordingly, Rebore (1985:180) sees the goal of induction as twofold: to provide information to the beginner principal and to help him adjust to the principalship and the profession.

In the same vein Castetter (1986:265) says that the goal of the induction process is to provide information not fully covered during the recruitment and selection processes. The individual recruiter, for example, may not have been capable of explaining to the recruit the ramifications involved in a given position assignment. This information can, therefore, be provided during the induction process.

From the literature review (cf.2.3-2.4.8) it was observed that structures and approaches of induction may vary widely. However, according to Schlechty (1985:38) they all share common goals, namely (1) to develop in new members of an occupation (beginner principals) those skills, forms of knowledge, attitudes, and values necessary to carry out their occupational role, (2) to create conditions that cause new members (beginner principals) to internalize the norms of the occupation to the point that the primary means of social control is self-control.

An induction process serves more than one purpose. This notion is advanced by Hegler and Dudley (1987:5) who identify six goals of induction. They see the goal of induction as geared towards:

- improving the novice principal's performance;
- increasing the retention of the promising beginner principal;
- providing strategies for the beginner principal which will enable him to acquire additional knowledge and skills;
- fostering attitudes that foster effective educational management;
- assisting in recognising the effect of isolation; and
- aiding him in becoming familiar with the school district's materials and resources along with community integration.

These goals seem to suggest that beginning principals are less competent than might be desirable. Thus, the goals must be promoted if the beginning principals are to realize their potential.

Researchers Weindling and Earley (1987), Daresh (1989a), Anderson (1989), Beeson and Matthews (1992), and Parkay and Hall (1992) have shown that beginner principals face specific problems in their first year of principalship. Therefore, ineffectiveness and inefficiency characterize their first year.

Because of the problems beginner principals face in their first year of principalship, the goal of induction should be to integrate these principals so that they become effective as quickly as possible in their first year (Skeats 1991:9).

Daresh (1986; 1987a) and Daresh and Playko (1989a; 1992a), strong advocates of induction for beginner principals, are of the opinion that induction should be geared to assist beginning principals to make the transition from novice to experienced professionals.

Thus, since induction is concerned with the professional development of the beginner principals, the goal of induction should be essentially to do that.

Additionally, Daresh and Playko (1992a:102-105) identify what they call "three potential goals of induction." The three noted goals are:

* *Remediation*

Webster (1982:383) defines remediation as the intent to correct deficiencies, as in certain study courses. Daresh and Playko (1992:102) point to the misconstrual that may arise from this goal and as they put it, remediation may seem like a harsh word, because it may seem to imply that the institution that prepared the beginner principal is at fault, incompetent, or that it did a bad job in preparing the beginner principal to assume responsibilities that goes along with the principalship.

But remediation is a necessary goal for every beginning principal with and without pre-service training. Pre-service training cannot cater for all the problems the future principals are bound to face. There is always a need to remediate something.

Sehlare (1993:59) sees remediation as a critical goal intended to address the deficiencies on the part of someone who is first coming 'on board' (beginner teacher). Therefore, like the beginner teacher, the beginning school principal is also coming 'on board' and he will need remediation as well.

Rogus and Drury (1988:11) point to the importance of this goal
and assert that no pre-service programme can adequately prepare the first year principal to cope with the loneliness and frustration built into the role and to manage the school operation efficiently. As such, remediation addresses some of those needs.

Further, Rogus and Drury (1988) maintain that no pre-service programme can fully communicate the bewilderment involved in trying to make sense of how the system works, learning the hidden agendas of other staff members, or figuring out "whom to call for what" to get things done. Thus, remediation provides answers to these questions.

In effect, given the survival demands of the role of principalship few would express surprise at Wolcott's (1983:100) finding that the beginner principals seldom achieve what they had hoped to achieve at the time of the appointment.

Therefore, only through remediation can the deficiencies of pre-service training be dealt with, thereby helping the beginning principal to perform his role more effectively.

Remediation is, thus, an important goal not only for those beginning principals with some sort of pre-service, but for those without it as well. Remediation not only caters for the pre-service training deficiencies but it also gives direction for the beginning principal.

- *Orientation*

Daresh and Playko (1992a:149) see this goal as critical to induction as well. Orientation as a goal provides the beginning principal with information concerning local policies, practices, and procedure.

Orientation as potential goal is to be taken seriously because induction that is done in a perfunctory, cut and dried fashion offers little for the beginner principal to learn about the issues that are of personal concern (Daresh & Playko, 1992a:104).

Therefore, orientation as a goal is important because unless the beginner principal understands the policies, practices, and procedures, he cannot perform his job satisfactorily. Policies provide guidance and direction, thus they give beginning principals a framework to work with.

* *Socialization*

This is the third important potential goal that Daresh and Playko (1992:104) note. They define socialization as the process through which an individual becomes integrated into a social group by learning the group's and his role in that group.

It seems that the key words inherent in this definition are "integrated into the social group" and learning the group's culture. Therefore, this goal is important for it not only helps the beginning principal to get integrated into the profession, but into the organization as well.

Furthermore, Daresh and Playko (1992:105) rightly assert that the processes involved in socialization are designed to help the beginning principal find an answer to the question "what is going on here?".

It is, however, underscored here that, although the school, like other institutions, does provide socialization for the principals, teachers and students, its ultimate goal must always

be to educate the students. Thus, socialization is peripheral and must never be seen as the main aim of its existence.

In the same vein, Gorton (1983:162) asserts that the education of children is the central purpose of the school, and the principal is the most important resource in providing that quality education. Therefore, every school district should be interested in improving the quality of professional staff and especially the professionalism of the principal.

It is clearly evident from the literature reviewed that induction, whether it is seen as a process, phase, or programme, must have clearly articulated goals. Clearly stated goals are critical for an effective induction process.

Goals provide direction, guidance, and clarity of what needs to be done in the induction process. The planning of an induction process emanates from the goals that have been formulated and then it is developed to meet those goals.

Induction, whether it is seen as a process or a phase, must have an evaluation step. Thus, evaluation is done in the light of the goals that have been set. Without the goals it is impossible to measure whether the induction process was a success or a failure. Therefore, clearly stated goals must be part of an effective induction process.

Furthermore, from the literature reviewed, it seems that two kinds of goals of induction are implicitly mentioned, namely content goals and process goals. Content goals are those goals that help in deciding what needs to be included in the induction process while process goals show how to go about achieving content goals. The two kinds of goals are interactive and inseparable.

2.6 The importance of induction

Entry is a quintessential situation, when the "hopes and fears of all the years" are again rekindled, when the dreams and visions of both the person entering and the organization inviting him are aroused, when all the anxieties of facing the unknown are their highest pitch, and when one experiences the ritual of initiation into the mysteries of this particular tribe (Tobert, 1982:9).

From Tobert's observation it would appear that the beginning principal's world is full of uncertainties and only through induction can these fears be overcome.

Starting a new job is considered by psychologists to be one of the most stressful life experiences for most people. Therefore, the more beginning principals can be helped to settle and reduce their anxieties, the better they will be able to concentrate on the job and learn about the organization and the profession as well (Skeats 1991:11).

Rogus and Drury (1988), Anderson (1991) Daresh and Playko (1992) agree on the importance of induction for the beginner principals. These researchers have researched the problems and needs of beginning principals and have concluded that induction provides a partial (if not complete) solution to the problems faced by the beginning principals.

Louis (1980:226) points out that the first six to ten months in a new job are a crucial "transition period" in which newcomers (beginner principals) need information and assistance from veteran members of the organization. Louis describes this period as the one in which the neotypes are most receptive to assistance and to learning new skills.

Thus, the entry year experiences of beginning principals and the processes that the school districts use to induct the beginning principals have a profound impact on their future skill development, attitudes, actions and effectiveness. Thus it is true that this impact can only be realized through induction.

The importance of induction is also noted by Gorton (1983:159) who observes that induction requires sensitive planning and careful execution for it is during this period that the new staff (beginning principals) gather their first impressions concerning the school's policies, objectives, leadership and modes of operation. Moreover, it is during this period that the initial acquaintance is made with the colleagues and with the community inhabitants, characteristics, agencies and services.

Stressing the indispensability of induction Castetter (1986:260) correctly states that school system can recruit, select, assign and reassign, but unless beginner principals become fully adjusted to the work to be performed, the environment in which the work it to be performed and the people with whom it is performed, they cannot be expected to give their best efforts towards attaining personal,professional and institutional goals.

Thus, only through an effective induction process can the beginning principals be helped to realize their personal, professional, and organizational potential.

The quality of the principal's work force is influenced not only by the principals who enter the principalship, but also by those who stay in the principals' ranks. There is a growing

concern that first year teachers as well as first year principals who leave their professions do it because nobody helped them to "learn the ropes" (Jensen, 1987:31).

Research has shown that the influence of the first days of work has a lasting effect on performance and staff turnover and that the rewards in terms of goodwill, morale and work efficiency greatly outweigh the effort and investment required to make the new employee feel at home (Castetter, 1986; Jensen, 1987; Skeats, 1991). Therefore, early leaving of beginner principals is reduced by effective initial induction that follows after effective recruitment and selection.

It therefore follows that good induction is important and makes good sound business sense. It is true that personnel turnover represents an economic loss to the school system. Investment in recruiting, selecting, and inducting new personnel is dissipated when they leave voluntarily. Induction is important for it helps to minimize this drain on the school system's financial and human resources.

It is clear from the literature that the importance of induction cannot be over-emphasised. Beginning principals need to have realistic expectations of their job. They need to be helped to fit rapidly into the school system and the people they work with. They need to know clearly what is expected of them, the standards and the style of the work they are to perform.

Additionally, they need to understand their school's rules and regulations and who makes decisions about what issues in the school district. They should be helped to develop their aptitudes and talents, and must be made to feel that their employer has respect for them as individuals, as potentially resourceful persons rather than as mechanistic resources.

And as Skeats (1991:17) points out, good induction helps to spot recruitment and selection mistakes early, hence to highlight further training needs. It helps the beginner principal never having to say that 'I didn't know I was supposed to do it like that'.

And since first impressions are often lasting, every effort should be expanded during induction to ensure that beginner principal gains correct understanding of the many facets of the principalship and only effective induction can achieve that.

It must be noted, however, that good induction is not a panacea for all other school evils. It can only be effective when building on good personnel policies and recruitment and selection practices. If the schools do not attract and select the right kind of principals,

induction cannot change them magically into super principals. The school must look into its personnel policies to ensure that they attract, motivate, reward, and retain the right principals.

Induction will undoubtedly help in the retention of the best principals and their motivation, provided that it is congruent with the other elements of employment.

2.7 Summary

In this chapter an analysis of personnel induction problems suggests that the introduction of an effective induction process is one way in which school systems can contribute to the assimilation of beginning principals, as well as to their personal and professional development. Care and attention to induction will secure the same high levels of productivity and efficiency among beginner school principals as planned installation and preventive maintenance can achieve for new machinery and equipment.

The ultimate reward of induction, apart from direct improvement of beginning school principal's effectiveness and efficiency, is that the contribution which competent and highly motivated school principals can make increases as years go by; unlike equipment which begins to deteriorate from the first day it operates (Fowler, 1991:8).

Undoubtedly the most important influence on the quality of instructional programmes is the collective competency of the professional staff and the recruitment and selection of able personnel are the **sine qua non** of the development of a competent staff. Raising the professionalism of school principals will not be accomplished by merely upgrading standards of their pre-service training programmes, but will be enhanced by the school district officers'efforts to recruit and select the most capable principals, utilizing effective methods of induction, and incorporating structures and attitudes that encourage the retention of talented principals.

However, as Harris and monk (1992:88) note, a mutt cannot be transformed into a show dog, regardless of the training, grooming and love lavished upon it, and neither can weak school principals be "inducted" out of their ineptitude. Therefore, recruitment and selection processes should result in securing the best principals, who are then properly inducted.

In this overview induction has been placed in the context of personnel management. Following this an overview of different definitions and approaches of induction was

examined. A synthesis and a perspective have been developed on account of the preceding with the aim of demarcating a point of departure in terms of the nature of induction. The goals and the importance of induction have been reviewed as well.

CHAPTER III

PROBLEMS OF AND SKILLS FOR BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

3.1 Introduction

Beginning principals face specific challenges and difficulties in the early stages of their principalship. A number of issues contribute to this difficulty, including inadequate pre-service training, lack of pre-service training, poor induction, lack of induction and an ambiguous job description or simply a lack of it.

It is difficult to generalize about the types of problems that beginning principals encounter, because these problems will vary according to the principal's background, training, personality and school situation.

However, discussions with, observations and studies of beginning principals suggest that there are several problems which many of them face during the first year. It should be pointed out, however, that the majority of these same problems are also encountered to a certain degree by experienced principals who move to new school districts (Gorton, 1983:409).

Therefore, the purpose of this chapter is to review the literature related to the problems, challenges, difficulties and concerns facing beginning principals and important skills for them.

3.2 Problems with pre-service training

While little research and only anecdotal writings exist that investigate pre-service and training problems, a review of literature in educational management reveals problems throughout the process of the principals' pre-service training (Manasse,1985; Murphy & Hallinger, 1987).

Thus, some of the problems in the pre-service training of principals are reviewed in order to place into perspective the role educational systems should play in providing beginning principals with a well-conceived transition to the job.

"This job isn't at all what I expected it would be like." Such statements, or unspoken thoughts, are common to many individuals new to the job (Anderson, 1989:35). Louis

(1980:277) also notes that surprises are a feature of entry experience and that these surprises represent the difference between an individual's anticipation and subsequent experiences in a new setting.

Part of the pre-service training problem lies in what Lortie (1975) calls anticipatory and occupational socialization process of the principals. In a classic study of teachers, Lortie (1975) identifies three stages of occupational pre-service training that are applicable to aspiring school principals.

Lortie recounts these stages as formal schooling, mediated entry and learning-while-doing. All these stages are, according to Lortie (1975; 1988), problematic in one's enterprise of becoming a school principal.

3.2.1 Problems in formal schooling

In the United States of America (U.S.A), formal preparation of school principals typically consists of 30 hours of post-baccalaureat work at a university or college (U.S. Department of Education, 1987:12). However, Bridges (1986), Marrion (1983), Cornett (1983) and Anderson (1989) maintain that for many years principals have voiced their dissatisfaction with the utility of university and college training in preparing them for the real job.

A 1983 survey of principals found that fewer than 2% of elementary principals credited their success as school principals to their graduate academic course work (National Education Association, 1983). Recent reports show that principals' sentiments towards their pre-service training have not changed significantly (Snyder, 1984; Maher, 1988; Wendel & Breed, 1988; Thomson,1988; Anderson, 1988a, 1988b, 1991, Association of Washington School Principals).

One might ask what exactly the problem is with formal schooling or training for school principals when in essence many people think that it is good? The answer to this question can be found in the few studies that have been carried out.

Manasse (1985:457) points out that much of pre-service training focuses on administrative areas such as finance, law, supervision and general management theory. As such, much of the theory is not useful because pre-service students lack the experience to apply it and because many of the administrative issues addressed are more the concerns of district administrators than of principals.

Conversely, pre-service training fails to address day-to-day operational and management issues as basic as, for example, scheduling, which effective principals must master in order to concentrate on larger issues of instructional leadership, motivation, and change (Cohen & Manasse, 1982:15; Barnnett & Mueller, 1987:30).

According to Bridges (1986:3) most studies show no relationship between formal training and success in the principalship. Bridges (1986) cites four different measures of educational preparation which are unrelated to judged effectiveness: (a) number of years spent in university or college, (b) number of years devoted to graduate work, (c) number of hours in undergraduate education and (d) number of hours taken in graduate education courses.

It perhaps appears that the most significant finding in Bridges' review is that a "negative" relationship between the number of courses taken in educational administration (management) and the exercise of executive professional leadership.

Bridges (1986:3) concludes that principals with less formal preparation in the field of educational administration (management) tend to exhibit greater professional leadership. Thus, the empirical case for formal university and college-based preparation is indeed a weak one.

From Bridges' assertions one can surmise that university and college pre-service training is too theoretical and that principals find it to be of little help. Besides being too theoretical, the university and college programmes may also kindle an exaggerated conception of potency of leadership that results in rookie principals experiencing "reality shock" when they actually try to exercise leadership.

In another study, Bridges (1987:206) points out that the academic community often does not provide aspiring principals with appropiate understanding of the problematic character of a principal's influence and, therefore, tends to intensify, rather than moderate the leadership fantasies of its audience.

Bridges' (1987) indictment includes the following failures in universities and colleges pre-service training of school principals:

* Graduate programmes encourage prospective principals to over-estimate their potential influence.

* Graduate programmes do not prepare prospective principals to cope with success or deal with disappointments.
* Graduate programmes prepare prospective principals to be "thinkers" rather than "doers".
* Graduate programmes ignore the value of intuition, despite the fact that intuition may be critical to the principal's success.
* Graduate programmes predispose principals to avoid conflict rather than teach them how to collaborate to resolve conflict.
* Graduate programmes stress written skills despite the fact that leaders function in a "verbal" world.
* Graduate programmes emphasis rational behaviour, while effective principals often must rely on their emotions.

Furthermore, Bridges suggests that pre-service training programmes may even provide experiences that are dysfunctional for those who aspire to be school principals. Bridges (1987:3) cites four dimensions in which the work of a graduate student is different from the work of a school principal: the pace of the work, the hierarchical nature of work, the character of work-related communications, and the role of emotions in work.

It must be pointed out that the comparison that Bridges draws between students' and principals' work seems to reinforce his notion and assertion that the logical case for formal training in educational administration (management) is a weak one. It also provides a lucid analysis of why university and college programmes may not prepare aspiring principals for the realities of the principalship.

It is observed that Bridges (1986,1987) is not alone in his dissatisfaction with formal training for would-be principals. Marrion (1983), in studying the experiences of four first-year elementary principals, found that all principals relayed with considerable emotions the inadequacies of the university and college training programmes in educational administration for preparing them for the principalship. The following statements are examples of typical comments made to Marrion (1983:101,107):

- I wish someone at my university had taken a two-hour class period and told me how really hectic it can be and all the crazy things that can happen.
- I would like to see the university and college programmes more relevant to the principalship.

Summarizing the state of the affairs in a 1983 policy report, Cornett (1983:18) states that the principals' overriding complaint about university and college training programmes is that they are too theoretical and that they do not provide the necessary training to deal with the job.

Surveys continue to reveal that practising school principals judge university training programmes to be only intermittently useful (Peterson & Finn, 1987:45). One of the reasons for this failure is the rather pervasive anti-recipe philosophy found in schools of educational administration (Murphy & Hallinger, 1987:255).

As a consequence, many of these programmes fail to provide potential role holders with the skills required to perform their job successfully. Gerritz et al. (1984)call this failure a disservice to principals for two reasons:

- The belief that the job of professors in educational administration is to concentrate on comprehensive theories and frameworks and to eschew skills instruction is both wrong-headed and counter-productive. It is often promulgated by those who have no administrative, managerial or educational skills to share.
- The assumption that principals will acquire needed skills is open to challenge. Given the isolated working conditions of many principals and the rather low extent of socialization within the profession, it is difficult to understand where knowledge of these skills is likely to come from and even more difficult to see how they will be perfected in the absence of collegial feedback.

Although it cannot be claimed that the training programmes of principals should be restricted to the development of skills absolutely, the systematic exclusion of skills instruction must be deemed regrettable. Principals need skills if they are to be successful.

As March (1988:233) reminds us, much of the job of an educational manager (principal) involves the mundane work of making a bureaucracy work. It is filled with activities quite distant from those implied by a conception of administration as heroic leadership. It profits from elementary competency.

Schmuck (1988:1) points out that universities have traditionally provided sound academic preparation while offering minimal attention to transforming theory into practice. Moreover, the academic course work in personnel evaluation, law, business management, clinical supervision and public relation, although competently presenting techniques and

technical knowledge, offers very little opportunity to use that knowledge in coping with real people in real schools (Schmuck, 1988:2).

On his part Anderson (1989:54) asserts that the central problem of university and college training is that most programmes present knowledge about school administration, but do not help students develop skills that would help them translate that knowledge into practice.

In his study of beginning principals Anderson (1989:100) points out that many principals reported fragmented time, feelings of being overwhelmed and time demands on the principals as an entry-year surprise. In other words they could not keep up with the pace of the work.

Consistent with Marrion's (1983) findings, many beginning principals interviewed by Anderson (1989) were critical of their formal or pre-service training for failing to prepare them for the rapid-fire pace of a principal's job.

Additionally, Anderson's (1989) findings also seem to confirm Bridges (1987:207) contention that graduate programmes do not provide the type of environment that principals in training need for learning strategies to deal with the emotional demands of the principalship.

It is thus quite obvious from Marrion (1983), Cornett (1983), Bridges (1986,1987), Schmuck, (1988) and Anderson (1989) that the formal training provided by some universities and college does not provide adequate help for the principal's job.

Pre-service training, then, must realistically take into account the nature of the work and work setting of principals and attend to the development of operational management skills. It also needs to pay increased attention to substantive issues of teaching and learning, adult development and organizational process.

Furthermore, because it is important that effective principals know their own strengths and weaknesses and recognize the limitation of their personal leadership styles, pre-service training should provide individual feedback leadership styles and leadership modes.

Additionally, the structure of pre-service training should allow future educational managers to experience first-hand the hectic, non-rational world of educational management through some kind of observation, internship or mentoring experience.

Thus, from the foregoing discussion, the source of principals' discontent with their graduate training programmes has been identified and the reasons why university and college programmes fail to adequately prepare aspiring principals for principalship established.

Therefore, problems that stem from the preceding are that: (1) pre-service training does not prepare aspiring principals for dealing with the rapid pace and varied content of principal's work, (2) pre-service training does not adequately prepare aspiring principals to deal with conflict resolutions, (3) principals depend on face-to-face communication to do their work but aspiring principals spend more time in reading and writing than in work-related personal interactions, (4) feelings are not usually examined during pre-service training thus failing to prepare aspiring principals on how to deal with the emotional demands of the principalship.

The question that arises from this discussion is: If university and college course work does not adequately prepare aspiring school principals for the realities of the principalship, do field experiences provide a better pre-service training process for prospective school principals ?

3.2.2 The problems and inadequacies of mediated entry

The second stage of pre-service training, according to Lortie (1975), is mediated entry and may involve practicals and internships where prospective school principals have a chance to try their hands at real-life school management.

Anderson (1989:61) asserts that carefully designed and supervised internships come nearest to helping aspiring principals realize fully the sweep and complexity of an actual principal position. Yet, according to Cornett (1983), Peterson (1985) and Clerk (1985) many aspiring principals report having had no specific internship or practical experience.

Although the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching favoured extensive internship experiences for aspiring principals in its 1983 study of high school principals in the United States (Boyer, 1983:2), this call has not been heeded and as Goodlad (1983:129) puts it, it is simply not an established procedure in the educational system to identify and groom cadres of the most promising prospects, as is the case with **IBM**, for example. Moreover, Goodlad (1983) laments the fact that when aspirants engage in interships, appropiate training and socialization do not occur.

From the outset, it is already clear that a few researchers such as Boyer (1983) and Anderson (1989) do recommend internship or practical experience. But other researchers, for example, Goodlad (1983:27), maintain that even internship or practical experience is not a panacea for problems facing aspiring school principals.

On the basis of his study of beginning principals, Daresh (1987a:14) contends that school districts' failure to grant release time for aspiring principals is a significant roadblock to effective training experiences providing aspirants with an accurate view of the principal's role before they get into the principalship.

Daresh (1987a) further states that most internships and practical experiences usually consist of synthetic situations where aspiring principals, in most cases full-time teachers unable to get school district support and approval for release time, find some quasi-administrative tasks that can be performed during the time that is not assigned for during the school day to teaching or other duties. As a result, principals are being prepared to serve as school managers by spending five to ten hours per week supervising bus loading, calling the home for truant students, filling out forms for the central office or the state department of education or devising new student handbooks (Anderson, 1989:42).

These activities, as noted by Daresh and Anderson, are no doubt useful for the smooth running of a school, and many practising principals are engaged in these activities every day. However, to rely on projects such as these to give anyone a clear picture of the multifaceted nature of most principals' job is obviously ludicrous.

Schmuck (1988:3) lists several reasons why most internships have not been effective, such as:

* the preparation does not occur over a sufficient period of time;
* the preparers, who include the university and college, are not adequate;
* professors and field supervisors do not collaborate closely enough;
* efforts are not deliberately planned to establish trainees' cognitive linkage between theory and practice;
* insufficient attention is given to both personal-emotional development of the trainees and the social support they receive throughout the internship; and
* although interns have received supervision from administrators, they have not in the main received mentoring, that is, close and supportive help in the egalitarian and collegial relationship.

In contrast to the mediated entry of principals, other professions require long-term formal apprenticeships such as clerkship in law firms, internships and residences in medicine, and extensive management training programmmes in business to train and socialize aspirants for their specific organizational role (Lortie, 1975:59).

If one were to compare arrangements for mediated entry of school principals and those of other professions noted above, the obvious conclusion would be that the principals' arrangements for mediated entry in educational management still need further improvement.

But, while the practices of preparing school principals discussed (cf. 3.2.1-3.2.2) are seen as somehow problematic in the United States of America (U.S.A), they would be embraced in countries, for example, Kenya, where formal training and mediated entry are non-existent.

Therefore, the question that can be raised out of Schmuck's (1988) study is the following: "Does teaching experience provide valuable pre-service preparations experiences for prospective principals that help them orient themselves to the realities of school leadership and to the role they will perform?".

3.2.3 Problems and impact of teaching experience

In a study concerning the problems of beginning principals, Alvy and Colarci (1983:59) found that long-time classroom experience did not ensure fewer difficulties for beginning principals. According to Alvy and Colarci (1983) beginning principals who had taught from 10-15 years experienced more difficulty in their principalship than other sub-groups in eight of nine areas namely: in the curriculum and instruction, professional personnel, school community relations, financial management, and administrative process areas the difference was very considerable.

Alvy's (1983) findings, especially in the area of curriculum and instruction as an area of difficulty for beginner principals with 10-15 years' of teaching experience, are rather puzzling for those who maintain that long-time teaching experience provides one with an expertise in curriculum and instruction.

A 1985 National Association of Elementary School Principals study in the United States indicated that 84.8% of the principals surveyed credited their teaching experience as one of

the most helpful activities in preparing them for becoming a school principal (Pharis & Zakariya, 1985:29).

Duke (1987a:265), citing Sarason's opinion of teaching experience as an effective strategy for preparing individuals for the principal's role, argues that being a leader of children does not necessarily prepare a person to be a leader of adults. Further, Duke observes that teachers are usually "loners" who rarely feel part of a working group that discusses, plans, and helps make educational decisions. Furthermore, Duke et al. (1983) conclude that working in isolation causes teachers to absorb and accept cultural norms of individuality and **status quo**.

Anderson (1989:44) points out that the ranks of teachers do not appear likely to yield large numbers of school leaders who appear to work well with adults, and capable of seeing to school-wide needs. In the same vein Duke et al. (1983:71) assert that when teachers do seek to become school principals, the aspects of the school leadership that may attract them most may be the autonomy of the job and its status, not its potential for producing change.

Just as the question was raised (cf. 3.2.1 and 3.2.2) from the above discussion, one can also ask: If teaching experience does not provide aspiring principals with relevant pre-service experience for the principalship, what about the other educational positions such as the vice-principalship?

3.2.4 Problems of other educational experiences

Following research conducted on vice-principals, Greenfield (1983:43) notes that the largest category of activities in the work of vice-principals involves supervising students and engaging in a host of related activities, the primary purpose of all these activities being to maintain organizational stability.

Greenfield (1983) concludes that these vice-principals spent little or no time on work activities in the instructional domain. Greenfield's observation about the vice-principalship position is echoed by Lindsay (1985:41) who maintains that too few vice-principals are groomed for higher positions; they receive narrow, theoretical training, and the on-the-job experience is just as narrow.

Furthermore, Lindsay (1985) asserts that a vice-principal is treated as a single-facet administrator prepared, for instance, to be only a disciplinarian or only a director of

activities. As a result, most vice-principals learn only a few of the many job skills they need to be principals.

Greenfield's (1985) and Lindsay's (1985) assertions seem to imply that if and when these vice-principals become principals, they might continue to devote most of their time to activities associated with supervising students and maintaining organization stability since this is simply what they have learned to do, and they have received rewards in the past for their performance in those areas hence this is the work they are most familiar with.

One cannot, however, generalize this implication since there are other principals who cherish and treasure their other previous educational experiences (for example, vice-principalship) for the way it prepared them for assuming the principalship.

Weindling and Earley's (1987) study of first-year principals in Britain reinforces the above observation. Most principals in their study felt that preparation for principalship required both educational experiences and attendance at a number of management courses.

Further, Weindling and Earley (1987:184) assert that, although various skills and knowledge were acquired at each stage of the path to headship, there was a general agreement among principals studied that the most important learning period was the vice-principalship. And as Anderson (1989) points out, when vice-principals obtain a principalship, they have vice-principals to help them so that they may turn their attention to the broader range of concerns that characterize principalship, especially the instructional domain.

Anderson (1989:44), however, laments the fact that, although time spent in other educational positions such as department chairs, staff development specialists, curriculum coordinators, and vice-principalships is a way to provide aspiring school principals with meaningful leadership experiences, many times school districts do not provide the individual with the diversified experiences in those positions that are necessary for appropiately grooming principals

3.2.5 Synthesis: Summary of the problems

On account of what has been discussed (cf. 3.2.1-3.2.4) it is evident that pre-service training for principalship in the United States of America (U.S.A) takes many different forms.

Thus, even though these pre-service training strategies have produced capable educational managers in some cases, Duke et al. (1983:10) note in their investigation of the first year of principalship that beginning principals in their study showed considerable emotions as they described the disconcerting feelings of unpreparedness.

These disconcerting feelings of beginning principals unpreparedness lead Duke (1987b:265) to the assertion that the preparation of school principals is far from ideal.

As a result of current problematic pre-service strategies and processes, many aspiring principals may be ill-prepared for the job upon beginning their work. Moreover, they are likely to be "shocked" at the problematic nature of managing a school. The failure of pre-service training strategies put beginning principals in a position where all their eggs are in one basket, according to Anderson (1989:47), thus learning-while-doing.

Furthermore, the review of theoretical dimensions of the induction process (cf. 3.2.2) suggests that it is the learning-while-doing or encounter stage where organizational induction is most acute and influential for beginners. Thus, school districts have an important opportunity to provide beginner principals with well-thought-out induction support during their first year in the principalship.

It should be pointed out that, unlike in the United States, where schools have the luxury of selecting principals who have pre-service training either through formal schooling, mediated entry, teaching experience or other educational experiences, many schools in developing countries appoint their principals who have only teaching or vice-principalship experience (Lockheed & Vespoor, 1991) For example, in Kenya principals are appointed from the ranks of serving teachers and vice-principals who have no prior training in educational management (Kamunge, 1988:111; Mbiti, 1980:48). Such lack of training, however, adversely affects effective management of educational institutions and the maintenance of quality and high standard of education and training.

Therefore, in the absence of pre-service training such as formal schooling in educational management and mediated entry, (for example, internship), teaching experience and other educational experiences like the vice-principalship have been the only way out for appointing principals in Kenya.

Thus, although this kind of practice is less than ideal, it is better than nothing. However, the importance of those other forms of pre-service training namely; formal schooling and mediated entry cannot be ignored.

Lungu (1983:86) points to the importance of formal training for school managers in Africa and points out that even the most skeptical advocates of training readily agree that training can lead to significant improvement of work.

Further, Lungu (1983) asserts that this training has several advantages over trial-and-error apprenticeship. It helps to organize and discipline knowledge which would otherwise be gained by prolonged and wasteful experiences.

This advantage is crucial in contemporary Kenyan and other African educational systems which are faced with complex problems of considerable magnitude.

But Boone (1985:41) sums it up best when he says that in administration, as in teaching itself, there will probably always be some highly gifted individuals who, without formal training, will perform outstandingly, and unless those accepted for training are vigorously screened for demonstrated leadership potential there will always be some whose mediocre personal skills will defy transformation.

Next, research and professional literature is reviewed that describes the entry-year experiences and problems that beginning principals encounter. This section examines problems beginning principals experience on different levels of their job.

3.3 Problems experienced at personal level

3.3.1 Personal needs and concerns

Like moving to a new community, beginning a new job brings a certain amount of trauma, especially to families (Castallo et al., 1992:120). Accordingly, one must wrestle with questions of a personal nature such as where shall we go to church?, How shall we find a physician, a dentist, or an eye doctor?, which bank is best?, Where does one find the best buys in groceries, housewares, or furniture?, Where is a reputable auto-mechanic? and how do I find a babysitter?

Beginning employees continually adjust as they become accustomed to their jobs. Age, health, marital status, finances, sibling and parental obligations change through the years and influence performance and attitudes (Castallo et al., 1992:123).

Beginning principals, like any other beginning employees, are not immune to facing problems of a personal nature. Accordingly, Johnston and James (1986:16) point out that beginning principals must deal with significant personal concerns at the same time they are striving to demonstrate their professional ability to students, teachers and the community.

Furthermore, Johnston and James (1986) and Tylor (1986) maintain that, like beginning teachers, when beginning principals assume their job and are in a new community, they are faced with matters such as locating housing and obtaining relationship with their more experienced colleagues. Consequently, the matter is further complicated by the nature of the work of management and the structure of the work- place.

In the same vein, Castetter (1986:268) asserts that beginning principals face problems of a personal nature, such as locating suitable living accommodations, banking, shopping, health and transportation facilities.

Cale (1993:115) maintains that induction must focus on the personal aspects of the needs of the beginning principals. As such, some beginning principals need personal counselling, assistance with spouse and family problems, reduction in basic work load and assistance with personal adjustment.

It is noted, however, that beginning principals' personal needs and concerns cannot be generalized. One principal may have an easy time making the adjustment and another may need greater support. People do not come to the job as equals.

Skills, talents and personal needs differ dramatically and affect the success or failure of beginning principals. Thus, the nature of such personal issues dictates that presentations and induction activities for beginning principals be ongoing.

Therefore, since beginning principals have few opportunities for collegial discussion about management, access to an experienced mentor can provide such opportunities. Moreover, the mentor can serve as the interlocutor between the inexperienced beginner and the knowledge and skills of more experienced principals.

Although there are only a handful of studies related to the principal's personal problems, for instance, such as Cale (1993) and Legotlo (1994), current studies reviewed seem to point out some salient commonly recognized concerns and needs among beginning principals.

These needs and concerns that have been identified suggest that the challenges and demands on beginning principals are many and complex. Hence those who enter the principalship must be ready to meet the enormous obstacles of this profession.

On the other hand, they also serve to inform the educational systems of their failure to meet the needs of beginning principals. School systems have a responsibility to help those whom they hire. Thus, help for personal needs of beginning principals should be offered before, during and after beginning their job, when the need is present, and as Nelson (1986) suggests, their needs and questions can be met and answered personally by the superintendent, a staff volunteer or by an up-to-date mimeographed list of such services.

In the light of the above discussion problems associated with personal needs and concerns include housing, religion, family, transportation, security, medical, educational and social needs.

3.3.2 Professional isolation

One of the major problems facing a beginning principal is that of being isolated immediately they assume the principalship. Thus, isolated and without guidance, beginning principals can make mistakes which can cause disastrous long-term consequences for themselves and their profession.

A feeling of isolation begins to emerge in beginning principals as teachers who were once friends and colleagues are now subordinates who seek advice and guidance (McMillan, 1994:6).

In a study of beginning principals, Nelson (1986) concludes that he found a sense of isolation among the beginning principals he studied. Nelson (1986:3928) notes that although some of the beginning principals had previously worked in collaborative environments, there was little opportunity to collaborate in their new position. Further, Nelson observes that others, while not having come from collaborative environments, looked to the principalship as providing the autonomy to seek out collaborative opportunities with other administrators. Unfortunately, they found little opportunity to work with colleagues, notes Nelson.

One major investigation by Weindling and Earley (1987) in Great Britain looked at the concerns of beginning head teachers (principals) of secondary schools. Among the most salient findings of their work is the one that beginning school principals need special

support if they are to achieve any degree of success. Heads typically are isolated from the teachers in their schools and from administrators of other schools.

These researchers indicate that, if the socialization process for educational managers is to improve, something must be done to reduce the sense of alienation typically found on the job.

In his studies Daresh (1986, 1987b) documents similar feelings of isolation and lack of collegial support among beginning principals in the United States. One principal in Daresh's study expressed the frustration of isolation and alienation very clearly by complaining that people are not reluctant to march into his office and tell him that they disagree with him, that no one says anything to him in terms of general assessment and that no one marches in to say that they he is doing a great job (Daresh, 1988:5).

Daresh (1987b) recommends that ways should be found to ensure that, whenever possible, beginning principals are not left totally alone to solve problems in isolation from their colleagues.

Anderson (1991:51) notes that for many principals, the extreme isolation of principalship comes as a shock. After some brief orientations, many districts simply give the beginner principals the keys to the building and, in effect, say "sink or swim, you are on your own" (Anderson, 1991).

Many rookies in Anderson's (1989) study of beginning principals felt isolated and found principalship to be a lonely job. Anderson (1991:51) observes that the learn-on-your own induction philosophy employed by many school districts exacerbates a major problem for the principalship thus causing physical isolation from the colleagues.

In their study of beginning principals in Australia, Beeson and Matthews (1992) implicitly indicate that the principals who participated in their study expressed concern about professional isolation. In the same vein, Leithwood et al.'s (1992) study on beginning principals in Canada indicates that professional isolation faced many principals who participated in their study as well.

Recently, Bogotch and Riedlinger (1993) and Bogotch et al. (1994) did studies which point to professional isolation as an issue of concern for beginning principals they surveyed. More recently, the findings of Evetts (1994) in a study on the changing work culture of beginning secondary schools principals in United Kingdom (U.K) indicatesthat new heads

(beginning principals) are feeling more isolated within their schools as a result of their separation from teaching staff.

It can be deduced from Nelson (1986), Daresh (1986, 1987b, 1988), Weindling and Earley (1987), Anderson (1989), Beeson and Matthews (1992), Leithwood et al. (1992), Bogotch and Reidlinger (1993), Evetts (1994) and Bogotch et al. (1994) that one factor that adds considerable weight to the many challenges of beginning principals is that they have to do their jobs alone.

Because of the professional gap that exists between the principal and other personnel staff, beginning principals find themselves alone at the top of the school organizational hierarchy. Besides, there are few opportunities available for these principals to interact with their colleagues on a regular basis.

Furthermore, it appears that the problems of professional isolation are inherent in the principalship position itself. For example, the principal must on one hand maintain a high degree of confidentiality among personnel staff while on the other hand he must discipline those who err. Thus, more often than not, he is alone at the top trying to reconcile the two.

The problem of professional isolation is also a source of concern for beginning principals in other developed countries besides the United States, for instance, the United Kingdom, Australia and Canada.

However, McMillan (1994:2) observes that while it may be intellectually acknowledged that there is a distance that exists between the school principals and the rest of the staff and personnel, the "chasm" separating them may not be as deep or as wide as people believe it to be.

3.3.3 Lack of feedback

Another concern among beginning principals is the lack of feedback. According to London (1985:25) feedback about performance and discussion of organizational mission has a significant impact on the way neophytes develop commitment to a system, their sense of personal efficacy and loyalty to the goals and values of the organization.

Additionally, constructive and specific feedback can help beginners improve their knowledge about the principal's role and their management skills and action (London, 1985:26).

Performance evaluations by supervisors may provide feedback and guidance to novice-principals. Many novice-principals report, however, that such performance feedback is infrequent and, when done, it is neither specific nor helpful.

Murphy et al. (1985) contend that principal evaluation has remained unchanged over the years. From their study of principal evaluation practices, they conclude that many principals are neither supervised nor evaluated on a regular basis (Murphy et al., 1985:78).

Nelson (1986:95) found that most beginning principals he studied wished that they had received more specific feedback from their superiors about their job performance. But formal feedback was rarely given. Thus, lack of feedback contributed to beginner principals being tentative, indecisive and anxious, according to Nelson (1986:97)

Daresh (1987b) reports similar concerns among beginning principals with whom he spoke. Daresh (1987b) asserts that these principals never knew whether they were really doing what was considered to be a good job, and no one in their schools or districts appeared inclined to provide much feedback or direction to help them understand how they were doing. Tragically, this lack of feedback was an issue that these principals felt from every level of the organization (school district) including; superiors, peers and subordinates.

Over half of the principals studied by Anderson (1989) reported inadequate feedback on their performance as a characteristic of school district induction practices that made their first year more difficult. Anderson (1989:156; 1990:4) reports that without feedback from superiors, beginning principals were anxious, tentative, indecisive and uneasy about their performance. They coped with a lack of feedback from superiors by relying on informal comments from staff and students to a reading on their performance and where they needed to improve (Anderson, 1989:56).

It is obviously clear that beginning principals' performance may, therefore, be improved with specific feedback, encouragement, and guidance from successful and experienced school administrators in or outside of a school system.

Feedback or evaluation, for that matter, is an important aspect of effective personnel management. It serves as a gauge to the principal's strengths and weaknesses. It calls for

change and or modification of the existing principal's practices. Thus, without it, the beginning principal's progress or lack of it can hardly be measured.

3.3.4 Problems with role clarification

All institutional roles, particularly those in public institutions, are subject to numerous sources and types of disagreement or conflict (Lipham & Hoeh, 1974:132). But few seem so fraught with conflict potential as that of the school principal.

As a result, there continues to be a considerable concern about the effects of the problem of role clarification in education (Bacharach et al., 1990; Bamberger et al., 1990). Although many of the research findings concerning the problems of role clarification are based on teacher self-reports, the concern carries over into school principals roles as well (Koffet al., 1980; Gmelch & Swent, 1982; Fowler & Getty, 1989). Their findings indicate not only that problems of role clarifications and conflict are inevitable in principalship, but that beginning principals experience such problems to a greater degree than experienced principals (Sprandling, 1989:70).

Investigations of beginning principals reveal that one surprising problem that beginning principals experience concerns unclear and unmet expectations about the role principals perform. The following discussion examines empirical study findings that show that role clarification is a major problem for many beginning principals.

In the context of principalship, Daresh and Playko (1992:3) define role clarification as principals' understanding of who they were now that they were principals and how they were to make use of their new authority.

Mascaro (1976) studied the early on-the-job socialization of six first-year elementary principals in California by conducting four in-depth interviews with each principal during their first year in the principalship. She found that there were significant conflicts between a first-year principal's concept of the role and its demands upon them.

Mascaro (1976:5) also asserts that these principals entered their new role with the expectation of effecting change through their personal involvement in the classrooms and by getting into the classroom for extended visits

Mascaro found, however, that the principals had not fully understood the myriad of demands and expectations of the principal's role until they had entered the position. As a

result these beginner principals had to abandon their expectation of effecting change through their personal involvement in the classrooms and by adopting a new perspective which calls for going out of the classroom for brief visits rather than for getting into the classroom for extended visits (Mascaro, 1976:19).

In a 1987 study of 35 beginning principals in Kentucky concerning the Needs of Beginning Principals, the Kentucky Association of School Administrators and the Appalachian Educational Laboratory (KASA-AEL) found that working with parents, students' discipline and paperwork were mentioned most often as time-consuming activities for beginning principals.

Yet the study found that principals would prefer to spend their time in improving curricula and instruction and the evaluation of professional staff performance. Furthermore, the study group concluded that this inconsistency may be indicative of time management problems and may also mean that curriculum and instruction are not a real priority.

From Mascaro (1976) and the Kentucky Association of School Administrators and the Appalachian Educational Laboratory (KASA-AEL, 1987) it is clear that beginning principals' role is not well defined. Thus, lack of a clearly defined role can translate easily into ineffectiveness.

Other studies have also shown that beginning principals get off to a rather rocky start because they do not fully understand the responsibilities that are associated with the principalship until actually living in that role.

Daresh (1986, 1987a, 1987b, 1988) and Daresh and Playko (1990a, 1992a, 1992b) persistently maintain that role clarification is a major problem for beginning principals. One specific deficiency related to role clarification described by beginning principals in Daresh's (1987) study deals with the extent to which first and second year principals felt comfortable with the authority and leadership role that has been assigned to them.

After completing a study of 12 beginning elementary and secondary principals, Daresh (1987a:9) concluded that a real and persistent problem faced by beginning school principals involved their inability to comprehend the nature of their new position. While conducting an in-depth interview with each beginner principal, one principal told Daresh that he knew that he was supposed to be in charge, but he was unprepared to deal with having real authority and leadership responsibility and that he was not comfortable with it at first (Daresh, 1987a:8).

Understanding why they were selected or what school officials expected of them is another role clarification problem that beginning principals experience. Nelson (1986) studied the organizational socialization of nine beginning public school principals in Oregon, by interviewing and observing them during their first year in their principalship role. He found a common sense of frustration and confusion among beginners concerning their role. Many rookies felt that their selection was not "clean" and that there was a nagging sense of not knowing why they had been hired (Nelson, 1986:51).

Fowler and Getty (1989:100) identify a number of similar recurring themes that make the beginning principal's role all the more confusing, including the issues of responsibility, certainty of authority, conflicting demands, time constraints, politics, peer support, and the steady stream of human interaction.

Anderson (1989:14) refers to the role clarification problem as a role related learning problem of beginning principals which includes an understanding of various aspects of the role they perform, the expectactions that others have concerning their role and the strategies that beginning principals believe are appropiate in that role for fulfilling the aims of the schools system.

On their own, beginning principals are not able to reconcile the multifaced expectations of their job and that leaves them more confused, thus rendering them ineffective.

In an analysis of the role of the principalship, using National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP) data to compare beginning with experienced principals, Sprandling (1989:68-75) found that beginning principals work long hours, believe that they lack authority and spend more time on student activities, community and teacher issues, and the physical plant.

In their more recent study exploring the influence of contextual variables on beginning principals in the rural, suburban, and urban schools, Bogotch et al. (1994) confirm beginning principals' role ambiguity. They found that the beginning principals, regardless of where they were, expressed problems with their role, that is, a feeling of their being uncertain of authority, responsibilities, and expectations (Bogotch et al., 1994:16). However, suburban principals reported having less role ambiguity than did their urban and rural colleagues.

These researchers not only found beginning principals with role ambiguity, but also role conflict. Principals in all categories (rural, suburban, and urban) expressed problems about receiving incompatible requests and inadequate resources to meet existing demands (Bogotch et al., 1994:16). Rural beginning principals experience the highest degree of role conflict compared to suburban and urban principals.

It seems from the studies and literature reviewed that a lack of role clarification poses a formidable challenge for beginning principals. School districts cannot, therefore, expect efficiency and effectiveness from principals who don't understand who they are and how to make use of their professional authority.

School districts don't have to wait until after appointment to clarify the principalship role. The recruitment, screening and selection process of the principalships are important opportunities for school systems to expose candidates to local norms, expectations and organizational mission (Duke, 1987a:23). Baltzell and Dentler (1983:16) also maintain that principals often draw their sense of mission to a significant degree from their selection experience.

Unfortunately, this lack of role clarification begins at the interview and selection stages. And as Anderson (1989:51) points out, many school systems' interview and selection process presents a disconcerting orientation for the candidates.

From their national study of principals' selection processes, Baltzell and Dentler (1983b:4) found that principals themselves often do not know exactly why they have been selected or what their specific mission at their school is to be. This finding leads Baltzell and Dentler to conclude that the means by which American school principals are selected are ridden with chance and are often based on localistic notions of fit and image, rather than on merit and professional competency and this "fit" image has a particular disadvantage for beginner principals.

Therefore, problems that can be derived from (3.3.4) role clarification are that beginning principals are unable to conceptualize and understand their role, have difficulty using their authority, don't understand the demands and expectations of the job and they find it hard to delegate authority and power yet still remain accountable as managers of their schools.

A substantial body of literature supports these problems stemming from lack of role clarification for the principalship position (Lipham & Hoeh, 1974; Lipham & Francke,

1984; Moyer, 1986; Daresh & Nickerson, 1988; Bogotch & Riedlinger, 1993; Bogotch et al., 1994).

It was established earlier (cf. 2.2.1-2.2.2) that recruitment and selection are crucial steps in effective personnel management. It seems true that the way school principals are recruited and selected determines how they will be inducted and to a greater extent how they will function in their principalship.

Therefore, by providing relevant information and appropiate information during recruitment and selection, the beginning principal can gain an understanding of other school personnel' expectations for the principal's role, knowledge about the school, responaibilities and demands of the principalship, insights into the duties required and a perspective on the problems which may be encountered.

3.3.5 Limited technical expertise

Learning the technical aspects of the principalship is another major problem facing beginning principals. According to Lortie (1988:72) business, building crafts and highly skilled trades require formal apprenticeships where the neophyte is ushered in through a series of tasks of ascending difficulty and assumes greater responsibility as his technical competence increases.

Yet it appears that many neophyte principals must quickly scale a very steep learning curve with little help. The few studies and anecdotal writings on the first year principalship reveal that beginning principals report a wide variety of concerns in the technical or the procedural area.

Marrion's (1983) study points out that beginning principals' lack of knowledge about district procedures has proved to be a significant problem. According to Marrion (1983:171-172) technical concerns of the four beginning principals in her study fell into two areas:

* A need to know the procedures, forms, and due dates of district-mandated activities such as budget development, work orders, purchase orders, building maintenance, in-service or staff development plans and special education procedures.
* A need to know what needs to be done, how, and by whom. For example, this would include teacher duty schedules, handbooks for teachers, parents, students, field-trips request attendance and enrolment reports.

Daresh (1982; 1986;1987b) and Daresh and Playko (1990; 1992a, 1992b; 1992c; 1992d) have consistently pointed out technical problems as a major issue of concern for beginning principals. After completing his study of beginning principals Daresh (1987:9) concluded that if one area of beginning principals' concern could be classified as most powerful, this area of perceived lack of technical expertise, related to how to follow established procedures, was it.

Daresh (1986:169) defines technical expertise as knowledge about how to do things as one is supposed to do them, according to the formal job description. For principals this means how to execute the instructional and management responsibilities of the principalship. Daresh (1986, 1987) identifies two categories of concern encountered by novice principals in the area of technical expertise, namely procedural and interpersonal relations.

Procedural concerns include a varied of issues related to the principal's job and for which they were ill-prepared in their pre-service training, for example, how to budget, how to engage in collective bargaining and contract management, how to set up for assemblies and lunch, how to address various legal issues, how to operate the clock, bell, and fire bells, how to implement system-specific mandate policies and priorities and how to interpret computer printouts from the district business office Daresh (1987a:11)

Because they receive little or no help from hiring officials and colleagues, beginning principals are forced to spend the majority of their time learning how to perform many mundane yet important, school system-specific procedures that have little to do with effective educational management, but that are important for the smooth operation of the school.

In the area of interpersonal relations, the problems beginning principals face include how to manage conflicts, how to improve school-community relations, how to decrease tension with teachers concerning the performance of assigned job responsibilities and evaluation practices, enforcing discipline among students, management of personnel staff and dealing with senior and administrative staff (Daresh 1986:170).

In an extensive survey of 80 beginning principals in South Carolina concerning the task-specific assistance and information needs of incoming elementary school principals, DuBose (1986:144) discovered that principals, when entering a new district, had a vital need for information in the technical area, but the information and assistance provided

were far less than the extent to which the needs were expressed by these beginning principals.

DuBose (1986:144) also found that beginning principals reported over twice as many tasks for which they needed information and assistance as compared to experienced principals that were entering a new school system.

In another study, the Kentucky Association of School Administrators and Appalachian Educational Laboratory (KASA-AEL, 1987:18) found that beginning principals spent much of their time seeking assistance from others in the procedural or technical area, such as completing reports, dealing with budgets, and working to figure out the system.

Duke's (1987b) study of beginning principals identifies the same themes and concerns. In explaining some of the experiences of beginning principals and their lack of technical expertise, Duke (1987:271) quotes one principal who, while standing in the office on Labour Day looking at the clock and wondering how one rang the bell, as the most vivid memory of that beginning principal's bewilderment. The bewildered principal also confirmed to Duke that such a feeling summed up many of the things he encountered that were simple but were things that he had not done before.

Thus, the quote from this one principal illustrates and explicates the problem in this area and the anxiety it can invoke in the lives of many beginning principals.

In his studies of the job-specific needs of beginning principals, Anderson (1989, 1990) indicates that technical expertise is a major problem expressed by 167 principals who participated in his survey.

Subsequently, Anderson (1990) identifies eight areas in which beginning principals lacked technical expertise: (1) instruction and curriculum, (2) staff/personnel, (3) student/personnel, (4) school-community relations, (5) school facilities, (6) school transportation and food services, (7) organization and structure, and (8) school finance and business management.

Anderson (1990:3) found that as a group beginning principals reported a vital or important need for assistance and information in all of the above noted areas.

In addition, Anderson (1989) found earlier that learning building-level budgeting, supervision of accounting and purchasing procedures, and details related to opening and

closing of school were also technical aspects of the principalship for which beginning principals reported a vital need for information and assistance. Anderson notes that many of the principals, however, received limited guidance when struggling to learn these unfamiliar tasks.

One principal in Anderson's study captures the frustration of learning the technical aspects of the job by saying that when it came to budgeting, he "opened that sucker up" (the budget printout) and looked at all that stuff and it was like Greek to him (Anderson, 1989:54). The novice did not have a clue as to where to start and that since it was written in codes he had to take a great deal of time just to learn how to describe it.

Although Andersons' (1989, 1990) findings confirm the findings of other researchers noted earlier for example, DuBose (1986); KASA-AEL (1987) and Duke (1987a), they reflect more of Daresh's (1986) definition and findings concerning lack of technical expertise among beginning principals.

More recently, Bogotch et al. (1994:3) have asserted that with respect to human relations dimensions of leadership behaviours, the findings from beginning principals' research vary significantly across schools and districts depending upon whether there were open climate relationships, with active parent-community involvement or schools with closed climate relationships having apathetic parent-community bodies.

But, in general, beginning principals report having interpersonal problems with teachers, staff, parents and community (Fowler & Getty, 1989; Bogotch et al., 1994).

From the above substantial body of empirical studies, it is clear that technical expertise problems for beginning principals are enormous. For instance, budgeting, due dates, in-services, school assemblies, policy implementation, forms, collective bargaining, personnel, students, legal issues, lunches and business printouts present problems.

The technical aspect of principalship is not only important but a powerful one. It is important and powerful because it hinges on the principals' job description and responsibilities. Unless the principal knows what to do and how to do it, he cannot be expected to be effective.

Although some of the technical aspects of principalship might seem insignificant, for example how to ring the bell, they cannot be ignored or underrated. Learning the

"logistics" of the many mundane, yet important, school system specific procedures can consume a lot of beginning principals' time.

Therefore, because the learn-on-your own, swim or sink philosophy for orienting beginning principals can be quite dysfunctional, school districts must be informed by the findings of these studies and begin to address the problem.

3.3.6 Problem of insufficient time

Another problem and source of unanticipated surprise that many beginning principals experience is dealing with a myriad of details inherent in the principals which, in turn, cause time-management problems.

It was noted earlier in chapter one that when teachers or assistant principals are appointed to the school principalship, they find themselves in a different world with new responsibilities, new commitments and in most cases, less free time.

Marrion (1983:177), in her study of four beginning principals in Colorado, discovered that time management was beginning principals' problem number one. After interviewing the principals throughout their first year on the job, analysing journals that principals kept, and conducting a group interview with the principals at the end of the year she concluded that:

- principals need to know how to assign priorities;
- principals need to know how to manage the myriad details that are part of the principalship;
- principals need to know which part can be delegated and to whom; and
- principals need to know how to arrange their time so that they can work pro-actively as opposed to re-actively.

The 1987 study of beginning principals conducted by the Kentucky Association of School Administrators and Appalachian Education Laboratory (KASA-AEL,1987:15) found that the most frequent recommendation by beginning principals for in-service needs was in the area of time management. Nearly 62 percent of the first-year principals who participated in the study mentioned that they needed time management skills.

Noting the problems of time management faced by many educational managers in Kenya, the committee on the Report of the Presidential Working Party on Education and Manpower Training for the Next Decade and Beyond (1988:15), recommended that

education and training of educational managers should develop skills and inculcate attitudes and values that might lead to productive and proper use of time at work.

Many beginning principals in Anderson (1989) study stated that the time pressure and time commitment of a principal's job were overwhelming. One principal in Anderson's study complained that there seemed to be not enough time, he did not anticipate that the day would be so fragmented and that the job was so demanding that he felt pulled from all directions (Anderson, 1991:52).

Recently, Beeson and Matthews (1992) show in their study of beginning principals in Australia that time management is a major problem for those who participated in the study. Just as principals studied by Anderson (1989) complained and expressed their frustrations with time pressure, those studied by Beeson and Matthews (1992) express similar frustrations.

Beeson and Matthews (1992:316) note that one principal complained that there was more fiddly work than he had expected and that his head gets swamped with a whole lot of trivia. Another one complained that he was frustrated because he was trying to sort out his time management, he had not rationalized his time and the principalship seemed to be dominating his life for seven days a week.

These frustrations with time management should serve to inform school systems that inducting beginning principals is an imperative, hence school systems should provide assistance to beginner principals about ways on how to handle administrative management details. Beginner principals would then have more time to focus on instructional issues and thus feel less overwhelmed.

The four principals in Marrion's (1983:185) study recommended that school districts organize a beginner-principal orientation which would provide information regarding district-specific tasks, procedure for completing those tasks, and a calendar noting the due dates of those tasks.

Interestingly, the principals studied were unanimous in their belief that time-management training would be more effective after they had become familiar with the demands of the job (Marrion,1983:178). Consequently, they wanted such in-service during their first year on the job rather than during pre-service training. More recently, a study by Bogotch et al. (1994:15-16) has shown that the three categories of principals (urban, suburban, and rural) they had studied indicated that time management was a problem for them. They

maintain that they found that beginning principals, regardless of context, lacked sufficient time to complete many of their tasks, particularly those related to programme planning (Bogotch et al. 1994:16).

Additionally, they faced problems of insufficient time in personnel matters regarding teachers, educational programmes development and professional development. In summing up the importance of time management, Duke (Anderson, 1990:22) contends that the key to effective leadership in this decade and the next will continue to be the effective use of time.

In sum, problems of insufficient time are experienced by both beginning and experienced principals. Beginning principals have problems with time management because of their inexperience and their inability to control large numbers of intrinsic and extrinsic factors such as the demands and expectations of principalship and the constrains stemming from their new environment.

3.3.7 Synthesis and summary

From the discussion (cf. 3.3.1-3.3.6) it is clear that problems experienced by beginning principals at the personal level are enormous. They range from personal needs, isolation, inadequate feedback, conflicting job description, limited technical knowledge to insufficient time.

Additionally, it seems that pre-service training problems are closely connected to problems experienced at the personal level by beginning principals. As such, induction activities and programmes must aim at alleviating some of these problems, thus enabling the beginning principal to function effectively.

Beginning principals' problems do not end at the personal level. Instead, they are further intensified and compounded by problems of socialization.

3.4 Problems of socialization in the profession and in the school

3.4.1 What is socialization?

Theodorson and Theodorson (1979:393) define socialization as the process through which an individual becomes integrated into a social group by learning the group's culture and his

role in the group. For principals this implies learning the culture of his students and teachers and his role as the leader of the whole group.

Miles and Huberman (1984:45), referring to Marton, say that socialization in general refers to the process through which an individual acquires the knowledge, skills, and disposition needed to perform his role effectively.

There is, however, an aspect of professional, and organizational socialization attached to principalship. Professional socialization refers to the process through which one becomes a member of a profession and, over time, develops an identity with that profession (principalship) (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979:221). Organizational socialization, on the other hand, refers to the process by which one is taught and learns "the ropes" of a particular organizational role in specific work setting (school)(Van Maanen, 1976:121).

It appears from literature on the socialization of school principals that both professional and organizational forms of socialization are intertwined and therefore they take place interactively. As such, they are treated as one and the same thing in this section.

Literature on educational managements seem to suggest that socialization of educational managers can be seen in the light of pre-appointment socialization, the role of mentors and role models in socialization of principals and after-appointment socialization.

3.4.2 Pre-appointment socialization

The question that may be raised up front is this: "How are beginning principals socialized prior to assuming their positions and how is this a problem?" The answer to this question can be found by examining what researchers such as Theodorson and Theodorson (1979), Blumberg and Greenfield (1980) and Duke (1987b) call anticipatory socialization.

Theodorson and Theodorson (1979:397) define anticipatory socialization as learning of the rights, obligations, expectations and outlook of social role preparatory to assuming it.

Blumberg and Greenfield (1980:100) and Duke (1987a:262) note that this form of socialization occurs throughout much of the life of the future principals before they actually accept their first jobs. Thus, as classroom teachers and as deputy principals, even earlier as students in schools, future principals learn about their chosen craft by observing the role of the principal from afar.

Further, Duke (1987b) contends that by the time beginning principals actually assume positions of principalship, they are likely to have learned a great deal about how to act and what to expect as school managers (principals).

In describing this form of socialization, Merton (in Duke, 1988:265) suggests that recruits (aspiring principals), while still outsiders, anticipate their experiences in the organization (school) they are about to enter. Furthermore, Merton maintains that anticipatory socialization can serve the twin function of aiding the (person's) rise into that group (of principals) and easing the judgement after becoming part of it.

Time spent as teachers or vice-principals, observing and working with school principals, certainly contributes to the anticipatory socialization of aspiring principals. University training also play a part in helping aspirants develop an understanding of the expectations and obligations of the principalship prior to assuming the position.

Although pre-service anticipatory socialization practices can certainly be useful in helping ease an aspirant's transition into the principalship, Louis (1980:245) argues that in advance socialization practices are less effective for helping beginning principals' adaptation into the school than socialization practices that are in response to the actual experiences beginning principals encounter.

From the above discussion pre-appointment socialization is problematic to beginning principals because it is largely informal and unplanned. In addition, preparatory training and experiences do not automatically translate into the experiences of the real principalship. It was also noted earlier (cf. 3.2.1-3.2.4) that beginning principals, especially in the United States, do not give much credit to their anticipatory socialization.

Therefore, using these findings, an argument can be raised for educational systems to provide beginning principals with relevant information on-the-job assistance during induction to aid in their understanding and resolution of the new situations they encounter.

3.4.3 Mentoring and role models

In recent years, mentoring relationships have been extremely popular and their application has been viewed as a panacea for dealing with many limitations often felt to exist in education as well as other fields (Daresh & Playko, 1992:110; Daresh & Playko, 1993).

The question that may be raised, however, is whether *mentoring* and *role model* mean the same thing and whether there are benefits associated with mentoring? The answer to this question may be found from research literature that focuses on mentoring as an effective way of socializing beginning principals.

Mentoring, like induction, management and leadership, is an elusive beast to capture and define. It implies different things to different people and organizations and its present usage is found in many professional and large industries and businesses (Noller, 1982:3).

Studies by Sheeby (1976); Kanter (1977); Levinson (1985); Kramer (1980), Daresh and Playko, (1993); Van der Westhuizen and Erasmus (1994a) and Van der Westhuizen and Erasmus (1994b) are examples of major research aimed at defining mentoring. A lot of definitions are based on these research findings but vary, as do the theories upon which their studies of the mentoring phenomenon. As such, a few of those meanings and their implication to educational management are considered.

Fiedler (1979:29) likens mentoring to situational leadership by maintaining that mentoring relationships are situational. Accordingly, Fiedler says that mentoring means covering a wide variety of roles including teacher, advisor, counsellor, coach, "godfather", sponsor, confidant, tutor, guide, role model and pseudoparent.

Schein (1978:176) notes that the concept of mentoring has long been used in business organizations to connote such diverse images as teacher, coach, trainer, protector, positive role model, developer of talents, opener of doors, sponsor or successful leader. The literature suggests that mentoring needs to be understood as a combination of most, if not all, of these individual role descriptors (Hjornevik, 1986:8).

Schein (1978) and Hjornevik's (1986) understanding of mentoring is multifaceted. Thus, a mentor, according to these researchers, must wear different hats.

Park (1990:8) defines mentoring as a process of transforming a novice principal into an expert by helping him to identify and acquire the skills, attitudes and knowledge necessary to be effective as educational managers.

Furthermore, Park (1990) maintains that mentoring is a life-time relationship for some principals. It is a labour of love based on helping the novice-principal succeed.

Anderson (1990:71) points out that mentoring in schools is usually viewed as a buddy system. Typically, an experienced principal is asked to give guidance and help to a beginning principal in principalship matters.

It should be remembered, however, that although different definitions have been used to describe mentor and mentoring, Pence (1989:3) is of the opinion that the common image inherent is that of a wise person who guides a young person in a warm, caring and helping relationship not just on the professional level, but in all aspects of life.

Also, it should be noted that mentors are different from role models who work with aspiring or beginning principals in conventional field-based learning activities (Daresh & Playko, 1992a:112).

Current educational literature is filled with the notion that mentoring is a good way to provide a quicker and smoother transition into the complex educational management role of the principal.

As such, some educational researchers such as Josefwitz (1980), Bolton (1980), Bowen (1985), Forsyth (1987), Rogus and Drury (1988) Anderson (1989), Daresh and Playko(1990) and Shelton (1992) believe that mentoring is an excellent way to help aspiring and beginning principals become better socialized into their profession and schools.

And, because of these research findings, interest in mentoring of aspiring and beginning principals has increased. Subsequently, most states, school districts and professional associations have mentoring as a form of inducting beginning principals (Barnett(1985), Lee (1988), Drury (1988), Licata & Ellett (1988) (Pence, 1989).

Although beginning principals indicate problems with anticipatory socialization noted earlier, they credit mentoring as the best way to help them learn their professional leadership roles.

Reports from beginning principals who have participated in mentoring programmes indicate that mentoring has positive effects on socializing them into the profession and the school. Many aspirants and beginning principals view mentoring experiences as a "hands on" way to learn their leadership roles (Oregon School Study Council, 1989:14).

According to protégés, the opportunities to learn about the profession and the school are greatly increased when working with mentors. Both aspirants and neophytes feel that they benefit greatly from participating in "what if" discussion and observing their mentors in action (Bowen, 1985:33). Additionally, beginning principals particularly appreciate being able to obtain feedback or help on ideas from someone who respects their confidentiality (Pence, 1989:8).

On the other hand, participating in a formal mentorship programme is not all a "bed of roses" (Pence, 1989:8). There are some potential problems stemming from mentoring as such. Since a mentor and a protégé must work in close proximity and attain a certain level of intimacy, this can sometimes create tension and anxiety for members of a cross-gender pair (Pence, 1989).

Research reports are mixed on the cross-gender problems, however. Women protégés interviewed by Hennig and Jardim (1987) said their male mentors shared an intense, but not sexual, interest in their protégés' personal and professional development. According to Bolton (1988:196), some women are concerned about not having a woman for a role model. But, as more women fill top-level administrative positions, that concern is diminishing, thus more top-level women administrators are mentoring women and some men also (Pence, 1989:9).

Problems associated with mentoring go beyond cross-gender pairing. Oregon School Study Council (1989:9) points the following problems:

- Resentment of protégés by their co-workers who do not have mentors, inability of some successful executive to be mentors, and poor matches are frequently cited problems of artificially formed mentoring relationships.
- Sometimes mentoring relationships end negatively when protégés' abilities surpass those of the mentor and threaten the mentors position on the job or the relationship.
- If the mentor falls out of favour in the organization, this may create a problem for the protege.
- Philosophical disagreements between the mentor and protégé can also create problems unless handled properly.
- Personality differences between the two can also result in a negative experience.

It appears that most of these problems cited can be overcome or diminished by increasing the awareness of and planning for potential problems.

In view of the above findings, it can be stated axiomatically that mentoring has both pros and cons and can be a good way to socialize beginning principals. Hence, mentoring can be a means to teach leadership and management skills, nurture the development of educational values, guide the acquisition of political savvy, counsel in times of trouble, nourish creativity, advice on career, job and personal decisions.

And the ultimate goal of socialization through mentoring should always be to equip beginning principals, early in their principalships, with the skills necessary for effective educational management. Some skills, for instance interpersonal ones, are better caught through mentoring than taught.

3.4.4 Post-appointment socialization

Louis (1980), Blumberg (1980) and Duke (1988) refer to the socialization that takes place following appointment to principalship as occupational socialization.

Anderson (1989:27) sees occupational socialization as the process by which persons (beginning principals) learn and perform according to the norms, values and behaviours held to be necessary for performing a principalship role in a school.

Additionally, occupational socialization continues after initial training, as practicing professionals (principals) become involved in professional organizations and interact with each other across organizations (Duke, 1987:262).

The question that may be raised in this section is this: "If beginning principals find their pre-appointment socialization to be problematic in that it is informal, unplanned and less than ideal, what about their socialization following the appointment?" Is it any better?

The following review of empirical studies that have been carried out gives an answer to this question.

Ortiz (1978:123) and Gibson, (1985:10) assert that the beginning principals' perspectives and behaviours are altered and fixed by the school organization, hence the district office personnel, peers, school community, the local educational authority and parents are the key people in defining the expected behaviour of the beginning principal.

Wolcott (1979) provides a classical description of the socialization experienced by beginning principals. His enthnographic study shows that the beginning principal is influenced by the central office personnel, peers, and administrative guidelines.

Although Ortiz (1978) and Wolcott (1979) see central office, peers, parents, and school community (teachers and students) as important in socializing beginning principals after appointment, it should be remembered, however, that, "learning the ropes" both the political and the social, of a particular district, can be difficult for beginning principals. Many important pieces of information about school system operations are unwritten and are carried around in the minds of veteran principals but not so for the beginners.

The difficulty of obtaining this kind of needed information is best exemplified in Wolcott's (1979) description of the elementary school principal. Wolcott (1979:176) purports that the conventional wisdom of the elementary principalship, in contrast to its body of knowledge, is carried in the minds of its successful and experienced practitioners.

Furthermore, it is transmitted verbally and, for the most part informally, to succeeding generations and therefore, it becomes an oral literature. Wolcott concludes that novice-principals must look to their more experienced colleagues when they wish to draw upon the accumulated wisdom of years of practical experience.

From Wolcott's (1979) observation, suffice it to say that beginning principals must depend on different strategies, such as observing experienced principals, to obtain needed insights into the unwritten rule of the road. Nelson (1986:93), however, maintains that beginning principals are often unable to observe veteran principals because they are physically isolated from them or they believe that these experienced principals are not good role models.

Duke et al. (1983:34) reported that socialization experienced by beginning principals is usually intense, short and informal rather than planned. Not surprisingly, these researchers found that beginning principals experienced stress and anxiety that resulted from time constraints, loneliness, and a perceived lack of skills to manage the demands of the job.

In a study of beginning principals, Alvy and Colarci (1983) found evidence that "outsiders" and those with no administrative experience may experience fewer organizational problems (for example, acceptance) than "insiders." Among critical tasks for all beginning principals, however, the researchers reported the need to adjust to

alienation from faculty, develop patience and flexibility in regard to others opinions and develop a broader perspective

These research findings reinforce the fact that beginning principals cannot be left on their own to learn about their profession and organization. Thus, their professional (principalship) duties and organizational culture cannot be ignored but must be taken seriously.

In his study of first-year public school principals, Nelson (1986:93) found that rookies were eventually able to learn the "logistics"; however, what was far more difficulty to learn were the strategies which the organization regarded as appropiate to the role they assumed and the social relations in the organization.

Communication with other principals is another strategy that beginners can use to obtain needed information. But Nelson (1986) found that districts in his study did not facilitate needed interactions among principals. Thus, Nelson (1986:95) asserts that, left on their own and not wanting to appear incompetent in the eyes of their more experienced colleagues, some beginner principals sought advice from individuals outside the school system.

One must note that these discussions from outside the school system may not present the beginner principals with the professional and organizational-specific information that the beginning principal sought.

Thus, beginning principals attempt to seek professional and organizational information from outside the school system coupled with the lack of clearly stated policy points to the school systems failure to equip and empower those they expect to be effective school managers. Moreover, it shows the beginner principals' desperation about obtaining information from any source for their survival.

In her study, DuBose (1986) also documents the problems beginner principals had in obtaining needed information and assistance from veteran principals. To address principals' information and assistance needs, DuBose (1986:146) recommends the following:

- School districts should recognize the importance of the transition period for incoming principals and implement a plan by which the needed assistance and information can be provided in a thorough and systematic manner.

* The immediate supervisor of an incoming principal and the outgoing principal of a school should recognize their responsibility for providing the needed assistance and information to the incoming principal during the transition period and should work in concert with the district to structure appropiate entry experiences.

Daresh (1986, 1987a, 1987b, 1988) and Daresh and Playko (1990, 1992) continue to point out that socialization for beginning principals is a problem for it has failed to adequately provide beginning principals with the information they needed just as he maintains in the same studies that role clarification and technical problems are among other major problems these beginning principals face (cf. 3.3.2-3.3.3).

Beginning principals, in Daresh's (1987b) view, experience similar socialization problems. For instance, one principal told Daresh that he felt rather foolish after following the procedures outlined in the school board policy manual regarding requests for new equipment. Stated policy required the principal to file an application with the assistant superintendent in charge of administrative services. After failing to receive response to the equipment request form, he learned that it wasn't customary to follow procedures in this area.

Daresh (1987b:12) notes that the beginner principal discovered this discrepancy between stated policy and real procedure only after talking to another, more experienced principal, who noted that the request for equipment would probably only gather dust in somebody's in-basket and would never be acted upon if normal channels were followed.

Recent findings from a study of the socialization experiences of 49 Canadian beginning principals 26 principals with 1-20 years of experience are reported by (Leithwood et al., 1992). These researchers looked at four dimensions of beginner principals' socialization, viz. (a) relationships with superordinates and peers, (b) school system policies, procedures and control mechanisms, (c) formal training and (d) outcomes in regard to role image, skills, and norms and values (Leithwood et al., 1992:284-307). Their data indicate that the socialization patterns experienced by beginner principals are at least moderately helpful in contributing to their ability to provide effective and efficient instructional leadership.

Parkay et al. (1992:43) in their recent study, point out that socialization was a major problem indicated by the 12 first-time high school principals who participated in their study. The following comments from some of the principals are classic examples of their findings:

- The principalship is much more complex and demanding than I ever envisioned. There are so many subtleties. To do the job well you have so many things to consider. You have to juggle all of them. You need to be a jack-of-all trades and master of many, not one, but many.
- My biggest dissatisfaction is my inability to unify the staff. That has been my biggest frustration all along.
- This job is like a whirlwind and you jump in and everything happens. It is frustrating because you realize that things can' happen quickly. It is depressing. You see the potential but you can't force change.

As these epigraphs attest, principals must learn to master a complex array of challenges after they assume the principalship. Thus, from effective managing of both human and material resources to building a strong, positive ethos within the school, the demands of the beginning principals are many (Parkay, 1992:43-44).

More recently, studies by Bogotch and Riedlinger (1993) and Bogotch et al. (1994) show that beginning principals are dissatisfied by the way they are socialized to their professional and schools both prior to and after appointment. These researchers contend that prior and after socialization experiences of beginning principals affect the effectiveness of their leadership behaviours

The findings and evidence among the researchers noted above and their concern for proper socialization of beginning principals cannot be over-emphasized. They all point to the fact that beginning principals are in dire need of assistance and information. They also reveal that the way novice-principals are socialized into their profession (principalship) and organization (school) is less than ideal and leaves much to be desired.

From the above it could be deduced that socialization following appointment poses problems to beginning principals. First, the process through which they are socialized is intense, short and informal rather than planned. Second, in most cases they don't get the information they need to for immediate application. Third, many of the procedures and expectations are unwritten. Fourth, there is a real discrepancy between stated policy and real procedures. Fifth, there is no communication provided between the rookies and veteran principals.

Therefore, socialization problems before or after appointment must be seen as a hindrance to effective management of the school. And these studies have proved that by and large, lack of knowing the ropes in a particular schools or district is not a small concern to

beginning principals who desperately want to feel that they should be respected in the system.

And as Blumberg and Greenfield (1980) and Lortie (1988) conclude, socialization has a significant effect on the behaviours and performance of beginning principals. Hence, this calls for a proper professional and organizational socialization of beginning principals .

3.4.5 Synthesis and summary

The foregoing discussion (cf. 3.4.1-3.4.4) shows clearly that many schools don't have a formal programme in place for socializing beginning principals to the profession and organization. Thus, many beginning principals are left on their own to learn about the nuances of their job and profession.

This "swim" or "sink", socialize on-your-own practice is unhealthy for the professional development and effectiveness of the beginning principals.

Once a person decides on pursuing a career in educational management, university programmes and practicals play a major role in training aspiring principals in the technical knowledge of educational management and the required behaviours to fulfil the principalship role.

Experiences before appointment are as important as experiences following the appointment. As such, personal and professional development of educational managers does not begin after appointment, rather it is a continuous process that begins from pre-service training and continues through after appointment.

It seems from the reports and successful experiences of mentoring that, the importance of mentoring as an aspect of effective induction cannot be over emphasized. Therefore, schools should continue to use mentors in socializing beginning principals in their profession and principalship roles. These mentors could be used before, during and after appointment. The best learning is caught rather than taught.

It should be noted, however, that those forms of socialization valued most appear to be embedded in the context of school life, available both regularly and often focused directly on the role of management and leadership. Examples of such activities may include specific, on-the-job leadership experiences (probably the most helpful) as well as having a mentor, exposure to effective role models and relationships with superordinates.

3.5 Problems with personnel and staff

3.5.1 Problems with the senior management team

A new manager entering any kind of organization, whether a school or a commercial concern, inherits a management structure and a group of individual with differing abilities, interests and attitudes (Weindling & Earley, 1987:53).

In most cases, senior management consists of the principal, the vice-principal and in larger schools it may include senior teachers (Weindling & Earley, 1987).

In their study of 37 vice-principals, Todd and Dennison (1987) found that there was not a clear-cut role clarification between them and their principals. At one end, there were very clear divisions of role, usually curriculum, while at the opposite end a policy decision had been made not to divide the roles and vice-principals shared responsibilities for all tasks.

It is therefore the sharing of responsibilities for all tasks between the beginning principal and his vice that caused problems at the senior management level.

Mathew and Tong (1982) have discussed the role of the vice-principal and point to the notion of partnership at the senior management level based on a shared responsibility for all what happens in the schools as a problem to beginning principals trying to establish themselves.

It would, therefore, appear that since the relationships between the beginning principal and the members of the senior management team have considerable importance in determining how the beginning principal settles in and the kind of changes they are able to implement, beginning principal may have a problem with this.

Meetings on the senior management team level are very common and very frequent. Since many of these meetings are informal without a specific agenda, they may appear to be futile to some members of the management team.

Linked with the problems of these frequent, informal and fruitless meetings is the problem of delegation. Many beginning principals appear unwilling to delegate responsibilities and authority to members of the senior management team due to the accountability factor.

The problem is further compounded by the reluctancy and the unwillingness of some senior management team to take up some responsibilities.

3.5.2 Problems with instructional staff

It is no surprise when researchers such as Blumberg and Greenfield (1980), Acheson (1985), Acheson and Smith (1986), Bird and Little (1985) single out instructional leadership as a key to determining the effectiveness of a school. The quality of any school, after all depends upon the quality of its instruction than upon any other factor.

Principals who dedicate the majority of their time and energy to finding, developing, and working collaboratively with their instructional staff tend to find themselves one day with effective schools (Acheson, 1985:225).

This section considers some of those aspects that a beginning principal must face immediately he assumes the principalship position. Attention will now be given to some of those aspects.

3.5.2.1 Recruiting teachers

Recruitment of teachers is one of the most critical task beginning principals face in their first year. And as Jensen (1986b:25) asserts, each time a teacher is hired, the local school and its district have an opportunity to improve instructional programmes.

Yet, like many other opportunities for improving instruction, this one is fraught with perils as well as possibilities. According to Jensen (1986a:77) this reality hits some beginning principals if the school they have been hired to manage has some teaching positions to be filled immediately following their appointment.

Some schools don't have recruitment policies or incentives and therefore, they may find it difficulty to attract competent teachers (Goldstein, 1986:21; Landers, 1981; LaPlant, 1979). Further, Goldstein (1986) points out that in most regions of the country (referring to the U.S.A) recruiting and filling vacancies in maths, science, foreign language and special education can be particularly difficult not only for experienced principals but more so for beginning principals who have neither the recruitment policy nor the budget for it.

Therefore, without a policy to guide the recruitment process, some beginning principals are left on their own and thus they rely on trial and error methods to attract teachers to their schools.

Jensen (1986b:25; 1987:49) maintains that there are many academically unqualified and professionally untrained individuals in the pool of applicants. Therefore, principals who seek to recruit qualified teachers are hampered in their search by problems of inadequate academic standards and teacher preparation. Additionally, Jensen (1986c:23) laments the fact that lack of energy and candour on the part of many beginning principals may create some recruitment problems for them.

It must be reiterated that recruitment is tightly linked to other aspects of educational and personnel management. Schools that offer a professional environment with manageable class sizes, supportive in-service, staff collegiality and cohesion, attract and keep the best teachers.

Unfortunately, many beginning principals find that such environments don't exist in the schools they have been hired to manage, hence they must create that environment themselves.

3.5.2.2 Selecting teachers

Recruitment of teachers is only a first step towards hiring capable teachers. From among the pool of applicants, the principal must select the best teacher to fill the vacancy.

Making that best choice is not easy for many experienced principals and is even harder for a lot of beginning principals (Weaver, 1983:33). Principals tell of tedious decision-making and, worse, of serious consequences of mistakes.

Findings from studies by Perry (1981), Weaver (1983), Browne and Rankin (1986) indicate that methods used to select and place teachers do not result in hiring the best teacher. The selection based on the best general point average (GPA) and the professional test scores has led to the selection of incompetent teachers.

Three conditions make the hiring of qualified teachers a challenge for beginning principals. Jensen (1986b; 1987) points out these conditions as: (1) complexities of the teaching function, (2) insufficient attention to hiring and (3) inadequate selection techniques.

Teachers are expected to possess a wide range of abilities which are difficult to assess. In addition, assessing all these abilities requires time and money. Thus, since it was noted earlier (cf. 3.3.6) that beginning principals have insufficient time and that they have no budget for recruitment, this then poses a problem in their selection endeavours.

Recruitment and selection of teachers are important tasks for hiring an effective instructional staff. Mistakes made in teacher recruitment and selection can be costly, with long-term effects for the school. The effectiveness of the principal can also be jeopardized by the kind of instructional staff he recruits and selects.

Estimating that five percent of teachers currently employed in United States public schools could be considered incompetent, Bridges (1986) warns that the history of inadequate and incompetent teachers will repeat itself unless school principals are well-equipped and better recruitment and selection procedures devised.

Bridges' assertion is even truer of principals and educational systems especially in developing countries where recruitment and selection procedures do not exist and principals are not equipped to recruit or select.

3.5.2.3 Inducting beginning teachers

Mounting evidence indicates that the most capable teachers may not remain in the profession (Hidalgo, 1985; Austin, 1986; Lyons, 1981). Nearly 15 percent of beginning teachers leave after one year of teaching (Austin, 1986:3).

The question that arises from this kind of turnover is "what is the cause of this early turnover and how do principals contribute to it?".

The answer to this question is best described by Clewitt (1984) referring to Mahaffy who maintains that the beginning teacher who opens the classroom on Monday may have graduated on Friday. That teacher may have moved into a new area and lived alone for the first time. And all of a sudden he is expected to be an adult and a professional and an exceptionally competent one at that.

The problem is that the beginning principal may not realize the problems the beginning teacher is facing. For one, the beginning principal may be facing his own administrative problems and therefore be in need of help himself. Thus, how can one blind man lead another?

A review of the research by Clewitt (1984) and Roper et al. (1985) shows that beginning teachers face problems in the following areas:

* classroom management and discipline;
* student motivation;
* adjustment to the physical demands of teaching;
* managing instructional tasks;
* sacrificing leisure time; and
* managing non-instructional demands of the position.

Beginning teachers need induction in these areas of their job but as Manasse (1985:33) asserts, school principals frequently don't know how to help beginning teachers and therefore they prefer to let these new teachers "try their wings alone". Typically, beginning teachers tend to socialize themselves into the profession and the school. Their principals let them learn both the job of the teacher and the culture of the school alone.

Perhaps the principals' problems here are limited technical expertise, that is, not knowing how to go about helping the beginning teacher, and role clarification, that is, not knowing whether helping the beginning teacher's adjustment into the job was his responsibility.

3.5.2.4 Supervision and evaluation of teachers

Getting a top-notch teacher does not end when the person is hired. Principals who put time and resources into recruiting, selecting and inducting competent teachers face yet another challenge of supervising and evaluating them (Anderson, 1989:77).

Literature on effective schools reveals that the major role of a school principal is to supervise instruction (Griffiths, 1963; Jackson, 1976; Edmonds, 1982; Manasse, 1985; Duke, 1987b; Johnson & Snyder, 1992).

Instructional supervision and evaluation refers to all activities the principal is engaged in with the main purpose of improving the professional life of the teacher or the instructional programme. Unfortunately, literature indicates that school principals are reluctant to monitor the performance of beginning teachers especially during the first three months of the school year (Glathorn, 1984; Weber, 1982; Sehlare, 1993).

Acheson and Smith (1986) believe that school principals (especially beginning principals) are at a disadvantage when they attempt to supervise and evaluate teachers. In addition, they contend that beginning principals lack time and updated training that could make their suggestions practical for beginning teachers.

Researchers such as (1983); Reed (1989) and Johnson and Snyder (1990) agree that for any beginning principal to be successful as an instructional leader, he should be able to:

- set instructional goals and priorities;
- improve instruction;
- conduct classroom visits;
- conduct effective staff supervision; and
- demonstrate a commitment to improve instruction

However, research suggest that beginning principals lack the knowledge and skills to conduct effective staff supervision and evaluation.

Additionally, not all teachers embrace evaluation. Some see it as an attempt by the principal to get them especially if the teacher is deemed incompetent. Thus, since evaluation has a dual purpose of looking into both the strengths and weakness of the instructional staff, the beginning principals may find it difficult to highlight the weaknesses of the incompetent teacher.

It is not possible to evaluate and pass on negative judgement to a teacher when the beginning principal is at the same time seeking a colleagial relationship with every staff member. As such, beginning principals are in a dilemma when it comes to supervision and evaluation of instructional staff.

This dilemma faced by beginning principals is best described by Pence (1989:24) when they say that "of all its swings, the pendulum of educational theory is perhaps nowhere felt more strongly than in the area of teacher supervision and evaluation."

In sum, the primary purpose of supervision and evaluation is to assist teachers in doing their job effectively and efficiently. It should be remembered, however, that although supervision and evaluation serve an indisputable functions in making personnel decisions for promotions as well as dismissal, it becomes an impossible task for beginning principals without time and updated training.

3.5.2.5 Dealing with incompetent teachers

According to Frase and Hetzel (1990:101), there is enough reason to believe that many students in schools are not receiving the quality of teaching they deserve. The reason for this is incompetent teachers.

Researchers estimate that 5 to 15 percent of practising teachers in United States are either incompetent or below reasonable standard (Bridges & Grove, 1984; Johnson, 1980; Bridges, 1986). This figure is even outrageously high in developing countries (Lockheed & Vaspoor, 1991).

Incompetence is difficult to prove, especially for beginning principals. The principal has to follow uncharted steps to build up a case after he has made some honest steps to help the teacher to improve. But such steps or strategies of helping the teacher, like conferencing in clinical supervision, evaluation and observation require skills and experience which many beginning principals are devoid of.

As shown by research (Daresh, 1986; Jensen, 1986b & 1987a; Anderson, 1989;) beginning principals may not have the necessary experience and skills to carry out these tasks in a most professional and effective manner.

Bridges (1986) identifies the following forms of incompetence:

* ***Technical***

This is a deficiency in one or more of the following: discipline, teaching methods, knowledge of subject matter, explanation of concepts, evaluation of pupil performance, organization and planning.

* ***Bureaucratic***

This is a deficiency whereby the teacher does not comply with school rules and regulations of supervisors, for example, failure to follow suggestions for improving performance, the curriculum, or refusing to allow supervisors to observe your performance.

* ***Ethical***

Here the incompetent teacher does not conform to the standards of conduct applicable to the teaching profession, for example, physical or psychological abuse of students, negative attitudes towards students and indifference toward performance of teaching duties.

* ***Productive***

This incompetence stems from failure to obtain certain desirable results in the classroom, for example, academic progress of students, interests of students towards school, respects of students for teacher, and classroom climate.

* ***Personal failure***

In this one the teacher lacks emotional or physical attributes deemed instrumental in teaching like poor judgement, emotional instability, lack of self control, and insufficient strength to withstand the rigours of teaching.

These forms of incompetence identified by Bridges (1986) are not easy to deal with and as Frase and Hetzel (1990:105) remind us, dealing with and dismissing incompetent teachers is not easy for beginning principals. It takes inner fortitude, time and energy and for a beginning principal who has his hands full with problems, there nothing to do but to let the incompetent teacher continue being incompetent.

The problem of incompetent teachers is further compounded by lack of clearly defined criterion for defining incompetence (Castallo et al. 1992:170-171). For example, poor performance in terms of students' results for a single year is not likely to be accepted as the only criterion for incompetence.

In addition, incompetent teachers may have been tenured, probationers have as many rights as tenured teachers and teachers who have successfully completed their induction phase may change their work habits, level of commitment or emotional stability. And these are the dilemmas that beginning principals face.

Clearly the beginning principal cannot stand alone in attempts to terminate an ineffective teacher. Not only does the teacher merit appraisal by more than one observer, the principal needs and deserves a second (or third or fourth) opinion. And as has already been

established in the preceding sections, beginning principals don't receive the help they need to be effective.

Assuming that these incompetent teachers instruct millions of students thus jeopardizing their future, the severity of the problem cannot be ignored and the beginning principals must be helped and equipped to deal with it.

3.5.2.6 Handling staff meetings

Meetings take time. Doyle (1985:4) estimates that managers sit through more that 9 000 hours of meetings in a lifetime -that is more than a full year. Educational managers such as principals spend 35 percent of their time in meetings.

As important as these meetings are, the sentiments from teachers indicate that many principals (including beginning ones) don't handle staff meetings well. The following are some of the comments from teachers on how they feel principals handling of staff meetings (Lindelow & Heynderickx, 1989:291):

* Our meetings are so boring! We never seem to get anything done.
* The same people make decisions all the time and no one else gets involved.
* Why should we bother when most of our decisions never get carried through.
* No one remembers who's responsible for what and our plans are forgotten.

As these quotes attest, staff are not happy with the way principals handle staff meetings. It seems that the teachers views are not considered as important and that the meetings are run in an autocratic manner.

Every meeting is a microcosm and a condensed version of the values and style of the organization (Dunsing, 1989:8). And therefore, what takes place in a meeting is often a reflection of the attitudes, relationships and organization of the larger school system.

The problem of unproductive staff meetings is usually part of the larger problem of ineffective beginning principals. Contributing to the problem of ineffective staff meetings could be a simple lack of organizational and human-relation skills on the part of the beginning principals. The problem also stems from the beginning principals' lack of skills in controlling deliberations.

And as Lindelow and Heynderickx (1989:23) see it, most of these skills needed by beginning principals are as old as the meetings themselves, such as dealing with the long-winded participants, creating an agenda and sticking to it and ensuring that responsibilities are assigned and deadlines set.

Staff meetings are important for effective educational management. It is during these meetings that the principal conveys his vision and mission for the school, among other things. Effective staff meetings could be also a springboard for fostering a sense of family and community among the staff.

3.5.2.7 Use of authority and staff discipline

Discipline is the foundation of an effective school. Every school must have a philosophy of discipline which must include the purpose and basic discipline models to be used.

Beginning principals must contend with the problem of staff absenteeism (Gorton, 1983:182). In addition, they also face the problems of discipling teachers who abuse students. For example, some teachers may abuse students verbally, emotionally, psychologically, sexually and physically. All these sorts of abuses create a dilemma for beginning principals, especially in schools where there are no guidelines to follow on such matters.

Castallo et al. (1992:156) identify a beginning principal who was complaining about a teacher who had a drinking problem, thus coming to school at time under the influence of alcohol. A beginning principal with no experience of dealing with alcholics would be scared to death to reprimand such a teacher, and more so if the teacher was a veteran and/or older.

In order for a beginning principal to enforce discipline among the staff, he must know that he has authority to carry out discipline. Unfortunately, many beginning principals seem to experience difficulty in exercising authority during their first year (Gorton, 1983:412). They either try to exert authority they don't possess, or fail to utilize the authority they do poses and which needs to be employed for the successful resolution of the problem.

The consequences of exercising authority that one does not possess can be resistance and even outright non-compliance. On the other hand, failure to exercise authority which the individual possesses and which circumstances require can result in a deteriorating situation

and loss of respect or confidence in the individual who is supposed to exercise the authority.

One reason why many beginning principals encounter problems in the exercise of authority and enforcing discipline among staff is that they have not examined carefully the nature and scope of their authority (Gorton, 1983; Frase & Hetzel, 1990).

Beginning principals don't recognize that their basic authority to carry staff discipline is delegated to them by the school board and the superintended of their schools. This lack of realization stems from the fact that the principal's authority is not formally delegated or explicitly stated because it is believed to be inherent in the responsibilities which have been assigned (role clarification problem).

A second reason why many beginning principals experience difficult in exercising authority is that they don't seem to understand the limitations of authority or the best conditions in which it can be employed (Gorton, 1983:413). Some confuse authority with power.

In summary, lack of knowledge pertaining the nature and scope of authority coupled with lack of understanding on the limitations of their authority in carrying staff discipline is the problem facing beginning principals.

Beginning principals may also fail to exercise discipline because of the fear of being seen as favouring some staff over others. Some beginning principals may also want to be all things to all staff. Such a "nice guy" mentality is detrimental not only to the principal but also to those he is leading.

3.6 Internal relationship problems

3.6.1 The acceptance problem

Many beginning principals are initially concerned about how students, parents and particularly teachers will react to them (Gorton, 1983:409). As beginning principals in a new situation, they naturally hope to gain acceptance by the group with whom they will working.

But what type of acceptance should they be seeking? They want to be respected, but they wonder whether it is important to be liked. And if you seek the personal approval of the people with whom you work, will they respect you?

These are normal questions for any beginning principal to ask. And as Gorton (1985) and Parkay and Hall (1992) point out, many experienced principals who change schools feel some concern about being accepted in a new school also. However, the beginning principal usually is a beginner and new, not only to the work environment, but to the job as well. So being concerned about people's reaction is understandable.

Frase and Hetzel (1990) point out that beginning principals are likely to encounter problems with acceptance once they decide that people must like them before action can be taken. Gorton's (1983:410) advice for beginning principals in regard to the acceptance problem is that they should concentrate during the first year on administering a well-organized, smoothly running school. And the achievement of this goal will favourably influence most people acceptance of the principal, perhaps more than any other factor. Parkay and Rhodes' (1992) study on stress of beginning principals shows that beginning principals have difficulties establishing rapport and trust with the staff and administrative personnel.

In sum, beginning principals face the problem of winning trust and acceptance of the students, staff and community at large. His leadership style and personality may contribute to the acceptance problem. It should be noted, however, that the acceptance problem encountered by beginning principals will largely depend on the type of acceptance that is sought.

3.6.2 Problem of staff motivation and morale

A beginning principal entering a school inherits an organization and its resource and without a doubt the single most important of which is its staff (Weindling & Earley, 1987:78).

For a school to operate at all, staff/personnel must be motivated and their morale boosted to a high degree. It is their presence, their willingness and their efforts which enable the school to discharge the task expected of it.

Williams (1984:85) defines staff motivation and morale as a complex notion having several dimensions, including those related to leadership, group effectiveness and individual motivation. It usually refers to groups and includes feelings, thought and action which relate to group cohesion, survival, improvement and development. Additionally, Williams

(1984) says that the morale of the staff within a school is rarely static and will rise and fall from time to time.

Since a number of factors including a possibility to close the school, protracted union disputes over conditions of service and poor working environment contribute to poor morale, the beginning principals may not know what to do about it. Some of the factors causing affecting morale may be beyond the beginning principal's control. For example, there is nothing the principals can do if a decision is made to close a school by those who own it and the thought of losing their jobs will definitely lower and affect the morale of the staff.

In their study of beginning principals Weindling and Earley, (1987:85) indicated that dealing with staff morale is identified as a very serious problem by those who participated in the study. Their study of new (beginning) and old (experienced) principals reveals the following observations concerning morale among staff in general:

* Both group of principals saw staff morale as a problem. Data analysis showed that there is a significant relationship between the size of the school and staff morale. Therefore, the larger the school the greater the problem of staff morale.
* Poor support by the Local Educational Authority for staff development affects staff morale negatively.
* Increased demands made on teachers as a result of increased curriculum developments, new forms of assessment, changes in teaching methods have adverse negative efforts on staff morale.
* Large classes, less time for preparation and marking, shortage of resources, equipment and materials, all these contribute negatively to the improvement of staff morale.
* Inadequate services provided for buildings and maintenance and physical deterioration have adverse effects on both students and staff morale.
* High unemployment levels and the resulting parents and pupils' disillusionment with education affect staff morale.
* Poor esteem in which teachers are held by media, and general loss of confidence in the profession, low status and low pay also have adverse effects on morale.

Thus, the beginning principal's problem is how to deal with these concerns of staff that are beyond his control and which, unless they are addressed, will affect the staff's motivation and morale, which in turn will affect the effectiveness of the school and that of the

principal. In some cases bureaucracy and politics make it hard for beginning principals to provide leadership that can boost the morale of the staff.

Bogotch and Riendlinger (1993) and Bogotch et al. (1994) did studies that indicate that most of the beginning principals they surveyed and interviewed also had problems with staff motivation and morale.

In sum, since productivity is closely linked to staff motivation and morale, all possible strategies should be employed to motivate and boost staff morale. Otherwise without a motivated staff, the schools goals and mission may not be realized.

3.7 Problems with management of change

3.7.1 Issues in change

Change is a natural and inevitable consequence of socio-cultural and physical worlds within which our collective lives are acted out and it should be as natural and just as inevitable that we should give some attention to managing the direction of that change (Gallaher, 1985:51; Martin & Willower, 1981).

Effecting change in school is difficulty especially if it is a major change. Certain changes can be mandated by principals but significant instructional changes often involve persons and develop over a period of time (Mulder, 1988; Meyer et al., 1989).

A major characteristic of effective school managers is their ability to implement and maintain instructional and organizational changes that result in increased achievement of school goals.

In the light of the movements toward educational reforms and the push for excellence in schools, many rapid changes are occurring. Changes in student achievements and curriculum, as a result of implementation of new programmes and teacher accountability, are just a few of the alterations suggested by Snyder and Anderson (1986).

But, as Richardson et al. (1993:3) observe, these rapid changes have resulted in reform movements, community partnerships groups, politicians, school administrators, teachers, students and others striving to build some sense of order from confused myriad of signals given to and sent by educational systems.

Van der Westhuizen (1991:646), referring to Seville, identifies four issues of change in educational situation namely, technological, changed procedures, changed objectives and changes with regard to the curriculum development.

These seem to have been the main issues in change that have faced school principals in the past. Thus, with calls for schools and educational reforms, the issues keep on changing. For example, in the United States of America (U.S.A), there has been a growing emphasis on restructuring American Public Education since the early 1980s (Cuban, 1990; Chubb & Moe, 1990; Frymier, 1987; Maeroff, 1988). In Kenya the restructuring of the entire educational system was effected in 1985 (Bogonko, 1992; Onyango,1988).

The focus of restructuring stems from the recognition that the world is rapidly changing and evolving both as a technological and global village (Hodgkinson, 1985; Kitavi, 1993). These societal changes affect how school are to prepare students to be productive citizens in the twenty-first century (Toffler, 1980:34).

Inherent in the restructuring theme are implications for school structure and school management. David et al. (1990:20) suggest that if schools are to address successfully the needs of students in the twenty-first century, then changes must not only occur in instruction but in the way schools are structured for decision making, collaboration among participants and accountability.

Commissions have recommended that schools be restructured to become flexible, autonomous units capable of solving problems at the school-base level (Thomson, 1988:23). The changing environment requires schools to maximize all potential within the organization to better prepare students to live in an all evolving society (Thomson, 1988).

From the preceding discussion, it can be concluded that the issues of change facing school principals are many. Thus, principals are supposed to support these calls for restructuring and reforming schools.

While most of the above issues of change are issues that experienced principals must contend with, they may not be big issues for beginning principals since most of them don't start changing things right away. But, handling resistance to change is a more complex problem for most beginning principals.

3.7.2 Management of resistance to change

In view of the structured nature of school as an organization, actions and reactions, the maintenance of the status quo, or renewal, change and resistance to change are always expected (Van der Westhuizen & Theron, 1993:4).

Referring to review of research done by Fullan (1985), Mulder (1988:5) observes that innovation as a process of change consists of three elements:

1 **Initiation** (when a decision is made and plans are developed);
2 **implementation**(when the change is put into practice); and
3 **incorporation** (when the practice becomes routine or may even disappear).

Beginning principals, like experienced principals, are catalysts, initiators and facilitors of change (Collier, 1982:325). Therefore, since they play an important role in deciding whether or not to adopt a particular innovation and are equally powerful at blocking changes they don't like, this creates resistance.

Success in business and industry with the team approach for greater participation in decision-making has affected the restructuring of schools (Greer & Short, 1990:38). The creation of self-managing teams in business has been successful in empowering participants and improving the quality of the work of those companies (Hackman & Oldham, 1980; Lawler, 1986; Manz & Sims, 1987).

Studies in participative decision-making in business and industry have revealed that workers' involvement in key decisions increases productivity, sense of ownership and commitment (Lawler, 1986:123).

As educational institutions (schools) and those who manage them (beginning principals) try to learn from the business and industry community the value and benefits of team approach to management, dissonance is inevitable. Research in educational management seems to suggest that team management is a foreign concept in educational management field. Although beginning principals may initiate change, the implementation of it is a problem for many of them because of the stiff resistance they face.

Traditionally, school-based participants have been excluded from key decisions that greatly affect their work design (Zielinski, 1983). While administrators (principals) may seek information and advice in making decisions for the school, final decisions typically are

made by principals. As such, teachers, students and parents are believed to resist and unable or unwilling to accept the responsibility for such decisions (English & Hill, 1990:135; David et al., 1990:57; Klug & Salzman, 1991).

Beginning principals will face little or no resistance if there is a shared governance among schools' participants, greater teacher opportunities for collaboration with control over their work environment and work condition and restructuring roles and responsibilities to create a sense of shared leadership in the school (Chubb & Moe, 1990; Cuban, 1990; Maeroff, 1988; Jenkins,1988; Lightfoot, 1986; Short et al., 1991; Greer & Short, 1990).

To avoid resistance, it is important and necessary for beginning principals to understand that the psychological dynamics and interactions occurring between individuals in schools as they experience change before they decide which strategies are most effective (Carson, 1985:90).

Lovell and Wiles (1983), Thomson (1988) and Richardson et al. (1993) assert that resistance to change faced by beginning principals stems from lack of commitment to goals, inadequate feedback concerning performance, negative attitude about the change, inadequate knowledge or skills, Vested interest in the status quo, threat or fear of new situations, lack of support or endorsement for change and inadequate expertise in solving the problems.

From the above-mentioned, it appears that resistance to change emanates, inter alia, from a variety of factors or reasons.

3.7.3 Beginning principals and management of resistance to change

It is of paramount importance that beginning principals know how to manage resistance to change because of the pressure it may exert on the personnel who are not prepared for the demands made on them by renewal and change (Van der Westhuizen & Theron, 1994:14).

Furthermore, the above researchers allege that these staff members are often victims of tension accompanied by various related symptoms such as frustrations, exhaustion, insomnia and moodiness. Hence, continual tension further give rise to burnout, which is gradually becoming more prevalent in teaching.

The principal (beginning principal) is primarily responsible for the implementation of change in the school and must therefore be aware not only of the factors that cause

resistance, but be thoroughly, conversant with the manner in which resistance to change in his school is managed (Hall & Hord, 1987).

Therefore, rush actions, whether taken by the beginning principal or the supervisor of the subject to implement a new dispensation or new programme at school, could be unsuccessful primarily due to the resistance that develops (Van der Westhuizen & Theron, 1994).

Studies by Weindling and Earley (1987), Roberts and Wrights (1992) have found that beginning principals in their studies didn't know how to manage change and resistance to change.

Weindling and Earley (1987) indicate in their study that many beginning principals initiated many changes without the involvement of teachers. As such, lack of teachers' involvement would result in resistance. Unilateral decisions for change will meet the wrath of teachers, especially veteran teachers and the management of that change impossible.

Roberts and Wright (1992:131) found in their study that upon selection, beginning principals often attempted immediate changes in three areas: (1) managing student conduct, (2) improving the school climate and (3) improving instruction.

Subsequently, 33 percent of the beginning principals focused their change efforts on student management, 20 percent tended to make early change related to improving school climate while 10 percent focused on improving instruction.

Roberts and Wright (1992) conclude that beginning principals' early change efforts on student management, school climate and improving instruction were minimally congruent with their stated vision. Because of this incongruence their change efforts were met with resistance and poor handling of it.

In sum, in order to provide leadership required in schools, beginning principals must be change agents with skills in creating collaborative action. The development and utilization of all human resources within the school constitute the unique challenge that faces beginning principals. The successful school principal must embrace the change, innovation and risk taking as necessary for renewal and for meeting the ever-evolving needs of diverse students in the changing environment (Mulder, 1988; National Education Association, 1988; National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1991).

Given the complexities of change, resistance to change, and the nature of how principals spend their day, it is apparent that (1) beginning principals generally do not have enough time for thinking about strategic planning for change, (2) the time they have to plan and implement change is fragmented and (3) to a great extent their change efforts are frustrated by simultaneous need to attend to myriad of maintenance tasks.

It also appears that planning for change, achieving a vision, managing task loads and mobilizing staff and students are complex undertakings for a first-time beginning principal. Many beginning principals experience task overload which, when coupled with lack of induction, makes management of change an insurmountable task.

Issues in change, management of change and resistance to change are important issues for beginning principals that cannot be ignored. Although research on management of change especially for beginning principals appears to be in early stages, change as an aspect of management should be taken seriously and be included in the induction programmes and activities.

3.8 Synthesis and summary

The above discussion (cf. 3.4-3.7) focused on problems faced by beginning principals on different levels including the senior management team, instructional staff, internal relations, conflict management and management of change.

Beginning principals lack skills that could help combat problems on the aforementioned level. As a result, their effectiveness has been diminished.

Therefore, recent calls for educational reforms must be followed by most recent calls to restructure the way principals are prepared for educational management and how they are inducted in to the principalship.

3.9 Other problems

3.9.1 Problems with administrative staff

Beginning principals experience problems with administrative staff just as they do with senior management team. Beginning principals in Daresh's (1986) study indicated that dealing with administrative staff was one of the highest hurdles they needed to know how

to jump. Anderson (1990) identifies handling administrative staff as among the twenty-one administrative tasks where beginning principals in his study had a vital or important need for assistance.

Both Daresh (1986) and Anderson's (1990) studies show that in some cases administrative staff roles overlapped with that of the beginning principal. As a result the beginning principals had difficulties communicating to them especially if they over-stepped into the principal's territory of work.

Parkay and Rhodes's (1992) research findings show that beginning principals in their study had difficulties communicating negative performance evaluation to members of the administrative staff. They also had difficulties confronting them once they make poor judgement.

From Daresh (1986); Anderson (1990) and Parkay and Rhodes (1992) it can be deduced that the beginning principal's problems rest on his misperception that the administrative staff have the same authority as he does.

Additionally, since the relationship between the beginning principals and the members of the administrative is of considerable importance in determining how they settle in and the kinds of change they want to initiate and implement, they may fear jeopardizing that relationship.

3.6.2 Problems with students

School exists because of students. They are the centre of the school as an organization. Their needs and demands consume a lot of the principal's time and energy. But, as research suggests, beginning as well as experienced principals find dealing with students very frustrating sometimes.

DuBose (1986) found that beginning principals reported a considerable need for assistance in dealing with the students. Some principals in his study reported that some students came from homes with single parents, others came from disadvantaged families, others were involved in drugs and all needed good education.

Beginning principals reported that meeting these different kinds of needs was not what they were looking for when they accepted the job of principalship. In his research Daresh (1986) maintains the problems that beginning principals faced include the problem of how

to enforce discipline. In the same vein, Anderson (1989; 1990) points out that how to enforce discipline was a problem faced by principals in his studies.

Roberts and Wright's (1992) study of beginning principals initiating change indicates that 33 percent of the principals focused their change efforts on the area of student management. Subsequently, they faced problems in developing codes of conduct, initiating in-school suspension or detention programmes, controlling student movements on campus, and ensuring student cooperation through disciplinary procedures. They also reported problems related to controlling student attendance, and developing student policies and procedures.

It appears from Roberts and Wight's (1992) study that these beginning principals took students' problems as a serious matter. Thus, in an effort to deal with them they had to give students' problems the first priority in their principalship. At times this was done at the expense of other areas of the principals duties.

Recently, Bogotch and Reidlinger (1993) found that students' needs consumed a lot of principals' time and that principals struggled with ways of getting students' involvement in decision-making in school programmes. Most recently, Bogotch et al. (1994) have pointed out similar sentiments.

From the above discussion it is clear that students' problems present a formidable challenge for beginning principals. Students are no longer passive recipients of educational programmes and discipline. Instead they are what Lipham and Hoeh (1974:13) call "partners" in initiating instructional change.

As such, the struggle for the beginning principal is how to involve them in this partnership. Beginning principals must also provide other services, including information, counseling, placement, and research services, which all converge on the need of the individual student.

As a leader, the principal must initiate the appropiate structures within the school for orchestrating the contributions of teachers, guidance counsellors and other student personnel specialists, to allow each student to increase his feeling of satisfaction, sense of belonging, identification and achievement in present and projected life situations. The multifaceted nature of the students' needs makes it hard for beginning principals to deal with them.

3.9.3 Problems of management of external relations

Schools, whether private or public, belong to the community. Therefore, since the community has a stake in what goes on in the school, the principal must learn how to deal with different interest groups of the community.

Research, however, indicates that most beginning principals lack skills in managing the external relation forces. As a result, their ability to lead and manage schools is undermined daily.

Lipham and Hoeh (1974:14) point out that citizens everywhere are demanding and exercising a stronger voice in the administration of their schools. Furthermore, Lipham and Hoeh maintain that it is no longer possible for principals, especially beginning principals, to fulfil their responsibilities in school-community relations by attending monthly meetings of the parent-teacher organizations, occasionally conferring with individual parents and periodically publishing a school newsletter

Meeting all the external demands is not possible for beginning principals. Daresh (1986) found this to be also true in his study. The subjects in his study (beginning principals) indicated that they experienced problems with school-community relations.

Parkay et al.'s (1992) research findings show that beginning principals experienced external relationship problems on two fronts thus, from the school district and from the community. These principals found it difficult to respond to political forces within the school district that were seeking some compromise on certain moral and ethical issues.

On the other hand, beginning principals found it difficult to respond to some political forces or interest groups in the community. One principal in Parkay et al.'s (1992) study remarked that he was very apprehensive about his school advisory committee. Some members of the committee wanted him out of the school and others wanted him to stay. He could decide which group to side with.

Bogotch et al.'s (1994) study echoes similar findings. Principals in their study indicated that dealing with the school-community relations was at times their worst nightmares.

In sum, although beginning principals try their level best to be all things to all people in their early years of the principalship, they still lack interpersonal skills that can help them manage external relations problems.

Some of the problems are politically orchestrated while others are egocentrically driven and this makes it hard for a beginning principal to tell who is genuinely concerned about the welfare of the school. The behaviour of parents individually or collectively can be quite a headache to a beginning principal. It is not easy to contain the behaviour of some parents especially when they are upset.

Many beginning principals lack the skills for assessing community needs and aspirations, analyzing demands of community subpublics working with community leaders, organizations, and agencies. How to manage and communicate the mission and vision of the school to these interest groups is an enormous task for those who are new to the job and are attempting to build their public relation image.

3.9.4 Problems with management of financial and physical resources

Lipham and Hoeh (1974:14) make the disclaimer that the much debated, sometimes lamented, age of accountability is upon us. It can also be added that it is not only an age of accountability but transparency as well.

Whereas formerly the principal took a largely managerial role with respect to material resources, the leadership required in planning, budgeting, monitoring and evaluating financial and physical resources now represents a difficulty dimension of the principalship (Hall & Hord, 1987).

This difficulty dimension is nowhere more in evidence than in educational management and no one experiences it more than the beginning principals.

Research data indicate that the role of the principal in the last decade or so has been diversified and now includes financial and physical resources management (Anderson, 1988a & 1989; Daresh, 1987; Rogus & Drury, 1988; Evetts,1994).

In addition to concerns with planning, programming and budgeting, principals are now required to supervise and manage financial and physical resources including purchasing and requisitioning of supplies and materials, accounting for school monies, maintaining an inventory of school property, supervising plant construction, maintenance and operation and supervising school lunch and other auxiliary services (Lipham & Hoeh, 1974:14).

Unfortunately, research data show that many beginning principals are not aware that some of these areas are part of their job and that even those who seem to know lack the necessary skills. Marrion (1983) found in her study that beginning principals had the need to know the procedures, forms and due dates of district mandated activities such as budget development, work orders, purchase and building maintenance.

Daresh's (1987) study echoes similar concerns while the Kentucky Association of School Administrators and Appalachian Educational Laboratory (KASA-AEL,1987) study found that beginning principals spent much of their time completing financial reports. Anderson (1990) maintains that some of the major problem areas in which beginning principals needed vital help included how to manage school facilities and financial resources.

Although school districts generally have been furnishing increased numbers of clerical, bookkeeping, custodial and maintenance personnel, beginning principals continue to report, as noted above, that activities in these functional areas require skills and consumes much of their time than they would ideally require.

3.9.5 Problems with lack of resources and finances

Beginning principals do not only have problems with management of finances and physical resources but lack of resources and finances is a problem for them as well.

Van der Westhuizen and Steyn (1993:36) maintain that lack of resources and finances is a problem that is experienced not only by school principals in developing countries but by school principals in developed countries such as Western Europe and the U.S.A.

In the same breath, Newton (1994:2) points out that one of the major problems facing schools and school principals in particular centre on lack of resources. As such, school principals face peculiar problems with the development and administration of education.

A few studies on beginning principals for example, by Anderson (1989) and Beeson and Matthews (1992), Bogotch and Reindlinger (1993) and Holifield and King (1993) identify lack of resources and finances as a major problem for most beginning principals.

Resources and financial stability are essential for effective functioning of the school. Therefore, in addition to the other problems that beginning principals face, lack of resources and finances may force some beginning principals to scrap out some school

programmes. Such a move may result in more problems with the students, teachers and the community at large depending on who is affected by the cut in programmes.

3.9.6 Problems with management of stress

Every adult knows that stress is a part of daily life. But, for beginning school principals, however, work-related stress can have devastating consequences and result in job dissatisfaction, emotional and physical exhaustion and a general inability to cope effectively - which are simple classic symptoms of **burnout**.

During the last decade, many researchers have described stress that principals experience and how they manage it (Clerke, 1985; Savery & Detuk, 1986; Bailey, et al., 1987; Nicholson, 1987, Cooper, 1988, Lyons, 1990; Bogotch & Riendlinger, 1993).

Among the sources of stress these researchers have identified are those related to time demands, difficult with teachers, students, parents and community members, lack of district support, inadequate resources, a high level of visibility and a generalized feeling of responsibility for the total school programme (Stoops et al. 1975; Squires et al. 1984; Kottkamp & Travos, 1986:236).

Drawing from role theory, Kottkamp and Travos (1986) have clustered stress facing principals into four types:

* **Role conflict:** The beginning principal perceives incompatible work demands.
* **Role ambiquity:** The principal has inadequate information regarding expectations for his work.
* **Role overload:** The principal perceives more work than he can complete in a given time.
* **Powerlessness:** The principal cannot control the events that influence the outcome he seeks.

Although the above-noted studies have increased the understanding of the kind of stress that may limit the principal's ability to function effectively, little has been researched concerning the stress beginning principals encounter and how they manage it, except for studies by Parkay et al. (1992) and Bogotch and Reindlinger (1993).

In their study of twelve beginning principals Parkay and Rhodes (1992:103-122) came out with compelling evidence that job-related stress characterized the beginning principals' first

year. Their data also suggest that some beginning principals experience excessive amount of stress as they deal with the challenge of managing the school.

In the same vein, Bogotch and Reindlinger (1993) report research findings from their study of fourteen beginning principals which also confirm Parkay and Rhodes' findings that beginning principals experience job-related stress. In addition, their findings show that beginning principals experienced all except powerlessness type of stress.

Therefore, once beginning principals perceive that their work has incompatible demands coupled with inadequate information to meet those demands, they are bound to experience stress. In addition, the perception that the principalship job has too much work followed by an awful sense of feeling of being powerless makes stress unmanageable.

3.10 Conclusion

In the preceding sections (cf. 3.2-3.9.5) problems facing beginning principals have been discussed. Beginning principal experience problems on different levels including pre-service training, personal level, socialization, instructional staff, internal relations, management of change, students, and external relations.

Stress could be said to be the result of all the problems beginning principals face. And poor management of stress has led to burnout for some beginning principals.

As literature has shown, these enormous problems overwhelm beginning principals and have negative effect on them regarding effective school management.

As such, the next section reviews literature and discusses the essential skills that beginning principals need in order to function as effective and efficient educational managers.

3.11 Essential skills for beginning principals

It is an undisputed fact that effective managers need good judgement, the ability to make decisions, the ability to win respect from others, and the ability to produce results (Mulder, 1988). This fact applies to educational managers (school principals) as well.

For that matter, one way in which principalship can be examined is by identifying skills necessary for carrying out the processes of effective educational management. These

critical skills by and large reflect the induction needs of beginning principals which also guide the development of a comprehensive induction programme.

As used here, skills and competencies imply the ability which can be developed, not necessary inborn, and which is manifested in performance, not merely in potential. So the principal criterion of skillfulness and competency must be effective and efficient action under varying conditions.

Recent research about the skills of beginning principals was carried out by Daresh and Playko (1992b, 1994). Daresh and Playko (1992b; 1994) note that there is generally not a particular rich tradition of research into problems faced by newcomers to school principalship. What is known, however, is that beginning principals believe that they need special assistance and support, and that help should be directed toward clear and consistent themes.

Further, Daresh and Playko (1992:4) decry the fact that there has been little attention directed toward the identification of skills that are presumed to be important by aspiring school principals. In order to fill this gap, Daresh and Playko (1992) undertook a major study aimed at identifying the critical skills needed by aspiring school principals. In a study of 420 of aspiring school principals in five different universities in the United States, Daresh and Playko (1992b:25) found that aspiring and practicing practicing demonstrated that they needed skills in three areas namely ; technical skills, socialization, skills and self-Awareness skills.

3.11.1 Technical skills cluster

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988) assert that the importance of technical skills was first theorized by Katz (1974). According to his theory, technical skills fall under two categories namely; instructional and non-instructional skill.

Instructional technical skills presume an understanding of and proficiency in the methods, processes, procedures, and techniques of education. Conversely, non-instructional technical skills are those which school administrators (principals) must possess to perform such tasks as budgeting, scheduling, staff, and other administrative responsibilities.

In the same breath Daresh and Playko (1992b:18) point out that those enrolled in pre-service training in educational administration preparation programmes believe that it is

more important for people to demonstrate a high degree of skills in technical managerial duties.

Daresh and Playko (1992b; 1994) maintain that technical skills are important for they deal with how to do the things one is supposed to do. Accordingly, Daresh and Playko (1992b:24; 1994:38) identify these skills as including the following:

* How to evaluate staff (that is, procedure for the tasks, and also substance).
* How to facilitate group meetings.
* How to design and implement a data-base improvement process.
* How to develop and monitor a building budget.
* How to organize and conduct parents-students-teachers conferences.
* How to establish a scheduling programme for students and staff.
* Awareness of issues related to local school law.
* How to manage food service, custodial and secretarial staff.

Daresh and Playko also suggest that, in addition to the acquisition of these identifiable technical skills, which have traditionally been the foci of intern experiences, more subtle forms of directed learning must be promoted in the field.

Operationally, this may mean that different types of field-based learning activities might be promoted. In some, the focus would be solely directed at the acquisition of technical skills (how to do the things they were supposed) while in others the focus would be in helping the principals to discover some of their personal values and feelings of self-confidence related to their role in general (why do I do the things I do) (Daresh and Playko, 1992:14).

It would appear from Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988) and Daresh and Playko (1992b; 1994) that technical skills are more important to administrative and supervisory roles of the principalship.

In addition, technical skills seem appropriate for beginning principals in handling most of the problems with personnel and staff (cf. 3.5.1-3.5.2.7).

3.11.2 Socialization skills cluster

Social skills refers to the ability of the beginning principal to work co-operatively with a number of people from different walks of life (Musaazi, 1982). This skill is demonstrated

by the way beginning principals cope with their immediate boss, teachers, students and parents and members of the community at large.

Gorton (1983:394), citing Katz, refers to this area of skills as the human skills cluster, related to interpersonal skills. It is therefore the school principal's ability to work effectively and efficiently with others on a one-on one basis within a group setting.

Daresh and Playko (1992b, 1994) did studies which identify social skills as important for beginning principals. Principals who participated in this study indicate that they believed that it is more important for them to be socialized effectively.

Daresh and Playko (1992b:25; 1994:38) show that beginning principals need socialization skills for:

* Establishing a positive and cooperative relationship with other district administrators.
* How to determine who is who in a school setting.
* Knowing how to relate to board members and central office personnel.
* Knowing where the limits exist within the district or building and balancing that with one's professional values.
* Understanding how principalship changes families and other relationships.
* Developing interpersonal networking skills that may be used with individuals inside and outside of the system.
* Ability to encourage involvement by all parties in the educational community.
* How to develop positive relationships with other organi-zations and agencies located in the schools surrounding community.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988), Paddock, (1981) suggest that these kinds of skills require a considerable level of self-understanding and acceptance, as well as appreciation, empathy and consideration for others. Furthermore, its knowledge base includes an understanding of and facility for leadership, adult motivation, attitudinal development, group dynamic, morale, conflict management and the development of human resources.

As was noted earlier, socialization to the school and profession poses a major problem for many beginning principals. The social skills cluster seems to suggest how that problem can be overcome.

And in light of other problems facing beginning principals, socialization skills are important in countering internal relations problems (cf. 3.6-3.6.2), problems with management of change (cf. 3.7-3.7.3), problems with students (cf. 3.9.2) and problems with management of external affairs.

By and large, human or social skills are important to administrative and supervisory role through out the school hierarchy. Since managers work through others, school principals must use human skills to achieve principalship goals.

3.11.3 Self-awareness skills cluster

Self-awareness in the first place skills are those which the school principals needs in order to see the whole picture and the relationships between and among its various parts (Gorton, 1983:394). And as Sergiovanni and Starratt (198:73) see it, it is the school administrator's (principal's) ability to view the school, the district and the educational programme as a whole.

According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988) this skill includes the effective mapping of interdependence for each of the components of the school as an organization, the educational programme as an instructional system, and the functioning of the human organization.

A beginning principal should understand himself first, his strengths and weaknesses, his mission and vision for the school. He must be aware of all the branches of the school and how they are related to the larger community. He must know his job responsibilities and must see the interwovenness, interractiveness and interconnectness of the social structure of the school. Katz (1974) calls this a conceptualization skill that sees everything in its totality and holistically.

It is pointed out, however, that the development of self-awareness skills relies heavily on a balanced emphasis of management theory, knowledge of organizational behaviour and educational philosophy. Daresh and Playko (1992b; 1994) studies point out that beginning principals need self-awareness skills for:

* Demonstrating awareness of what it means to possess organizational power and authority.
* Demonstrating an awareness of why one was selected for a leadership position in the first place.

- Portraying a sense of self-confidence on the job.
- Having a vision along with a level of understanding needed to achieve relevant goals.
- Demonstrating a desire to make a significant difference in the lives of the staff and students.
- Being aware of one's biases, strengths and weakness.
- Understanding and seeing that change is ongoing, and that it results in a continually changing vision of principalship.
- How to assess job responsibilities in terms of the real role of principalship.

It would appear from Daresh and Playko's study that self-awareness skills are as important as technical and social skills.

Gorton (1983:394) points out that the relative importance of these basic skills depends on the level of administrative responsibility, with higher level administrators (for example, superintendent) requiring more self-awareness than technical skills and lower level managers (for example, principals) needing more technical skills than self-awareness skills. Social skills, however, are important at all levels of educational management.

It is thus without a doubt true that Gorton (1983); Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988) and Daresh and Playko (1992b, 1994) seem to suggest that effective educational management rests on basic, developable skills which obviate the need for identifying specific traits and which may provide a useful way of helping beginning principals' understanding of the educational management process.

Moreover, it would be unrealistic to assert that these skills are not interrelated. Thus, in essence, they seem to be very much interwoven, interconnected and interactive.

On the other hand, Daresh and Playko's (1992b, 1994) empirical study confirms once again that beginning principals have needs that cannot be ignored or overlooked. Their results on the importance of self-awareness skills ties in well with problems with role clarification (cf. 3.3.4), problems with use of authority (cf. 3.5.2.7) and staff motivation and morale (3.6.2).

Also, Daresh and Playko's findings seem to have implications for pre-service training, induction, and in-service training of educational managers (principals). Thus, if the management skills of school principals are to be improved, school districts must have programmes in place that equip school principals with the needed managerial skills.

3.11.1 Other frames of essential skills for beginning principals

Gorton (1983), Pall (1981) and Schainker and Roberts (1985) maintain that principals cannot survive without the necessary competencies that produce effective leadership. Accordingly Gorton (1983:394) proposes four kinds of skills and competencies which he argues that they are essential for school principals who want to function as educational managers. He identified in question form as:

- Does the principal have the ability to identify accurately the problems which need to be corrected in the school?
- Does the principal possess vision as an educational manager?
- Does he recognize, understand and see the implications of the various trends and social forces which are and will be affecting education and the larger society ?
- Does the principal feel a strong need to be a manager?
- Does he have a strong drive to set and achieve new goals?
- Does he seek out opportunities to exercise leadership?
- Is the principal willing to assume a degree of risk in initiating leadership and to face resistance, opposition, and personal or professional criticism?

It should be pointed out that most prospective or beginning principals do not possess all of the skills and competencies identified (Gorton, 1983). In fact, it is highly doubtful whether the vast majority of experienced principals possess all these skills and competencies to a large degree either.

But each of these skills and competencies identified are important for beginning principals to acquire. Without developing a majority of these skills and competencies, the beginning principals may not be likely to in exercising effective educational management of the school.

Buckley (1985:27) and Morgan et al. (1983) assert that a head (principal) needs certain skills and competencies before taking up the appointment as head (principal) or at early stages of the headship (principalship).

A list of professional development skills needs related to effective school management arose from group discussions at the European Forum on Educational Administration in 1980. Buckley (1985:34-36) lists these skills needed as:

- personnel management;
- interpersonal skills;
- self-management;
- institutional planning;
- resource management;
- curriculum skills;
- management of innovation;
- organizational skills;
- relating to governmental systems;
- relating to local environment;
- knowledge of laws;
- educational leadership;
- relating to students;
- school as a system in relation to other environmental systems; and
- developing a philosophy of headship (principalship).

A look at these kinds of skills noted by Buckley seems to point to the problems experienced by beginning principals noted earlier in (cf. 3.2-3.9.5). And indeed novice-principals require these skills.

In her extensive study in Great Britain, Jones surveyed 400 secondary heads (principals) who were presented with a list of tasks and skills and asked to indicate where they felt more training was required (Weindling & Earley, 1987). Her research shows that motivating staff, team building, conflict resolution, strategic planning, staff appraisal and keeping with what was happening nationally were key concerns for the heads (principals) .

In their major study of secondary heads (principals) in Great Britain, Weindling and Earley (1987:38) identify internal and external kinds of skills which the first year principals indicated they needed training. Weindling and Earley (1987:38) list these needed skills as:

* ***Internal skills***

- curriculum development, analysis, planning, and timetabling;
- pastoral care and organization;
- staff management, motivation and morale, incompetent staff;
- interpersonal relations, thus counselling staff;
- interviewing skills;

- staff development;
- staff appointment;
- innovation and management of change;
- knowledge of finance and capitalization;
- the head and the law;
- current and future educational issues; and
- management skills in school organization and administration, setting aims, school evaluation, communication, chairing meetings, delegation, resource management and buildings, and decision-making.

* ***External skills***

- skills in dealing with the Local Educational Authorities (LEA);
- school and community;
- how to relate to the governors
- public relations, that is, how to handle media; and
- how to deal with unions and professional associations.

Unlike the beginning principals surveyed in the United States by Greenfield (1985), Lindsay (1985) and Duke (1987a; 1987b) noted earlier, most of those who were surveyed by Weindling and Earley (1987:39) in Great Britain indicated that they acquired various skills and knowledge from their previous pre-service experiences as they moved towards headship (principalship).

Van der Westhuizen and Harrison's (1989:196) study on determining dimensions for management development in education maintain that the problem with existing management development programmes is that many address a variety of subjects which contribute very little to the promotion of developing skills and abilities required by primary role of the educational managers.

Subsequently, they identify a list of other skill dimensions that are important for beginning principals for:

- utilization of human resources;
- task structuring;
- sensitivity;
- decisiveness;
- initiative;

- analytical ability;
- perseverance;
- good judgement;
- flexibility;
- creativity/originality;
- value orientation;
- reasoning power;
- planning;
- organizing;
- leading; and
- control.

According to these researchers, these dimensions will therefore give not only managerial, but an educational hue to school principals (beginning principals).

Van der Westhuizen (1991) theorizises that educational managers (principals) require management task skills and management area skills for effective running of the school. Task management skills include some dimensions noted above like planning, organizing, leading and controlling.

On the other hand, educational managers (principals) need skills in management areas including staff affairs, pupils affairs, curriculum and teaching, physical facilities, financial affairs, school and community relations (Van der Westhuizen, 1991:49).

Van der Westhuizen's (1991) identification of skills needed for effective educational management ties in well with the problems and needs experienced at the personal level by beginning principals noted earlier (cf. 3.3-3.3.7).

3.11.2 Synthesis

Beginning principals need critical skills for effective educational management. Three main skills including technical, social (human) self-awareness are deemed critical for beginning principals. These skills are necessary for beginning principals as they meet the challenges and the problems found in the principalship. A critical examination of the critical skills and other essential skills identified (cf. 3.11-3.11.2) appears to indicate that each of the skills or dimensions can be linked to a problem experienced by beginning principals different levels noted earlier (cf.3 .2-3.9.5).

Therefore, the induction process and programme for beginning principals should equip them with these skills which are necessary and important for meeting the challenges of the principalship in the early years of their career.

It should be remembered, however, that except for Jones' study referred to by Weindling and Earley (1987), Weindling and Earley (1987), Van der Westhuizen and Harrison (1989) and Daresh and Playko's (1992b; 1994) studies which are empirical, the rest of the lists concerning skills needed by school principals are areas of knowledge and skills which other people think principal should have. In general, these list have not been produced by the principals themselves.

The empirical studies reviewed have proved that school principals need managerial skills for effective school management. Brown (1990:44), notwithstanding, asserts that much of the crisis management and antipathy existing among principals can be avoided if principals are knowledgeable about the skills needed to lead an organization in an informational age.

Teachers, students and the community respect a leader who conveys an attitude of competency in the workplace. Therefore, if principals are to regain and retain respect in the school organization, it is imperative that they acquire the right and relevant skills for their managerial posts.

3.12 Typical problems faced by beginning principals in developing countries

Research on problems of beginning principals in developing countries like Kenya is virtually nonexistent. The preceding sections of this chapter have examined problems faced by beginning principals with an emphasis to developed countries. The proceeding sections focuses on typical problems of beginning principals in developing countries.

These problems will help shed new light into the unique problems faced by beginning principals in developing countries. Attention is given to developing countries in general with special reference to Kenya.

Although there is a substantial body of literature on educational problems in developing countries, little attention is paid to problems faced by beginning principals (Bray, (1987); World Bank (1990); Lockheed and Verspoor (1991); Van der Westhuizen (1987); Van der Westhuizen et al. (1991); Van der Westhuizen and Steyn (1993).

However, interest in the issues and challenges facing beginning principals in developing countries is beginning to emerge. Recent study carried by Janson (1989) for example focuses on the problems of beginning principal in South Africa. More recently, a major study was undertaken by Legotlo (1994) focusing on the induction programme for newly-appointed school principals in Bophuthatswana (now the North West Province) in South Africa.

Although these two studies may seem too few to warrant any hopefuls sign, their significance is astronomical in the sense that they represent new developments in research of the people, for the people, and by the people in developing countries. In essence they represent a contextualization of educational management development in developing countries.

The population growth rate in most developing countries is high and the ever-increasing school-age population out-paces the provision for education (Legotlo, 1988:174). As such, the demand for education has increased in most of these countries, because education is seen as the door opener to the labour market and high social-economic status.

Therefore, with an increased population coupled with a high demand for education for every child, the price tag and problems that come with it are enormous and astronomical. These problems include and not limited to the following:

3.12.1 Problems of inadequate physical facilities

Many schools in many developing countries have inadequate physical facilities. Most of them not only lack enough classrooms, but they have inadequate offices, toilets, recreational facilities, science facilities and library facilities (Qasem, 1983; Moyer, 1988; Narayan, 1988; Van der Westhuizen & Steyn, 1993; Legotlo, 1994).

It should be remembered, however, that what most schools in developing countries lack are flushing toilets, and that latrines (long-drops) are the common types that are used in many schools.

Thus, as beginning principals take up their principalship positions, they face enormous challenges in trying to deal with these inadequacies which are nonetheless important but non-instructional leadership issues.

For example, in Kenya some schools have one latrine (toilet) for all the boys in the school and one for all the girls. In some cases the principal (headteacher) must share his office with the teachers (Kitavi, 1993; Kitavi, 1994).

Most recently, Legotlo's (1994:213) study has shown that the majority of the respondents (81.9%) felt that a shortage of physical facilities was a serious problem or a problem to beginning principals. He identifies libraries, laboratories, centres for special subjects like home art and craft, sports fields and teachers' housing as some of physical facilities inadequancies.

The preoccupation with the issues of inadequate facilities leaves little time for consideration of instruction which is the main reason why the principal was hired (Mensah, 1985; Kaha, 1985; Ansen, 1984).

Beginning principals' problems in these countries are doubly compounded by a lack of enough space which can accommodate all the physical facilities needed.

3.12.2 Problems of classroom provision

The push to expand access to schooling in developing countries has resulted in an increased enrollment of students in many developing countries (Lockheed & Vaspoor et al., 1991:154). Indonesia, Kenya and Tanzania have increased their enrolment significantly after abolishing primary school fees (Nkinyangi, 1982:163).

As a result, many schools, especially in Kenya, are understaffed, classroom overcrowded and teachers overloaded (Kitavi, 1993:64). For instance, a classroom built for twenty-five students must accommodate forty-five to fifty or more students. The problem is further compounded by lack of enough tables, chairs or desks for students. A desk designed to sit two students must accommodate three to four students.

This situation not only affects the effective teaching of the teacher but is detrimental to effective learning of the children. Therefore, the challenge for beginning principals is to provide enough classrooms with enough chairs, tables or desks for students.

Lack of enough classrooms is a problem that many developing countries must contend with. Consequently, beginning principals in these countries find themselves doing what there predecessors have done thus organizing classes into separate sessions (for example,

morning and afternoon shifts) and having teachers share facilities (classrooms, desks, books and equipment) (Bray, 1989; Lockheed & Vespoor, 1991).

3.12.3 Problems of inadequate equipment and other facilities

The management and provision of quality and relevant education and training are dependent, on among other things, on the supply of adequate equipment teaching and learning materials (Kamunge, 1988:113).

Experience in a large number of countries suggests that school equipment and other facilities are the work supporting agencies (Lockheed et al., 1991:128) and that procurement and supply of equipments for public schools are done by education officers.

For example, in Kenya, the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) is the agency that is vested with the power to design textbooks and other learning materials while the Science Equipment Production Unit (SEPU) produces science materials and equipments for all Kenyan schools (Report of the Presidential Working Party on Education and Manpower Training for the Next Decade and Beyond, 1988:113).

Subsequently, the procurement and supply of equipments and other learning and teaching materials in Kenya is done by District Education Officer (DEO), purchased by funds provided by the government (Kamunge, 1988:114).

Due to poverty in many developing countries, the governments are unable to supply schools with enough equipments and learning materials such, telephones, electricity, duplicating machines, type writer, running water, syllabi, textbooks, teachers guidebooks (Harber, 1992).

The absence of equipment and other facilities like teaching aids and textbooks may create disciplinary problems, thus adversely affecting the learning teaching process. As such, beginning principals must hustle with how teachers are going to teach effectively without enough equipments and materials.

In some schools students must share books and in others they learn the science subjects from theory and without practicals. And as research by Rondinelli et al. (1989) and Lockheed and Vaspoor (1991) shows, national production and distribution of equipments and other learning materials in many developing countries is problematic.

3.12.4 Problems with regard to shortage of trained teachers

Schools cannot operate without teachers and shortages of teachers are common in rural areas in many developing countries (Chamie, 1983:55).

Studies by Unesco (1984) show that developing countries like Brazil, Burundi, Egypt, Malaysia, Philippine, Zambia, Bangladesh, Jamaica, have an enormous number of teachers who are not only academically underqualified, but professionally undertrained.

Kitavi (1993:64) asserts that Kenya, like other developing countries, does not have enough trained school personnel to teacher her students. Further, Kitavi points out that many schools are understaffed and this has resulted in overcrowding the classrooms and overloading teachers. In addition, untrained teachers outnumber trained teachers in some schools.

Bogonko (1992:187) also observes that, except for university teachers who have a corpus of knowledge in their respective disciplines, primary and secondary teachers in Kenya might not possess knowledge beyond the grasp of the educated lay public.

Bogonko's observations about teacher in Kenya could be applied to teachers in many developing countries. If this is so, then only in terms of some esoteric skills in teaching methodology could teachers in primary and secondary institutions claim special ability

Many beginning principals don't know what to with academically unqualified and professionally undertrained teachers especially in their first year of principalship. Besides, some principals must deal with their own academic and professional deficiencies as well.

Professionalism dictates that its practioners command a body of specialized knowledge which is not available to the public. And since many teachers in developing countries don't meet this criterion, this causes a problem for beginning principals.

3.12.5 Problems with erection of schools and cost of schooling

School erection is not cheap and requires more resources than many developing countries can afford (Lockheed & Vaspoor, 1991:154). Thus, where resources are poor schooling for many children is not possible - thus principals must struggle to get financing. According to the World Bank (1988) and Chung (1989) educational financing in developing countries suffers from three interrelated shortcomings.

First, the financial base of the education is often narrow and highly dependent on general revenues of the central government. These revenues come from a small number of taxpayers who are taxed at a high rate and would not support additional taxes (World Bank, 1988:172).

Given such a weak tax system and without alternative sources of funding and a mechanism for tapping the willingness of individuals to pay for specific kinds of education, schools and principals are limited in their ability to respond to unmet and changing needs.

Second, the incentive structure underlying the funding of public education in developing countries is often weak, as is the link between funding and school performance (Bray & Lillis, 1988) Additionally, the fund-raising initiatives of schools and local communities are reactive rather than anticipatory, responding largely on an ad hoc basis to serious shortfalls in resources promised by the central government (Lewin & Berstecher, 1989).

As such, beginning principals are often severely limited in their ability and power to mobilize resources and are unable to turn parental commitment to education into financial support for schools.

Third, in many developing countries, a considerable proportion of education subsidies goes not to the neediest but to the middle and upper-income families (Chung, 1988:25-26).

In most cases, since beginning principals in many developing countries have no say concerning erection of schools and cost of schooling they just watch without doing anything.

For example, in Kenya the erection of schools and cost of schooling has been the responsibility of the government through the local efforts (harambee). However, after the introduction of the new educational system (8-4-4), the government adopted what it calls cost-sharing (Kamunge, 1988:117).

Now the parents must share a big responsibility in erecting schools and other costs involved in their children schooling. Principals must organize harambees (fund-raising) through the local government if they want to erect schools and for other schooling costs.

Therefore, the problem facing beginning principals in Kenya is lack of skills in organizing these harembees. And since a lot of these harambees are politically orchestrated, a lot of principals find themselves not knowing what to do.

3.13 Other problems facing beginning principals in developing countries

Beside the problems identified (cf. 3.12.1-3.12.5) beginning principals in developing countries are confronted with other problems which hinder strengthening their managerial capabilities. These other problems include but are not limited to politics, religious issues ,tribal issues, parents illiteracy, poverty, travel, teachers' accommodation, bilingualism, ineffective organizational structures, poor information systems, undeveloped managerial capacity and use of foreign languages as the medium of instruction (Chamie, 1983; World Bank, 1988; Herber, 1992; Kitavi, 1993; Kitavi, 1994; Newton, 1994; Legotlo, 1994).

An overview of some of the problems is given in the following sections:

3.13.1 Ineffective organizational structures

A recent study of efforts to reform the administration of education countries illustrates the advantages and disadvantages of highly centralized and decentralized systems (Hansen, 1986).

In Venezuela the education system suffered from excessive centralized powers. Hansen (1986:118) maintains that so extreme was the consolidation of authority that teachers had to request excused absences directly from the ministry of education.

Such excessive centralization not only leaves the principals without autonomy but completely precludes regional autonomy and produces rigid standardization and tremendous inefficiency.

In contrast, the Columbian educational system was so decentralized that schools often ignored mandates from the central administration office (Hansen, 1986). Although educational systems in most developing countries are not so extreme, one can assume that many struggle with similar problems.

3.13.2 Poor information systems

At all levels strong management is based on good information systems composed of achievement testing, monitoring and research. Testing, monitoring and research programmes have been vital to educational reforms over the past quarter century in developed countries. They provided the information needed to improve educational policy and programmes at the national, district and school levels (Lockheed & Vaspoor, 1991:125; Lockheed & Hunshek, 1989).

In developing countries, good information systems are particularly important for providing information on the cost and effectiveness of inputs because they allow educational policymakers to decide how to allocate resources most efficiently and help educational managers (principals) plan to deal with the changes (Lockheed & Hunshek, 1988).

Few developing countries have developed the information systems that are adequate to the task. Thus, poor information systems hampers the effectiveness of most beginning principals.

3.13.3 Underdeveloped managerial skills

Beginning principals in most developing countries face the problem of their own unskillfulness. As was noted (cf.1) most of them come from the ranks of teachers or deputy principals without any proven training in managerial skills. Many top level education administrators have a wide range of managerial skills through in-service training but beginning principals have none.

This has led Lockheed and Hunshek (1989) and Lockheed and Vaspoor (1991) to lament the fact that much of the managerial and administrative capacity has weakened in almost all developing countries, where the rapidly expanding educational systems require more skilled educational managers and administrators than have been trained.

The primary reason for such deficiencies, according to Lockheed and Vaspoor (1991) and Chapman (1990) is simply training. Training, whether pre-service or in-service, is unavailable, inadequate or inappropriate. Moreover, opportunities and incentives for advancement, clearly defined career paths and systems for assessing performance absent.

The lack of such inputs not only hinders the professional development of beginning principals as educational managers but also dampens their motivation to perform as well.

3.14 Synthesis

It is clearly evident from the above discussion that problems faced by beginning principals in developing countries hinges on inadequancies. There is not enough of what it takes to become an effective educational manager.

In addition, the bureaucratic, social and political contexts in which these beginning principals function compound their problems. The administrative structure of education reflects and is intricately linked to the wider system of public administration which further complicates the principalship position.

In view of the foregoing discussion, a summary of difficulties and problems faced by beginning principals in developing countries can be summarized as follows:

* Problem with inadequate physical facilities.
* Lack of classroom accommodation and overcrowding.
* Inadequate staff accommodation.
* Inadequate provision of curriculum materials like textbooks and teaching/learning aids.
* Shortage of physical facilities like toilets, libraries, laboratories, centres for special subjects like electricity, and water.
* Inadequate provision of equipments like telephones and furniture.
* Inadequate transport facilities.
* Problems with erection of classrooms and administration blocks.
* Management problems.
* Students' disciplinary problems like lateness, absenteeism, and wastage.
* Meeting students' needs like malnutrition.
* Staff problems like untrained and ill-trained teachers, absenteeism and turnovers, and demotivated staff.
* Problems with finances and students who cannot pay their school fees.
* Inadequate financial assistance from the ministry of education
* Inadequate teaching posts.
* Poor information systems.
* Ineffective organizational structure.
* Dealing with their own underdeveloped managerial skills.

3.15 Conclusion and summary

It would appear that an underlying assumption in all the studies reviewed about problems and skills for beginning principals is that principalship findings cannot be generalized beyond the individual country, educational system or school district.

Therefore, the responsibility of and the appropriateness of increasing awareness of beginning principals cannot come from research studies using aggregated population sample from one country, educational system or school district. Rather, principal induction and professional development must involve country, school district or educational system-centered research and programmes.

It should also be remembered that it would be unrealistic to assume that schools or educational systems could or should help beginning principals' solve all the many problems they will encounter in the process of beginning their principalship. Many personal difficulties, challenges and conflicts must be resolved by the beginning principals.

But the school can help by providing planned induction activities and formal programmes that will minimize the kinds of dilemmas beginning principals are likely to encounter.

In summary, an overview of the issues, challenges, and problems facing beginning principals has been provided in this chapter. Thus, beginning principals face specific problems in their principalship roles, have job-specific needs, and require managerial skills and competencies. They also experience problems with pre-service experiences such as formal training, mediated entry, teaching experience and other educational positions.

These problems experienced at different levels of the principalship include the following major areas:

* Pre-service training problems.
* Problems experienced at the personal level.
* Problems with senior management.
* Problems with instructional staff.
* Internal relationship problems.
* Problems with conflict management.
* Problems with the management of change.
* Problems with administrative staff.
* Problems with management of external affairs.

* Student/personnel problems.

An attempt was also made to show the typical problems faced by beginning principals in developing countries as well. Problems faced by beginning principals in developing countries radically differ from their counterparts in developed countries. This proves further Lungu's (1983:87) argument that problems faced by school principals are not standard but different.

In addition, the literature has highlighted the need for essential and critical skills for beginning principals. Because of the problems highlighted beginning principals must demonstrate his managerial skills that result in goal attainment. These critical skills identified and categorized in three clusters are:

* Technical skills cluster.
* Social skills cluster.
* Self-awareness skills cluster.

It is therefore reiterated in this study that if school systems expect principals to be effective and efficient, they must address their problems, meet their needs, and equip them with the necessary skills. Thus, pre-service training, induction programmes, and in-service strategies must all be geared to enhancing the professional development of the principals.

Since school principals are the key personnel entrusted with the power to produce good educational results, their effectiveness and efficiency are an imperative and not merely an option for consideration. And one of the ways for addressing beginning principals problems thus equipping them with the needed skills is a well-structured formal induction programme.

CHAPTER IV

4 INDUCTION PROGRAMMES FOR BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

4.1 Introduction

There is an increasing recognition, especially in some developed countries, for instance in the U.S.A, U.K and Australia, that there will soon be a significant shortage of educational managers (Daresh & Playko, 1992e). Further, these researchers maintain that more school managers (principals) are retiring and fewer classroom teachers are pursuing careers in educational management.

In addition, more people are becoming aware of the unique problems faced by those who are beginning careers as school principals. Thus, in a nutshell, there is a need for more school managers, and a need exists to find ways that will support the efforts of those who are willing and able to serve.

Duke (1984), Daresh (1986) and Weindling and Earley (1987) all describe the world of the novice principal as one that is filled with considerable anxiety, frustration, and professional isolation. Thus, an increasingly clear picture emerges, showing beginning principals who are frustrated in their ability to serve as instructional leaders (Parkay et al., 1989). They also tend to seek more precise ethical and moral identities (Curcio & Greene, 1989; Roberts & Wright,1989; Daresh & Playko, 1989a, 1989b). Furthermore, these beginning principals suffer from feelings of stress associated with their jobs (Parkay et al, 1989).

Therefore, the beginning principal's role is a role which calls for special attention by researchers and programme developers alike. As such, literature shows a abroad spectrum of induction programmes that vary greatly in design, processes and strategies. Different programmes require different time allocations to work effectively through the process.

The desired outcome will also affect the programme design. The objectives of some induction programmes are to provide the beginning principals' linkage with pre-service training. Others are made to diffuse the initial "shocks" of novice principals while others are intended for providing professional development.

Beginning principals need a structured, systematic process for learning how to deal effectively with various school-specific problems. Although educators and researchers are beginning to recognize that educational systems cannot afford to leave beginning

principals, alone isolated from helpful colleagues to solve complex problems, very few induction programmes have been designed for beginning principals (Rogus & Drury, 1988, Anderson, 1989).

In order to gain an understanding of the help being provided to beginning principals, induction programmes, activities and strategies of school principals are considered. Some of the induction programmes designed for beginning principals in developed countries such as U.S.A, U.K and Australia will be reviewed.

In addition, some induction programmes, activities and strategies designed for beginning principals in some developing countries in Africa such as South Africa and Kenya are briefly reviewed in this chapter as well.

4.2 Induction programmes for beginning principals in the U.S.A

4.2.1 Pre-appointment induction activities for beginning principals in the U.S.A

Pre-service training for school principals is a cardinal prerequisite for school principals in almost every state in the U.S.A (Anderson, 1991). Furthermore, pre-service training programmes had existed in various states in the U.S.A long before the call for reform in educational administration (Johnson, 1993)

Typically, the preparation of school principals is the responsibility of colleges and universities, while individual state departments and school districts determine the certification requirements (Marrion, 1983; Bridges, 1987; Anderson, 1989).

Diversity is the hallmark of United States and as such universities, state departments and school districts are autonomous and have different requirements that lead to licensing and certification (Daresh & Playko, 1992a).

This diversity is also reflected in the way school principals are recruited, selected, inducted and trained in-service. Therefore, pre-service induction activities, though similar in some school districts, will differ radically in others.

To close the gap between classroom and practice, most school principal preparation programmes now require some type of mentoring, internship or practical (Anderson, 1991). As such, well-structured internships are being launched with brief manuals to guide internship experiences.

Taking the advice of a report by the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP, 1985), to the effect that field experiences at the conclusion of a student's coursework are often the sole mechanism of pre-service and pre-appointment preparation by which the gap is bridged, universities are using activities such as performance simulations, case studies and games to bridge the gap (Schmitt, 1982; Clark, 1986; Schmuck, 1988).

NASSP (1982:1-38) encourages and recommends the continual use of the the above-noted induction activities because they:

- emanate from appropiate theoretical constructs of the profession and other related disciplines;
- provide application in relatively safe settings where students can make mistakes and learn from them;
- encourage repetitive applications so that future school principals can practice effective behaviours; and
- place students sufficiently close to the field setting so that the remainder of the transition is made with minimum difficulty.

In addition to classroom bridging activities identified, various field- based activities such as course-based field activities, practicals and internships are being used to provide pre-service and pre-appointment experiences (Anderson, 1991:15-17).

Having a mentor for pre-appointment activities is another way to provide guided experiences that help aspirants learn the operational facets and assist in the socialization of process of the neophytes (Pence, 1989:5). A mentor can help an aspiring school principal learn a job and the accompanying subtle nuances of the school more quickly and smoothly.

From the foregoing review, it seems that educators are trying several promising pre-appointment induction activities and practices, and although these activities are not perfect solutions to improving the training of school principals, they are good examples of what several institutions in the U.S.A are doing to bridge the gap between theoretical concepts of school management taught in the classroom and the requirement of professional practice in the field.

In the light of what has been noted earlier (cf. 3.2.1-3.2.2) concerning the problems associated with formal training, these pre-appointment activities seem to provide the practical aspect of pre-service training.

4.2.2 Induction programmes designed for beginning principals in the U.S.A

A number of studies and research show that induction programmes for beginning principals have been researched and developed in the U.S.A. Hawk and Robards (1987), Bowers and Eberhart (1988) and Daresh and Playko (1992c) maintain that at least seventeen states require school districts to provide induction programmes to beginning principals.

Additionally, surveys by the Illinois State Board of Education and the American Association of Teacher Educators (AATE) show that fourteen states have induction programmes for beginning principals (Eastern Illinoi University, 1987; Neuweier, 1987).

Daresh and Playko (1992b:99) assert that, although some of these programmes focus on the particular needs of beginning teachers, the spirit of induction programmes for beginning teachers is similar to the efforts that may be designed for beginning principals except in some areas, for example the administrative.

Daresh and Playko (1992c:1) note that there are over fifteen thousand systems of public education in the U.S.A. and this makes it impossible to design a standard induction programme for all states. However, some common aspects of induction programmes for example, collegial support and mentoring, are agreed upon by many researchers (Daresh & Playko, 1993).

Therefore this section gives an overview of some induction programmes and induction strategies and guidelines for beginning principals.

4.2.2.1 North Central Region of Maryland School District Induction Programme

The Maryland School District Induction Programme will be examined in this section as reported by Small (1986:1-20). The Maryland Commission on school-based Administration Report (1986) identified local school districts as having primary responsibility for professional development practices (Small, 1986:4).

functions. Since it seemed appropriate for school districts to continue in the collaborative professional development activity as well as to provide for system-specific offerings, the Maryland School District incorporated those recommendations into the principals' induction programme (Small, 1986:4-5).

- *Major underlying beliefs of the principals' induction programme*

The Maryland School District builds its programme on the foundation of some very specific beliefs. Small (1986:6-8) identifies these beliefs as follows:

* The principal is the key person who can influence school improvement and effectiveness.
* School improvement is related to communicating high expectations, providing technical assistance and monitoring results through performance based observation and analysis ofinstruction.
* The professional development of beginning principals is the first step toward recognizing that school systems have a major responsibility to encourage, support and provide for the continued learning and growth of principals.
* Beginning principals have concerns which are both similar to and different from more experienced principals.
* Induction programmes need to provide for the concerns specific to beginning principals (role clarification, technical and procedural assistance and socialization to the profession) as well as to provide for those concerns central to school improvement.
* Induction programmes serve to demonstrate school system responsibility for continued professional development of principals.
* The professional development of beginning principals must involve a multi-dimensional effort providing high quality staff development and support for principals and, at the same time, providing required implementation of performance-based observation and analysis of instruction.
* Professional development programmes for beginning principals should include content and process skills primarily related to the educational leadership functions of the principalship to reinforce the role expectations of principals to emphasize school improvement.
* The structures, delivery systems and norms for the induction programmes for beginning principals should include characteristics of adult learning and effective staff development.

- Collaboration and networks for continuing professional development need to be included in a comprehensive, on-going programme reflecting consideration of the needs of both individuals and school systems.

It appears that these beliefs are based on what is known about the issues and problems surrounding beginning principals identified in chapter three. They also point to what research has identified as ways to help improve schools and principals efficiency and effectiveness.

- *Major goals of the principals' induction programme*

The principals' induction programme represents a two-year entry period beginning at the point of appointment to the position and includes three strands: technical assistance, instructional leadership and school improvement and collegial support (Small, 1986:8).

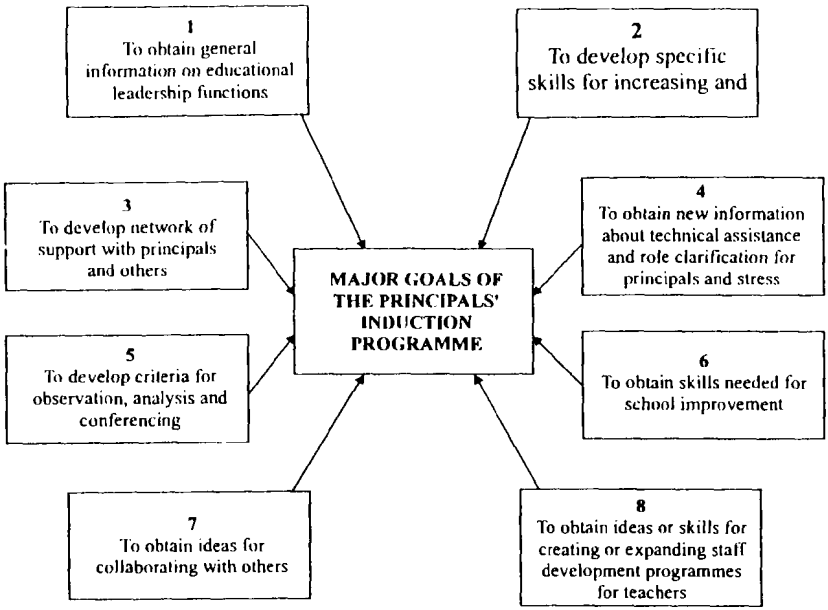
Small (1986:5) points out that the overall goal of the Maryland School District Induction Programme is to provide professional development activities and support systems that will get the beginning principal off to a good start in the right direction - that of educational management.

In addition, eight major specific goal have been established for the principals' induction programme. These goals are embedded in the criteria identified as necessary to the programme. Small (1986:8-12) identifies these goals as shown in Figure 4.1

Small (1986:17-18) gives a clear description of the principals' induction programme and how it is carried out through a collaborative effort.

According to Small (1986) the collaborative instructional leadership and school improvement is delivered in a context of a pre-institute planning session, a three-day residential institute is held in summer and monthly follow-up sessions are offered throughout the year. The second-year programme continues with a pre-institute planning session, a two-day residential institute in the summer, monthly follow-up sessions and scheduled coaching visits on school sites.

Figure 4.1 Major goals



Source: Small 1986.

The content and processes for the collaborative strand and the collegial support strand of the principals' induction programme have been designed as a spiral curriculum to build on acquired knowledge and skills. Each programme has separate, but conceptually linked goals and the follow-up sessions reflect increasing knowledge and skill level.

The major foci of the first year programme are knowledge of teaching skills and learning, theories which underlie increased teaching effectiveness and identifying mission and goals for school improvement. Goals for the Principals' Induction Programme I as well as an overview of the summer institute and monthly follow-up session topics provide information about programme content.

A cross-reference of programmes is developed to relate the content of the first-year programme with the functions of principalship and the required knowledge and skills identified by the Maryland Commission on School Based Administration (1986).

Major foci for the Principals' Induction Programme II are knowledge and skills in instructional supervision (aimed at assessing teaching effectiveness through the instructional development process), systematic observation and conferencing strategies.

Included also, and central to the collaborative strand of the programme, is an emphasis on school improvement and the process along the continuum to reach school improvement goals established in the first year. A cross-reference guide of second-year programme content with areas of emphasis for knowledge and skills is developed.

- *Criteria for the principals' induction programme*

The criteria for the two-year induction programme are divided into four programme design areas which include planning, delivery, management and evaluation. Each area is further divided into criteria and anticipated outcomes for participants.

The criteria serve as guidelines for the evaluation of the programme. Interviews with the participants are also used in the evaluation process. Additionally, an instrument to observe and assess the programme has been developed.

It would appear from the description of the Maryland Principals' Induction Programme that the entire programme is designed to help beginning principals get off to a good start by providing collegial support, opportunities for collaborative problem-solving and direction toward role clarification of the principal as an instructional leader.

The programme's goals which are based on the research findings of school effectiveness, principal effectiveness, teacher effectiveness, adult learning, concerns of beginning principals combined with the underlying beliefs about professional development of beginning principals makes it a viable programme for those interested in helping beginning principals.

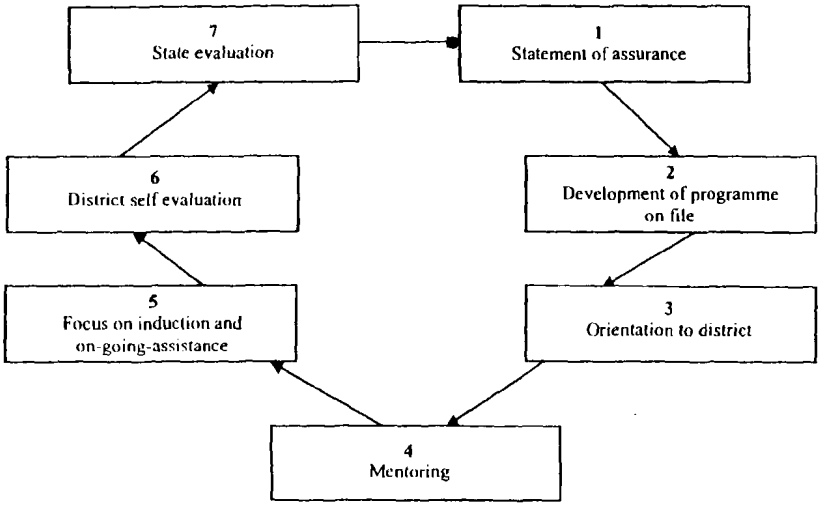
4.2.2.2 Ohio entry-year standard induction programme

In response to the needs of beginning principals as identified by research and practioners, the Ohio Department of Education mandates that all beginning principal in all school

districts should be provided with well-planned and structured learning experiences to help them adjust into their new role and position effective 1987-1988 school year (Drury, 1988:8)

Below figure 4.2 illustrates the elements and steps included in the Ohio Entry Year Standard Induction Programme as conceptualized by Daresh and Playko (1989b):

Figure 4.2: The elements of Ohio Entry Year Standard



Source: Daresh & Playko, 1989b

* *Organization of the Entry Year Programme*

The development plan of the Ohio Entry Year Induction Programme for beginning principals is the work of the local school district with the superintendent as the final signatory to the plan.

The process of designing the induction programme involves inputs from experienced principals, consultants, college and university professors and professional associations. Therefore, all stakeholders are involved in the planning, implementation and evaluation of the induction programme.

* *Structure of the Ohio Entry Year Programme*

Mentoring is a key component of this programme. As such, each beginning principal is assigned a mentor. The mentors' main responsibility is to orientate the beginning principal to the school system.

The programme requires the mentor to:

* have experience as a principal with professional and academic qualifications;
* have knowledge, skills and attitudes for effective mentoring;
* be trained to perform mentoring responsibilities; and
* consult with the mentee on a regular basis.

* *Evaluation of the Ohio Entry Year Programme*

The programme has to be evaluated both locally by the school district and statewide by the Ohio Department of Education at least once every five years. Mentors (experienced principals), mentees (beginning principals) and programme administrators participate in the evaluation process.

In summary, the Ohio Entry Year Induction Programme seems to provide an easy transition to principalship. In doing so, it also emphasizes a concerted effort from everyone concerned about the effectiveness of school principals. As such, it takes into account the opinions and suggestions of experienced principals, university professors and professionals associations in the planning, implementation and evaluation of the programme.

Notwithstanding, it also takes seriously the opinions of its consumers (beginning principals) by requiring that they participate in the evaluation process.

The flexibility inherent in the programme allows individual school districts to adapt it to suit their local needs thereby encouraging ownership.

4.2.2.3 The Induction Programme of Rogus and Drury

According to Rogus and Drury (1988:11-16), their induction model is one that will improve "first year principals' performance, increase the retention rate of beginning principals, and develop an 'esprit de corps' among administrative staff."

Specific programme goals according to Rogus and Drury (1988:11-16) are that induction programme participant will be able to:

1 Demonstrate understanding of system expectations, procedures and resources.
2 Demonstrate increased competence and comfort in addressing building or unit outcomes or concerns.
3 Enhance their personal and professional growth.
4 Develop a personal support system.
5 Receive personalized assistance in coping with building/unit problems.
6 Receive formative feedback and assistance toward strengthening their administrative performance.

To achieve these goals, Rogus and Drury (1988:11-16) developed three components for implementing an induction programme namely large group, small group, and mentoring. Figure 4.3 shows how these three essential components help beginning principals achieve the six listed induction goals.

A detailed explication of the content structure is give as follows:

- **Large-Group component**

Activities in the large-group setting are designed to focus on the concerns, problems, and issues that district staff and administrative participants identify. Rogus and Drury (1988:14) state that while it is important that participants understand the expectations of the district, it is equally important that they receive help on the issues and concerns that they view as significant."

They also say that the large group can serve as an effective setting for development of professional growth plan.

Figure 4.3 Programme structure and essential programme elements

Large Group	Small Group	Mentoring
1. Presentation with respect to content/process needs identified by programme participants (2)	1. Group support sessions with a problem-solving emphasis (4)	1. Individual helping relationship to building and concerns (5)
2. Presentations with respect to system expectations, procedure and resources (1)	2. Group support for implementing plan (3.4)	2. Provision of formative feedback on administrative performance (6)
3. Development of personal/profesional growth plan (3)		3. Individual support for implementing personal growth plan (3)

(Numbers in parenthesis signify the programme goals noted earlier to which programme elements are keyed.)

Source: Rogus & Drury, 1988.

- **The small-group component**

Small groups serve as a vehicle for providing individual assistance with implementation of the personal growth plans. A district can also use this group to help beginning principals address building or unit problems, similar to the collegial support developed in 1979 by the Institute for Development of Educational Activities (IDEA).

Rogus and Drury (1988:12) note that "each small group is composed of five members or six administrators in similar job positions. Member of the group divide into pairs and share growth outcomes and action steps on a regular basis.

- **The mentoring component**

In this part of the induction programme, veteran administrators are paired with beginning principals in a "buddy system". According to Rogus and Drury (1988:15) mentors tend to be effective if they choose to serve as mentors, are effective in their work, are recognized as being successful, and are trained for the role.

Because of the complexity of the mentoring relationship, Rogus and Drury advise that senior officials carefully match mentors and beginners. Mentors meet with their partners on a regular basis to provide support and assistance. They do this by helping the beginner carry out a personal growth plan, providing feedback on administrative performance, and helping the beginner principal focus on immediate concerns and on questions that transcend the urgencies which dominate a first-year principal's thinking.

Rogus and Drury (1988:16) write that "the mentor's task is to help the mentee develop a clear vision of what the organization might become and to reflect on the mentee's leadership action".

In summary it appears that Rogus and Drury's (1988) Induction Programme serves as a framework for communicating the expectations of the district to new principals. As the authors put it, "it allows for clinical support, coaching, and corrective feedback by practitioners, and diffuses responsibility for providing corrective feedback, training, and support. The programme can also serve as a helpful mechanism for recruiting and selecting new members".

It should be remembered, however, that although this induction programme can be used by school systems to induct beginning principals, large districts may not have a large enough pool of principals to create such peer interactions.

And as Anderson (1991:65) observes about this programme, cooperative arrangements between districts or with universities may provide another means of assisting beginning principals with the relevant induction support.

4.2.2.4 Anderson's induction strategies

Anderson (1989) conducted a major study concerning the job-specific information and assistance needs of beginning principals in Oregon and Washington (U.S.A).

In this study, he reviewed the induction strategies that help or hinder the rookies in the first year of the principalship. Anderson found that beginning principals expressed dissatisfaction with their pre-service induction practices which include formal schooling, mediated entry, teaching experience and other educational positions.

In addition, Anderson found that the "swim or sink, learn on your own" strategy was a common induction phenomenon that many beginning principals in his study experienced.

As a result, most of them experienced difficulties in their first year of principalship. Lack of feedback from their superiors compounded their challenges further.

Anderson's (1989) study identified eight key areas in which beginning principals needed assistance:

* instruction and curriculum;
* staff personnel;
* students personnel;
* school community relations;
* school facilities;
* school transportation and services;
* organization and structure; and
* school finance and business management.

Lack of assistance in these areas rendered most beginning principals ineffective in their first year.

From this empirical study, Anderson (1990 & 1991) developed some strategies that beginning principals in his 1989 study considered helpful. These helpful strategies which Anderson (1991:67-70) recommends for an effective induction process are further explored in the next sub-section as follows.

* *Orient beginning principals to the district*

District should provide beginning principals with a comprehensive orientation to the district. This should begin at the selection process thus providing the applicant with a clear understanding of the district, community and supervisory body's goals and aims as well as any unusual challenges that beginning principal may face when beginning the job.

Next, provide scheduled orientations with important school system offices such as business, transportation, maintenance, public relation, and curriculum.

The purpose of this initial orientation should be to familiarize the beginning principal with the persons who can answer questions as issues arise. However, care should be taken not to inundate beginning principals with unnecessary new information.

This orientation could be done by superintendent in small schools or by a team of senior administrators in large schools.

- *Orient beginning principals to their schools*

This could be done by the outgoing principals working in concert with the district office by developing a plan for the beginning principal's entry experiences. The outgoing principal should provide the beginning principal with specific information about building schedules and procedures, staff strengths and weaknesses and local community leaders' and parents' expectations.

* *Institute a buddy system*

Assignment and pairing of successful veteran principals with rookies is a good way to help the beginning principal learn the "informal ropes" of the district. The veteran principal should provide technical and cultural-specific information and assistance, giving the beginning principal insight into the subtle signs, signals and norms of the district.

* *Structure beginning principals' workload*

Beginning principals need to spent a great deal of time in their buildings to develop productive working relationships with staff, students and parents and to assess various aspects of their schools, programmes and operations.

As such, the district should help beginning principals with advice on how to structure their workload and protect them from activities that might take them out their school buildings, like district committees and meetings.

* *Give beginning principal feedback*

Frequent, specific and constructive feedback from the supervisors helps beginning principals to enhance their performance. Both formal and informal feedbacks should be provided through out the year.

This feedback helps beginning principals gauge their strengths and weaknesses. Additionally, it counteracts the tentativeness that appears to result from current induction practices.

- *Develop a plan for professional growth*

In order for beginning principals to continue to develop leadership skills and grow professionally, their leadership strengths and weaknesses as well as their skills and knowledge regarding district-specific priorities must be assessed.

Such an assessment can be formal or can be tailored to fit each particular district's needs. Superiors' colleagues should all be involved in assessing the beginning principal's needs. The results of this assessment should be used to develop a growth plan that includes specific learning objectives, activities to help in the development process, an implementation time line and an evaluation plan.

- *Facilitate peer group problem-solving and idea-sharing*

Peer-group idea sharing is extremely beneficial for problem-solving of school specific issues and exposes beginning principals to innovative practices. This strategy also offers beginning principals and opportunity to meet as colleagues and share ideas for professional growth.

In addition, this strategy also builds a sense of collegiality and support among beginning principals. Where there no enough beginning principals to create such a peer interaction, some cooperative arrangements can be made with other school districts.

- *Facilitate regional in-service*

Districts, universities, professional associations and other educational training institutes should facilitate regional in-service opportunities for principals in areas such as budget planning and management, teacher supervision and evaluation, time management and conflict management and leading instructional and curriculum improvement efforts.

Such in-service should bring the experienced and the novice principals together in group sharing that provides for continued professional development .

In sum, although Anderson's induction strategies cannot be deemed as the ultimate solution to the many ills facing beginning principals, they show what school districts can do to alleviate the initial shock and surprise that beginning principal face upon entry into the principalship.

Furthermore, these strategies serve as a reminder that developing a well-thought-out process for inducting beginning into their new leadership role is, therefore, an activity that school districts cannot afford to ignore. Rather, it should be considered a high priority.

4.2.3 In-service activities for beginning and experienced principals in the U.S.A.

Professional development of school principals is a journey and not a destination. It is a process that begins with pre-service training, is enhanced by induction activities and gradually developed through in-service activities.

In the U.S.A. in-service activities for beginning and experienced principals are provided by universities, school districts and professional organizations (Licata & Ellett, 1988).

Licata and Ellett (1988:14) argue that university professors, school districts and other professional associations all have a stake in the professional success of school principals and can work together in providing successful in-service experiences.

As such, in-service induction activities are provided through
academies, institutes and principal centres (Peterson, 1985; Small, 1986; Levine, et al. 1987; Murphy & Hallinger, 1987; Lee, 1988).

A varied of strategies such as workshops, seminars and conferences are common methods employed by most academies, institutes and principal centers in providing in-service activities for beginning and experienced principals (Louisiana State University, 1988; Grier, 1987; Murphy & Hallinger, 1987; Maryland Commission on School Based Administration, 1986).

These workshops, seminars and conferences run anywhere from one day, two weeks, to fifteen weeks and are mainly conducted during the summer (Hankel & Hersey, 1990). For instance, the Grand Rapids Public School runs her summer institute called Staff Development Centre for two to three days while the Springfield Development Programme runs for fifteen weeks (Grand Rapids Public Schools, 1994; NASSP, 1982).

Development of these academies, institutes and principal centres has been stimulated by conferences sponsored by the Southern Regional Educational Board, the Harvard Principals' Center, in symposia at national meetings and in general by concern for management effectiveness among school principals (Peterson, 1985:213).

In addition, networking is another strategy that is gaining support as a viable way to provide in-service activities for both beginning and experienced principals (Louisiana State University, 1988; Barnet, 1985). Networking is based on the belief that collegial support for both beginning and experienced principals is necessary and needed.

It should be pointed out, however, that networking as an in-service activity is different from other in-service induction strategies in that it is more controlled by the participants.

NASSP (1982) embraces the networking idea by maintaining that individuals who share common problems and concerns should be given the opportunity to meet together, thus gain support from their colleagues by sharing ideas and experience.

In summary, the foregoing section has provided a bird's-eye view of the current practices used in providing professional development for both beginning and experienced principals in the U.S.A. Thus, the responsibility of providing in-service education in the U.S.A is vested in college and university professors, school systems and professional associations.

In-service and pre-service activities are important components of the professional development of school principals. These activities are incomplete without induction programme activities which form one of the main goals of this entire study and in part the focus of literature review in this chapter.

Therefore, the following section focuses on some induction programme and strategies designed for beginning principals in the U.S.A.

4.3 Conclusion

From the foregoing review (cf. 4.2.1-4.2.4) it is observed that pre-appointment induction activities, in-service activities and induction programmes in the U.S.A have been researched and developed by universities and colleges, states departments of education, school districts, professional associations and interested individual educators and researchers.

It is observed, however, that programmes reviewed and induction strategies involved show a wide range of disparity in terms of beliefs, goals content, structure, and methodologies. Thus, although designed for school principals of the same country, they cannot be used uniformly in inducting beginning principals.

The involvement of different individuals and groups of people in designing and conducting these programmes is a sure confirmation that everybody has a stake in making the beginning principals succeed and that inducting beginning principals is not one persons' responsibility.

Therefore, induction programmes researched, designed and developed in the U.S.A are the work of university and college professors, school districts and professional associations. The university and college professors, school districts and professional associations are all stakeholders of the beginning principals success. They have the knowledge, skills, and resources that can produce a sound induction programme. In a nutshell, they have the wherewithal

4.4 An overview of induction strategies for beginning principals in England and Wales

4.4.1 Introduction

The previous sections of this chapter discussed in detail pre-appointment induction activities, in-service activities and induction programmes for beginning principals in the United States. This section examines some induction activities and programmes in England and Wales.

Although there are some similarities between the U.K and U.S.A educational systems, for example the call for reforms, increased concern for efficiency and effectiveness and the concomitant press for educational administrators at all institutional levels to draw on the accumulated wisdom of industrial and commercial managers, a set of contingencies makes British education very unique (Department of Education and Science, 1985).

Educational governance in England and Wales is, as the Cambridgeshire Handbook for governors puts it, "a partnership in responsibility, locally planned and administered, but set in a national context" (Handbook for Governors, 1985:1).

In essence, there is a three-tiered governance structure that includes the central government represented by the Secretary for the Department of Education and Science (DES), the Local Education Authority(LEA) and the local governing bodies like school boards.

The Local Education Authority (LEA) in consultation with the Department of Education and Science (DES) builds and equips schools, and selects and appoints teachers, headteachers and school inspectors (Handbook for Governors, 1985:5).

The Education Acts of the 80s have, however, redefined British education and one of the predictable manifestations of the current school reform movement is the resurgence of interest in administrators' (school principal) preparation (Pohland, 1988:448).

Such interest is signalled in "state of-the-art" reviews, in scholarly attempts to predict future demands, in the preparation of training guidelines and proposals by professional organizations, in revised certification requirements and in such for alternative to existing pre and in-service training models (March, 1974; Pitner, 1982; Hoyle, 1986).

In short, it appears that in the U.K. the field of educational administration is in a state of ferment. Thus, the purpose of this section is therefore to provide an overview of induction practices including activities and programmes for beginning principals in England and Wales.

4.4.2 Pre-appointment induction activities for beginning principals in England and Wales

Unlike in the U.S.A. training in educational management and certification of school principals in the U.K. is neither mandated nor required. The traditional path to headship is by way of extensive classroom teaching experience or vice principalship experience is still the norm (Pohland, 1988). Practicals and internships which are regarded as important pre-appointment activities are not available either.

Weindling and Earley's (1987) study reveal that all beginning principals in their study had obtained first degrees and about 33% had a master's or doctoral degree. Although training in educational management courses is not a prerequisite for appointment as a school principal, Weindling and Earley (1987) indicate in their study that forty-five of out of forty-seven beginning principals had taken at least three courses in educational management prior to their appointment.

While teaching experience and vice-principalship are considered the main pre-appointment activities for most beginning principals in U.K., other experiences including being form tutor and department head are seen as beneficial for would be future principals(Buckley, 1985).

In addition, many beginning principals stress the benefit of being part of senior management team where they were involved in discussion and decision-making across all aspects of school (Weindling & Earley, 1987).

Weindling and Earley (1987) point to other non-teaching experiences such as involvement in church for example, being a youth leader, marriage guidance counsellor and other leadership positions in the church as areas in which beginning principals indicated were valuable to them. A variety of other experiences in sports such as cricket, football and rugby was thought to have helped beginning principals in terms of team work and leadership. Experience overseas was also valuable in gaining insights into different cultures and ways of life.

From the above brief discussion, it appears that pre-appointment activities for beginning principals take an informal route. Many beginning principals appointed have experience either as vice-principal or senior teacher.

Therefore, though formal training and managerial experiences which could be deemed as pre-appointment induction activities are not statutory prerequisite for appointment as a principal, it appears that in practice LEA selectors do consider managerial experiences and skills.

4.4.3 Induction strategies for beginning principals in England and Wales

In the U.K the recruitment, selection, appointment and induction of beginning principals is the responsibility of Local Education Authority (LEA) (Buckley, 1985; Pohland, 1988).

Weindling and Earley (1987) describe how the process of inducting beginning principals is carried out in the following phases.

* **Phase 1: Introduction**

After their appointment but before taking up the post, the principal-designate are invited by LEA to visit their schools for the purpose of:

- talking to the outgoing principal;
- familiarizing themselves with the school environment;
- meeting school officers and staff responsible for various things in the school; and
- providing an opportunity for the principal-designate to ask pertinent questions.

This phase lasts anywhere from half a day to a few days.

* **Phase 2: Orientation**

During this phase which also lasts for some days , the beginning principal is:

- introduced to the LEA officials;
- familiarized with LEA policies and procedures;
- introduced to LEA's support services; and
- allowed to ask questions related to the LEA's functions.

• **Phase 3: Workshops and seminars**

The final phase of beginning principals' induction comprises a series of workshops and seminars. These workshops and seminars spread over the year have the following objectives:

- to help the adjustment of the beginning principal into the job;
- to support the acquisition of necessary skills; and
- to begin to raise critical questions with regard to the school.

The main areas covered during the induction workshops and seminars include:

- Finance, buildings, health and safety, law, governors, welfare, communication, leadership, decision-making, public relation and media, and pupil supervision.
- Planning, curriculum development, evaluation, special education and management of change.
- Staff development and appraisal, staff appointment.

Although these are the main content areas, local educational authorities have the autonomy to include more content areas or tailor them to suit the local matters of the local schools.

It should be remembered, however, that not all Local Educational Authorities (LEAs) have induction programmes for beginning principals. It is also observed from Weindling and Earley's (1987) study that even those LEAs with induction programmes are too theoretical and lack practicality.

The next section discusses what Weindling and Earley consider to be an ideal induction programme.

4.4.4 The induction programme of Weindling and Earley

Weindling and Earley (1987) underscore the problems and concerns facing beginning principals in U.K. The study also highlights the prevailing induction practices employed by LEA. Based on these findings, these researcher have underlined major components necessary for an induction programme for beginning principals.

Their induction programme emphasizes the role of the beginning principals, the role of LEA and the role of mentors, confidants and consultants.

- **The role of the principal**

After taking up the appointment, the beginning principal should not just sit down and wait for other people to help him. Rather, he should do the following to facilitate his own induction:

- obtain information about the relations between the staff and previous head;
- plan and handle the first staff meeting with care;
- involve deputies in planning and implementing the plans;
- plan senior management team meetings with care;
- consider carefully methods of improving communications and mechanisms to establish consultation procedures;
- handle internal appointments with care;
- develop strategies for dealing with incompetent teachers;
- do not favour particular individuals or staff members;
- the number of references made about your previous school head should be kept to a minimum;
- carefully consider strategies for introducing change; and
- use the honeymoon period to establish groundwork for major changes and achieving short-term objectives.

* **The role of the Local Education Authority(LEA)**

The LEA as the employer of the beginning principals plays an indispensable role in the induction process. It should provide, first of all, for the personal needs and concerns of the beginning principals by providing better administrative infrastructure that ensures smooth transition and running of the services needed by the beginning principal towards the cost of removals and setting up a home.

Management workshops and seminars should be arranged for all beginning principals, focusing on:

- LEA policy, procedures and support services;
- finance, building, healthy and safety, law, decision-making and pupil supervision.
- forward planning, curriculum development and evaluation.

The induction workshops and seminars instructional methodology should include lectures, talks, and exercises. It should be the responsibility of LEA senior officers in conjunction with experienced principals to provide these workshops and seminars with experts and guest speakers being brought in for specific sessions.

As part of induction, the Local Education Authority should arrange visits to local teachers' centres and, where applicable, to centres specializing in, for example, educational technology, urban studies, multicultural education, music, drama, and resource based learning .

In some large Local Educational Authorities (LEAs), seminar groups may be constituted of beginning principals, senior advisers and experienced principals in order to facilitate the induction process.

These groups made up of six individuals must meet regularly and discuss the organization and management of large schools. The discussions are followed by visits to schools, one visit to a school similar to the beginning principal's and one not.

During the seminar, it is necessary for the beginning principals to identify particular problems or weaknesses and for the LEA to respond accordingly.

* **The role of mentors, confidants and consultants**

These should be people whom the beginning principals can trust and who can be conducted immediately in times of crisis or when the beginning principal must make difficult decisions rapidly.

They should be people who can help, support and guide the beginning principal.

It is observed about this programme that, although the LEA should provide a variety of forms of support to beginning principals, these principals must play a crucial role in their own socialization to the school system and community.

4.4.5 In-service activities for beginning and experienced principals in England and Wales

Recent efforts to institutionalize administrators training provide a context for examining the tripartite governance arrangement of in-service education in the U.K. (Pohland, 1988).

Following the debate on schools in the 1970s, Education Secretary Sir Keith Joseph announced a national initiative to develop the management expertise needed to organize schools and their curriculum and to handle resources (Buckley, 1985).

The three explicit objectives of this 1982 key initiative were (1) to encourage the development of basic courses in school management on regional basis, (2) to develop a National Development Centre for National Management Training Capacity and (3) to release experienced principals and senior staff to attend one-term training programmes on school management (Pohland, 1988:453).

In addition, in 1979/1980 the DES funded a one-year study to survey the extent and nature of courses and other forms of professional development available for school principals and senior staff (Hughes et al., 1981). The report suggested that in order to improve management skills of school principals and senior staff, school management unit should be established to stimulate and support such development.

Therefore, as a result of the national initiative and the recommendations from the study, in-service activities and programmes have been launched to cater for the professional development needs of beginning and experienced principals in U.K.

- **One-Term Training Opportunity (OTTO) Programme**

According to Weindling and Earley (1987) the One-Term Training Opportunity (OTTO) programme involves courses launched following the DES Circular 3/38 which provided funding for the course. The goals of OTTOs are twofold - to improve individual management skills and to provide personal and professional development.

It is expected that principals who complete the programme would contribute to the staffing and organization of twenty-day basic courses and be part of Local Education Authority and In-service Education Training team. That is, participants are trained as trainers of both their colleagues and beginning principals.

- **20-Day Basic Course Programme**

The DES Circular 3/83 provided for principals to attend either the OTTO programme or alternatively the 20-Day Basic course. The goals of the 20-Day Basic Course are the same as those of OTTO.

After the 20-day Basic participants are expected to be trainers in their local school districts. Weindling and Earley (1987) indicate in their study that a big percentage of experienced principals had participated in one of the two noted programmes.

- **National Development Centre (NDC)**

The national Development Centre (NDC) for school management training established in 1983 is funded by the DES (Pohland, 1988). It supports school management training by coordinating and stimulating further development of the OTTO and 20-day Basic Course.

The role of the NDC is to establish a resource bank of materials and set up an information network, undertake the evaluation of some of the courses, develop new training materials, disseminate findings and offer support to LEAs (Bolam, 1986:10).

The NDC follows a rational problem-solving approach to management development of principals. This type of approach enables principals to learn how to coordinate activities for groups and individuals and how to carry out management tasks more efficiently and effectively.

* **Centre for In-service Education (CIE)**

The Center for In-service Education (CIE) defines itself as a centre for in-service education of teachers and research in education (Cambridge Institute of Education, 1985:2) The centre provides part-time courses for principals and takes pride in attending to the needs of educators in its East Anglia service area.

The CIE has a strong link to the LEA and takes cognizance of the full-time role of the professional in organizing part-time programmes. Part-time programmes are variously organized as part-time day release, as block release, as evening only or as weekends only.

* **Local Education Authority (LEA) Programme**

In 1985, the Department of Education and Science (DES) expressed preference for Local Education Authority (LEA) sponsored in-service courses for school principals (DES, 1985b).

The DES requires that the LEA offer short and sharply focused non-award-bearing courses. The DES perceives such courses as being in contrast to long, generalized award-bearing courses as representing good value for money.

* **Other In-service practices**

Other indicators of in-service and professional development focus are present in U.K. The Open University, for example, markets its programmes as "Professional Development in Education".

The Diploma in Professional Studies in Education offered by the Oxford Polytechnic is considered an in-service programme (Oxford Polytechnic, 1984:6). The Master of Science in Education Management (M.Sc.Ed) at Ulster Polytechnic is intended especially for principals and senior staff in schools and colleges(Ulster Polytechnic, 1980:7).

The overview presented above gives a clear evidence that in-services activities and programmes for both beginning and experienced principals abound in U.K. What all this means is that the in-service and professional development of school principals is a matter of national import. Thus, it is clearly reflected in all the programmes.

Furthermore, these efforts bring to the surface the belief that well-managed schools are more likely to foster effective education that translates into the development of effective schools. Though these programmes are not explicitly designed for beginning principals, they could be construed as induction strategies for beginning principals.

4.4.6 The new mentoring scheme for beginning principals in England and wales

4.4.6.1 Background

After the Secretary of State announced the funding of the new mentoring scheme for beginning principals in England and Wales in September of 1992, the School Management Task Force (SMTF) set guidelines for the introduction of the scheme (SMTF, 1992). The guidelines resulted from conferences and brainstorming sessions organized by the School Management Task Force.

The School Management Task Force (1992) identifies the following provisions contained in the scheme:

- beginning principals are entitled to seven days of mentoring;
- each beginning principal is to be paired with an experienced principal;
- mentors will be required to have training in mentoring skills;
- mentor pairs will choose how to use their seven days entitlement;
- government will pay to compensate mentors' school principals for the principal's absence, clerical work, travel subsistence and evaluation; and
- each scheme will include observation by shadowing, reflective interviews and discussion of the problematic issues.

4.4.6.2 Organization and the implementation of the new mentoring scheme

With reference to his interview with Morling, Legotlo (1994) maintains that for better organization and execution of the scheme, England and wales had to be divided into seventeen regions. Subsequently, principals from each region came together and planned their individual scheme, appointed mentor trainers and selected mentors (SMTF,1992)

The scheme requires that mentors be trained in mentoring skills. Additionally, mentors should possess the following qualities:

- credibility, thus be respected by peers as role models;

- must have experience of about five years in the post;
- be a good listener;
- be interested in mentoring;
- have mentoring skills; and
- always be available to help the mentee when there is a problem.

After the above conditions have been met, a questionnaire is sent to beginning principals asking them whether they would like to be mentored; and about their preference regarding sex, age and school phase of the mentor. On the basis of this information, the mentees are paired with mentors.

Next, the mentor and mentee agree on the learning arrangements like how to conduct shadowing observations. The dates for formal meetings and specific topics on management are discussed during this time as well. Interschool visits for observing each other at work is also arranged. An agreement on how to use their seven days' entitlement is reached at this stage.

The initiators of this scheme hope that beginning principals will reap immeasurable gains out of it. Thus, with the help of mentors, the mentees learn from experience how to select their own answers to the problems and not to rely on the mentor all the time.

The reflective conference is beneficial to both the mentor and mentee in that it helps them to critically analyse their management styles and to reflect on their own educational platforms. Principals are also directing the scheme, which ensures greater commitment, empowerment and ownership.

On the downside, the scheme suffers from lack of female mentors. In addition, more time is needed for mentors to meet other mentors and reflect on their experience.

The scheme went into full operation in 1993 with more than 80% of beginning principals participating in the scheme. The scheme is evaluated regularly.

It appears from the foregoing review that the U.K. has finally caught up with the spirit of mentoring as a viable induction strategy. And unlike in the U.S.A where mentoring is both a pre-appointment and after appointment induction strategy, it seems that in the U.K. an induction strategy is provided on the job.

Therefore, since mentoring systems seem to have high expectations, there should careful planning and implementation of the mentoring system. Benefits that are accrued from mentoring were detailed earlier(cf.3.4.3).

4.4.7 Conclusion

It is clear from this overview (cf. 4.4-4.4.6.2) that the U.K., like the U.S.A, is providing induction activities for beginning principals. It is, however, pointed out that the induction programmes for beginning principals in U.K. are not mandatory as is the case in some states in the U.S.A.

All induction activities, strategies and programmes, both in the U.S.A have grown out of recent research studies concerning the needs of beginning principals.

All the induction efforts are a sure reminder that school managers (beginning principals) need help from those who are stakeholders of schools. Therefore, if communities, school districts, professionals and educators want effective principals, they must provide for the beginning principals' management needs.

4.5 An overview of the induction of beginning principals in Australia

4.5.1 Introduction

Schooling in Australia has been primarily the responsibility of the government and teachers and principals are employed under uniform terms and conditions by the state Ministry of Education (Beeson & Matthews, 1992:309).

Recently, however, governance of education in Australia has been seen to be shifting upward, thus from the head of the state department to the responsible minister (Beeson & Matthews, 1992).

Although there have been a number of studies on the roles of Australian school principals (for example, Clarke, 1986), Beeson and Matthews (1992:312) note that there is a notable lack of studies focusing on beginning principals.

However, investigations by Thomas (1987), Harvey (1988) and Beeson and Matthews (1992) focus on the challenges, needs and problems facing the Australian beginning school principals.

4.5.2 Pre-appointment activities for beginning principals in Australia

There are no academic qualifications required for principals in Australia beyond those needed for initial certification as teachers (Chapman & Boyd, 1986), but many applicants have undertaken further study, often in administration or related areas (Beeson & Matthews, 1992).

In most cases, applicants for principal position are generally vice-principals and very experienced teachers, most having had twenty or more years of teaching experience (Chapman & Willis, 1982). Applicants are required to have gained extensive experience in wide range of activities that school engage in including, head of departments, participation in committees, counselors, involvement in extra curricular activities.

Therefore, experience as a vice principal, extensive teaching experience and involvement in school wide activities could be considered pre-appointment induction activities for aspiring school principals in Australia.

4.5.3 The beginning principal induction programme in Victoria

In Victoria, the principals' induction programme is managed by the two principals' professional associations namely the Victoria Primary Principals Association (VPPA) and Victoria Association of State Secondary Principals (VASSP) (Willis, 1994). Membership of the associations is voluntary for school principals and assistant principals, who form the membership of the Principal Class of Directorate of School Education.

There are three discrete components of the VPPA/VSSP induction programme. These components are as follows:

Component 1: The orientation seminar programme

The content of component 1 includes:

- System enculturation.
- Human resource management.
- Introduction to skills assessment.
- Management of change.

Component 1 is typically offered in March.

Component 2: The induction seminar programme

The content of component 2 covers:

- The practical elements in the art of the principalship.
- Refinement of inter-personal skills.
- Team administration in the self-managing school.
- Development of principals' personal and professional development plan for optimum skills acquisition.
- Performance appraisal
- Performance management.
- Evaluation and appraisal.
- Succession issues for principals.
- Learning and growth patterns in leadership positions.
- Establishment of a support network.

Component 2 is offered in June.

Component 3: Televised information sessions

Component 3 deals with the transmission of technical information and includes:

- Counselling skills.
- Giving and receiving feedback.
- The entrepreneurial principal - marketing the school.
- The creation of a vision.
- Enterprise bargaining.
- Negotiation skills.
- Interpreting the school's organizational culture.
- Financial management.
- Communication skills.
- Legal liability.
- Facilities.
- The school council and the parent community.
- Stress management.
- Time management.

- Managing critical events.

Component 3 is spread throughout the second, third and fourth terms of the school year. The programme is provided through television by means of video-conferencing and interactive multimedia.

By and large, the Victoria Induction Programme seems to be focused on attacking most of the problems that have been identified as rendering beginning principals ineffective (cf. 3.3-3.9.5).

The programme also introduces a new way of inducting beginning principals through modern technology. Other school districts and educational systems should take note of this and make use of the technology in their schools.

4.5.4 In-service activities for beginning and experienced principals in Australia

Unlike universities in the U.S.A and in the U.K., in Australia, universities traditionally have not taken the lead in providing in-service training like short courses (Johnson, 1993:34).

In most cases the Institute of Educational Administration (IEA) in Australia is charged with the responsibility for matters concerning educational administrators, principals included (Moyle and Andrews (1987:164-180).

The institute's programme goals, including induction programme goals for beginning principals, are threefold:

- to provide training and other activities to improve the administrative ability of persons in position of school leadership (principals), persons aspiring to such leadership position and others interested in educational administration;
- to undertake research to ascertain methods by which the quality of education may be improved through principals' pre-service, induction and in-service programmes; and
- to assist educational institutions and educational administrators in matters relating to administration of those institutions.

These institutional and programme goals are reflected in the content of the programme which is a four-week programme.

There is now, however, unprecedented scope and need for short courses, conferences and workshops developed by universities (Johnson, 1993:34). In this regard, Monash University has established a School Decision-making and Management Centre.

In addition, the University of New South Wales is also responding and has designed a course to assist principals to acquire managerial skills in school renewal, staffing, staff development, financial management and cooperation with school council.

In November 1993, the Victoria Primary Principal Association (VPPA) and the Victoria Association of State Secondary Principals (VASSP) signed a service agreement with the State of Victoria's Directorate of School Education (DSE) to deliver a number of programmes related to principals professional development (Willis,1994:1).

The following programmes were developed as a result of this agreement:

- **The principal and school development programme**

This is a programme whereby the principal works in small group of six other principals with a colleague as a leader to undertake a specific study or aspect of school development within the school.

The programme is of approximately ten days duration, spread over a six month period.

- **The mentor/workplace development programme**

In this programme, small groups of up to twenty (ten pairs) work to develop a principal's or assistant principal's identified needs. These programmes operate in a number of ways, depending the group's co-ordinator and the desired outcomes of the groups concerned.

- **The leadership programmes**

These are programmes conducted or initiated by the either Victoria Primary Principals Association (VPPA) or Victoria Association of State Secondary Principals (VASSP).

It is left to the discretion of each association as to what programme is needed and how the budget is to be employed.

- **Leadership conferences**

The associations run annual conferences for their members at which guest speakers and presenters deal with the current issues and concern as identified by the members of the planning committee.

In summary, it is clear that Australia is on the cutting edge of providing in-service activities geared to the professional development of school principals. It would seem also that Victoria is taking the lead in showing the rest of Australia what they need to do to make school principals more effective.

4.5.5 Conclusion

Like the U.S.A and the U.K., induction programmes have been researched and developed in Australia. In Australia pre-appointment induction activities for beginning principals are mainly realized in the form of teaching experience, vice principalship. In-service activities for both beginning and experienced are provided through course offerings and other professional development programmes.

It should be remembered, however, that pre-service training and induction programmes for beginning principals in Australia are not mandatory as is the case in some states in the U.S.A. (cf. 4.2.3). In addition, it seems that it is only in Victoria where induction programmes are being given an unprecedented attention, mainly by Victoria Primary Principal Association (VPPA) and Victoria Association of Secondary School Principals(VASSP).

4.6 An overview of induction programmes for beginning principals in African countries

4.6.1 Introduction

Research on the role of principals in improving schools is compelling. Virtually every line of inquiry identifies school managers (principals) as key ingredient for successful schools (Legotlo, 1994).

Very little is known as yet about what makes successful school managers (principals) or how to train them in most developing countries, and in particular African countries. In the

past African countries paid very little attention to the management and development of school principals.

Although there is a paucity of studies spanning many decades that have been done about education in developing countries, for example, Elliot (1966), Anzalone, Stephen, and McLaughlin (1984), Rondinelli, Middleton, and Verspoor (1990), Chapman and Carrier (1990), Lockheed and Verspoor (1991), none of these studies focus on the role of principals or beginning principals per se.

Instead, most of these studies deal with general improvement of education in developing countries and the focus is typically on the teachers, students, schools, and governments. The role of the principals is virtually ignored in all these studies.

An emerging body of research, Gorton (1983), Buckley (1985) Daresh (1986), Weindling and Earley (1987), Rogus and Drury (1988), Anderson (1991), Parkay and Hall (1992), Bogotch and Riedlinger (1993), Bogotch et al. (1994) point to the fact that school principals are key personnel for effective management of schools.

In addition, these studies axiomatically affirm that beginning principals face problems which hinder them from being effective educational managers. These findings are, however, based on studies of beginning principals in developed nations.

Pre-service, induction or in-service training programmes for aspiring, beginning or practising principals are very limited or non-existent in most developing countries and in Africa.

In their study on improving education in developing countries, Lockheed and Verspoor (1991) found that in almost all developing countries, principals are selected from among teachers on the basis of seniority and then trained, although systematic training is limited. These researchers also found that, training before appointment is virtually nonexistence, except when a principal has served as a deputy or assistant principal.

Lungu (1983) and Van der Westhuizen (1988) maintain that in African, school principals are appointed on the basis of their performance as classroom teachers and the recommendation made by the inspector of schools. As such, management of schools is given in the hands of people who have not been trained to carry out managerial task in the most efficient and effective way.

Lockheed and Hunshek (1989:32) note, however, that developing countries have difficulties improving principals' efficiency and effectiveness for three reasons: (1) inadequate knowledge about the importance of the school principal, (2) inadequate knowledge about improving principals' effectiveness and (3) difficult obtaining appropriate information about principals' induction.

Therefore, in this section an attempt will be made to highlight efforts taken to help beginning principals in some African countries. In particular, attention will be given to underscore recent induction programme and induction guidelines from the empirical studies done by Janson (1989) and Legotlo (1994) about the needs, concerns and problems facing beginning principals in South Africa.

4.6.2 Commonwealth countries in Africa

Over the last decade, the Commonwealth Secretariat has been working with some developing countries to improve the state of school principals. Legotlo (1994:146) notes that principalship development in Africa is receiving unequalled and unparalled attention of agencies like UNESCO and the Swedish International Development Authority.

Legotlo (1994), referring to Smith, points out how the Commonwealth Secretariat, has begun to carry out the initiative to improve school principals in Africa by calling upon some African countries to write training materials to be used by school principals in the Commonwealth countries.

The Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI,1994) lists the following six countries which were requested to prepare and present training materials for a 1992 workshop as follows:

- Botswana: Managing curriculum and resources.
- Zimbabwe: Self development for educational managers and monitoring school effectiveness.
- Namibia: Personnel management.
- Kenya: Principles of management.
- Uganda: Managing of finances.
- Ghana: The governance of schools.

Each country's prepared materials were presented at a workshop held in Nairobi, Kenya in April 1992. It was attended by senior officials from the ministries of education from

Botswana, Kenya, Tanzania, Ethiopia, Nigeria, Uganda, Zimbabwe, Ghana and Zambia (KESI,1994).

These efforts by the Commonwealth Secretariat are in essence the first in an attempt to improve the status of educational managers in most African countries. And by calling upon the African countries to come up with their own training materials, the Secretariat is encouraging involvement, thereby empowering and creating a sense of ownership of the programme by these countries.

4.6.3 UNESCO's Modular training programme

Another commendable effort that shows concern for the pride of educational managers in developing countries comes from UNESCO. In 1988, the UNESCO Division of Educational Policy and Planning(EPP) designed modular in-service training programmes for the training of personnel in developing countries.

The programme was designed to allow for greater flexibility caters for all categories of educational management including the professional development of both beginning and experienced principals (Hughes & Rondwell, 1988).

The in-service programme, according to Hughes and Rondwell (1988:1-7), covers the following aspects:

- personnel management;
- management of resources;
- management of primary schools;
- management of secondary schools;
- the responsibilities of school inspectors and supervisors;
- personnel involvement in management development; and
- staff management within the educational system.

There are three categories of the modular training programme, namely the basic modules, the general modules and the specialist modules.

- **The basic modules**

The aim of the basic modules is to provide general background and knowledge of educational management and administration. The background and knowledge serve as a foundation for subsequent studies.

- **The general modules**

The overall aim of these modules is to consider general educational management tasks and process. It also aims at improving the managerial skills and understanding attitudes of educational personnel.

- **The specialized modules**

The overall aim of these modules is to provide opportunities for in-depth examination of specialized areas of educational management and administration. Additionally, it aims at developing practical skills relevant to the identified areas.

From the Commonwealth Secretariat Programme and the UNESCO Training Modular Programme, it is clear that an attempt has been to address the management development needs of school principals in Africa.

It should be remembered, however, that these efforts fall short of addressing the pressing problems facing beginning school principals in Africa. As such, worthwhile efforts should be expanded by these organizations to develop a well-structured induction programme for beginning principals. A worthwhile induction programme can only be realized if it is developed in the context of Africa and not an import.

4.7 An overview of the induction of school principals in South Africa

4.7.1 Introduction

Before the birth of the new South Africa in April 1994, the South African educational system had five state departments of education, each with its own political head.

Van der Westhuizen (1988:377) identifies them as:

- The Department of National Education for general education.
- The Department of Education and Training for Blacks.
- The Department of Education and Culture, Administration: House of Assembly, for Whites.
- The Department of Education and Culture, Administration: House of Representative for Coloureds.
  The Department of Education and Culture, Administration: House of Delegates for Indians.

These five education departments functioned in all former provinces of South Africa but not in the former independent home-lands or former self-governing states.

Since these educational departments have been dismantled and replaced with one national Ministry of Education for all South Africans, this section will only highlight briefly the practices that were used to induct school principals before the new South Africa ushered in.

In particular, attention will be given to the induction practices in the former Department of Education and Training for Blacks and the former Department of Education and Culture for Whites.

4.7.2 Department of Education and Training (DET)

In South Africa, like in many other developing countries, it is a common practice to promote classroom teachers or vice-principals to principalships (Van der Westhuizen, 1988; Legotlo, 1994).

Training in educational management or certification is not required and very little attention is paid to the induction activities of school principals, especially beginning school principals (Legotlo, 1994:149). As a result, many black school principals lack managerial skills

According to Van der Westhuizen and Makhokolo (1991:104), the principals lack effective managerial skills because: (1) most of them were previously ordinary assistants who did well as class or subject teachers, (2) the teacher-training courses available to DET teachers concentrate on training students as teachers only as the syllabi made no provision for school management courses for principals and (3) no structured course or in-service training programme for newly appointed principals existed.

Because of this, the DET launched programmes in 1984 known as Top-Downs which aimed at the training of school principals and specifically Heads of department.

The top-down strategy started with the directors of education and the immediate juniors. These managers trained people reporting to them in a cascade system (Legotlo, 1994:149).

The content of the programmes involved major themes such as self-management, managing subordinates, managing building and physical assets, managing parents and community involvement, managing students development and managing methods and procedures.

From the above overview it appears that there was an implicit assumption by the designers of this programmes that principals were qualified for their positions and that teachers were highly motivated. Being the head of a department seem also to be equated with the principalship position. But, although there is some interractiveness in the two positions, they differ radically.

Although the DET's efforts should be applauded for launching some sort of pre-appointment induction activities, these efforts fall short of making a concerted effort to address the needs, concerns and problems of beginning principals.

4.7.3 The Department of Education and Culture

In the past, induction activities for beginning principals in white education in South Africa consisted of a short orientation course of one week and a compulsory symposium presented from time to time to school principals (Van der Westhuizen, 1988:382).

These were the only official forms of management development mandated by the department of education. However, Van der Westhuizen (1988) also points out that different provinces and regions provided other forms of in-service arrangements.

For example, in the former Cape Province, the education department made use of the Educational Leadership Development Project presented to principals by Stellenbosch University. In the former Transvaal Province, the College of Education for Further Training offered a course in educational management. However, it was not a compulsory course for school principals. In addition, the Transvaal Department of Education experimented mentoring in-service training for beginning principals.

It is observed, however, that both the former DET and the Department of Education and Culture discussed above had begun attempts for inducting beginning principals. Whether these attempts will encouraged and adopted by the new Ministry of Education is yet to be seen.

These new efforts are also reflected in the studies of Janson(1989) and Legotlo (1994). The next sections give a brief outlook of their induction programmes and guidelines.

4.7.4 Janson's guidelines for effective induction of beginning school principals in South Africa

It is pointed from the outset that Janson's (1989) guidelines for inducting beginning principals were first written in the Afrikaans language. Therefore, what appears in this section is what was translated into the English language by Legotlo (1994) during his review of induction programme for his doctoral dissertation.

It is also pointed out that although Janson's study was done under the old educational system in South Africa, his findings have enormous implications for the new educational system in South Africa.

In his master's dissertation on Newly-Appointed High School Principals in the former Transvaal Education Department (RSA), Janson (1989) developed guidelines for the effective induction of beginning school principals.

Theoretically and empirically, Janson determined that beginning principals face problems and need assistance. Consequently, he developed an induction programme with specified guidelines for effective induction.

Janson' guidelines for effective induction comprises of two phases namely; the principal-designate period and the initial occupancy.

Phase 1: The principal-designate period

The principal-designate period starts immediately after receiving the appointment letter but before assuming duties formally. During this period, the principal-designate should take the initiative to familiarize himself with his working environment by carrying out the following activities:

- Visiting the outgoing principal and getting the necessary information and handbooks like the **Teachers' Handbook.** The outgoing principal is in a better position to outline the school policy, vision and mission.
- Attempting to meet the management team committee and the school board. The goal of such meeting should be to established a healthy relationship, which is important for the future socialization into the school system and community.
- Studying the procedures and policy of the education department. This is important because beginning principal have limited procedural skills.
- Arranging a conference with experienced effective principal. The experienced principal can provide valuable hints and suggestions.
- Using this period to study the recent Education Act. This is crucial because beginning principals have limited time at their disposal.

In addition, the principal-designate should use this opportunity to plan with the management team for the following year even though he has not assumed duties formally. It should also be the time to show that he has a vision for the school.

The following people play an important role during the principal-designate period:

- *The Ministry of Education*

As the employer of the beginning principals, the Ministry of Education, should have a strategic role to play in the induction of the beginning principals.

The superintendent as the representative of the Ministry of Education should help the beginning principal by:

- preparing him for the reality shock;
- motivating him to study the theory of school management; and
- providing him with the necessary guidelines like the principals' guide.

- *The school council*

A letter should be sent to the beginning principal by the school council to welcome him and wish him good lack in his new position.

It is also the responsibility of the school council to help the beginning principal in his socialization into the community by introducing him to various community groups, and

leaders. More importantly, the beginning principal needs the support of the school council in securing accommodation for his family.

Phase 2: After the beginning principal has assumed duties

Phase 2 is as critical as phase 1. It would therefore require the concerted efforts and involvement of the principals himself, the school council and parents' community, the Ministry of Education, mentors, consultants and organized professions.

- *The principal*

The beginning principal should contribute to and facilitate his induction by giving more attention to:

- handling of personnel matters;
- establishing good relations;
- managing change effectively;
- handling problem areas like appointments, evaluations of staff, finances and parent effectively; and
- handling general matters like opening of the school during the first term and cleanliness of the school

- *The school council and parents' community*

The school council and parents' community should make attempts to introduce the beginning principal and his family to the community.

* *The Ministry of Education*

The Ministry of Education should induct the beginning principals by using the superintendent and other experienced principals. Since the superintendent plays a big role in the induction process, he should note the following:

- avoid emphasizing his own ideas, but rather help the beginning principal to realize his ideas and
- create a climate of professionalism, where both can grow professionally.

* *Mentors*

Beginning principals would be paired with experienced principals. The mentor should receive training for the job and should be willing to act as a mentor. Both mentor and mentee should be willing to work together.

* *Consultants*

The consultant is an outsider who advises the beginning principal. He must have a good professional status to accepted by the beginning principal. The beginning principal should have realistic expectation for the consultant.

* *Organized professions*

The Principals' Council and the Peer-Assistant Leadership system could be employed in the induction of beginning principals.

In summary, Janson's guidelines based on his empirical data provide beginning principals with what it takes to be an effective principal beginning immediately after appointment. The guidelines point to the importance of the beginning principal initiative to induct himself.

It should be remembered, however, that although Janson formulated his guidelines in 1989 and these were published by Van der Westhuizen and Janson (1990), they are still guidelines and have not yet been put into practice. Hopefully, the new South African educational system will take notice of them.

4.7.5 Legotlo's guidelines for the induction of beginning principals in Bophuthatswana

Like Janson's (1989) induction guidelines, Legotlo's (1994) guidelines were also written under the old South Africa which regarded Bophuthatswana as an independent state. Bophuthatswana was incorporated into the rest of South Africa immediately after the Government of National Unity took over after the April 1994 elections.

Although his research findings were focused on Bophuthatswana, his guidelines have far-reaching implications for the induction of beginning principal in the entire new South Africa. As such, the next section gives a brief overview of these guidelines.

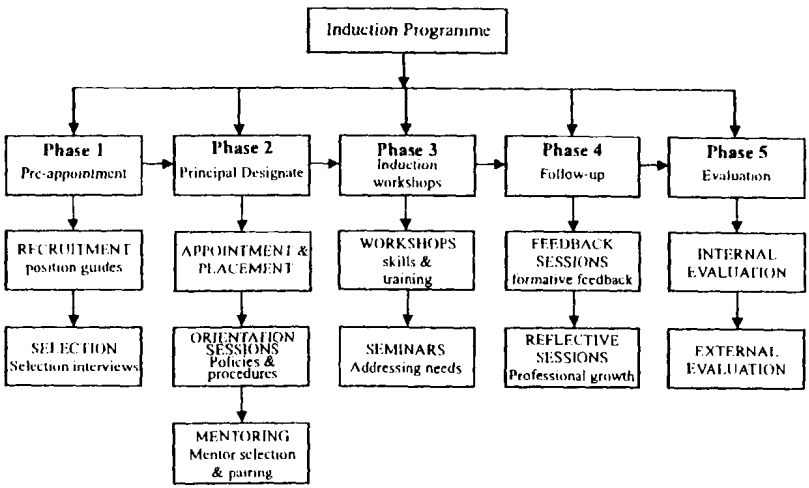
Legotlo (1994), in his doctoral thesis on An Induction Programme for Newly-Appointed School Principals in Bophuthatswana, developed an induction programme and guidelines for the effective induction of newly-appointed school principals.

The induction programme and guidelines follow his theoretical and empirical research investigations and findings which determined that beginning principals face many problems including problems with management of staff, instructional staff, internal relations, external relations and student/personnel.

Additionally, his study also determined that typical problems for beginning principals in developing countries include and not limited to problems of inadequate physical facilities, classroom provision, inadequate equipment and other facilities, shortage of trained teachers and erection of schools and cost of schooling.

Legotlo's (1994) programme and guidelines consist of five phases as displayed in figure 4.4

Figure 4.4 New Principal Induction



Source: Legotlo (1994)

Phase 1: Pre-appointment

This phase includes both recruitment and selection activities.

* *Recruitment*

The induction of beginning principals starts once the vacancy has been announced. The superintendent prepares position guides to help the selection panel and the prospective principals to have a picture of the school setting like the size, enrollment and staff in the school.

* *Selection*

During the selection interviews the prospective principal is provided with a variety of information concerning the school. The candidate should be provided with full details about expected role and condition of employment and the problems of the school system.

Phase 2: Principal-designate

This phase is crucial and the circuit education officer works with the principal designate focusing on some aspects of induction like appointment, orientation, and mentoring.

A formal letter should be send to the beginning principal welcoming and offering to give help and support. In addition, an orientation session should be organized where circuit policies and procedures are outlined.

It is also the time to select a mentor in consultation with the beginning principal. Both the mentor and mentee are provided with the mentoring guide as well.

A preliminary meeting should also be organized between the mentor, the superintendent and the beginning principal. A visit to the out-out going principal to get information on staff and students should be organized.

All of the above induction activities in this phase should address the following beginning principals' problems:

- to ensure that the beginning principal feels safe and secure;
- to effect orientation to system policies and procedures;

- to understand circuit policies and procedures;
- to locate housing and accommodation; and
- to locate schools for the beginning principal's children.

In the process of inducting the beginning principal, the following skills need to be developed in this phase:

- knowing how to relate t the circuit office;
- understanding the staff's strengths and weaknesses; and
- role clarification.

Phase 3: Induction workshops, seminars and conferences

During this phase a number of opportunities like workshops, seminars, conferences and mentoring should be created to help the beginning principal internalize the circuit system's expectations and policies and to develop essential skills to carry out their role more effectively.

Beginning principals needs that should be addressed during this phase include:

* *Administrative issues*

- handling administrative work;
- budgeting and controlling school finances;
- education law; and
- time management.

* *System problems*

- shortage of physical facilities;
- how to deal with students who cannot buy books or pay fees;
- staff accommodation;
- shortage of teaching grants/posts;
- water supply problems; and
- students travelling long distances.

Additionally, this phase should endeavour to develop and equip the develop the beginning principal with the following skills:

* *Technical skills*

- selection of deputies for appointment;
- staff evaluation;
- conducting effective classroom visits;
- dealing with incompetent teachers; and
- managing tension and stress.

* *Self-awareness skills*

- assessing job responsibilities in terms of the real role of principalship;
- having a vision along with an understanding need to achieve relevant goals;
- being aware of one's biases and strengths and weaknesses;
- portraying a sense of self-confidence on the job; and
- understanding that change is on-going, and that it results in a continual changing of visions of principalship.

* *Social skills*

- knowing how to relate to school council members and central office personnel;
- establishing good relations with other circuit officers; and
- having the ability to encourage involvement of all parties in the education community.

Phase 4: Follow-up

The follow-up phase has two components namely; feedback and reflective sessions. The circuit officer should provide guidelines for follow-up visits. These visits are important to clarify assignments and questions and concerns raised by the beginning principal

The frequency of follow-ups should be stated in the circuit education policy. Follow-ups should provide effective feedback to the beginning principal and give him a picture of how he is performing.

The mentor should also provide feedback by helping the beginning principal to focus on immediate concerns and helping him to develop a clear vision of what the organization might become.

Reflective sessions are healthy for beginning principals. Therefore, he should be given the opportunity to ponder aloud alone.

Phase 5: Evaluation

The purpose of this phase is to measure whether the programme goals were met. The evaluation team which could be based at a university must first of all state the objectives of the evaluation. Evaluators, both internal and external, must be appointed and the perimeters for evaluation must be stated.

The formative evaluation of the programme should be conducted at the circuits or regional level, so as to help in redirecting the induction activities. Summative evaluation should be conducted after five years.

In summary, although Legotlo's induction programme and guidelines show a lot of interactiveness and overlapping with other programmes reviewed in this study (cf. 4.2.1-4.5.4), it sheds new light regarding unique problems faced and induction activities for beginning principals in developing countries that are not common to beginning principals in developed countries like the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia.

Both Janson's (1989) and Legotlo's (1994) studies on beginning principals not only represent new developments in management development in South Africa, but also in Africa and the rest of the developing world at large.

It should be remembered, however, that although both Janson's and Legotlo's programmes and guidelines were designed with the "old South Africa" in mind, the "new South Africa" has much to gain from these studies. Both are theoretically analyzed and empirically grounded and they offer what it takes to produce an effective educational manager(school principal).

The "new South Africa" and her Ministry of Education would benefit from these studies by considering these programmes and using them as part of the new initiatives for management development for improving school principals in South Africa. More importantly, these studies fit in well with the current Reconstruction and Development Programme(RDP) adopted after the Government of National Unity took over.

4.7.6 Conclusion

In the preceding sections (cf. 4.7-4.7.5) an overview of the induction of school principals in South Africa has been given. Induction practices of the former Department of Education Training (DET) for blacks and the former Department of Education and Culture (DEC) for whites were reviewed.

Additionally, recent guidelines for inducting beginning principals by Janson (1989) and Legotlo (1994) were underscored as important induction developments in South Africa.

Further, it is underscored that Janson's (1989) and Legotlo's[1] (1994) studies represent new research efforts focusing not only on beginning principals in South Africa, but in Africa and other developing countries as well.

4.8 An overview of the induction activities for beginning school principals in Kenya

4.8.1 Introduction

The management policies of education and training of teachers and educational managers in Kenya are stated in various Acts of Parliament such as the Teachers Service Commission Act (1967), the Education Act (1968), the Kenya National Examination Council (1981), the University Act (1981) and other Acts that have established public universities, supplementary legislation, development plans and various administrative circulars on education.

The Ministry of Education provides administrative and professional services in education at the national level, provincial and district levels. The Minister of Education is the political head, the Permanent Secretary the overall administrative head and the Accounting Officer while the Director of Education under them is responsible for professional matters in education (Kamunge, 1988).

In the field, there are Provincial, District and Municipal Education Officers in charge of the administration and supervision of education in their respective districts. District

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1 After the completion of his research (Legotlo, 1994) on *An Induction Programme for Newly-Appointed school principals in Bophuthwatswana*, Bophuthwatswana was incorporated into the rest of South Africa and is now part of the new North West Province.

Education Boards have also been established for the purpose of management of education in their respective districts. Educational institutions are managed by governing councils, board of governors, school committees and administered by their respective institutional heads.

It is observed, however, that in almost all of the forementioned Educational Acts, the role of the school principal as the key to school improvement is neither discussed nor acknowledged. Rather, the role of the school teacher as the key to providing leadership in the school and community is underscored.

Therefore, the main concern in these Educational Acts is not the academic training or the professional development of the school managers (principals) but of the teachers.

The emphasis on the role of the teacher by these educational Acts confirms the problem noted in chapter one that in Kenya principals are appointed from among successful experienced teachers and deputy principals.

However, the emphasis on the role of the teacher as the key to school improvement appears to go against what a growing body of research on effective schools say about who is the key person. Thus, according to Anderson (1989) virtually all reviews of research on effective schools point to the principal's leadership as a critical ingredient for instructional improvement in the classroom and vital to the overall success of school.

4.8.2 Induction activities for beginning principals

In Kenya it is not uncommon practice for classroom teachers and deputy principals to be promoted to principalships. Rather, it is the norm and tradition (Mbiti, 1984; Kamunge, 1988; Bogonko, 1992).

The 1988 Report on Education and Manpower Training for the Next Decade and Beyond notes that heads of institutions (school principals) in Kenya are appointed from among serving teachers, most of whom have had no prior training in either institutional or educational management (Report of the Presidential Working Party on Education and Manpower Training for the Next Decade and Beyond, 1988:111).

Further, the report notes that such lack of training adversely affects effective management of educational institutions and the maintenance of quality and high standard of education and training.

As such, the Working Party recommended that those who are appointed as heads of institutions should have appropiate academic and professional qualifications, experience, ability, competence, integrity and initiative. In addition, the Working Party recommended that the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) programmes be expanded to provide in-service training to all heads of education and training institutions and other personnel involved in various aspects of institutional management.

- **Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI)**

The Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI) was established by the government in 1981, through funding under the International Development Agency (IDA). Since its inception, KESI has provided in-service and induction course on staff who are already in administrative and managerial positions at various levels within the education sector including primary and secondary school principals.

* *Objectives of KESI*

The in-service training activities of KESI aim at sensitizing personnel in administrative and management positions on principals and practice of the day-to-day educational administration and management.

Participants involved in the KESI in-service programmes are expected to:

- Acquire and practice, at their places of work, management techniques such as delegation, public and human relations, decision-making and problem-solving, communication, office organization, planning, implementation and evaluation of educational policy, programme, projects and activities, basic accounting and financial procedures.
- Acquire functional knowledge, skills and attitudes relevant for proper management, planning and administration of educational services.
- Acquire techniques and skills of adoption and adaptation necessary for management of change in order to plan for, initiate and determine the direction of change, reforms, innovations and developments in the education system, policies, projects and activities in Kenya.

  Display awareness and ability to solve present and future problems, and constrains relating to effective and efficient utilization of manpower, material, monetary and

time resources in the provision of quality education for enhancing national development.

- *Curriculum outline for heads of schools (Primary and Secondary)*

Since its establishment in 1981, KESI has conducted training in management and administration for headteachers of both primary and secondary school in the areas outlined below:

* *Principles of management-theory and practice*

- Management role of headteachers on behalf of School Board of Governors/School Committee.
- Administration role of headteacher, for the Ministry of Education.

* *Educational management and administration*

- Legal provision of education.
- Role of Board of Governors.
- Role of Provincial Administration in educational activities.
- Role of Teacher Service Commission.
- Role of KNUT/KUDHEIHA.

* *Practical applications of educational administration and management*

- Curriculum organization, management and supervision, school inspectors, curriculum development, curriculum evaluation.
- Public relations and human relations.
- Planning and development.
- Communication and delegation.
- Guidance and counselling, career and discipline, family life education programme, public health.
- Motivation/Staff recruitment, appraisal and promotions, student recruitment and admissions.
- Leadership in the school and community.

* *Institutional financial management and control*

- Accounting instructions for assisted and maintained schools.
- Budgeting and estimates.
- Book-keeping.
- Auditing of school accounts and school financial statements.
- School development funds and the role of the PTA.

The content of this curriculum is contracted in a total of forty hours in a two-week period.

Although KESI's programme looks excellent, it cannot be considered an induction programme for beginning principals per se since it does not focus on the beginning principals problems in the in the early years of their principalship. Instead it focuses more on the pre-service training of both beginning and experienced principals.

The District Education Officers (DEOs) and school inspectors do the selection of which principal should attend KESI programme. If a beginning principal is lucky enough he may be selected to attend within five year following their appointment. Unfortunately, few if any get selected since there are many principals on the waiting list.

4.8.3 Conclusion

From this brief overview, it seems obvious that there are structured official induction programmes for beginning school principals in Kenya. Thus, no attention is given to either pre-appointment or following appointment induction activities for beginning principals. Conversely, it seems to give a heavy preponderance of attention to in-service activities provided mainly in course form.

Therefore, in the absence of pre-appointment and following appointment induction activities, the only induction activities beginning principals in Kenya can hope for are teaching experience, vice principalship experience and other educational leadership positions in addition to the in-service courses.

4.9 Summary

Developing a capable cadre of professionals to serve as school principals is extremely important. The process starts with pre-service training and continues through the processes of recruitment, selection, appointment, induction and in-service.

The educational systems, training institutions, professional associations, school districts and principals themselves must assume responsibility for designing and carrying out a carefully planned developmental sequence.

The payoff from this united effort would be outstanding school managers who clearly know their mission and who have the knowledge, skills and necessary support for efficient and effective educational management.

Although induction programmes have been designed to assist beginning principals in the United States, Great Britain and Australia, it would be naive to believe that these programmes will provide aspiring and beginning principals in developing countries all they need to know about being effective educational managers in their particular countries.

It must be noted, however, that the problem of inadequate knowledge is not limited to developing countries. As such, these difficulties cannot be used as excuses to leave beginning principals unassisted.

Educational systems in African and other developing countries, therefore, assume primary responsibility for providing beginning principals with a variety of supportive activities and induction programmes to help them succeed and grow as effective and efficient educational managers.

The development of an effective and outstanding educational manager must not be abandoned, however, at the end of the induction process. Career and professional development is a long-term process.

In this chapter an overview of induction programmes and activities for beginning principals from some developed countries like the U.S.A., the U.K. and Australia has been provided. Additionally, induction programmes and activities for beginning principals in some developing countries of Africa were examined as well.

An attempt was made to underscore the most recent studies on beginning principals in South Africa. They represent new research efforts from developing countries concerning the needs and concerns of beginning principals, problems they are facing and skills they need to be effective and efficient educational managers in their own setting.

CHAPTER V

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH: RESEARCH DESIGN

5.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research methods used in the study. It includes an overview and justification of methods, an explanation of the development of the survey and a description of the pilot study. The theoretical framework necessary is provided in chapters 2, 3 and 4 while the purpose of the study as stated in chapter 1 serves as the driving force for the entire empirical investigation.

The empirical study is necessary to determine the problems of beginning principals as well as the critical skills needed for effective and efficient educational management in developing countries like Kenya. Therefore, data collection and data analysis procedures are discussed.

5.2 The questionnaire

5.2.1 The questionnaire as a research instrument

According to Fink and Kosecoff (1985:13), a survey questionnaire is an appropriate research method when an investigator wants to collect information directly from people about their feelings, opinions, motivations, plans, beliefs and personal, educational and financial backgrouds.

The questionnaire is one of the instruments employed in the collection of data from individuals (Borg & Gall, 1989:418). Citing Dixon, Legotlo (1994:162) asserts that the method of data collection is to some extent guided by the purpose of the study.

Therefore, as noted in chapter 1, the overall purpose of this chapter is to investigate the problems beginning principals experience and the skills they need to do their job efficiently and effectively.

The mail questionnaire as the only means of communication between the respondents and the researcher is used as a tool for collecting data. The questionnaire was used as a method of investigation because it was most economical in terms of time and money that could be used (Sax, 1979:244).

In addition, the questionnaire was used because it satisfied two of the three assumptions made when questionnaires are used, viz. (Wolf, 1988:479):

* The respondents can read and understand the questions - in this study they are all school principals.
* The respondents possess the information to answer the questions.
* The respondents are willing to answer questions honestly.

The last assumption could not be verified beforehand.

5.2.1.1 Advantages of a mail questionnaire

The questionnaire was used because of the following advantages associated with the mail questionnaire (Sax, 1979:245; Dixon, 1989:19; Ary, et al.; 1976:169-170; Borg & Gall, 1989).

* It can be posted to persons at very little expense.
* Homogeneous stimuli: Since questionnaires are identical, the stimuli provided are identical.
* A broad spectrum of views can be obtained because more people can be reached.
* Anonymity of respondents: Respondents' names are not given. In this study neither the persons nor the schools are identified.
* Permission can be given by education relevant authorities easily since all questions are written.
* Speed: Information from thousands of respondents could be obtained within a month.
* Ease of processing: the questionnaire could be carefully structure and precoded, and very little use is made of open-ended questions.
* It is more efficient and practical for the purpose of this research and allows for the use of a large sample.

5.2.1.2 Disadvantages of mail questionnaire

The questionnaire, however, has the following disadvantages (Borg & Gall, 1989:446; Sax, 1979:244):

* Questionnaires typically yield a low response rate.

- Motivation of the respondents is difficult to check and may lead to misleading results.
- A high non-response rate is quite common.
- Impersonality may cause frustrations to some respondents.
- Questionnaires are commonly used today and some respondents could have negative attitudes towards them.
- The availability of addresses of the sample population poses some problems.
- The order in which respondents answer questions cannot be controlled.
- The structured questionnaire restricts the respondents' answer so that some important information may be ommitted. Respondents may also choose alternatives that do not really represent their true attitudes.

In spite of the above noted disadvantages the mail questionnaire is still commonly used in collection of data. And as Dixon (1989:22) argues, if great care is taken in the construction and administration of the questionnaire, valid responses could be obtained.

5.3 Questionnaire design

The questionnaire is commonly used to convert into data the information directly given by a person (subject) (Tuckman, 1988:213; Wiersma, 1985:146).

By providing access to what is "inside a person's head", the questionnaire makes it possible to measure what a person knows (knowledge or information), what a person likes or dislikes (values and preferences) and what a person thinks (attitudes and beliefs) (Tuckman, 1988:213). Questionnaires can also be used to discover what experiences have taken place (biography) and what is occurring at the present moment.

In preparing questionnaires the following criteria must constanly apply (Tuckman, 1988:213):

- To what extent might a question influence respondents to show themselves in a good light.
- To what extent might a question influence respondents' attempts to anticipate what the reseacher wants to hear or find out.
- To what extent might a question ask for information about respondents that they may not know about themselves.

According to Tuckman (1988) the validity of questionnaires is limited by all three of the above considerations. However, certain information cannot be obtained other than asking. Even when an alternative is available, the "asking" route may be (and often is) the most efficient.

The formulation of questions is a crucial matter, but however hard one may try to formulate good questions in terms of the purpose of a study, almost any list of questions is open to criticism (Travers, 1978:330).

Travers (1978:330-332) and Borg and Gall (1989:430-4310) suggest the following guidelines for questionnaire design:

* Questions should be clearly stated in the simplest terms.
* Questions should not evoke uniform, stereotyped responses.
* Negative items should be avoided.
* Loaded questions should be avoided.
* Questions should not be hypothetical.
* Biased questions are to be avoided.
* Presuming questions should be avoided.
* Questions should produce responses that respresent a firm position on the individual being questioned.

5.3.1 Construction of the questionnaire items

The aim of this research was to investigate the problems facing beginning principals in Kenya and the critical skills they need (1.1). Therefore, the aim of the questionnaire was to collect information about the principals' backgrounds and their problems as beginning principals as well as critical skills for effective and efficient management of schools.

The questionnaire was designed based on a literature study of chapters 2, 3 and 4. In these chapters problamatic issues facing beginning principals and critical skills they need were identified, analysed and discussed in details. Thesse problems are succinctly summarized as:

* Problems with pre-service training (cf. 3.2).
* Problems experienced at the personal level (cf. 3.3).
* Problems of socialization into the profession and school (cf. 3.4).
* Problems with personnel and staff (cf. 3.5).

* Internal relationship problems (cf. 3.6).
* Problems with management of change (cf. 3.7).
* Other problems (cf. 3.9).
* Typical problems facing beginning principals in developing countries (cf. 3.12).

In addition, permission was granted to use Daresh's (1992) questionnaire on critical skills (by his co-researcher Van der Westhuizen). A total of twenty-four questions regarding critical skills were identified by Daresh and were used in this questionnaire.

Similarly, the questionnaire was designed in a similar pattern to the beginning principals' studies carried out by Weindling and Earley (1987) in the U.K. and Legotlo (1994) in Bophuthatswana (now the North West Province) in South Africa).

These sources provided the basis and general framework for the items included in this study. Thus structured questions with scaled responses are used to elicit experiences of both the beginning and experienced school principals regarding their views on the problems facing beginning principals such as:

* pre-service training;
* personal problems;
* management problems;
* instructional problems;
* internal relationship problems;
* student problems;
* external relationship problems; and
* general problems.

In addition principals were asked to give their views on critical skills for beginning principals.

5.3.2 The structure of the questionnaire

The questionnaire is sub-divided into three main sections (see Appendix A).

* Section A: Biographical and demographic data (questions 1-18).
* Section B: Problems (questions 19-42).
* Section C: Critical skills (questions 43-67).

In all, 102 problem items were developed from the literature study and for each item the respondents were asked to indicate, on a scale of 1-4, the extent of the problem (1= not a problem, 2= minor problem, 3= problem, 4= serious problem). A space was left for the respondents to list other problems facing beginning principals.

As was noted above (5.3.1) permission was granted to use Daresh and Playko's (1992c) questionnaire on critical skills. Daresh and Playko (1992c) developed a 24-item questionnaire on critical skills for beginning principals (see Appendix A).

For each item, the respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they believed a skill was critical for the effective performance of the job of the school principals on a five-point scale (1=irrelevant skill, 2=somewhat unimportant, 3=fairly important, 4=somewhat critical, and 5=extremely critical). A space was also provided for respondents to list other essential skills for beginning principals.

All in all, the respondents were asked to respond to 126 items from the three main sections of the questionnaire.

5.3.3 Pilot study

It is usually highly desirable to run a pilot test on a questionnaire and to revise the questionnaire based on the results of the test (Tuckman, 1988:233). Further, a pilot test, which uses a group of respondents who are part of the intended test population but who will not be part of the sample, attempts to determine whether the questionnaire items possess the desired qualities of measurement and descriminability. And as Slavin (1984:133) points out, a pilot test gives the researcher an idea of what the method will actually look like in operation and what effects (intended or not) it is likely to have.

Therefore, a pilot study which involved a sample of (n=10) secondary school principals from various parts of Kenya was undertaken. These principals were specifically asked to answer honestly and to note and determine whether some questions were ambiguous, confusing, not clear, flawed and to make some comments and suggestions (Wolf, 1988:480; Borg & Gall, 1989:435).

An overwhelming majority of the pre-test sample indicated that the questionnaire presented no problem for them. A few suggestions, for example, a school could be both day and boarding were noted and were incorporated in the final questionnaire.

From the pilot study it seemed not necessary to make any adjustments to the section of the questionnaire dealing with critical skills either content-wise or semantically.

5.3.4 Final questionnaire

After the pilot study had been done and observations noted, the required adjustments were made. The questionnaire was administered to 100 beginning principals and 100 experienced principals.

5.3.5 Covering letter

A covering letter is important for it gives the respondents directions on how to complete the questionnaire, directions on how to return the questionnaire and gives assurances about confidentiality (Slavin, 1984:135). It also serves as an introduction tool to the respondent in order to get them to respondent to the questionnaire.

Therefore, a covering letter (see Appendix C) explaining the purpose of the study together with the directions on how to return the questionnaire was attached to the questionnaire.

5.4 Administrative procedures

Permission to conduct research in Kenya is granted through the Office of the President. Therefore, on 18 July, 1994 a letter was written to the Office of the President seeking permission to conduct research on school principals in Kenya (see Appendix B). After filling out the relevant application forms and paying the fees required in order to be allowed to conduct research in Kenya, the Office of the President granted permission to conduct the research on 22 July, 1994 (see Appendix D).

The second step was to identify the group of beginning principals who had been appointed for the first time between June 1991-June 1994. Therefore, the Teachers' Service Commission (TSC) which is charged by the government to appoint school principals was conducted for records on school principals. The records containing the beginning principals schools and addresses were made available readily. From the records, 100 schools with principals appointed between June 1991 and June 1994 were randomly identified.

After beginning principals' records had been obtained, the Teachers' Service Commission was asked again to provide records of school principals appointed before June 1991. Records were once again made available and 100 schools addresses were randomly recorded .

It should be remembered that in both records (beginning and experienced) no names of individual principals were given except for the name and address of the school were there was either a beginning or an experienced principal. Thus, on the basis of this, there was no way to trace beginning principals who may have been transferred from the given school.

On 26 July 1994, 100 questionnaires were mailed to beginning school principals (with 0-3 years) in their respective schools. On 27 July 1994, the second lot of 100 questionnaires was posted to 100 experienced school principals (3 and over years) in their respective schools.

A self-addressed stamped envelope was enclosed in each questionnaire for the principals to use in returning their questionnaires.

5.5 Follow-ups

As was noted earlier (5.2.1.2) one of the major drawbacks of the mail questionnaire is lack of response. Many receivers of the questionnaire intended to provide the information, but they mislaid the material before finding time to fill it in (Travers, 1978:329).

After two weeks to a month has elapsed, it is a good idea to correspond with those who have not yet returned their questionnaires (non-respondents), soliciting their cooperation (Tuckman, 1988:247).

About 25% of the total questionnaires were returned within two weeks after which follows-up were started in the third week. Again, since questionnaires were sent when schools in Kenya were about to go for their second term recess which normally takes the whole of the month of August, a reminder letter requesting principals to take time out of their recess and fill in the questionnaire was an imperative and not merely an option for consideration.

Therefore, principals who had not returned their questionnaires were identified and a reminder letter was sent to each, urging them to return the questionnaires (see Appendix

E). The principals who had not returned their questionnaire were identified by a school name on the questionnaire and by the records kept by the author of the questionnaires sent out and questionnaires returned. Additionally, telephone follow-up calls were made to principals, especially those within Nairobi schools, first asking them whether they had received the questionnaire and secondly, requesting then to return it soon. An effort was also made to collect the questionnaires by hand from some principals who were within the researcher's reach.

Within a period of about two months, more than 70% of the questionnaires had been received. During the follow-up process, the researcher observed that some principals, especially those within Nairobi urban area, were unwilling to fill in the questionnaire in spite of letters, phone calls and visits to their schools.

5.6 Population

The purpose of this study was to investigate problems, challenges and difficulties facing beginning secondary school principals in Kenya. There are eight (8) provinces in Kenya, therefore, the selected population of this study comprised two stratified random samples drawn from each province, viz., beginning and experienced secondary school principals.

Thus, the first step was to identify the target group of beginning principals. *Beginning principals* in this study refers to those secondary school principals appointed for the first time as principals between June 1991 and June 1994, thus they have 0-3 years of principalship experience.

It was pointed out earlier (cf. 2.2.3.1; 5.4) that the Teachers' Service Commission (TSC) appoints school principals and keeps their records. From the record available in the TSC offices, it emerged that 413 secondary schools principals had been appointed between June 1991 and June 1994 throughout the country. These beginning principals were appointed from all the eight (8) provinces of Kenya. The small record on beginning principals would seem to suggest that principalship turnover in Kenya is not very high and that appointment of new principals is infrequent.

Furthermore, a close scrutiny of the records of the beginning principals and their school showed that the records were being improperly kept. For instance, some schools didn't have their complete addresses recorded. Additionally, there were no records of beginning principals appointed between June 1991-June 1994 who had been transferred to other schools within the same period.

Therefore, from the record of beginning principals (N=413), a stratified random sample of beginning principals (n=100) with proper records was selected from all 8 provinces.

The second step was to select a control group of experienced principals with 3 and more years of principalship who would also give their views on problems, difficulties and challenges facing beginning principals and critical skills needed. From the records of experienced principals (N=1,124), another stratified random sample of experienced principals (n=100) was selected from all 8 provinces of Kenya.

All in all, a total of 200 principals make up the sample of this study.

5.7 Response rate

100 questionnaires were sent to beginning principals and 100 to experienced principals. Table 5.2 below shows the return rate from each sample population.

Figure 5.1 Response rate per each sample

Principals	Sent out		Returned	
	f	%	*f*	%
Beginning principals	100	100	65	65
Experienced principals	100	100	77	77

From Table 5:1, it emerges that of the 100 questionnaires sent to beginning principals, 65 (65%) were returned. Conversely, of the 100 questionnaire posted to experienced principals, 77 (77%) were returned.

Furthermore, Table 5.1 reveals that there was a higher rate of response from experienced principals. Possibly the low response rate from beginning principals could be attributed to the records taken which included only the school and address where such principals are and not the name of a particular individual. This implies that if a beginning principal had been

transferred to another school, he could not be traced. In addition, since the schools names and addresses were put on the questionnaires, some beginning principals could have thought that their names were known too and as such may have decided not to answer the questionnaire at all.

Landman (1980:112) says that valid and reliable deductions can be made only if at least (70%) or more of the questionnaires are returned. In this study, 71% of the total questionnaires were returned (cf. Table 5.1).

Therefore, valid deductions can be made on the strenght of the responses and be generalized for the whole of secondary school principals in Kenya.

5.8 Statistical techniques

5.8.1 Descriptive data

Statistical tests are a major aid for data interpretation. By statistical testing, a researcher can compare groups of data to determine the probability that differences between are based on chance, thereby providing evidence for judging the validity of a hypothesis or inference (Tucman, 1988:263).

The results of the research were processed using the SAS Programme (SAS Institute, 1985:403). Statistical descriptive data measures including frequencies, central tendencies (mean) and variability (standard deviation) for each sample of principal population were computed.

The frequencies were done in order to obtain an idea of the extent to which problems were experienced and to gauge how critical the skills needed are.

5.8.2 Quantitative data

In order to determine the practically and statistically significant difference between the sample means, the t-test for independent sample, P-value and d-value (effect size) were computed respectively.

The **t-test** is usually used to find the significance of the difference between the means of two samples (Ary et al., 1976). The **P-value** is used to indicate if there are statistically

significant differences between the two means of the samples (Borg & Gall, 1989). The **d-value (effect size)** indicates the practical significant difference between the two groups (Cohen, 1988). **Rank order** on the mean scores is also used to indicate the most often experienced and the least often experienced problems including critical skills needed by beginning principals.

These statistical measures are further discussed in detail and applied in chapter 6.

5.9 Summary

In sum, the mail questionnaire was used as the main instrument to gather data. Proper administrative procedures were followed for the effective administration of the questionnaire. Two stratified random samples from all 8 provinces of Kenya were employed for this study and proper statistical technique measures were used, with the help of the Potchefstroom University's Statistical Consultation Services to empirically verify the problems, challenges and difficulties facing beginning principals and essential skills needed by them.

CHAPTER VI

EMPIRICAL RESEARCH: STATISTICAL ANALYSIS AND DATA INTERPRETATION

6.1 Introduction

The purpose of this research was to investigate the problems beginning school principals experience and the skills they need in order to function efficiently and effectively in their principalship positions.

The transcendental-empirical approach used in this research is praxis. Thus there is the need for both the presentation of both the normative (theory-literature study) and the descriptive (practice-empirical research) aspects of reality. This implies that what ought to be and what actually is, should be presented in order to arrive at a complete and balanced view of reality regarding the problems facing beginning principals and critical skills for them.

6.2 Biographical and demographical responses

The descriptive data reported in this section are in the form of simple frequencies and percentages (cf. questions 1-13). The questionnaire was designed to gather the biographical and demographical characteristics background of the respondents (see Appendix A). The presentation of the biographical and demographical data as shown in Table 6.1 follows the format of the questionnaire.

6.2.1 Age of the respondents

Data in this category provide the chronological age of the respondents. 65 (100,0%) of beginning principals responded to this question. Out of the total of beginning principal respondents, 16 (24,6%) are below 30, 16 (24,6%) between 31-35, 12 (18,5%) between 36-39 and 21 (32,3%) between 40-45 years of age. No beginning principal in the study population is 46 and over years of age.

From experienced principals (77), 1 (1,3%) gave no response to this question. Therefore, of the total of experienced principal respondents, 5 (6,5%) are between 31-35, 14 (18,2%) between 36-39, 23 (29,9%) between 40-45, 23 (29,9%) between 46-50 and 11 (14,2%) 51 and over years. No experienced principal is below 30 years of age.

TABLE 6.1 BIOGRAPHICAL AND DEMOGRAPHICAL RESPONSES

	0-3 years		3 years and over		Total	
YOUR AGE CATEGORY IN YEARS (QA -1)	f	%	f	%	f	%
No response	0	0	1	1.3	1	0.7
1 1 Below 30	16	24.6	0	0	16	11.3
1 2 31 to 35	16	24.6	5	6.5	21	14.8
1 3 36 to 39	12	18.5	14	18.2	26	18.3
1 4 40 to 45	21	32.3	23	29.9	44	31.0
1 5 46 to 50	0	0	23	29.9	23	16.2
1 6 51 and over	0	0	11	14.2	11	7.7
Total	65	100	77	100	142	100
SEX (QA - 2)						
No response	0	0	2	2.6	2	1.4
2 1 Male	42	64.6	56	72.7	98	69.0
2 2 Female	23	35.4	19	24.7	42	29.6
Total	65	100	77	100	142	100
MARITAL STATUS (QA - 3)						
No response	0	0	1	1.3	1	0.7
3 1 Married	57	87.7	67	87.0	124	87.3
3 2 Unmarried	8	12.3	9	11.7	17	12.0
Total	65	100	77	100	142	100

TABLE 6.1 (Continued)

	0-3 years		3 years and over		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
FOR HOW LONG HAVE YOU BEEN A SCHOOL PRINCIPAL (H/M)? (QA - 4)						
No response	0	0	0	0	0	0
4.1 0 to 3 years	65	100	0	0	65	45.8
4.2 3 and over	0	0	77	100	67	54.2
Total	65	100	77	100	142	100
WHAT POSITION DID YOU HOLD IMMEDIATELY BEFORE BECOMING A PRINCIPAL (H/M) ? (QA - 5)						
No response	0	0	0	0	0	0
5.1 Assistant teacher	7	10.8	9	11.7	16	11.3
5.2 Deputy principal	45	69.2	48	62.3	93	65.5
5.3 Acting principal	2	3.1	11	14.3	13	9.2
5.4 Head of department	8	12.3	6	7.8	14	9.9
5.5 Other	3	4.6	3	3.9	6	4.1
Total	65	100	77	100	142	100

TABLE 6.1 (Continued)

	0-3 years		3 years and over		Total	
HIGHEST ACADEMIC QUALIFICATION (QA - 6)	f	%	f	%	f	%
No response	0	0	0	0	0	0
6.1 K.J.S.E	0	0	0	0	0	0
6.2 E.A.C.E/K.C.S.E (O-level)	1	1.5	3	3.9	4	2.8
6.3 Advanced Certificate A-level	8	12.3	10	13.0	18	12.7
6.4 B.A. Degree	0	0	7	9.1	7	4.9
6.5 B.Ed Degree	46	70.8	44	57.1	90	63.4
6.6 Masters degree	3	4.6	5	6.5	8	5.6
6.7 Doctorate	0	0	0	0	0	0
6.8 Other	7	10.8	8	10.4	15	10.6
Total	65	100	77	100	142	100
HIGHEST PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATION (QA - 7)						
No response	12	18.5	10	13.0	22	15.5
7.1 P4	0	0	0	0	0	0
7.2 P3	0	0	0	0	0	0
7.3 P2	0	0	0	0	0	0
7.4 P1	0	0	0	0	0	0
7.5 Diploma	3	4.6	7	9.1	10	7.0
7.6 S1	7	10.7	11	14.3	18	12.7
7.7 Other	43	66.2	49	63.6	92	64.8
Total	65	100	77	100	142	100

TABLE 6.1 (Continued)

	0-3 years		3 years and over		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
HAVE YOU ATTENDED ANY FORM OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT TRAINING? (QA-8)						
No response	3	4.6	1	1.3	4	2.8
8.1 Diploma	5	7.7	4	5.2	9	6.3
8.2 Degree	11	16.9	8	10.4	19	13.4
8.3 Seminars	34	52.3	41	53.2	75	52.8
8.4 In-service	7	10.8	15	19.5	22	15.5
8.5 Other	5	7.7	8	10.4	13	9.2
Total	65	100	77	100	142	100
WHICH OF THE FOLLOWING BEST DESCRIBES THE LOCATION OF YOUR SCHOOL? (QA - 9)						
No response	0	0	0	0	0	0
9.1 Urban	4	6.2	20	26.0	24	16.9
9.2 Suburban	9	13.8	16	20.8	25	17.6
9.3 Rural	52	80.0	41	53.2	93	65.5
Total	65	100	77	100	142	100

TABLE 6 1 (Continued)

	0-3 years		3 years and over		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
TYPE OF YOUR SCHOOL (QA-10)						
No response	1	1.5	0	0	1	0.7
10 1 Government	25	38.5	58	75.3	83	58.5
10.2 Harambee	37	56.9	17	22.1	54	38.0
10.3 Private	0	0	2	2.6	2	1.4
10 4 Parochial	2	3.1	0	0	2	1.4
Total	65	100	77	100	142	100
SCHOOL CATEGORY (QA - 11)						
No response	0	0	0	0	0	0
11 1 Boarding school	25	38.5	40	51.9	65	45.8
11 2 Day school	21	32.3	21	27.3	42	29.6
11 3 Both	19	29.2	16	20.8	35	24.6
Total	65	100	77	100	142	100
SCHOOL COMPOSITION (QA - 12)						
No response	0	0	0	0	0	0
12 1 Boys only	8	12.3	26	33.8	34	23.9
12 2 Girls only	15	23.1	18	23.4	33	23.3
12 3 Mixed	42	64.6	33	42.8	75	52.8
Total	65	100	77	100	142	100

TABLE 6.1 (Continued)

	0-3 years		3 years and over		Total	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
NUMBER OF STUDENTS IN YOUR SCHOOL (QA-13)						
No response	0	0	0	0	0	0
13 1 Below 100	17	26,2	3	3,9	20	14.1
13 2 101 to 300	29	44,6	14	18,2	43	30.3
13 3 301 to 600	14	21,5	37	48,0	51	35.9
13 4 601 to 900	5	7,7	18	23,4	23	16.2
13 5 901 and over	0	0	5	6,5	5	3.5
Total	65	100	77	100	142	100

From Table 6.1 it appears that the majority of the beginning principal respondents 49 (75,4%) are in the 31-45 age group and that a majority of experienced principal respondents 60 (78,0%) in the 36-50 age group.

In total, the majority of the respondents 114 (80,3%) from both groups (beginning and experienced principals) are in the 31-50 age group. Therefore, the majority of the respondents are of middle age.

While the mandatory retirement age in Kenya has been 55 years, recent developments have urged government employees to retire voluntarily at age 40 (Griffin, 1994). Thus, this appears to suggest that most of the respondents with 3 and more years could retire early if they wished to.

6.2.2 Sex of the respondents

Of beginning principal respondents 42 (64,6%) are males while 23 (35,4%) are females. Accordingly, 56 (72,7%) of experienced principal respondents are males and only 19 (24,7%) are females.

In total, the vast majority of the respondents (98, 99,0%) of both beginning and experienced principals are males. Female respondents from both groups represent 29,6% (42) only.

These data serve to underscore further the under-representation of females in educational administration positions as has been highlighted by researchers such as Clement (1980) Gonzalez (1987), Weindling and Earley (1987), Legotlo (1994).

This information also brings to the forefront the concern of women not having women for role models or mentors (3.4.3). Additionally, for the induction process and implementation of an induction programme this highlights the problem of female mentors, should the beginning school principal decide against cross-gender pairing.

6.2.3 Marital status

Table 6.1 shows that 57 (87,7%) of beginning principals are married and that 67 (87,0%) of experienced principal respondents are married as well. Additionally, 124 (87,3%) of the two groups of respondents indicate that they are married.

The high percentage of married beginning principals implies that attention should be given to problems experienced at the personal level, including housing for the family, schools for children, a church, and health care (cf. 3.3.1).

6.2.4 Years as a school principal

A total of 65 (45,8%) of the respondents are beginning principals with 0-3 years' experience, and 77 (54,2%) are experienced principals with 3 and more years of experience as school principals.

6.2.5 Prior position

This question focuses on the position held before taking up the principalship post for both beginning and experienced principals. Accordingly, beginning principal respondents indicate that 7 (10,8%) were assistant teachers, 45 (69,2%) were deputy principals and 8 (12,3%) were heads of departments. Additionally, 5 (7,7%) held other positions including acting as principals.

Experienced principal respondents indicate that 9 (11,7%) were assistant teachers, 48 (62,3%) were deputy principals and 11 (14,3%) were acting principals prior to ascending to the principalship. Furthermore, 9 (11,7%) held other positions including head of the department.

Therefore, the vast majority of the respondents 93 (65,5%) of both beginning and experienced principals had had managerial experience as deputy principals. The rest 39 (34,5%) had had other prior experiences including being assistant teachers, acting principal and head of the department.

It can be deduced from the above data that the main path to principalship is through deputy principalship. Therefore, an induction programme should take into account the important role the principals should play in preparing deputies for the principalship.

6.2.6 Highest academic qualifications

The majority of beginning principal respondents 46 (70,8%) indicate that they have as highest academic qualification the B.Ed. The rest 19 (29,2%) have other academic qualifications including O-level certificates, A-level certificates, and master's degrees. Similarly, more than half of the experienced principal respondents 44 (57,1%) have B.Ed

as their highest academic qualifications. The rest 33 (42,9%) have other qualifications, including anO-level certificate, an A-level certificate, a B.A degree and a master's degree.

A total of 90 (63,4%) respondents (both beginning and experienced principals) possess as highest academic qualification a B.Ed degree and another 8 (5,6%) have master's degrees. No principal from either group has a doctorate.

From the above data it can be deduced that the majority of the respondents (both beginning and experienced) are academically qualified. The rest of the items received a no response or an insignificant response because they would apply more to primary school principals.

6.2.7 Highest professional qualifications

More than two-thirds of beginning principal respondents 43 (66,2%) indicate that they have other highest professional qualifications. Likewise 49 (63,6%) of experienced principals also indicate that they have other highest professional qualifications apart from what was shown in this item. In total, 92 (64,8%) respondents show that they have these other professional qualifications. According to the responses written in the questionnaires, respondents indicate that these other professional qualifications are B.Ed degrees.

Thus, it would appear that in Kenya a B.Ed degree is regarded as being both an academic and a professional qualification. That being the case, it can be inferred that the respondents are both academically and professionally qualified. The rest of the items received no responses because in Kenya such qualifications are for primary school principals.

6.2.8 Educational management training

As Table 6.1 shows, beginning principal respondents who have attended educational management training including a diploma come to 5 (7,7%), a degree 11 (16,9%), seminars 34 (52,3%) and in-service courses 7 (10,8%). Likewise, experienced principal respondents who have attended educational management training at diploma level come to 4 (5,2%), degree 8 (10,4%), seminars 41 (53,2%) and in-service courses 15 (19,5%).

All in all, the vast majority of the respondents (138 - 97,2%) among both beginning and experienced principals have attended educational management training in different forms, viz. diploma, degree, seminar or in-service courses. In addition, it seems that seminars and in-services are the commonly used forms of educational management training in Kenya.

Thus, it would seem that beginning principal respondents have been exposed to some form of induction into management in the early years of their principalship. Although the content of these forms of educational management training is not indicated, designers of future induction programme should aim at strengthening present, existing educational management training practices.

Training in educational management is important for continued professional development. Besides, it was noted earlier (cf. 6.2.5) that 16 (11,3%) of the respondents had been assistant teachers prior to their appointed to the principalship. Therefore training in educational management in whatever form would enhance their managerial practices.

From the foregoing biographical discussion (cf. 6.2.1-6.2.8) the data reveal some interesting and intriguing findings about both beginning and experienced school principals in Kenya. From the data it is clear that typical school principals in Kenya are middle-aged married males who have served as deputy principals prior to their appointment to the principalship, have academic and professional qualifications of a B.Ed degree and have attended educational management training either in diploma, degree, seminar or in-service.

6.2.9 Location of the school

Respondents were asked to indicate the location of their school. In this regard, beginning principal respondents indicate that they manage schools located in urban areas number 4 (6,2%), suburban 9 (13,8%) and rural 52 (80,0%). Experienced principal respondents who show that they manage schools located in urban areas number 20 (26,0%), suburban 16 (20,8%) and in rural areas 41 (53,2%).

Although it seems that experienced principals manage more urban schools (26,0%) than beginning principals do (6,2%), the data indicate that 93 (65,5%) of the total respondents (beginning and experienced) are managers of schools in the rural area.

The 1990 Population Census Report of Kenya indicates that most of the people in Kenya reside in the rural areas. Therefore, most of the schools within the country are located in the rural areas. This implies that an induction programme for beginning principals must address unique and typical problems associated with rural areas (cf. 3.12.1-3.12.4).

6.2.10 Type of school

There are different types of schools typically found in Kenya. As demonstrated in Table 6.1, beginning principal respondents' main types of school include Government 25 (38,5%) and Harambee 37 (56,9%). For experienced principal respondents, their school types mainly include Government 58 (75,3%) and Harambee 17(22,1%). All in all, out of the total range of respondents (beginning and experienced) 83 (58,5%) manage government-type schools, while 54 (38,0%) manage Harambee type-schools.

Government schools are government-sponsored institutions, while Harambee schools are built through the efforts of the local communities. Some Harambee schools are aided by the government while others are not (Ministry of Education, 1984). In most cases government schools are the best-staffed and best-equipped.

From the data presented in Table 6.1, it is interesting to note that 56,9% (37) of the beginning principals are heads of Harambee schools while 75,3% (58) of the experienced principals are heads of government schools. In most cases these Harambee schools are found in the rural areas (cf. 6.2.9). This suggests that induction processes and programmes must address problems facing heads of Harambee schools in rural areas (cf. 3.12.1-3.12.4).

6.2.11 School category

Beginning principal respondents' school categories include boarding schools 25 (38,5%), day schools 21 (32,3%) and both boarding and day schools 19 (29,2%). On the other hand, experienced principal respondents' schools include boarding schools 40 (51,9%), day schools 21 (27,3%) and both day and boarding schools 16 (20,8%).

Out of the total respondents (beginning and experienced principals) 65 (45,8%) manage boarding schools, 42 (29,6%) manage day schools and 35 (24,6%) manage both day and boarding schools.

In Kenya, most of the boarding schools are government schools while day schools are generally Harambee schools (Griffin, 1994). It is also again interesting to note that data in Table 6.1 reveal that most of the beginning principals 40 (61,5%) are appointed to head either a Day school or a both boarding and day school. These observations suggest that an induction programme must take into account the problems facing managers of day schools, for instance, students travelling long distances.

6.2.12 School composition

From Table 6.1 it appears that beginning principal respondents' school compositions include boys only 8 (12,3%), girls only 15 (23,1%) and mixed schools 42 (64,6%). Accordingly, experienced principal respondents' school compositions include boys only 26 (33,8%), girls only 18 (23,4%) and mixed schools 33 (42,8%).

In total both groups of respondents (beginning and experienced) principals' school compositions include boys only 34 (23,9%), girls only 33 (23,3%) and mixed schools 75 (52,8%).

It is observed that the vast majority of the respondents are heads of co-educational (mixed) schools 75 (52,8%). Therefore this suggests that an induction programme must deal with some unique aspects associated with mixed schools, for instance, sexual misconduct.

6.2.13 Number of students

Data from Table 6.1 demonstrate that about two-thirds of beginning school principals (43, 66,1%) are heads of schools with student population ranging from 101-600. Only 17 (26,2%) are heads of schools with fewer than 100 students and only 5(7,7%) are heads of schools with 901 and over. No beginning principal has a student body of 901 and more students. Conversely, more than three-quarters of the experienced principals 69 (89,6%) have a student body ranging from 101-900. About two-thirds of the respondents 94 (66,2%) from both groups manage schools with student populations ranging from 101-600.

The above demographical results (cf. 6.2.9-6.2.13) reveal that most schools in Kenya are Harambee, mixed, day schools with student populations ranging from 101-600 and are usually located in the rural areas. Thus, an induction programme for beginning principals must address unique features associated with these kinds of schools usually found in many developing countries, for example, understaffing, students travelling long distances, inadequate facilities and lack of classrooms (cf. 3.12.1-3.12.5).

6.2.14 Conclusion

In conclusion, some of the biographical and demographical aspects of this study confirm other studies done by Weindling and Earley (1987) and Legotlo (1994). For instance, Weindling and Earley's (1987) study findings indicate that in England school principals are

typically middle-aged married males with first degrees who had served as deputy principals before appointed to principalships.

Similarly, Legotlo's (1994) study indicates that in Bophuthwatswana school principals are generally middle-aged married males with B.A or B.Ed as academic qualifications who have served either as deputy, principals, acting principals or heads of departments (HODs).

The common feature of future concern in all these studies is the under-representation of women as school managers.

6.3 Problems facing beginning school principals

The subsequent section summarizes the problems of beginning principals. Beginning principals were asked to give their views on a four-point scale. Such views are important in designing an induction programme. Statistical responses emerging from the data are discussed in these sections.

6.3.1 Pre-service training problems

The aim of the questions (cf. 1.1-1.6) in this section was to determine whether beginning principals find their pre-service training problematic to their future roles as school principals. Table 6.2 illustrates the responses of beginning principals regarding pre-service training problems.

According to Table 6.2, an overwhelming majority of the respondents view their pre-service training as appropriate. This is substantiated by the fact that 75% or more of the respondents indicated in each item (cf. 1.1-1.6) that their pre-service training had either been not a problem or a minor problem.

This fact could be attributed to what was noted earlier (cf. 6.2.5 and 6.2.8). It is clear (from 6.2.5 and 6.2.8) that preparation for headship occurred both through experience in school as a result of undertaking a range of previous posts and through attendance at educational management training. Therefore, most of them consider the experience gained as a class teacher, head of department, and especially, deputy principal to be very beneficial.

TABLE 6.2 PRESERVICE TRAINING PROBLEMS: BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1.1 Appropriateness of formal academic training	3	4.6	54	83.1	5	7.7	3	4.6		
1.2 Appropriateness of formal education in management training	2	3.1	31	47.7	21	32.3	8	12.3	3	4.6
1.3 Lack of teaching experience	2	3.1	55	84.6	3	4.6	3	4.6	2	3.1
1.4 Lack of experience as head of department	5	7.7	44	67.7	11	16.9	4	6.2	1	1.5
1.5 Lack of experience as deputy principal	4	6.2	44	67.7	10	15.4	5	7.7	2	3.0
1.6 Lack of experience as acting principal	3	4.6	29	44.6	20	30.8	12	18.5	1	1.5

KEY

1 Not a problem; 2 A minor problem; 3 A problem; 4 A serious problem

From the results of Table 6.2, some findings, for example, experiences as a teacher, head of department and deputy principal, seem to support studies done in other countries like the U.S.A and the U.K in the sense that beginning principals credit teaching experience and deputy principalship as very important pre-service experiences for preparing prospective school principals (cf. 3.2.1-3.2.4).

However, it should also be remembered that there is a general feeling among beginning principals in these developed countries that their pre-service training was inadequate, especially their formal academic training and inadequate mediated entry (cf. 3.2.1-3.2.2).

6.3.2 Personal problems

The aim of these questions (cf. 2.1-2.6) as shown in Table 6.3 was to establish to what extent personal problems are a problem to beginning school principals.

From Table 6.3, it appears that the vast majority of the respondents felt that personal problems were a minor problem or not a problem. However, a few issues (with more than thirty percent indicating that they could be a problem or a serious problem for beginning principals) are highlighted.

- **Problem 2.1: Housing for your family**

About two-thirds of the respondents (64,6%) of the respondents show that housing for their family was not a problem or it was a minor problem while 33,9% indicate that it either was a problem or a serious problem. Although not written, it was discovered during the field study that appointing principals internally or appointing and posting them to manage schools within their localities are common practices in Kenya. Therefore, the respondents who find housing to be a minor or no problem could fall in this category. Thus, once appointed as principals, they still reside in their own old house and this causes little or no disruption for the principals' families.

It was noted earlier (cf. 6.2.9) that 80% of schools managed by beginning principals are located in rural areas. Therefore the respondents (33,9%) indicating that they find housing a problem or a serious problems could be the ones appointed and posted to schools that are in the rural areas in other districts or provinces where decent housing is not available.

TABLE 6.3 PERSONAL PROBLEMS. BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
2.1 Housing for your family	1	1.5	34	52.3	8	12.3	10	15.4	12	18.5
2.2 Locating a school for your children	1	1.5	25	38.5	10	15.4	10	15.4	19	29.2
2.3 Locating a church belonging to your denomination	1	1.5	48	73.8	6	9.3	4	6.2	6	9.2
2.4 Locating comprehensive health care	1	1.5	23	35.4	14	21.5	15	23.1	12	18.5
2.5 Locating a suitable social club	1	1.5	22	33.8	7	10.8	15	23.1	20	30.8
2.6 Making new friends	0	0	40	61.5	17	26.2	6	9.2	2	3.1

KEY

1 Not a problem. 2 A minor problem. 3 A problem. 4 A serious problem

- **Problem 2.2: Locating a school for your children**

More than half the respondents (53,9%) felt that locating schooling for their children was a minor problem or not a problem and 44,6% saw it as a serious problem or a problem. Locating schools for children may not be a problem for those promoted internally or posted to schools within their vicinity since their families are not moved (cf. 2.1). Additionally, principals to a large extent participate in the admission of students, thus they can always ask a favour from their counterpart principals of other schools.

Table 6.1 indicates that 80% of the schools run by beginning principals are in the rural areas. As such, the 44,6% of the respondents who view locating a school for their children to be a serious problem or a problem could be seen as being concerned about the poor quality education which is normally found in rural areas in many developing countries (cf. 3.12).

- **Problem 2.4: Locating comprehensive health care**

Health care is a primary concern not only for school principals, but for anyone with a family. Regarding this question, 56,9% of the respondents indicate that health care in not a problem or a minor problem for them while 41,6% indicate it is either a problem or a serious problem.

It seems rather odd that more than half of the respondents (56,9%) have a minor problem or no problem with health while 80% of their schools are located in the rural areas (cf. 6.2.9.). Health care is among other typical problems found in most rural areas in developing countries (cf. 3.12) and this explains why 41,6% of the respondents have a serious problem or a problem with locating good heath care.

- **Problem 2.5: Locating a suitable social club**

Less that half of the respondents (44,6%) felt that locating a suitable social club is a minor problem or not a problem. Likewise (53,9%) felt that locating a suitable social club is a serious problem or a problem. The view that locating a suitable social club is a problem or a serious problem is supported by the literature consulted which indicates that one of the major problems facing beginning principals is that of being alone (cf. 3.3.2).

From the foregoing, it appears that the majority of beginning principals have a minor problem or have no problems at the personal level, as this study reveals. This could be

attributed to the practices in Kenya of appointing heads internally or posting them to manage schools that are within their localities. Thus, their personal and family life structure is minimally disrupted.

Although the majority of the respondents indicate that personal concerns are not a problem, respondents seem to indicate that some problems, such as housing for the family, schools for children, health care and suitable social clubs are to some extent a problem. Therefore problems at the personal level cannot be ignored totally for an induction programme. It should also be remembered, however, that except for Legotlo's (1994) study which supports the general findings of this study concerning problems experienced at the personal level by beginning principals in other studies, especially those done in U.S.A., indicate that personal problems are a formidable challenge for beginning principals (cf. 3.3.1-3.3.7).

6.3.3 Management problems

The aim these questions (cf. 3.1-3.22) was to determine the extent of managerial problems for beginning principals. Beginning principals were asked to give their views on the intensity of managerial problems facing them. Such views are important for designing an induction programme for they help to highlight the areas of management that need attention in helping beginning principals to run the school effectively and efficiently. Table 6.4 explicates in details the views of beginning principals.

As Table 6.4 illustrates, most of the respondents indicate that management problems are minor problems or not a problem for most beginning principals. Therefore this section will only highlight a few of the problems indicated by respondents (30%), or more precisely, that they might be a problem or serious problem for beginning principals.

* **Problem 3.1: Lack of feedback from supervisors**

Although less than two-thirds (52.3%) of the respondents felt that lack of feedback from their supervisors was not a problem or a minor problem, more than one-third (43.0%) felt that it was a problem or a serious problem. The lack of feedback from supervisors could be attributed to the geographical location of some principals' schools.

TABLE 6.4 MANAGEMENT PROBLEMS: BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
3.1 Lack of feedback from supervisors	3	4.7	16	24.6	18	27.7	19	29.2	9	13.8
3.2 Understanding your role as a school principal	2	3.1	43	66.2	13	20.0	6	9.2	1	1.5
3.3 Meeting job demands	1	1.5	18	27.7	22	33.8	19	29.3	5	7.7
3.4 Delegating responsibilities	1	1.6	35	53.8	21	32.3	7	10.8	1	1.5
3.5 Fear of being held accountable	3	4.6	41	63.1	12	18.5	6	9.2	3	4.6
3.6 Budgeting school finance	1	1.5	17	26.2	18	27.7	18	27.7	11	16.9
3.7 Controlling school finance	1	1.5	24	36.9	19	29.2	16	24.6	5	7.8
3.8 Handling legal issues	2	3.1	15	23.1	16	24.6	21	32.3	11	16.9
3.9 Knowledge of department rules	2	3.1	46	70.8	13	20.0	4	6.1	0	0
3.10 Compiling master time-table	1	1.5	52	80.0	10	15.4	2	3.1	0	0
3.11 Setting up school assemblies	1	1.6	60	92.3	3	4.6	1	1.5	0	0

KEY

1 Not a problem. 2 A minor problem. 3 A problem. 4 A serious problem

TABLE 6.4 (Continued)

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
3.12 Ordering school equipment	3	4.6	40	61.5	14	21.5	6	9.2	2	3.2
3.13 Record keeping	1	1.5	27	41.5	30	46.2	5	7.7	2	3.1
3.14 Operating school equipment	1	1.5	29	44.6	15	23.1	16	24.6	4	6.2
3.15 Organizing Harambee fund raising	3	4.6	10	15.4	21	32.3	18	27.7	13	20.0
3.16 Managing one's own time	1	1.5	32	49.2	21	32.3	6	9.3	5	7.7
3.17 Lack of sufficient time	1	1.4	21	32.3	21	32.3	13	20.0	9	13.8
3.18 Too much administrative work	1	1.5	18	27.7	19	29.2	17	26.2	10	15.4
3.19 Getting information about the school	2	3.0	28	43.1	23	35.4	12	18.5	0	0
3.20 Social relationships inside the school	1	1.5	38	58.5	18	27.7	7	10.8	1	1.5
3.21 Conducting meetings	1	1.5	51	78.5	10	15.4	2	3.1	1	1.5
3.22 Handling stress	1	1.4	28	43.1	20	30.8	12	18.5	4	6.2

KEY

1 Not a problem; 2 A minor problem; 3 A problem; 4 A serious problem

Table 6.1 shows that 80% of the respondents' schools are in the rural areas (cf. 6.2.9). Therefore, due to poor means of communication found in many rural areas in many developing countries, field supervisors find it difficult to reach all the schools assigned to them and this causes difficulties for beginning principals who are not only in need of evaluation and feedback, but in need of help in other managerial issues. Beginning principals' dissatisfaction with poor feedback is a view supported by the literature consulted (cf. 3.3.3).

Furthermore, beginning principals experience some concern about their effectiveness during the first years because there may not be general agreement on the criteria that should be used in determining their effectiveness (Dekker & Lemmer, 1993). Superiors may base their evaluation on one set of criteria while parents, teachers and students may use a different set of criteria. Moreover, the evalution made by the different groups may not be communicated to the beginning principals explicitly.

* **Problem 3.3: Meeting job demands**

About two-thirds (61.5%) of the respondents were of the opinion that meeting job demands is a minor problem or not a problem in their first years of principalship. However, about a third (36.9%) of the respondents indicated that job demands in their first years were a problem or serious problem.

Problems of not meeting job demands are generally associated with poor management of time and lack of skills on how to set priorities (cf. 3.3.5). This implies that an induction programme must equip the beginning principals with skills on how to manage time properly by setting priorities.

* **Problems 3.6 & 3.7: Budgeting and controlling school finance**

Table 6.4 shows that 53.9% of the respondents find budgeting school finance to be a minor problem or not a problem for beginning principals. Notwithstanding this, 44.6% of the respondents felt that it was a problem or a serious problem. Additionally, more than half (66.1%) of the respondents felt that controlling school finance is a minor problem or not a problem while fewer than half (32.3%) felt that it was a problem or a serious problem for beginning principals.

While literature studies (cf. 3.3.5) indicate that budgeting and controlling school finances is a problem to most beginning principals, Table 6.4 seems to suggest that somehow it is

not a problem to beginning for beginning principals in this study. This could be ascribed to the small budgets some of these principals operate with. A lot of funds come from school fees which sometimes don't amount to much since paying school fees is also a problem to some students (cf. 3.12.4).

- **Problem 3.8: Handling legal issues**

Although legal matters were not dealt with as such in the literature in this study, it was felt that such a question should be included to gauge how the subjects of this study view legal issues that relate to school. Accordingly, 47.7% of the respondents felt handling legal issues was not a problem or a minor problem to beginning principals while 49.2% of the respondents viewed it a problem or a serious problem.

The finding in this study that legal issues are a problem for beginning principals is supported by other studies done by Weindling and Earley (1987), Anderson (1989) and Legotlo (1994). Therefore an induction programme should include some aspects of educational law so that the beginning principal will be aware of his legal rights and those of the students, staff and parents.

- **Problem 3.15: Organizing Harambee fund-raising**

Out of the total respondents (47.7%) felt that organizing Harambee fund-raising was not a problem or a minor problem for beginning principals. Likewise, an equal number of respondents (47.7%) also indicate that organizing Harambee fund-raising was a problem or a serious problem.

As noted earlier (cf. 6.2.10) more than half the respondents (56,9%) are managers of Harambee schools. Additionally, it was noted that many of these Harambee schools (80,0%) are located in the rural areas. Furthermore, it was noted that Harambee schools are not sponsored by the government - rather they are built through "Harambee" (pulling together) efforts of the local communities.

This implies that beginning principals are faced with the challenge of mobilizing the community to raise money for school development and this is not an easy task for many beginning principals with no prior experience in Harambee fund-raising. In addition some rural communities in some developing countries have the desire to give but they are too poor to contribute anything substantial. An induction programme must therefore address

unique problems found in rural schools by provide beginning principals with skills on how to organize Harambee fund-raising especially for principals of Harambee schools.

* **Problem 3.17: Lack of sufficient time**

Though more than half (64.6%) of the respondents felt that lack of sufficient time was a minor problem or not a problem for beginning principals, 33,8% felt that it was a serious problem or a problem for beginning principals. The literature consulted (cf. 3.3.6) indicates that beginning principals may frequently have a feeling that there is not enough time to do everything that needs to be accomplished.

The problem of having too little time may be attributed to four factors, viz. inexperience, the absence of a system for organizing time, the administrative job itself and failure to delegate responsibilities (Gorton & Thierbach-Schneider, 1991:600). Therefore an induction programme should not overlook this problem - rather it should attempt to show the beginning principals how to manage time properly.

• **Problem 3.18: Too much administrative work**

More than half the respondents (56.9%) are of the opinion that too much administrative work was a minor problem or not a problem for beginning principals while others (41.6%) indicate that it either a problem or a serious problem. The 41,6% of the respondents finding too much administrative work to be a problem cannot be ignored since the literature consulted also indicates that too much administrative work is a problem for many beginning principals (cf. 3.91).

As was noted earlier (cf. 6.2.5) only a few (12,3%) of the respondents had been heads of departments prior to ascending to the principalship. This implies that a lot of administrative work is done by the principal and his deputy. Therefore, the problem of too much administrative work could be ascribed to lack of formally or otherwise appointed heads of department who could be of assistance not only to the principal but to the deputy as well.

In summary, though, from Table 6.4, the general view of the respondents is that beginning principals in this study have no managerial problems, some of the salient problems highlighted from the findings which are also supported by literature study cannot be ignored for an induction programme.

The literature consulted in this study points to the fact that some of the management problems underscored in this study, including lack of feedback, meeting job demands, budgeting and controlling finances, legal issues lack of sufficient time and too much administrative work are serious problems facing beginning principals (cf. 3.3.3-3.3.6; 3.9.1).

6.3.4 Instructional problems

The aim of these questions (cf.4.1-4.8) was to determine the extent to which instructional problems are problems for beginning principals. The views of the respondents and the intensity on the instructional problems are outlined in Table 6.5. Since the majority of the respondents indicate (50,0%) that instructional issues are not a problem or a minor problem, only a few instructional issues which indicate it is a serious problem or a problem by (30,0%) more will be underscored and discussed briefly.

- **Problems 4.1 & 4.2: Recruitment and appointment of teachers**

Table 6.5 shows that more than half (60,0%) of the respondents felt that recruitment of teachers is a minor problem or not a problem for beginning principals. Only 35.4% felt that it is a serious problem or a problem. Furthermore, 61.6% of the respondents felt that appointment of teachers is a minor problem or not a problem while 32.3% felt that it is a problem or a serious problem.

What seems to emerge from Table 6.5 is that while literature studies show that recruitment and appointment of teachers are problems to most beginning principals (cf. 3.5.2-3.5.2.2), this study shows that it is not a problem for beginning principals.

This could be attributed to the fact that in Kenya teachers are recruited and appointed by the District Education Officer (DEO) in conjunction with the Provincial Education Officer (PEO) and the Teachers' Service Commission (TSC) (cf. 2.2.3). Principals have very little or no say in the recruitment and the appointment process.

TABLE 6.5 INSTRUCTIONAL PROBLEMS: BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
4.1 Recruitment of teachers	3	4.6	19	29.2	20	30.8	18	27.7	5	7.7
4.2 Appointment of teachers	4	6.1	23	35.4	17	26.2	15	23.1	6	9.2
4.3 Inducting (helping) new teachers	2	3.4	39	60.7	18	27.7	3	4.6	3	4.6
4.4 Classroom supervision of teachers	1	1.6	21	32.3	24	36.9	13	20.0	6	9.2
4.5 Dealing with incompetent teachers	1	1.8	17	30.8	20	30.8	17	26.2	10	15.4
4.6 Handling teacher absenteeism	1	1.4	18	27.7	27	41.5	13	20.2	6	9.2
4.7 Disciplining teachers	2	3.0	18	27.7	21	32.3	17	26.2	7	10.8
4.8 Transfers of teachers	2	3.0	25	38.5	12	18.5	15	23.1	11	16.9

KEY

1 Not a problem; 2 A minor problem; 3 A problem; 4 A serious problem

- **Problem 4.5: Dealing with incompetent teachers**

Out of the total respondents, 61.6% view dealing with incompetent teachers as a minor problem or not a problem while 41.6% view it as a serious problem or a problem for beginning principals. As was noted in the literature study (cf. 3.12.4) beginning principals in developing countries suffer not only a lack of trained teachers but lack of enough teachers in general. This implies that some principals in these schools without enough teachers would rather have incompetent teachers than have nothing at all. This becomes a problem for principals who want to improve their schools by not only having enough teachers but competent teachers as well.

Furthermore, it was discovered during the field study that some principals as well some teachers are politically appointed and posted to some schools. Therefore, if an incompetent teacher has been politically posted to teach in a certain school, the principal of the particular school will have serious problems dealing with such a teacher.

- **Problems 4.7 & 4.8: Disciplining and transfer of teachers**

Disciplining and transfer of teachers are somewhat related in that sometimes a teacher may be transferred from one school to another on disciplinary grounds. Data from Table 6.5 indicate that about two-thirds (60,0%) of the respondents find disciplining teachers to be a minor problem or not a problem whereas 37,0% feel that it is a serious problem or a problem for beginning principals. Moreover, more than half (57.0%) of the respondents indicate that transfer of teachers is a minor problem or not a problem while (40,0%) indicate that it is a serious problem or a problem for beginning principals.

Like recruitment and appointment of teachers, disciplining and/or transfer of teachers is not the responsibility of school principals in Kenya but of the District Education Officer (DEO) in consultation with both the Provincial Education Officer (PEO) and the Teachers' Service Commission (TSC) (cf. 2.2.3.1).

This implies that there is a lot of bureaucracy involved in recruitment and appointment as well as in discipline and transfer of teachers. As a result, a principal who wants a certain teacher disciplined or transferred will be frustrated by the red-tape involved and this is a serious problem for many principals. Again as noted above (cf. item 4.5) some of these teachers are politically appointed and posted to some schools. In such cases, the principal will a serious problem either recommending discipline or transfer of such teacher because of the political cloud surrounding him(teacher).

In summary, it can be argued from Table 6.5 that, in general, beginning principals in this study have a minor problem or have no problem with instructional staff. This finding, however, is contrary to the literature consulted in this study which overwhelmingly indicate that beginning principals have instructional problems (cf. 3.5.2-3.5.2.7).

6.3.5 Internal relationship problems

The aim of these questions (cf. 5.1-5.8) was to gain an overall picture of internal relationship difficulties facing beginning principals. The results of the respondents are reported in Table 6.6.

From Table 6.6 it appears that the overwhelming majority of the respondents felt that internal relationships are a minor problem or not a problem for beginning principals. This view is not, however, supported by the literature consulted which indicates that internal relations pose serious problems for beginning principals (cf. 3.6.1-3.6.2).

However, two problems (with 30,0% or more) are discussed.

- **Problem 5.2: Working with unco-operative teachers**

Although more than half of the respondents (64,6%) felt that working with unco-operative teachers is a minor problem or not a problem, 32,3% felt that it a serious problem or a problem.

As was noted (cf. 6.3.4) some instructional issues including dealing with incompetent teachers, disciplining and transfer of teachers caused serious problems for beginning principals, the same reasons for those problems could be ascribed to dealing with unco-operative teachers. Thus, lack of enough teachers coupled with the political cloud around the unco-operative teacher, could cause serious problems for the principal.

- **Problem 5.5: Dealing with previous head's influence**

Out of the total respondents, 58,4% indicate that dealing with previous head's influence is not a problem or a minor problem. However, 40,0% of the respondents indicate that dealing with the previous head's influence is a problem or a serious problem for beginning principals.

TABLE 6.6 INTERNAL RELATIONSHIP PROBLEMS: BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
5.1 Working with incompetent members of senior management team	4	6.2	19	29.2	23	35.4	14	21.5	5	7.7
5.2 Working with uncooperative teachers	2	3.1	15	23.1	27	41.5	10	15.4	11	16.9
5.3 Winning trust from staff	2	3.1	38	58.5	22	33.8	3	4.6	0	0
5.4 Motivating staff	1	1.5	24	36.9	29	44.6	8	12.3	3	4.5
5.5 Dealing with previous head's influence	1	1.5	22	33.8	16	24.6	18	27.7	8	12.2
5.6 Managing conflict	1	1.5	16	24.6	37	56.9	9	13.8	2	3.0
5.7 Managing change	1	1.5	15	23.1	36	55.4	8	12.3	5	7.7
5.8 Managing resistance to change	1	1.5	9	13.8	37	56.9	8	12.3	10	15.3

KEY

1 Not a problem. 2 A minor problem. 3 A problem. 4 A serious problem

As pointed out earlier (cf. 6.2.5) it is true that 69,2% of beginning principals had been deputy principals prior to their appointment. Moreover, it was also highlighted that internal promotions are common practices in Kenya (cf. 6.3.2). Therefore, beginning principal promoted internally find no problem with the previous head's influence.

But those few (40,0%) not promoted internally could experience serious problems. Literature studies consulted indicated that stepping into some else's shoes can often be a problem (cf. 3.6.1-3.6.2). The personality and style of a predecessor can create lasting effects, making changes by a successor difficult to achieve. The popular predecessor who was all things to all people can make any successor's job extremely difficult.

Additionally, though internal promotions are commonly practised, much of the trouble for beginning principals in Kenya comes because they are transferred too frequently and are unable to put down roots (Griffin, 1994:14). And this implies that they cannot escape dealing with previous head's influence in the early years of their principalship.

6.3.6 Problems with students

The aim of these questions (cf. 6.1-6.10) was to gather the opinions of beginning principals regarding their difficulties with student problems. In order to acquire a broad picture of these challenges facing beginning principals with regard to their experiences with students problems, they (beginning principals) were presented with a number of issues to indicate the extent of each problem. Table 6.7 gives in detail the opinions of the principals.

From Table 6.7, it appears that with the exception of some items (cf. 6.1, 6.5, & 6.9) the overwhelming majority of the respondents consider student problems to be a minor problem or not a problem for beginning principals. These few exceptions are discussed:

* **Problem 6.1: Dealing with students with special needs**

Dealing with students with special needs (cf.6.1) is considered by 66,1% of the respondents to be a minor problem or not a problem while 31,0% consider it a serious problem or a problem. The 66,1% could be ascribed to the fact that students with special needs (highly gifted or learning disabled) are not assessed to determine their needs (Kitavi, 1993). Unlike countries like the United States were assessment of students with special educational needs is mandatory, in Kenya, all students are treated as one and the same regardless of their academic needs.

TABLE 6 7 PROBLEMS WITH STUDENTS BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
6 1 Dealings with students with special needs	2	3,1	21	32,3	22	33,8	16	24,6	4	6.2
6 2 Dealing with gifted students	2	3,1	41	63,1	19	29,2	3	4,6	0	0
6 3 Dealing with student discipline	2	3,1	23	35,4	24	36,9	13	20,0	3	4,6
6 4 Conducting student meetings	2	3,2	53	81,5	9	13,8	1	1,5	0	0
6 5 Lack of a learning culture	3	4,6	15	23,1	16	24,6	15	23,1	16	24,6
6 6 Dormitory issues	9	13,8	24	36,9	17	26,2	12	18,5	3	4,6
6 7 Food service	5	7,7	26	40,0	23	35,4	9	13,8	2	3,1
6 8 Sexual misconduct	4	6,2	26	40,0	25	38,5	9	13,8	1	1,5
6 9 Student absenteeism	1	1,5	15	23,1	20	30,8	19	29,2	10	15,4
6 10 Overage students	3	4,6	33	50,8	21	32,3	8	12,3	0	0

KEY

1 Not a problem. 2 A minor problem. 3 A problem. 4 A serious problem

* **Problem 6.5: Lack of a learning culture**

Lack of a learning culture (cf. 6.5) appears to be viewed equally by the respondents. Ou. of the total respondents, 47.7% view it as a minor problem or not a problem and another 47.7% of the respondents view is as a serious or a problem for beginning principals.

It was pointed out that 80,0% of schools are located in rural areas, 56,9% are Harambee schools and 61,5% are day schools (cf. 6.2.9-6.2.11). The poor conditions associated with most schools in rural areas, including lack of adequate physical facilities, classroom provisions, shortage of teachers could be ascribed to the lack of a learning culture among students. And this poses a serious problem, especially for young principals who want to prove their leadership capabilities.

Again since many of these students travel long distances to attend school, as was observed during the field study, by the time they get school they are already tired and less motivated to learn.

* **Problem 6.3 & 6.9: Student discipline and absenteeism**

Out of the total respondents, 72,3% indicate that student discipline is a minor problem or not a problem. Only 24,6% of the respondents find it a serious problem or a problem. It absurd that more than half of the respondents (72,3%) find students' problems to be minor problem or not a problem while the literature underscores students' lack of discipline as one of the serious problems facing not only beginning but experienced principals as well (cf. 3.9.2). Moreover, riots, strikes and other forms of mass lack of discipline have for years affected especially boarding schools in Kenya (Griffin, 1994:1).

On the other hand student absenteeism is seen by 53.9% of the respondents as a minor problem or not a problem but 44.6% of the respondents see it as a serious or a problem for beginning principals.

As indicated (cf. 6.2.11), 61,5% of the respondents manage either a day school or day and boarding schools. This implies that the majority of the students either walk from home to school or walk from the town where they rent accommodation. It was observed during the field work that some students travel about ten kilometers daily to and from school. As such they can be expected to absent themselves from school especially those having accommodation in the towns away from their parents. In addition, they could be forced to absent themselves because of lack of school fees (cf. 3.12.5).

In sum, the foregoing discussion derived from Table 6.7 seems to suggest that beginning principals in this study have a minor problem or experience no problem with students. This view is, however, not in agreement with the literature which point out that beginning principals have enormous problems with students (3.9.2).

6.3.7 Problems with external relations

A previous section (cf.6.3.5) dealt with internal relationship problems. This section focuses on external relations problems. The aim of these questions (cf. 7.1-7.11) was to establish the degree to which management of external relations was a problem for beginning principals.

In order to gain an overview of these external relationship management problems, beginning principals were asked to rate the problematical nature of various external relations issues as shown in Table 6.8. Without exception, Table 6.8 shows that all respondents indicate by a large percentage that management of external relations is a minor problem or not a problem for beginning principals. Although a dismal 30,0% indicate that parental problems (cf. 7.8) are a serious problem or a problem, the overall picture is that external relationships are not a problem for the respondents.

Contrary to the findings of this study, literature consulted indicates that management of external relations is a serious problem for beginning principals (3.9.3). Most of these questions dealt with the relations of the principals and their superiors. Therefore, the opinions of the respondents could be attribute to their cultural setting where superiors are rarely positively or negatively criticized. This feeling was also sensed during the pilot study in that some of those questioned had expressed their unwillingness to answer the external relations issues.

TABLE 6.8 PROBLEMS WITH EXTERNAL RELATIONS: BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
7.1 Relationship with Area Education Officer	1	1,6	53	81,5	8	12,3	3	4.6	0	0
7.2 Relationship with District Education Officer	1	1,6	54	83,1	8	12,3	1	1.5	1	1.5
7.3 Relationship with school inspectors	1	1.6	57	87.7	6	9.2	1	1.5	0	0
7.4 Relationship with school committee	2	3.1	45	69.2	13	20.0	5	7.7	0	0
7.5 Relationship Relationship with Parent Teacher Association	1	1,5	51	78,5	8	12.3	4	6.2	1	1.5
7.6 Relationship with Kenya National Union of Teachers	5	7,7	54	83,1	3	4.6	3	4.6	0	0

KEY

1 Not a problem. 2 A minor problem. 3 A problem. 4 A serious problem

TABLE 6 8 (Continued)

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
7 7 Relationship with Teachers Service Commission	1	1,5	56	86,2	5	7,7	3	4,6	0	0
7 8 Parental problems	1	1,5	23	35,4	21	32,3	17	26,2	3	4,6
7 9 Liaison problems	3	4,7	34	52,3	22	33,8	5	7,7	1	1,5
7 10 Party politics	2	3,0	41	63,1	12	18,5	6	9,2	4	6,2
7 11 Dealing with religious issues	1	1,4	37	56,9	20	30,8	4	6,2	3	4,6

KEY

1 Not a problem. 2 A minor problem. 3 A problem. 4 A serious problem

6.3.8 General problems facing beginning principals

Respondents were asked to rate typical problems facing beginning principals in developing countries like Kenya. The aim of these questions (8.1-8.21) was to get the feelings and opinions on these general problems facing beginning principals. Table 6.9 displays the views of the respondents on general problems facing beginning principals in developing countries. It is pointed out that only items that are rated as a problem or a serious problem are discussed. Additionally, items receiving a no response by a frequency of 4 or more will be highlighted.

- **Problem 8.1: Flushing toilets**

Although more that half the respondents (58,4%) indicate that flushing toilets are not a problem or a minor problem for beginning principals, 10,8% of the respondents failed to respond to this item. This failure to respond could be associated with principals heading schools where flushing toilets are not used.

As indicated in Table 6.1 (cf. 6.2.9), 80,0% of the schools run by beginning principals are in the rural areas. Due to, among other problems, lack of water schools in rural areas use old-style latrines instead of flushing toilets.

- **Problem 8.2: Running water**

Out of the total respondents 6,2% gave no response to this question. As Table 6.1 indicates, 38,5% of the respondents manage boarding schools. Possibly, these principals in boarding schools ignored this question since it is not possible to operate a boarding without running water.

To the respondents who answered this question, 49,3% felt that beginning principals might not be challenged by lack of running water while another 44,6% of the respondents felt that it might be a challenge.

TABLE 6.9 GENERAL PROBLEMS: BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
8.1 Flushing toilets	7	10.9	29	44.6	9	13.8	6	9.2	14	21.5
8.2 Running water	4	6.1	17	26.2	15	23.1	9	13.8	20	30.8
8.3 Shortage of physical facilities	1	1.6	0	0	8	12.3	22	33.8	34	52.3
8.4 Staff accommodation	1	1.5	5	7.7	4	6.2	21	32.3	34	52.3
8.5 Students travelling long distances	1	1.6	13	20.0	13	20.0	14	21.5	24	36.9
8.6 Installing telephones	1	1.5	15	23.1	6	9.2	18	27.7	25	38.5
8.7 Parents' literacy	1	1.6	8	12.3	16	24.6	21	32.3	19	29.2
8.8 Inaccessibility of parents	1	1.6	16	24.6	15	23.1	19	29.2	14	21.5
8.9 Geographical location of the school	1	1.6	23	35.4	14	21.5	18	27.7	9	13.8
8.10 Lack of mailing facilities	1	1.5	36	55.4	15	23.1	10	15.4	3	4.6

KEY

1 Not a problem; 2 A minor problem; 3 A problem; 4 A serious problem

TABLE 6.9 (Continued)

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
8.11 Lack of administrative staff	1	1.4	22	33.8	24	36.9	15	23.1	3	4.6
8.12 Students who cannot pay school fees	0	0	0	0	2	3.0	17	26.2	46	70.8
8.13 Students who cannot buy books	0	0	2	3.1	7	10.8	14	21.5	42	64.6
8.14 Shortage of school equipment	0	0	2	3.1	1	1.5	24	36.9	38	58.5
8.15 Lack of playgrounds	0	0	9	13.9	19	29.2	16	24.6	21	32.3
8.16 Shortage of teachers	0	0	14	21.5	22	33.8	17	26.2	12	18.5
8.17 Political unrest	0	0	42	64.6	13	20.0	6	9.2	4	6.2
8.18 Dealing with strikes	1	1.4	41	63.1	17	26.2	4	6.2	2	3.1
8.19 Overcrowded classrooms	1	1.5	40	61.5	12	18.5	12	18.5	0	0
8.20 Dealing with tribal issues	0	0	43	66.2	17	26.2	2	3.0	3	4.6
8.21 Use of English as a medium of instruction	0	0	17	26.2	10	15.5	21	32.3	17	26.2

KEY

1 Not a problem; 2 A minor problem; 3 A problem; 4 A serious problem

* **Problem 8.3: Shortage of physical facilities**

The vast majority of the respondents (86,1) view a shortage of physical facilities as a serious problem or a problem for beginning principals, a finding supported by the literature (3.12.1). This problem calls for beginning principals to be equipped with skills on how to organize Harambee fund-raising which is the only way for some schools (Harambee school) to get funds for physical facilities developments(cf.6.3.3).

* **Problem 8.4: Staff accommodation**

The majority of the respondents (84,6%) are of the opinion that staff accommodation is a formidable challenge for beginning principals. The literature study referred to also indicates that inadequacy of staff accommodation is a serious problem for beginning principals (cf. 3.12.1). This lack of adequate staff accommodation adds another problem for the beginning principal in that he will not be able to attract and retain qualified teachers who see good accommodation as an incentive for staying in a certain school.

* **Problem 8.5: Students travelling long distances**

More than half of the respondents (58,4%) indicate that students travelling long distances is a serious problem or a problem for beginning problem. The problem of students travelling long distances may have a direct connection with student problems of lack of learning culture and absenteeism (cf. 6.3.6). As noted, 80,0% of the schools run by beginning principals are in the rural areas and 61,5% are Day schools or both Day and Boarding schools. This implies that students must travel to school. By the time they get to school they are already exhausted and less motivated to learn.

* **Problem 8.6: Installing telephones**

About two-thirds of the respondents (66.2%) show that installing telephones is a serious problem or a problem for beginning principals. Most of the schools in developing countries are without telephone services. Therefore, fast communication for beginning principals is a problem and raising money for telephone installation adds an enormous challenge. The literature consulted in chapter 3 (3.13.2) also indicates that poor communication and the poor information system are among the critical problems facing school principals in developing countries.

* **Problem 8.7: Parents' illiteracy**

Parents' illiteracy is indicated by 61.5% of the respondents to be a problem or a serious problem for beginning principals. It is a serious problem because many parents are illiterate. As Table 6.1 indicates (80,0%) of the schools are in the rural areas and this is supported by the 1990 Population Census Report of Kenya which indicates that the most populated areas in the country are the rural ones. Furthermore, adult illiteracy is one the major problems facing developing countries.

This implies that principals can only communicate verbally with the parents. Thus, calling a meeting for all parents becomes a daunting, time-consuming issue for beginning principals. This could possibly be the reason why parental problem was singled out as the only external relations problem beginning principals have to some degree (cf. 6.3.7).

- **Problem 8.8: Inaccessibility of parents**

About half of the respondents (50.7%) felt that parents' inaccessibility was a serious problem or a problem while 47.7% felt that it was a minor problem or not a problem for beginning principals. The parents' inaccessibility problem could be ascribed to typical problems found in the rural areas where most of these schools are (cf. 3.12). Because of poverty most parents are busy most of the time looking for the next meal of the day, looking for the next term's school fees and others are ignorant of the importance of education.

This implies that the beginning principal will be confronted with the dilemma of making some crucial decisions on certain students which may create conflict with the inaccessible parent.

- **Problem 8.12 & 13: Students who cannot pay fees and buy books**

The overwhelming majority of the respondents show that beginning principals have a serious problem or a problem with students who cannot pay school fees (97,0%) and buy books (86.1%). This view is supported by the literature consulted (cf. 3.12.4) which indicates that financial problems are enormous for most parents in developing countries. This situation presents many beginning principal with a moral and ethical dilemma for they must chose whether it is justifiable to send poor child home to get money for fees or let him study free.

- **Problem 8.14: Lack of school equipment**

The vast majority of the respondents (95.4%) indicate that lack of school equipment is a serious problem or a problem for beginning principals. This finding is supported by the literature referred to in chapter 3 of this study (cf. 3.12.3). Many schools in developing countries don't have adequate school equipment. This compounds the challenge for beginning principals for not only are they required to raise money for school equipment but also money for erecting buildings where such equipment will be stored (cf. 3.12.4).

- **Problem 8.15: Lack of playgrounds**

More than half of the respondents (56,9%) in this study felt that lack of playgrounds is a serious problem or a problem for beginning principals. Possibly, the problem here is not lack of playground per se, but lack of money for acquiring extra school land. Therefore, since all study and no play makes dull a bright child, beginning principals are confronted with the problem of raising money to buy extra school land.

- **Problem 8.16: Shortage of teachers**

Although about half of the respondents (55,3%) in this study view shortage of teachers as a minor problem or not a problem for beginning principals, it should be noted that 44.7% see it as serious problem or a problem. Shortage of teachers as a problem is a view supported by the literature study which shows that a shortage of teachers is one of major problem facing beginning principal in developing countries (cf. 3.12.4).

- **Problem 8.21: Use of English as a medium of instruction**

A surprising 58,5% of the respondents indicate that beginning principals find use of English as medium of instruction to be a problem or a serious problem. This confirms the literature study in chapter 3 (cf. 3.13) which indicates that use of foreign language as a medium of instruction could hinder effective learning of students.

Oddly and ironically enough, many schools in developing countries use foreign languages as their sole medium of instruction in their schools. For example, in Kenya, English which could be considered most children's third language, is used as the medium of instruction, and rightly so over-emphasized (Kitavi, 1993).

From the foregoing, it appears that problems facing beginning principals in developing countries are not the ones typically identified by the literature study consulted from developed countries. On the contrary the levels of problems they face are those uniquely and typically found in developing countries as the literature consulted indicates (cf. 3.12.1-3.13.3).

The findings of this study are supported also by Legotlo's (1994) study. His study on an induction programme for newly appointed school principals in Bophuthatswana (South Africa), which is a developing country, indicates that the beginning principals' problems were not typically those identified by the literature from developed countries like the United States, the United Kingdom or Australia. Rather, the level of the respondents problems was what the literature consulted identifies as typical for beginning principals developing countries (cf.3.12.1-3.13.3).

Therefore, the induction process and induction programme for beginning principals must take into account the typical problems facing beginning principals in developing countries.

6.4 Experienced principals' views on problems facing beginning principals

The previous section (cf. 6.3) dealt with problems facing beginning principals. Beginning principals with 0-3 years of experience were the target subjects of this study. This section deals with views of experienced principals on problems facing beginning principals. Experienced principals with 3 and more years of experience were the control group of this study. Their views are discussed against the background of those of beginning principals and the literature study are presented in the following sections.

6.4.1 Pre-service training problems

In order to gather the views of experienced principals regarding pre-service training problems facing beginning principals, respondents were asked to rate the intensity of each problem on a four point scale. The views of the respondents are presented in Table 6.10.

From Table 6.10 it appears that the overwhelming majority of the respondents consider their pre-service training not to be a problem or a minor problem. The same view was expressed by beginning principals (cf. 6.3.1).

TABLE 6.10 PRESERVICE TRAINING PROBLEMS: EXPERIENCED PRINCIPALS

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1.1 Appropriateness of formal academic training	8	10,4	54	70,1	13	16,9	1	1,3	1	1.3
1.2 Appropriateness of formal education in management training	6	7.8	28	36.4	24	31,2	16	20.8	3	3.8
1.3 Lack of teaching experience	8	10,4	58	75.3	4	5,2	4	5,2	3	3.9
1.4 Lack of experience as head of department	8	10.4	43	55,8	15	19,5	9	11.7	2	2.6
1.5 Lack of experience as deputy principal	10	13,0	42	54,5	14	18,2	11	14,3	0	0
1.6 Lack of experience as acting principal	7	19,1	44	57,1	19	24,7	7	9,1	0	0

KEY

1 Not a problem; 2 A minor problem; 3 A problem; 4 A serious problem

It should be remembered, however, that the beginning and experienced principals' views are not supported by the literature consulted which indicates that beginning principals are dissatisfied with their pre-service training especially their formal academic training (cf. 3.2.1).

It is, however, observed that all pre-service issues in Table 6.10 received a no response. For example, 10,4% gave a no response to appropriateness of academic training (cf. item 1.1) and another 7,8% did not respond to appropriateness of education management training (cf.item 1.2).

Table 6.1 (cf. 6.2) shows that 16.9% of the respondents indicate that they have other academic qualifications including master's degrees. Possibly those with these other qualifications ignored the question on the appropriateness of academic qualifications. Further, Table 6.1 (cf. 6.2) also shows that 66,2% of the respondents indicate that they have other professional qualification which implies a B.Ed degree (cf. 6.2.7). Therefore the 7,8% no response on the appropriateness of educational management training could be ascribed to the respondents equating a B.Ed degree with educational management training.

Table 6.10 also shows that 10,4% gave a no response to lack of teaching experience and that another 10,4% also gave a no response to lack of experience as head of department. As Table 6.1 shows, 62,3% of the respondents had been deputy principals and only 7,8% had been heads of department prior to their principalship. Teaching experience is a prerequisite for being a deputy principal, therefore some respondents could have ignored this question. Being head of the department is not seen as preparation for principalship as Table 6.1 testifies, thus respondents overlooked this question as well.

Further, Table 6.10 shows that 13,0% gave no response to lack of experience as deputy principals and 9,1% gave no response to lack of experience as acting principal. From Table 6.1 (cf. 6.2) it is clear that 62,3% of the respondents had been deputy principals and only 14,3% had been acting principals before assuming the principalship. Therefore, respondents could have overlooked these two questions because experience as a deputy principal is seen as the only path to the principalship and 62,3% of them have it.

6.4.2 Personal problems

The aim of these questions (cf. 2.1-2.6) was to find out their views on personal problems as they relate to beginning principals. The opinions of experienced principals are tabulated in Table 6.11.

TABLE 6 11 PERSONAL PROBLEMS: EXPERIENCED PRINCIPALS

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
2 1 Housing for your family	3	3,9	57	74,0	3	3,9	8	10,4	6	7,8
2 2 Locating a school for your children	3	3,9	47	61,0	11	14,3	9	11,7	7	9,1
2 3 Locating a church belonging to your denomination	3	3,9	61	79,2	7	9,1	3	3,9	3	3,9
2 4 Locating comprehensive health care	3	3,8	36	46,8	14	18,2	17	22,1	7	9,1
2 5 Locating a suitable social club	4	5,1	34	44,2	12	15,6	12	15,6	15	19,5
2 6 Making new friends	2	2,6	49	63,6	12	15,6	9	11,7	5	6,5

KEY

1 Not a problem. 2 A minor problem. 3 A problem; 4 A serious problem

From Table 6.11, it appears that all the respondents indicate that personal problems were either a minor problem or not a problem for them when they were beginning principals. Beginning principals also indicated that personal problems werea minor problem or not a problem (cf. 6.3.2). Beginning principals' ratings were ascribed to the unwritten practices and policies of internal promotion of principals or posting them within their local vicinities realized during the field study. The same reasons seem to apply to experienced principal respondents.

However, the following personal issues, which 30,0% or more indicate could be a serious or a problem for beginning principals, are discussed.

- **Problem 2.4: Locating comprehensive health care**

Table 6.11 shows that 65,0% of the respondents find locating health care to be minor problem or not a problem. Only 31,2% find it a serious problem or a problem. By comparison, experienced principals show by 56,9% that health care is not a problem or a minor problem while 41,6% indicate it as a serious problem (cf.6.3.2).

While studies not only in education but in other fields such as medicine document health care services to be among the major problems facing developing countries, it seems rather strange that more than half of both beginning and experience in this study find health care to be a minor problem or not a problem.

- **Problem 2.5: Locating a suitable social club**

By 59,8%, experienced principals indicate that locating a suitable social club is a minor problem or not a problem while 35,1% indicate it is a problem or a serious problem. On the other hand, 44,6% of beginning principals indicate locating a suitable social club is a minor problem or not a problem while more than half (53,9%) indicate it is a serious problem or a problem (cf. 6.3.2).

Although locating a suitable social club is a problem for both groups, it appears to be more of a problem or a serious problem for more than half of beginning principals (53,9%) than experienced principals (35,1%). Beginning principals' view is supported by literature which overwhelmingly indicates that it is lonely at the top (cf. 3.3.2).

TABLE 6.12 MANAGEMENT PROBLEMS EXPERIENCED PRINCIPALS

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
3.1 Lack of feedback from supervisors	4	5.1	18	23.4	21	27.3	24	31.2	10	13.0
3.2 Understanding your role as a school principal	3	3.9	53	68.8	13	16.9	8	10.4	0	0
3.3 Meeting job demands	3	3.8	29	37.7	25	32.5	14	18.2	6	7.8
3.4 Delegating responsibilities	2	2.6	53	68.8	14	18.2	8	10.4	0	0
3.5 Fear of being held accountable	2	2.6	52	67.5	13	16.9	6	7.8	4	5.2
3.6 Budgeting school finance	1	1.3	25	32.5	18	23.4	25	32.5	8	10.1
3.7 Controlling school finance	2	2.6	29	37.7	25	32.5	18	23.4	3	3.8
3.8 Handling legal issues	2	2.6	23	29.9	19	24.7	20	26.0	13	16.8
3.9 Knowledge of department rules	2	2.6	56	72.7	14	18.2	5	6.5	0	0
3.10 Compiling master time-table	3	3.9	61	79.2	12	15.6	1	1.3	0	0
3.11 Setting up school assemblies	2	2.6	71	92.2	4	5.2	0	0	0	0

KEY

1 Not a problem. 2 A minor problem. 3 A problem. 4 A serious problem

TABLE 6.12 (Continued)

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
3.12 Ordering school equipment	2	2.6	58	75.3	12	15.6	4	5.2	1	1.3
3.13 Record keeping	1	1.3	41	53.2	25	32.5	10	13.0	0	0
3.14 Operating school equipment	5	6.4	31	40.3	29	37.7	10	13.0	2	2.6
3.15 Orgnizing Harambee fund raising	3	3.8	20	26.0	13	16.9	25	32.5	16	20.8
3.16 Managing one's own time	3	3.8	38	49.4	22	28.6	12	15.6	2	2.6
3.17 Lack of sufficiant time	2	2.5	25	32.5	24	31.2	21	27.3	5	6.5
3.18 Too much administrative work	2	2.5	17	22.1	23	29.9	26	33.8	9	11.7
3.19 Getting information about the school	2	2.6	39	50.6	22	28.6	11	14.3	3	3.9
3.20 Social relationships inside the school	3	3.9	46	59.7	26	33.8	2	2.6	0	0
3.21 Conducting meetings	2	2.6	64	83.1	9	11.7	2	2.6	0	0
3.22 Handling stress	2	2.5	30	39.0	27	35.1	14	18.2	4	5.2

KEY

1 Not a problem. 2 A minor problem. 3 A problem. 4 A serious problem

6.4.3 Management problems

The aim of these questions (cf. 3.1-3.22) was to get the view of experienced principals on some managerial issues facing beginning principals. The principals were asked to rate each management issue by indicating the intensity of the problems. Their views are summarized in Table 6.12.

Table 6.12 shows that the majority of the respondents felt that management problems were either a minor problem or not a problem. This view is also supported by beginning principals consulted on the same issues (cf. 6.3.3). However, both beginning and experienced principals' views are not supported by the literature consulted which shows that beginning principals have limited technical expertise which results in management problems (cf. 3.3.5).

It is observed, however, from Table 6.12 that some management issues received a good percentage of responses which indicates that some of these management issues might be a problem or a serious problem for beginning principals. Therefore, those management issues receiving 30,0% or more, indicating that they may be a problem or a serious problem, are highlighted from Table 6.12. and compared with beginning principals' responses.

* **Problem 3.1: Lack of feedback from supervisors**

Although half of the respondents (50.7%) view lack of feedback from supervisors as a minor problem or not a problem, 44,2% see it as a serious problem or a problem for beginning principals. The same view, that lack of feedback could be a serious problem or a problem, is also supported by the literature study and 43,0% of beginning principals (cf. 3.3.3; 6.3.3). Therefore, an induction programme must address problems associated with lack of feedback.

* **Problem 3:8: Handling legal issues**

Out of the total respondents, 42,9% of experienced principals are of the opinion that handling legal matters is a serious problem or a problem for beginning principals. Comparatively, 49,2% of beginning principals felt that handling legal matters was a problem or a serious problem as well (cf. 6.3.3).

Additionally, Legotlo's (1994) study indicates that legal issues are a problem for both beginning and experienced principals. These findings suggest that legal matters related to education must be addressed in an induction programme thus equipping beginning principal with the legal knowledge as pertains his rights including those of students, staff and parents.

- **Problem 3.14: Organizing Harambee fund-raising**

Experienced principal respondents (53,3%) felt that organizing Harambee fund-raising was either a serious problem or a problem for beginning principals while 47,7% of beginning principals felt that it was a serious problem or a problem for them as well (cf. 6.3.3).

As was noted earlier (cf. 6.3.3) Harambee endeavours are crucial in Kenya since most schools are located in the rural areas (80,0%) and are thus dependent on Harambee. Therefore, both beginning and experienced principals hold the view that Harambee fund-raising is a serious problem or a problem, and implies that Harambee fund-raising skills should be incorporated in an induction programme.

- **Problem 3.17 Lack of sufficient time**

Out of the total respondents, 33.8% of experienced principals indicate that lack of sufficient time is a serious problem or a problem for beginning principals. Likewise, 33.8% of beginning principals indicate that lack of sufficient time is also a serious problem or a problem for them (cf. 6.3.3). Both beginning and experienced principals' views are supported by the literature (cf. 3.3.6). Thus, this calls for beginning principals to be equipped with skills on how to set priorities, thus creating time for the most important managerial issues.

- **Problem 3.18: Too much administrative work**

It is observed from Table 6.12 that 45,5% of experienced principals find too much administrative work to be a problem or a serious problem for beginning principals. By the same token, 41,6% of beginning principals find it a serious problem or a problem as well (cf. 6.3.3). This implies that an induction programme must equip beginning principals with managing skills including how to delegate some responsibilities thus relieving them of too much administrative work.

TABLE 6.13 INSTRUCTIONAL PROBLEMS: EXPERIENCED PRINCIPALS

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
4.1 Recruitment of teachers	3	3.8	26	33.8	23	29.9	16	20.8	9	11.7
4.2 Appointment of teachers	3	3.8	31	40.3	25	32.5	14	18.2	4	5.2
4.3 Inducting (helping) new teachers	3	3.8	34	44.2	29	37.7	10	13.0	1	1.3
4.4 Classroom supervision of teachers	1	1.3	24	31.1	33	42.9	18	23.4	1	1.3
4.5 Dealing with incompetent teachers	2	2.5	13	16.9	26	33.8	27	35.1	9	11.7
4.6 Handling teacher absenteeism	1	1.2	22	28.6	33	42.9	19	24.7	2	2.6
4.7 Disciplining teachers	2	2.5	26	33.8	24	31.2	21	27.3	4	5.2
4.8 Transfers of teachers	1	1.2	23	29.9	23	29.9	20	26.0	10	13.0

KEY

1 Not a problem; 2 A minor problem; 3 A problem; 4 A serious problem

Generally, it appears from both beginning and experienced principals (Tables 6.4 & 6.12) that management problems are a minor problem or not a problem for beginning principals. However, managerial issues supported by the literature and which have been underscored as causing some problems to beginning principals cannot be overlooked (cf. 3.3; 6.3.3; 6.3.4). Rather, they call for induction programmes for beginning principals in developing countries to address them.

6.4.4 Instructional Problems

The aim of these questions (cf. 4.1-4.8) was to determine from experienced principals whether they feel instructional problems are a challenge for beginning principals. The views of experienced principals are summarized and presented in Table 6.13.

As Table 6.14 indicates, an overwhelming majority of the experienced principals indicate that instructional problems for experienced principals are a minor problem or not a problems. Their views seem to concur with those of beginning principals who also indicate that they find minor or no challenge with instructional problems (cf. 3.5.2; 6.3.4). However, literature consulted indicates beginning principals face serious instruction problems (cf.3.5.2).

Three instructional problems, however, received responses that could indicate that experienced principals consider them problematic for beginning principals.

- **Problem 4.5: dealing with incompetent teachers**

Table 6.4 shows that 46.8% of the respondents might experience a problem or a serious problem dealing with incompetent teachers. Beginning principals (41,6%) also found that dealing with incompetent teachers was rather problematic for them (cf. 6.3.4), thus they will need help on how to deal with incompetent teachers.

- **Problem 4.7 & 4.8: Disciplining and transfer of teachers**

Among experienced principal, a third of the respondents (32,5%) find disciplining of teachers to be a serious problem or a problem and 39,0% find transfer of teachers a serious problem or a problem for beginning principals. Beginning principals also indicate that due to lack of enough teachers coupled with political interference, disciplining and transfer of teachers is a serious problem or a problem for them (cf. 6.3.4). Therefore, an induction

programme must help beginning principals on how to deal with incompetent teachers as well as transfer of teachers.

6.4.5 Internal relationship problems

The aim of these questions (cf. 5.1-5.8) was to get the opinions of experienced principals on internal relationship problems facing beginning principals. Table 6.14 demonstrates the views of experienced principals concerning internal relationship issues.

The overall view that seems to emerge from Table 6.14 is that most experienced principals find internal relationships to be a *minor* problem or not a problem for beginning principals. The same view was expressed by an overwhelming majority of beginning principals (cf.6.3.5). Both beginning and experienced principals' views are, however, contrary to the literature consulted, which shows that internal problems are very serious for many beginning principals (cf. 3.6.1-3.6.2).

A few internal relationship issues got no responses including working with incompetent members of senior management team (5,2%), motivating staff (5,2%) and dealing with previous head's influence (5.2%).

From Table 6.1 it was noted that only 7,8% of experienced principals had been heads of department prior to ascending to the principalship position. Heads of departments in most cases make up the senior management team (Weindling & Earley, 1987). This implies that senior management teams in most of these schools comprise the principal and his deputy. Therefore, respondents who have no senior management team ignored this question on working with incompetent members of senior management.

It was also noted earlier (cf. 6.3.4) that it is not the responsibility of principals to recruit and appoint teachers in Kenya but that of the Teachers' Service Commission. Thus, the 5,2% no response could be attributed to the principals who don't see motivation as their duty either. Furthermore, internal promotions of deputy principals as practised in Kenya make previous head's influence to be no threat for beginning principals and because of this a few(5.2%) of the respondents could have ignored this question.

TABLE 6.14 INTERNAL RELATIONSHIP PROBLEMS: EXPERIENCED PRINCIPALS

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
5.1 Working with incompetent members of senior management team	4	5.1	22	28.6	22	28.6	20	26.0	9	11.7
5.2 Working with uncooperative teachers	2	2.5	16	20.8	30	39.0	21	27.3	8	10.4
5.3 Winning trust from staff	2	2.6	42	54.5	30	39.0	2	2.6	1	1.3
5.4 Motivating staff	4	5.1	33	42.9	30	39.0	9	11.7	1	1.3
5.5 Dealing with previous head's influence	4	5.1	33	42.9	28	36.4	10	13.0	2	2.6
5.6 Managing conflict	2	2.5	26	33.8	36	46.8	12	15.6	1	1.3
5.7 Managing change	1	1.2	26	33.8	31	40.3	17	22.1	2	2.6
5.8 Managing resistance to change	1	1.3	14	18.2	39	50.6	17	22.1	6	7.8

KEY

1 Not a problem; 2 A minor problem; 3 A problem; 4 A serious problem

6.4.6 Problem with students

Students are the reasons why schools exist thus they are the centrepiece of any school. Thus, the aim of these questions (cf. 6.1-6.10) was to hear experienced principals' views on student problems in relation to beginning principals. Table 6.15 summarizes the experienced principals' opinions.

According to Table 6.15, the majority of experienced principals indicate that students' problems are a minor problem or not a problem for beginning principals. The experienced principals' views are also supported by beginning principals who too indicated by great majority that problems with students are minor problem or not a problem for the them (cf. 6.3.6). Their views (beginning and experienced principals), however, are not supported by the literature referred to in this study which shows that students' issues are not only a problem for beginning principals but for experienced ones as well (cf. 3.9.2).

Two of student's problem issues that seem to have scored good responses, indicating they could be a problem, are discussed against the backdrop of views of beginning principals. Similarly, students' issues that received a no response are discussed as well.

* **Problem 6.1: Dealing with students with special needs**

From Table 6.15, it emerges that 33,8% of respondents indicate that dealing with students' problems could be a serious problem or a problem for beginning principals. Beginning principal respondents (31,0%) indicated that dealing with students with special needs was a problem or a serious problem for them too (cf. 6.3.6). These problems were ascribed to lack of assessment of student needs (gifted ones or those with learning disabilities). These views from both categories of principals further highlight that need for students with special needs to be taken into account for an induction programme.

* **Problem 6.5: Lack of a learning culture**

Experienced principal respondents (46,8%) indicate that lack of a learning culture is either a problem or a serious problem for beginning principals. By contrast, almost an equal (47.7%) of beginning principals indicated that lack of a learning culture could be a serious problem or a problem for beginning principals (cf.6.3.6).

TABLE 6 15 PROBLEMS WITH STUDENTS: EXPERIENCED PRINCIPALS

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
6 1 Dealings with students with special needs	4	5,1	12	15,6	35	45,5	22	28,6	4	5.2
6 2 Dealing with gifted students	2	2.6	43	55,8	23	29,9	9	11,7	0	0
6 3 Dealing with student meetings	1	1,5	21	27,3	35	45,2	14	18,2	6	7,8
6 4 Conducting student meetings	2	2,6	54	70,1	14	18,2	7	9,1	0	0
6 5 Lack of a learning culture	1	1,2	18	23,4	22	28,6	25	32,5	11	14,3
6 6 Dormitory issues	7	9,0	26	33,8	25	32,5	15	19,5	4	5,2
6 7 Food service	7	9,0	30	39,0	21	27,3	11	14,3	8	10,4
6 8 Sexual misconduct	5	6,4	38	49,4	29	37,7	5	6,5	0	0
6 9 Student absenteeism	2	2,6	19	24,7	40	51,9	12	15,6	4	5,2
6 10 Overage students	8	10,3	37	48,1	27	35,1	5	6,5	0	0

KEY

1 Not a problem. 2 A minor problem. 3 A problem; 4 A serious problem

Just as the majority of beginning principals schools are in the rural areas (80,0%) and are day schools (61,5%) so are experienced principals' schools (53,2% are rural schools and 48,1% day schools) (cf. 6.2). Therefore, rural area problems which adversely affect the learning of students are seen as a serious problem by both groups of principals.

Notwithstanding this, however, some students' problems, including dormitory issues (9,1%), food service (9,1%), sexual misconduct (6,5%) and over-age students (10,4%) received a no response from experienced principals.

Table 6.1 indicates that 48,1% of experienced principals' schools are mostly day schools (cf. 6.2). Lack of response on dormitory and food service issues could have resulted from respondents whose schools are not boarding schools and thus have no need for food service. In addition, Table 6.1 also indicates that 57,2% of experienced principals run single sex schools. Therefore response on sexual misconduct could be ascribed to principals heading single sex schools where this would not be an issue. Overage students issues could have been overlooked since this is not a problem for secondary schools but primary schools where students are forced to repeat classes since education in primary is free thus making repetition possible.

6.4.7 Problems with external relations

The aim of these questions (6.3.7) was to find out from the experienced principals whether external relationships are a problem for beginning principals. Thus, the principal were asked to rate the problematic nature of external relations. Their views are shown in Table 6.16.

Surprisingly, Table 6.16 indicates that the respondents overwhelmingly felt that external relations were not a problem or a minor problem. The same overwhelming kind of response was received from beginning principals who too felt that external relations were not a problem or a minor problem (cf. 6.3.7). These findings are not supported by literature consulted (cf. 3.9.3).

Table 6.16 also shows that one issue (cf. 7.6), viz. the relationship with the Kenya National Union of Teachers (KNUT) received a no response (5,2%). During the fieldwork it was discovered that many secondary school principals associate KNUT with serving the interests of primary school heads and teachers. Thus, they are dissatisfied with it and are planning to form a purely secondary school union. This feeling could have resulted in lack of response from some respondents.

TABLE 6.16 PROBLEMS WITH EXTERNAL RELATIONS: EXPERIENCED PRINCIPALS

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
7.1 Relationship with Area Education Officer	2	2.6	68	88.3	7	9.1	0	0	0	0
7.2 Relationship with District Education Officer	2	2.6	66	85.7	7	9.1	2	2.6	0	0
7.3 Relationship with school inspectors	2	2.6	63	81.8	9	11.7	2	2.6	1	1.3
7.4 Relationship with school committee	2	2.6	58	75.3	16	20.8	1	1.3	0	0
7.5 Relationship with Parent Teacher Association	3	3.9	59	76.6	13	16.9	2	2.6	0	0

KEY

1 Not a problem; 2 A minor problem; 3 A problem; 4 A serious problem

TABLE 6.16 (Continued)

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
7.6 Relationship with Kenya National Union of Teachers	4	5.2	60	77.9	5	6.5	3	3.9	5	6.5
7.7 Relationship with Teachers' Service Commission	1	1.3	61	79.2	12	15.6	3	3.9	0	0
7.8 Parental problems	1	1.2	29	37.7	27	35.1	15	19.5	5	6.5
7.9 Liaison problems	3	3.9	44	57.1	25	32.5	5	6.5	0	0
7.10 Party politics	3	3.9	49	63.6	20	26.0	5	6.5	0	0
7.11 Dealing with religious issues	2	2.6	48	62.3	21	27.3	6	7.8		

KEY

1 Not a problem: 2 A minor problem: 3 A problem: 4 A serious problem

6.4.8 General problems

The aim of these questions (cf.8.1-8.21) was to get the opinions of experienced principals on general problems facing beginning principals. Table 6.17 summarizes the experienced principals' views on these general problems.

Although a few respondents indicate that general problems are not a problem or a minor problem, the vast majority seem to indicate that general problems are either a serious problem or a problem. Beginning principals also indicated that general problems are either a problem or a serious problem for them as well. Therefore general problems issues that are a problem or a serious problem are discussed.

- **Problem 8.1: Flushing toilets**

Among experienced principal respondents, 9,1% gave a no response to this question. Data from Table 6.1 show that 53,2% of experienced principal schools are in the rural areas (cf. 6.2). Flushing toilets are rare in the rural areas due to lack of water and therefore latrines are the mode of toilets used (cf. 6.3.8). The no response could have resulted from respondents who use latrines and not flushing toilets in their schools.

However, out of the total respondents, 46,8% felt that flushing toilets are a minor problem or not a problem for beginning principals while 44.2% felt that it is a serious problem or a problem. By comparison, 58,4% of beginning principals indicated that flushing toilets were not a problem while only 30,0% found it a serious problem or a problem (cf. 6.3.3). Flushing toilets would be associated with schools generally found in the urban areas (45,8%) where water is to some extent available (cf. 6.2.9).

- **Problem 8.2: Running water**

Out of the total respondents, 6,2% gave a no response to this issue. Data from Table 6.1 show that schools run by experienced principals (48,1%) are mostly Day schools (cf. 6.2). This implies that students and teachers live outside the school, thus they bring their own food and water. This lack of response could be attributed to some of principals from some of these schools.

Notwithstanding this, 52,0% of the respondents view running water to be a minor problem or not a problem whereas 41,6% view it as a serious problem or a problem. Beginning principals (44,6%) also view running water as a serious problem or a problem (cf. 6.3.3).

This highlights the need for this issue to be addressed, especially for those running boarding schools.

* **Problem 8.3: Shortage of physical facilities**

More half of the respondents (57,2%) felt that shortage of physical facilities was a serious problem or a problem for beginning principals. On the same issue, more than three-quarters (86,1%) of beginning principals felt that shortage of physical facilities is a problem or a serious problem (cf. 6.3.8). This affirms the critical need of this issue which is also supported by the Legotlo's (1994) study and literature (cf. 3.12.1).

- **Problem 8.4: Staff accommodation**

More than two-thirds of experienced principals (68,9%) indicate that shortage of staff accommodation is a serious problem or a problem while 86,1% of beginning principals felt it to be a problem or a serious problem for them as well as well (cf. 6.3.8). This implies that beginning principals face problems in attracting and retaining good teachers. Staff needs cannot be ignored if effective management is to be realized. Teachers in Kenya are not that well paid. Therefore good accommodation would be an incentive as well as motivational for them.

- **Problem 8.5: Students travelling long distances**

Out of the total respondents, 5,2% gave no response to this issue and this could be ascribed to respondents (51,9%) managing boarding schools where students don't have to travel.

However, of the total respondents, 41,6% view students travelling long distances as a serious problem or a minor problem. In the same vein, 58,4% of beginning principals viewed it as a serious problem or a problem. This is also the case for most beginning principals, of whom 80,0% have their schools in the rural areas, and 61,5% whose schools are mostly day schools (cf. 6.2). For experienced principals, 53,2% of their schools are in the rural areas and 48,1% are mostly day schools. Therefore the problem of travelling long distances translates, inter alia, into a lack of a learning culture and absenteeism (cf. 6.3.6).

TABLE 6.17 GENERAL PROBLEMS: EXPERIENCED PRINCIPALS

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
8.1 Flushing toilets	7	9.1	24	31.2	12	15.6	21	27.3	13	16.9
8.2 Running water	5	6.5	20	26.0	20	26.0	14	18.2	18	23.4
8.3 Shortage of physical facilities	1	1.3	14	18.2	18	23.4	27	35.1	17	22.1
8.4 Staff accommodation	3	3.9	8	10.4	13	16.9	25	32.5	28	36.4
8.5 Student travelling long distances	4	5.2	21	27.3	20	26.0	19	24.7	13	16.9
8.6 Installing telephones	2	2.6	32	41.6	19	24.7	11	14.3	13	16.8
8.7 Parents' literacy	2	2.6	16	20.8	24	31.2	22	28.6	13	16.8
8.8 Inaccessibility of parents	2	2.6	23	29.9	25	32.5	20	26.0	7	9.0
8.9 Geographical location of the school	2	2.6	49	63.6	14	18.2	8	10.4	4	5.2
8.10 Lack of mailing facilities	2	2.6	56	72.7	13	16.9	4	5.2	2	2.6
8.11 Lack of administrative staff	2	2.6	33	42.9	28	36.4	10	13.0	4	5.1

KEY

1 Not a problem; 2 A minor problem; 3 A problem; 4 A serious problem

TABLE 6.17 (Continued)

Problem	No response		Responses							
			1		2		3		4	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
8.12 Students cannot pay school fees	0	0	2	2,6	6	7,8	25	32,5	44	57.1
8.13 Students who cannot buy books	3	3.9	8	10,4	9	11,7	24	31,2	33	42.9
8.14 Shortage of school equipment	2	2.6	9	11.7	16	20.8	32	41.6	18	23.3
8.15 Lack of playgrounds	2	2.6	22	28.6	21	27,3	21	27.3	11	14.2
8.16 Shortage of teachers	2	2.6	26	33.8	23	29,9	19	24.7	7	9.0
8.17 Political unrest	2	2,6	51	66,2	15	19,5	6	7.8	3	3.9
8.18 Dealing with strikes	2	2,6	48	62,3	18	23.4	7	9.1	2	2.6
8.19 Overcrowded classrooms	2	2.6	31	40.3	23	29.9	16	20.8	5	6.4
8.20 Dealing with tribal issues	2	2.6	58	75.3	13	16.9	1	1.3	3	3.9
8.21 Use of English as a medium of instruction	2	2.6	21	27.3	19	24.7	13	16.9	22	28.5

KEY

1 Not a problem. 2 A minor problem. 3 A problem. 4 A serious problem

* **Problem 8.7: Parents' illiteracy**

Out of the total respondents, 45,5% felt that parents' illiteracy was a problem or a serious problem for beginning principals while by comparison, 61,4% of beginning principals felt that it was a serious problem or a problem. It was noted (cf. 6.3.8) that adult illiteracy is a major problem facing rural areas in many developing countries. An induction programme must pay special attention to this problem.

* **Problem 8.12 & 13: Student who cannot pay fees and buy books**

An overwhelming majority of the respondents (89,9%) felt that students who cannot pay school fees is represent a serious problem or a problem while a further large majority (74,1%) felt that students who cannot buy books is still a serious problem or a problem. Furthermore, 97,0% of beginning principals felt that students who cannot pay schools fees was a serious problem while a further 86,9% felt that students who cannot buy books was a serious problem or a problem as well (cf. 3.3.8).

The literature consulted and more precisely Legotlo's (1994) study, supports these alarmingly high response percentages from both groups of respondents, hence they serve to illustrate the seriousness of these problems for educational managers in developing countries (cf. 3.12.4).

* **Problem 8.14: Shortage of equipment**

About two-thirds of the respondents (65,0%) indicate that shortage of school equipment is a serious problem or a problem. By comparison, an alarming 95,4% of beginning principals indicated that shortage of school equipment is a serious problem or a problem (cf. 3.6.8). Literature is in support of these findings, thus they serve to highlight further that beginning school not only run understaffed Day schools but less equipped schools as well (cf. 3.12.3; 3.12.4).

* **Problem 8.15: Lack of playgrounds**

Less than half of the respondents (41,6%) felt that lack of playgrounds is a serious problem or a problem. On the same issue (56,9%) of beginning principals felt that lack of playgrounds was a serious problem or a problem for them as well (cf. 6.3.8). Beginning principals should therefore be helped on how to cope with situations where playgrounds are a problem.

- **Problem 8.21: Use of English as a medium of instruction**

Less than half of the respondents(45,5%) indicate that use f English as a medium of instruction is a serious problem or a problem for beginning principals. By the same token, 58,5% of beginning principals indicate that use of English as a medium of instruction is serious problem or a problem (cf. 6.3.8). Literature consulted indicates that some learning problems of students could be attributed to use of a foreign language as a medium of instruction (cf. 3.13).

Thus, these findings illustrate that using foreign languages as the only medium of instruction has adverse effects on the learning of students and compounds the problems of beginning principals in many developing countries who must deal among other things with lack of teachers, lack of classrooms, inadequate facilities and students who cannot pay school fees and/or buy books. Furthermore, the findings raise a concern about the extensive use of foreign languages as the only medium of instruction as is the case in many developing countries.

6.5 Experienced principals' view on other problems facing beginning principals

The respondents (both beginning and experienced principals) were also asked to list other problems which they have experienced as beginning principals that had not been mentioned in the questionnaire in an open space provided in the questionnaire.

From the questionnaire, a list of 249 problems identified by the principals was compiled. It was observed that some of the problems identified by the principals had been asked in the questionnaires. Therefore, the following are some of the other problems identified by both beginning and experienced principals that have been mentioned by three or more respondents but not in the questionnaire (Appendix A):

* School finance problems.
* Lack of induction into the principalship.
* Inflation.
* Lack of security in the school.
* Improper handing over procedures.
* Poor salary/pay.
* Lack of understanding on current educational national goals.
* Dealing with incompetent non-teaching staff.
* Working with a non-resourceful board of governors and school committees.

- Limitations of weather to agro-dependent parents.
- Unbalanced subject teaching staff.
- Age problem - thus direspect for young principals.
- Poor management of the school before taking over.
- Building right tradition in the school.

It was observed that most of the other problems identified (249) as facing beginning principals were money-related problems. This observation is supported by the empirical data noted earlier which indicate that most of the general problems facing beginning principals are related to finances (cf. 6.3.8; 6.4.8).

In summary, it appears from both beginning and experienced principals that the problems facing beginning principals are not exactly those which the literature identifies. Rather, the level of their problems is mostly centred on the general problems issues. Legotlo's (1994) study on an induction programme for newly-appointed school principals in Bopthwatswana (South Africa) supports the findings of this study. Respondents in his study indicated the level of their problems was mostly associated with typical problems facing people in developing countries.

This serves to underscore what was noted earlier, viz. that a standard curriculum for inducting beginning principals cannot be prescribed since their problems are not standard either in terms of the individual, country and time (cf. 1.2). It is thus clear that research focusing on the induction of beginning principals must be contexualized.

Therefore, beginning principals in developing countries face problems that are mostly money-related. These money-related problems create complex management problems for beginning principals since raising money is for most one of the issues not under their jurisdiction.

And although there is nothing that beginning principals can do about these financially related problems, they should be made aware of them.

6.6 Critical skills

Effective and efficient educational management requires managerial skills. Beginning principals' functional ability largely depends on their skills. However, the question that arises is this "what are the kinds of skills and knowledge that are needed to cope with the tasks and responsibilities associated with principalship for beginning principals in Kenya?".

The literature study identifies a three-fold classification of the skills for an effective school principal (cf. 3.11.1). These essential skills include the following:

- technical skills (cf. 3.11.1);
- social skills (cf. 3.11.2); and
- self-awareness skills (cf. 3.11.3).

Therefore, this section gives an overview of skills identified by respondents. The respondents were given 24 items and asked to give their views on a five-point scale. For each item, the respondents rated the extent to which they believed that a skill was critical for the effective performance of the job of the principal as (1=irrelevant , 2=somewhat unimportant, 3=fairly important, 4=somewhat critical and 5=extremely critical).

6.6.1 Critical skills as rated by beginning principals

In order to gain an overview of the importance of essential skills for beginning principals, the respondents were asked to indicate, using a five-point scale, the critical nature of various skills needed. In order to simplify the presentation of the data and get a better picture of the ratings, the five-point scale has been collapsed into three. Thus, percentages for irrelevant and somewhat unimportant have been added together while percentages for somewhat critical and extremely critical have been added together in the analysis of the respondents' ratings.

Additionally, question items are clustered together according to the skills they represent. Daresh and Playko (1992b) identify the three clusters including the kinds of questions they represent (cf. 3.11.1-3.11.3). According to the questionnaire, they include the following items:

- Technical skills (cf. items 1-8);
- Socialization skills (cf. items 9-16);
- Self-awareness skills (cf. items 17-24).

A brief summary of the respondents on each cluster is provided in the following sections.

TABLE 6.18 CRITICAL SKILLS FOR BEGINNING PRINCIPAL

Skill needed	No response		Responses									
			1		2		3		4		5	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1 How to evaluate the staff	0	0	1	1,6	3	4,6	9	13,8	16	24,6	36	55,4
2 How to facilitate/conduct a group meeting	0	0	2	3,1	2	3,1	14	21,5	23	35,4	24	36,9
3 How to design and implement a data based improvement process and goal setting and evaluation	1	1,5	1	1,5	2	3,2	10	15,4	16	24,6	35	53,8
4 How to develop and monitor a school financial budget	0	0	1	1,5	1	1,5	6	9,3	3	4,6	54	83,1
5 How to organize and conduct parent-teacher-student conferences	0	0	1	1,5	2	3,0	17	26,2	20	30,8	25	38,5
6 How to establish a scheduling programme for students and staff	0	0	1	1,5	3	4,7	16	24,6	16	24,6	29	44,6
7 Awareness of issues related to local school law	0	0	1	1,5	4	6,2	14	21,5	17	26,2	29	44,6
8 How to manage food services, custodial and secreterial staff	1	1,5	1	1,5	4	6,3	11	16,9	22	33,8	26	40,0
9 Establish a positive and cooperative relationship with other education officers	2	3,1	2	3,1	0	0	10	15,4	16	24,6	35	53,8

KEY

1 Irrelevant skill; 2 Somewhat unimportant; 3 Fairly important; 4 Somewhat critical; 5 Extremely critical

TABLE 6.18 (Continued)

Skill needed	No response		Responses									
			1		2		3		4		5	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
10 How to determine who is what in the school setting	0	0	0	0	2	3.0	16	24.6	15	23.1	32	49.2
11 Knowing how to relate to school committee members and district office personnel	0	0	1	1.5	2	3.1	13	20.0	20	30.8	29	44.6
12 Knowing where the limits exist within the school and balancing that knowledge with one's professional values	0	0	1	1.5	1	1.5	13	20.0	14	21.5	36	55.4
13 Understanding how the principalship changes family and other personal relationships	0	0	3	4.6	6	9.2	17	26.2	21	32.3	18	27.7
14 Developing interpersonal networking skills that may be used with individuals inside and outside the system	1	1.5	2	3.1	2	3.1	17	26.2	16	24.6	27	44.5
15 Ability to encourage involvement by all parties in the educational community	1	1.5	0	0	2	3.1	10	15.4	23	35.4	29	44.6
16 How to develop positive relationships with other organizations and agencies located in the school's surrounding community	0	0	1	1.5	2	3.1	15	23.1	18	27.7	29	44.6

KEY

1 Irrelevant skill; 2 Somewhat unimportant; 3 Fairly important; 4 Somewhat critical; 5 Extremely critical

TABLE 6.18 (Continued)

Skill needed	No response		Responses									
			1		2		3		4		5	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
17 Demonstrating an awareness of what it means to possess organizational power and authority	1	1.5	1	1.5	4	6.3	18	27.7	14	21.5	27	41.5
18 Demonstrating an awareness of why one was selected for a leadership position in the first place	0	0	9	13.8	10	15.5	13	20.0	14	21.5	19	29.2
19 Portraying a sense of self-confidence on the job	0	0	0	0	1	1.5	9	13.9	11	16.9	44	67.7
20 Having a vision along with an understanding needed to achieve relevant goals	0	0	1	1.5	2	3.2	6	9.2	14	21.5	42	64.6
21 Demonstrating a desire to make a significant difference in the lives of students	0	0	1	1.5	2	3.1	6	9.2	18	27.7	38	58.5
22 Being aware of one's biases, strengths, and weaknesses.	1	1.5	1	1.5	2	3.1	10	15.4	21	32.3	30	46.2
23 Understanding and seeing that change is ongoing, and that it results in continually changing vision of the principalship	0	0	0	0	5	7.7	11	16.9	23	35.4	26	40.0
24 How to assess job responsibilities in terms of the "real role" of the principalship	2	3.1	1	1.5	3	4.6	10	15.4	18	27.7	31	47.7

KEY

1 Irrelevant skill; 2 Somewhat unimportant; 3 Fairly important; 4 Somewhat critical; 5 Extremely critical

6.6.1.1 Technical skills cluster

The technical skills cluster comprises items 1-8. From Table 6.18, it is obvious that an overwhelming majority of the respondents indicate that technical skills are critically important. Each item in this cluster was rated by more than 50% of the respondents as somewhat critical or extremely critical. The rating range falls between 58,4%-87,7% and the three highly rated items include:

* Item C-4: How to develop and monitor a school financial budget (87,7%).

Therefore, it seems that how to develop and monitor a school financial budget is the most important skill for beginning principals as per this study. This needed skill could be attributed to the fact that principals in Kenya are supposed to play a big role in Harambee fund-raising projects which raise finances for school development. This needed skill is supported by what was noted earlier, viz. that organizing Harambee fund-raising is one of the management serious problem facing beginning principals in Kenya (cf. 6.3.3).

* Item C-1: How to evaluate staff (80,%).

How to evaluate staff is rated as the second most important technical skill in this cluster. Evaluation of staff is not only important for effective management purposes but for professional growth as well. Through evaluation, weaknesses and strengths of the staff are detected, hence improvement ideas can be suggested. Lack of feedback from supervisors was noted as a problem that beginning principals face (cf. 6.3.3). Possibly, out of this problem stemming from their supervisors, the respondents feel that they should be equipped to do better.

The above two technical skills, viz. how to develop and monitor a school budget and how to evaluate staff were also rated number one and two by the respondents in Legotlo's (1994) study. Thus, the two studies serve to underscore the importance of these two technical skills for beginning principals in developing countries.

* Item C-8: How to manage food services, custodial and secretarial staff(80,0%).

Managing food service, custodial and secretarial staff was rated the third most important skill. Ironically, the respondents indicated that food service was a minor problem or not a problem for them (cf. 6.3.6). Possibly the respondents feel this skill will be crucial in the future.

Conversely, the lowest-rated item on the cluster is:

- Item C-3: How to design and implement a database improvement process and goalsetting and evaluation (58,4%).

This could be attributed to the strong centralized educational system in Kenya (Mbiti, 1984). Most respondents may not regard designing and implementing a data improvement process as their responsibility but that of the central office.

6.6.1.2 Socialization skills cluster

The socialization skills cluster is identified by items 9-16. These items indicate the kind socialization of skills needed by beginning principals. Table 6.18 demonstrates that the vast majority of the respondents view all socialization skills as somewhat critical or extremely critical for beginning principals. This is shown by the high percentage rating that ranges from 60,% to 80,0%.

The first three items with the highest-rating as the most social critical skills include:

* Item C-15: Ability to encourage involvement by all parties in the educational community (80,0%)

As Table 6.19 illustrates, the most important social skill for beginning principals is how to encourage involvement by all parties in the educational community. The national Kenyan motto, "Harambee", which means *pulling together*, could be ascribed to this high rating on this skill. The principals, as the education leaders in the local community, are not only responsible for instilling this motto in the lives of students but must use it also to mobilize the community to raise money for development of schools in their localities. Most schools in Kenya have sprung up as a result of the spirit embodied in the national motto "Harambee."

* Item C-9: Establishing a co-operative relationship with other educational officers (78,4%).

A healthy relationship with other local school principals is important for a beginning principal for through this relationship he could be helped to grow professionally as well as

socially. Besides, good relationships with educational officers ensure good support on educational programmes and other projects of development.

- Item C-12: Knowing where the limits exist within the school and balancing that knowledge with one's professional life (76,9%).

There are boundaries that exist in all kinds of jobs. Accordingly, beginning principals must know the limits that exist within their schools in order to avoid conflicts inside and outside the school. Such knowledge helps them to function effectively as well.

The respondents also indicate that some social skills are less needed than others. In the social skills cluster, the least rated skills are:

* Item C-13: Understanding how the principalship changes family and other personal relationships (60,0%).

These low rating could be ascribed to what was highlighted earlier, viz. the fact that most principals are promoted internally or are generally posted to schools within their localities (6.3.2). Thus, because of this, principals' responsibilities change very little of the family and other personal relationships. Additionally, the cultural and social settings in which these respondents come from have very strong cohesive social ties that requires one always to belong. Surprisingly, Legotlo's(1994) study indicates that this was the least rated social skill.

6.6.1.3 Self-awareness skills cluster

This is the final cluster of critical skills for beginning principals. Self-awareness skills cluster comprise of items 17-24. Accordingly, the first three-highly rated most important skills from Table 6.18 are:

* Item C-21: Demonstrating a desire to make a significant difference in the lives of the students (86,2%).

Schools exist because of students and therefore to have a desire to make a significant difference in their lives rated as the number one self-awareness skill. This attests to this belief. Additionally, respondents come from cultural settings where education is regarded as the panacea for life. Thus, they see the future of the students as vested in them.

Further, the effectiveness of school principals is measured against the performance of their students in the national examinations.

- Item C-20: Having a vision along with an understanding needed to achieve relevant goals (86,1%).

The importance of having a vision goes along with effective management (cf. 3.11.2). A vision creates and develops a school. Outstanding leaders dream of the future and what it holds for the organization they run. The vision should be communicated to all members of the organization so that it becomes their own. Therefore, beginning principals must come with a vision that will bring a sense of ownership among the members of the school community.

* Item C-19: Portraying a sense of self-confidence on the job (84,6%).

Beginning principals must show confidence in their job. It is by having self-confidence that the members of the organization (school) begin to have confidence in the principal and his managerial capabilities.

The least rated social skills by the respondents is:

* Item C-18: Demonstrating an awareness why one was selected for a leadership position in the first place (50,7%).

Perhaps this low rating on this social skill could be ascribed to the notion that most of the respondents (69,2%) had been deputy principals before assuming the principalship (cf.6.2). As such, they feel that they had been made aware what the principalship is all about and their selection to ascend to that post came as a result of that awareness.

6.6.2 Critical skills as rated by experienced principals

The previous section (cf.6.6.1) gives an overview of the rating of critical skills for beginning principals. This section gives an overview of the rating of critical skills by experienced principals. Their views is discussed against the backdrop of beginning principals' views.

TABLE 6.19 EXPERIENCED PRINCIPALS RATING ON CRITICAL SKILLS FOR BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

	Skill needed	No response		Responses									
				1		2		3		4		5	
		f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
1	How to evaluate the staff	0	0	1	1.3	2	2.6	21	27.3	20	26.0	33	42.9
2	How to facilitate/conduct a group meeting	2	2.6	0	0	2	2.6	20	26.0	20	26.0	33	42.8
3	How to design and implement a databased improvement process for goalsetting and evaluation	2	2.6	1	1.3	2	2.6	15	19.5	19	24.7	38	49.4
4	How to develop and monitor a school financial budget	2	2.6	0	0	1	1.3	6	7.8	11	14.3	57	74.0
5	How to organize and conduct parent-teacher-student conferences	2	2.6	0	0	0	0	26	33.8	25	32.5	24	31.1
6	How to establish a scheduling programme for students and staff	3	3.9	1	1.2	3	3.9	20	26.0	20	26.0	30	39.0
7	Awareness of issues related to local school law	3	3.9	0	0	8	10.3	16	20.8	24	33.8	24	31.2
8	How to manage food services, custodial and secreterial staff	3	3.9	0	0	4	5.1	14	18.2	19	24.7	37	48.1

KEY

1 Irrelevant skill; 2 Somewhat unimportant; 3 Fairly important; 4 Somewhat critical; 5 Extremely critical

TABLE 6.19 (Continued)

Skill needed	No response		Responses									
			1		2		3		4		5	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
9 Establish a positive and cooperative relationship with other education officers	3	3,9	0	0	3	3,9	21	27,3	18	23,4	32	41,5
10 How to determine who is what in the school setting	3	3,9	1	1,3	6	7,8	19	24,7	21	27,3	27	35,0
11 Knowing how to relate to school committee members and district office personnel	3	3,9	0	0	4	5,2	17	22,1	17	22,1	36	46,6
12 Knowing where the limits exist within the school and balancing that knowledge with one's professional values	3	3,9	0	0	4	5,2	19	24,7	18	23,4	33	42,7
13 Understanding how the principalship changes family and other personal relationships	3	3,9	3	3,9	8	10,4	24	31,2	18	23,4	21	27,2
14 Developing interpersonal networking skills that may be used with individuals inside and outside the system	4	5,2	1	1,3	7	9,0	24	31,2	13	16,9	28	36,4
15 Ability to encourage involvement by all parties in the educational community	3	3,9	1	1,3	4	5,2	12	15,6	17	22,1	40	51,9

KEY

1 Irrelevant skill. 2 Somewhat unimportant. 3 Fairly important. 4 Somewhat critical. 5 Extremely critical

TABLE 6.19 (Continued)

Skill needed	No response		Responses									
			1		2		3		4		5	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
16 How to develop positive relationships with other organizations and agencies located in the school's surrounding community	1	1.3	2	2.6	4	5.1	23	29.9	21	27.3	26	33.8
17 Demonstrating an awareness as what it means to possess organizational power and authority	3	3.9	3	3.9	5	6.4	22	28.6	17	22.1	27	35.1
18 Demonstrating an awareness of why one was selected for a leadership position in the first place	3	3.9	8	10.3	10	13.0	17	22.1	17	22.1	22	28.6
19 Portraying a sense of self-confidence on the job	2	2.6	1	1.3	2	2.6	8	10.4	14	18.2	50	64.9
20 Having a vision along with an understanding needed to achieve relevant goals	3	3.9	0	0	3	3.9	8	10.4	18	23.4	45	58.4

KEY

1 Irrelevant skill; 2 Somewhat unimportant; 3 Fairly important; 4 Somewhat critical; 5 Extremely critical

TABLE 6 19 (Continued)

Skill needed	No response		Responses									
			1		2		3		4		5	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
21 Demonstrating a desire to make a significant difference in the lives of students	4	5,2	0	0	0	0	16	20,8	14	18,2	43	55,8
22 Being aware of one's biases, strengths, and weaknesses	3	3,9	0	0	1	1,3	11	14,3	26	33,8	36	46,7
23 Understanding and seeing that change is ongoing, and that it results in continually changing vision of the principalship	3	3,9	0	0	2	2,6	13	16,9	21	27,3	38	49,3
24 How to assess job responsibilities in terms of the "real role" of the principalship	5	6,5	0	0	4	5,2	12	15,6	21	27,3	35	45,4

KEY

1 Irrelevant skill. 2 Somewhat unimportant. 3 Fairly important. 4 Somewhat critical. 5 Extremely critical

Table 6.19 tabulates the views of the experienced principals regarding critical skills. As Table 6.19 shows, more than 50,0% of the respondents indicate that all the critical skills are somewhat critical or extremely critical for beginning principals. The same view is expressed by beginning principals in that they indicated that all the skills are critical for them (cf.6.6.1).

6.6.2.1 Technical skills cluster

Items 1-8 represent the technical skills cluster. Accordingly, the three highly rated technical skills are:

* Item C-4: How to develop and monitor a school financial budget (88,3%).

This technical skill was also rated number one by beginning principals (87,7%) as somewhat critical or extremely critical (cf. 6.6.1.1). Therefore the high ratings of this skill by both beginning and experienced principals show the importance of this skill for an induction programme.

* Item C-3: How to design and implement a database improvement process and goalsetting and evaluation (74,1%).

While experienced principals rated this skills as the second most important skillsfor them, beginning principals rated it as the least important for them. As noted earlier (cf. 6.6.1.1), beginning principals may not see designing and implementing a database as part of their responsibility. However, as time goes on, they begin to realize that it is part of their responsibility, as experienced principals indicate.

* Item C-8: How to manage food service, custodial and secretarial staff (72,8).

Surprisingly, beginning principals (73,8) felt that how to manage food service, custodial and secretarial staff is the third most important technical skill for them as well. Oddly, both beginning and experience principals indicated that the issue of food service was a minor problem or not a problem for them (cf. 6.3.6, & 6.4.6). Thus, the importance of this skills as underscored by both the beginning and experienced principals must be taken into account for an induction programme.

6.6.2.2 Socialization skills cluster

Socialization skills are identified by items 9-16. Experienced principals rated the three most critical socialization skills as:

- Item C-15: Ability to encourage involvement by all parties in the educational community (74,0%).

Beginning principals (80,0%) likewise rated this social skill as the number one (or somewhat or extremely critical) skill for them (cf. 6.6.1.2). Both beginning and experienced principals may be driven by the Kenya national motto "Harambee" to rate this skill as most important (cf. 6.6.1.2). The principals are quite aware that if any kind of development is to be realized in their respective schools, they must mobilize and encourage the participation of the entire community.

- Item C-11: Knowing how to relate to school committee members and district office personnel (cf. 68.9%).

While experienced principals see this socialization skill as the second most important, beginning principals see it as the fourth important skill (cf. 6.6.1.2). For beginning principals, establishing a positive and co-operative relationship with other education officers is the second most important socialization skill (cf. item 9). It should be noted, however, that both items (cf.9 & 11) deal with external relationship skills. Thus, it seems that beginning principals care more about their relationships with other education officers while experienced principals attach importance to school committee and district office personnel office.

- Item C-12: Knowing where the limits exist within the school and balancing that knowledge with one's professional life (66,3%).

This skill is also rated as the third most important skill by 76,9% of beginning principals as somewhat or extremely critical (cf. 6.6.1.2). Thus, the high rating of this skills by both beginning and experience serves to indicate its importance for an induction programme.

Strangely, both beginning principals (60,0%) and experienced principals (50,7%) rate understanding how a principalship changes family and other personal relationships as the least important socialization skill they need (cf. item 13). As was noted earlier, beginning and experienced principals indicate that they have minor problem or no personal problem

including family problems (cf. 6.3.2 & 6.4.2). Therefore, the above low rating serves to support this notion.

6.6.2.3 Self-awareness skills

Self-awareness skills are indicated by items 17-24. Experienced principals rate the three most important self-awareness skills as:

- Item C-19: Portraying a sense of self-confidence on the job (83,1%).

Although experienced principals view this as the first important self-awareness skill for beginning principals, the rating by beginning principals themselves shows that demonstrating a desire to make a significant difference in the lives of students should be first important self-awareness skill for them(cf.6.6.1.3 item 21). The effectiveness of a school principal in Kenya is measured by how well students perform in the national exams (Mbiti, 1984). Therefore beginning principals may feel that the desire to change the students' lives through good performance in national exams will make them be recognized. Experienced principals may have proved this by producing good results and all they need now is the confidence in the job.

- Item C-20: Having a vision along with an understanding needed to achieve relevant goals (81,8%).

Experienced principals felt that this should be the second most important self-awareness skill for beginning principals. Likewise, 86,2% of beginning principals indicate that it should be the second important self-awareness skill for the them as well (cf. 6.6.1.3). As such, this critical skill should be taken into account for an induction programme for beginning principals.

- Item C-22: Being aware of ones biases, strengths and weaknesses.

Self-reflection goes along with effective management. Experienced principals seem to be aware that in order to be effective in their roles, beginning principals must know their biases, strengths and weaknesses. Although beginning principals don't rate this as their third most important self-awareness skill, they rate it as the fourth (cf. 6.6.1.3). Thus, it still implies that it a critically important skill for beginning principals.

Amazingly, both beginning principals (50,7%) and experienced principals (50,7%) rate demonstrating an awareness why one was selected for leadership in the first place as the least desired self-awareness skill (cf. item 18). This could be ascribed to their pre-service experiences which shows that 69,2% of beginning principals and 62,3% of experienced principals had been deputy principals prior to their appointment (cf. 6.2).

6.7 Principals' views on other essential skills

Respondents (both beginning and experienced principals) were asked to give their views on other essential skills for beginning principals. A list of 103 skills were identified by the respondents.

As was observed earlier (cf.6.5), viz. that some of the other problems identified by both beginning and experienced principals had been asked in the questionnaire, the same applies to other skills identified. Therefore, only skills mentioned by three or more respondents and which have not been dealt with in the questionnaire (Appendix A) are outlined below:

- how to be creative economically for the school to overcome financial constraints;
- skills on guidance and counseling;
- understanding the importance of co-curricular pursuits (especially service venture activities) and how to balance them with academic programmes;
- planning skills;
- ability to run events student-centred and not teacher-centred and understanding the difference;
- ability to monitor the setting of internal examination;
- ability to develop ways of achieving job satisfaction;
- understanding and dealing with individual differences; and
- understanding the vital role of prefects and how to select them.

It was further observed from the list of 103 that the commonly mentioned skills for beginning principals were those which are money-related skills. Again, this underscores the enormous financial challenges facing beginning principals in developing countries. Thus, an induction programme must make beginning principal aware of the financial problems as well as equip them with skills on how to cope with these problems.

Financial problems translate easily into other school problems and unless beginning principals are properly equipped to meet these challenges, their early years of principalship can be a nightmare.

In summary, the study has demonstrated that both beginning and experienced principals are aware that novice principals should possess certain knowledge and skills for effective and efficient performance of the principalship role.

The three-skills approach clusters adopted in the analysis of the data direct and guide the contents and structure of designing an induction programme. The importance of all the critical skills for beginning principals has been underscored by the empirical data. Though the analysis of the skills took a separation approach, in practice they are all related.

Therefore, immediately a beginning principal assumes the principalship role, he must conceptualize the mission of the school guided by better human relations thus communicating his vision so that the members of the organization (school) will hear, see and understand it and thus assume ownership of it.

The findings of this study on critical skills are supported by the literature consulted (cf. 3.11.1.1-3.11.1.2). The study of Daresh and Playko (1992b) conducted in the United States and the study of Legotlo (1994) conducted in Bopthwatswana (South Africa) ovelwhelming support the findings of this study on critical skills.

Therefore, unlike most of the problems facing begining principals in developed countries which seem to be uncommon for beginning principals in developing countries, the critical skills seem to be applicable for beginning principals in both developed and developing countries.

6.8 Mean scores on problems facing beginning principals

This section gives a picture of the principals' mean scores and ratings of items on the problems facing beginning principals. The previous sections have demonistrated overwhelmingly that both beginning and experienced principals experience a minor problem or no problems with most of the problems (cf. 6.3.1-6.4.8). Therefore, only items with a mean score of (2,5 and above) and items with (1,5 and below). The 2,5 cut-off indicates the most serious problems experienced and the 1,5 indicates the least serious problems experienced by both groups. The mean scores are rankings are discussed separately in Tables 6.20; 6.21; 6.22; 6.23.

TABLE 6.20 MEAN SCORE IN RANK ORDER ON THE MOST HIGHEST PROBLEMS FACING BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

Rank order	Problem	Question number	Mean score
1	Students who cannot pay school fees	B8.12	3.68
2	Shortage of school equipment	B8.14	3.51
3	Students who cannot buy books	B8.13	3.41
4	Shortage of physical facilities	B8.3	3.40
5	Staff accommodation	B8.4	3.31
6	Installing telephones	B8.6	2.82
7	Parents' literacy	B8.7	2.79
8	Student travelling long distances	B8.5	2.77
9	Lack of playgrounds	B8.15	2.75
10	Use of English as a medium of instruction	B8.21	2.58
11	Running water	B8.2	2.53
12	Locating a suitable social club	B2.5	2.52
13	Inaccessibility of parents	B8.8	2.50

TABLE 6.21 MEAN SCORE IN RANK ORDER ON THE MOST LEAST PROBLEMS FACING BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

Rank order	Problem	Question number	Mean score
1	Setting up school assemblies	B3.11	1.08
2	Relationship with Kenya National Union of teachers (KNUT)	B7.6	1.15
3	Relationship with Teachers Service Commission (TSC)	B7.7	1.17
4	Conducting student meetings	B6.4	1.18
5	Dealing with previous head's influence	B5.5	1.19
6	Relationship with District Education Officer (DEO)	B7.2	1.20
7	Compiling master time-table	B3.10	1.21
8	Relationship with Area Education Officer (AED)	B7.1	1.22
9	Relationship with school inspectors	B7.3	1.23
10	Lack of teaching experience	B1.3	1.24
11	Conducting meetings	B3.21	1.27
12	Relationship with Parent Teacher Ass (PTA)	B7.5	1.29
13	Knowledge of department rules	B7.4	1.37

TABLE 6.21 (Continued)

Rank order	Problem	Question number	Mean score
14	Relationship with School Committee	B1.4	1.38
15	Lack of experience as head of department (HOD)	B6.2	1.40
16	Dealing with gifted students	B1.5	1.43
17	Lack of experience as Deputy Principal	B5.3	1.44
18	Winning trust from staff	B8.20	1.46
19	Dealing with tribal issues	B8.18	1.48
20	Dealing with strikes	B3.9	1.33

TABLE 6 22 EXPERIENCED PRINCIPALS MEAN SCORE IN RANK ORDER ON THE MOST HIGHEST PROBLEMS FACING BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

Rank order	Problem	Question number	Mean score
1	Students who cannot pay school fees	B8.12	3.44
2	Students who cannot buy books	B8.13	3.10
3	Staff accommodation	B8.4	2.98
4	Shortage of school equipment	B8.14	2.78
5	Shortage of physical facilities	B8.3	2.61
6	Lack of playgrounds	B8.15	2.51
7	Use of English as a medium of instruction	B8.21	2.50

6.8.1 Mean scores in rank order on the most serious problems facing beginning principals

The results of the mean score in rank order on the most highest problems facing beginning principals are tabulated in Table 6.20.

As Table 6.20 shows, there are thirteen (13) items with a high mean score of 2,5 and above. A high mean score means that the intensity of the problem to beginning principals is high. Thus, the higher the mean score (maximum 4,0) the higher the magnitude of the problem.

According to Table 6.20 the first pressing problem facing beginning principals is students who cannot pay school fees (3,68 mean score) while inaccessibility of parents is at the bottom of the list (2,50 mean score).

The findings on Table 6.20 are supported by the literature referred to in chapter 3. The literature (cf. 3.3.1-3.13.3) revealed that beginning principals in developing countries are faced with unique challenges including financial problems which make their jobs unmanageable. More so, Legotlo's (1994) study shows that these problems were also highly rated in his study.

6.8.2 Mean score in rank order on the least serious problems facing beginning principals

Beginning principals' mean score in rank order on the least serious problems are shown in Table 6.21. Problems shown are those with a mean score of (1,5 and below). By least experienced problems it means that the intensity of the problem facing beginning principal poses no threat to their leadership. Therefore, the lower the mean score (minimum 0,0) the least the intensity of the problem experienced.

From Table 6.21, it is clear that at the top of the twenty (20) least experienced problems is setting up school assemblies (with a mean score of 1,08). This could be ascribed to the suggestion that most beginning principals' job responsibilities when they were deputy principals may have included, among other things, setting up school assemblies.

The findings in Table 6.21 are, however, not supported by the literature study consulted which indicates that beginning principals face serious challenges on some of the issues listed in this table (cf. 3.6; 3.9.3).

6.8.3 Experienced principals' mean score in rank order on the most serious problems facing beginning principals

This section discusses the mean score of experienced principals against the views of beginning principals and the literature study.

The results of the mean score in rank order on the most highest problems facing experienced principals are demonstrated in Table 6.22. As this table shows, seven (7) items are said to have a mean score of 2,5 and above. This means that these are the most problematic issues facing experienced principals.

At the top of the list is students who cannot pay school fees (with a mean score of 3,44) while at the bottom is use of English as medium of instruction (with a mean score of 2,50). As was pointed out (Kitavi, 1993) English as a medium of instruction is extensively used in Kenyan schools. This study reveals, however, that it is ranked among the most problematic issues facing both beginning and experienced principals in Kenya.

As noted earlier (cf. 6.3.8; 6.4.8) most of the problems facing principals in developing countries are finance-related problems. This seems to be further reinforced by the ranking of these problems by both beginning and experienced principals. Principals are expected by the system to ensure that students pay their fees and that they buy books. Thus, for students coming from poor families these problems create not only a management problem but both moral and ethical problems for beginning principals.

Experienced principals' views on the above highly ranked problematic issues are supported by beginning principals views and literature consulted (cf. 6.8.1; 3.12.1-3.13.3).

6.8.4 Experienced principals mean score in rank order on the least serious problems facing beginning principals

Table 6.23 displays the least seirous problems facing experienced principals. According to Table 6.23, the least severe problem facing experienced principals is setting up assemblies (which has a mean score of 1,05). Surprisingly, beginning principals ranked setting up assemblies as the least severe problem facing them (by a mean score of 1,08), while dealing with strikes meets the lowest cut-off mean score for both.

TABLE 6.23 EXPERIENCED PRINCIPALS MEAN SCORE IN RANK ORDER ON THE MOST LEAST PROBLEMS FACING BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

Rank order	Problem	Question number	Mean score
1	Setting up school assemblies	B3.11	1.05
2	Relationship with Area Education Officer (AEO)	B7.1	1.09
3	Locating a suitable social club	B2.5	1.10
4	Realtionship with District Education Officer (DEO)	B7.2	1.14
5	Conducting meetings	B3.21	1.17
6	Compiling master time-table	B3.10	1.18
7	Budgeting school finance	B3.6	1.21
7	Relationship with school inspectors	B7.3	1.21
9	Relationship with Parent Teacher Association (PTA)	B7.5	1.22
10	Relationship with Teacher Service Commission (TSC)	B7.7	1.23

TABLE 6.23 (Continued)

Rank order	Problem	Question number	Mean score
11	Relationship with school committee	B7.4	1.24
12	Appropriateness of formal academic training	B1.1	1.26
13	Locating a church belonging to your denomination	B2.3	1.29
14	Ordering school equipment	B3.12	1.30
14	Lack of teaching experience	B1.3	1.30
16	Knowledge of department rules	B3.9	1.32
16	Dealing with tribal issues	B8.20	1.32
18	Lack of feedback from supervisors	B3.1	1.35
18	Relationship with Kenya National Union of teachers (KNUT)	B7.6	1.35
20	Lack of mailing facilities	B8.10	1.36

TABLE 6.23 (Continued)

Rank order	Problem	Question number	Mean score
21	Conducting student meetings	B6.4	1.37
22	Understand your role as school principal	B3.2	1.39
23	Delegating responsibilities	B3.4	1.40
23	Party politics	B7.10	1.40
23	Social relationships inside the school	B3.20	1.40
26	Dealing with religious issues	B7.11	1.44
27	Lack of experience as acting principal	B1.6	1.47
27	Liaison problems	B7.9	1.47
29	Political unrest	B8.17	1.48
30	Fear of being held accountable	B3.5	1.49
31	Lack of experience as deputy principal	B1.5	1.50
31	Housing for your family	B2.1	1.50
31	Dealing with strikes	B8.18	1.50

It seems rather strange that these principals should consider dealing with strikes among the least severe problems facing them when in essence an average of about one strike is reported for every four days of school year in Kenya (Griffin, 1994:1). Moreover, seventy-six (76) incidents of strikes were reported in 1993.

All in all, the findings of this study are not supported by the literature consulted which reveals that some of these problems are among the serious ones facing beginning principals (cf. 3.3.5; 3.6.1-3.6.2; 3.9.3).

6.9 Mean scores on critical skills

This section discusses the mean scores' ranking on critical skills by both groups. The question that may be raised is this "If problems identified by the literature (cf. 3.2.1-3.9.5) are not generally the problems facing beginning principals in developing countries (cf. 6.3.1-6.4.8) how about critical skills for them?"

The answer to this question is provided by the mean score ranking of the two groups (illustrated by Tables 6.24 & 25).

6.9.1 Beginning principals' means score in rank order of the critical skills

Table 6.24 summarizes the views of beginning principals on the importance of these critical skills. Thus, from this table, it seems that the overwhelming majority of beginning principals indicate that all skills are important just as they indicated earlier (cf. 6.6.1-6.6.1.3). Therefore, no cut-off point will be used for critical skills' mean scores rating.

From Table 6.24, it can be deduced that all the skills are considered critically important for beginning principals. As such, the first five highly ranked and the last five lowest ranked are highlighted and briefly discussed in light of the three skills approach, viz. technical, socialization and self-awareness (cf. 3.11.1-3.11.3).

TABLE 6.24 MEAN SCORE IN RANK ORDER ON THE CRITICAL SKILLS FOR BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

Rank order	Skill needed	Question number	Mean score
1	How to develop and monitor a school financial budget	C4	4.67
2	Awareness of issues related to local school law	C7	4.61
3	Portraying a sense of self-confidence on the job	C19	4.50
4	Having a vision along with an understanding needed to achieve relevant goals	C20	4.44
5	Demonstrating a desire to make a significant difference in the life of students	C21	4.38
6	Establishing a positive and cooperative relationship with other education officers	C9	4.30
7	How to design and implement a databased improvement process for goals setting and evaluation	C3	4.28
8	How to evaluate the staff	C1	4.27
9	Knowing where the limits exist within the school and balancing that knowledge with one's professional values	C12	4.27
10	Ability to encourage involvement by all parties in the educational community	C15	4.23
11	Being aware of one's biases, strengths and weeknessess	C22	4.20
12	How to assess job responsibilities in terms of the "Real role" of the principalship	C24	4.19

TABLE 6.24 (Continued)

Rank order	Skill needed	Question number	Mean score
13	How to determine who is what in the school setting	C10	4.18
14	Knowing how to relate to school committee members and district office personnel	C11	4.14
15	How to develop positive relationships with other organizations and agencies located in the school's surrounding community	C16	4.10
16	Understanding and seeing that change is ongoing, and that it results in continually changing vision of the principalship	C23	4.08
17	How to manage food services, custodial and secreterial staff	C8	4.06
18	How to establish a scheduling programme for students and staff	C6	4.06
19	How to organize and conduct parent-teacher-student conference	C5	4.02
20	How to facilitate/conduct a group meeting	C2	4.00
21	Developing interpersonal networking skills that may be used with individuals inside and outside the system	C14	4.00
22	Demonstrating an awareness of what it means to possess organizational power and authority	C17	3.96
23	Understanding how the principalship changes family and other personal relationships	C13	3.69
24	Demonstrating an awareness of why one was selected for leadership position in the first place	C18	3.36

For beginning principals, the first three highly ranked items are:

1 Item C-4: How to develop and monitor school financial budgets (4,67).

2 Item C-7: Awareness of issues related to school law (4,61).

3 Item C-19: Portraying a sense of self-confidence on the job (4,50).

4 Item C-20: Having a vision along with an understanding needed to achieve relevant goals (4,44).

5 Item C-21: Demonstrating a desire to make a significant difference in the lives of students (4,38)

The first two highly ranked items belong to the technical skills cluster. This implies further that technical skills are critically important for beginning principals (cf. 3.11.1.1).

The next three highly ranked skills (cf. items 19,20 &21) are part of the self-awareness skills cluster. As noted earlier, self-awareness skills are important for they enable school principals to see the whole picture of the school and the relationship between and among its various parts (cf. 3.11.1.3).

On the other hand, the five lowest ranked skills are:

24 Item C-18: Demonstrating an awareness of why one was selected for the leadership position (3,36).

23 Item C-13: Understanding how the principalship changes family and other personal relationships (3,69).

22 Item C-17: Demonstrating an awareness of what it means to possess an organizational power and authority (3,96).

20 Item C-14: Developing interpersonal networking skills that may be used with individuals inside and outside the system (4,00).

20 Item C-2: How to facilitate/conduct a group meeting (4,00).

From the above five lowest ranked items, it is observed that two (cf. items C-18 & C-17) belong to the self-awareness skills cluster, two (cf.items C-13 & C-14) belong to the socialization skills cluster and one (cf. item C-2) belongs to technical skills cluster.

By and large, it is obvious that beginning principals find all the critical skills necessary and critically important for their survival as school managers. The literature consulted (cf. 3.11.1-3.11.3), the study of Legotlo (1994) and the high mean scores give credence to that.

6.9.2 Experienced principals' mean score in rank order of the critical skills

Table 6.25 gives an overview of the mean scores' rating of experienced principals on critical skills for beginning principals. Their mean scores are thus discussed against the background of the literature study and beginning principals' views.

As Table 6.25 illustrates, all skills are deemed critically essential by experienced principals as well. The highest mean score is 4,65 while the lowest mean score is 3,47. Therefore, experienced principals appear to consider all these skills necessary and vital for beginning principals. Their views are substantiated by the literature study and beginning principals' rankings on critical skills (cf. 3.11.1-3.11.3; 6.92)

Consequently, the first five highest ranked and the last five least ranked items will be briefly discussed in the light of the three skills approach and beginning principals' ranking.

From Table 6.25, it appears that the first five highly ranked items include:

1 Item C-4: How to develop and monitor a school financial budget (4,65).

2 Item C-19: Portraying a sense of confidence on the job (4,46).

3 Item C-20: Having a vision along with an understanding needed to achieve relevant goals (4,41.)

4 Item C-21: Demonstrating a desire to make a significant difference in the lives of students (4,36).

5 Item C-22: Being aware of one's biases, strengths and weakness (4,31).

TABLE 6.25 EXPERIENCED PRINCIPALS MEAN SCORE IN RANK ORDER ON THE CRITICAL SKILLS FOR BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

Rank order	Skill needed	Question number	Mean score
1	How to develop and monitor a school financial budget	C4	4.65
2	Portraying a sense of self-confidence on the job	C19	4.46
3	Having a vision along with an understanding needed to achieve relevant goals	C20	4.41
4	Demonstrating a desire to make a significant difference in the lives of students	C21	4.36
5	Being aware of one's biases, strengths and weaknesses	C22	4.31
6	Understanding and seeing that change is ongoing, and that it results in continually changing vision of the principalship	C23	4.28
7	Ability to encourage involvement by all parties in the educational community	C15	4.23
8	How to assess job responsibilities in terms of the "Real role" of the principalship	C24	4.21
8	How to design and implement a data based improvement process for goal setting and evaluation	C3	4.21
10	How to manage food services, custodial and secreterial staff	C8	4.20
11	Knowing how to relate to school committee members and district office personnel	C11	4.14
12	How to facilitate/conduct a group meeting	C2	4.14

TABLE 6.25 (Continued)

Rank order	Skill needed	Question number	Mean score
13	Knowing where the limits exist within the school and balancing that knowledge with one's professional values	C12	4.08
14	Establishing a positive and cooperative relationship with other education officers	C9	4.07
15	How to evaluate the staff	C1	4.06
16	How to establish a scheduling programme for students and staff	C6	4.01
17	How to organize and conduct a parent-teacher-student conference	C5	3.97
18	How to determine who is what in the school setting	C10	3.90
19	Awareness of issues related to local school law	C7	3.87
20	How to develop positive relationships with other organizations and agencies located in the school's surrounding community	C16	3.85
21	Developing interpersonal networking skills that may be used with individuals inside and outside the system	C14	3.82
22	Demonstrating an awareness of what it means to possess organizational power and authority	C17	3.81
23	Understanding how the principalship changes family and other personal relationships	C13	3.62
24	Demonstrating an awareness of why one was selected for leadership position in the first place	C18	3.47

In the light of the three skills approach, four out of the five items (cf. item C-2-4) with the highest mean score appear to fall under self-awareness skills cluster. The item ranked first (cf. C-4) falls under the technical skills cluster.

Although technical skill is ranked first, it appears that experienced principals feel that self-awareness skills are more critical for beginning principals. Beginning principals expressed the same view by ranking three skills out of the first five under the self-awareness cluster (cf. 6.9.1). Thus, the ability to conceptualize the school, the district, the province and the educational system as a whole is seen as critical or extremely critical for beginning principals.

Furthermore, it appears from Table 6.25 that the five items ranked lowest include:

24 Item C-18: Demonstrating an awareness of why one was selected for leadership in the first place (3,47).

23 Item C-13: Understanding how the principalship changes family and other personal relationships (3,62).

22 Item C-17: Demonstrating an awareness of what it means to possess organizational power and authority (3,81).

21 Item C-14: Developing interpersonal networking skills that may be used with individuals inside and outside the system (3,82).

20 Item C-16: How to develop positive relationships with other organizations and agencies located in the school's surrounding community (3,85).

From the three skills approach point of view, three of the five lowest ranked skills (cf. Items C-13; C-14; & C-16) by experienced principals are socialization skills, while the other two (cf.Items C-18 & C-17) are self-awareness skills. Beginning principals ranked their lowest skills mostly as belonging to the self-awareness and socialization skills clusters as well (cf. 3.9.1).

TABLE 6.26: A COMPARISON OF THE OVERALL RANKINGS OF CRITICAL SKILLS BY BOTH BEGINNING AND EXPERIENCED PRINCIPALS

Category	Beginning principals' ranking	Experienced principals' ranking
Technical skills	2	2
Socialization skills	3	3
Self-awareness skills	1	1

6.9.3 A comparison of the overall rankings of critical skill by both beginning and experienced principals

Table 6.26 shows a comparison of the overall rankings of the two groups in terms of the three major sub-scales of the critical skills, viz. technical skills, socialization skills and self-awareness skills.

It is obviously clear from Table 6.26 that the overall rankings of the critical skills by the two groups are the same. Thus, the rank order according to both groups shows that self-awareness skills are more important for both groups, followed by technical skills, then socialization skills last. This overall ranking of the two groups is also supported by Legotlo's (1994) study which focused on developing countries (Bopthwatswana) in South Africa.

In summary, although both groups in general agree on the highly and low rated skills, it appears that self-awareness skills are deemed more critical for beginning principals, followed by technical and social skills last. However, the importance of all skills including, technical, socialization and self-awareness skills as revealed by this study and supported by the literature study including Legotlo's (1994)study cannot be over-emphasized (cf. 3.11.1-3.11.3).

Therefore, while beginning principals find no problem with most of the problems discussed in the literature study (cf.chapter 3), it is clear that the findings of this study indicate that the critical skills discussed in the literature study are what beginning principals need.

The critical skills findings help the design and the implementation of an induction programme in that they inform the designers of what skills to include either in-service training programmes, seminars, conferences or workshops on induction programmes.

6.10 Interpretation of differences in responses between beginning and experienced principals

In order to gain a picture of the differences in responses of the beginning and experienced principals in each item of the survey the **t-test, p-value** and **d- value(effect size)** were computed (Table 6.27).

TABLE 6.27: DIFFERENCES IN RESPONSES BETWEEN BEGINNING AND EXPERIENCED PRINCIPALS ON PROBLEMS FACING BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

Item	Beginning principals mean score $\bar{X}_1$	Experienced principals mean score $\bar{X}_2$	$\bar{S}_1$	$\bar{S}_2$	t	p-value	d-value
1.1 Appropriateness of formal academic training	1.774	1.260	0.497	0.559	-0.904	0.368	
1.2 Appropriateness of formal education in management training	1.730	1.915	0.865	0.890	-1.221	0.224	
1.3 Lack of teaching experience	1.238	1.304	0.689	0.773	-0.521	0.604	
1.4 Lack of experience as head of department	1.3667	1.565	0.688	0.831	-1.484	0.140	
1.5 Lack of experience as deputy principal	1.426	1.537	0.784	0.765	-0.809	0.419	
1.6 Lack of experience as acting principal	1.758	1.471	0.824	0.675	2.169	x 0.032	• 0.35
2.1 Housing for your family	2.000	1.500	1.208	0.983	2.640	xx 0.009	• 0.413
2.2 Locating a school for your children	2.359	1.676	1.277	1.021	3.436	xx 0.001	•• 0.532
2.3 Locating a church belonging to your denomination	1.500	1.297	0.976	0.735	1.360	0.176	
2.4 Locating comprehensive health care	2.250	1.932	1.141	1.051	1.691	0.093	

• Small effect size
•• Medium effect size
x P< 0.05
xx P< 0.01

TABLE 6.27 (Continued)

Item	Beginning principals mean score $\bar{X}_1$	Experienced principals mean score $\bar{X}_2$	$\bar{S}_1$	$\bar{S}_2$	t	p-value	d-value
2.5 Locating a suitable social club	2.515	2.109	1.259	1.208	1.918	0.057	
2.6 Making new friends	1.538	1.600	0.792	0.944	-0.419	0.676	
3.1 Lack of feedback from supervisors	2.339	2.356	1.023	1.005	-0.099	0.920	
3.2 Understanding your role as a school principal	1.444	1.392	0.736	0.679	0.432	0.667	
3.3 Meeting job demands	2.172	1.959	0.935	0.957	1.316	1.313	
3.4 Delegating responsibilities	1.594	1.400	0.750	0.678	1.587	0.115	
3.5 Fear of being held accountable	1.532	1.493	0.863	0.860	0.263	0.793	
3.6 Budgeting school finance	2.359	2.212	1.059	1.024	0.841	0.402	
3.7 Controlling school finance	2.031	1.933	0.975	0.890	0.614	0.540	
3.8 Handling legal issues	2.444	2.307	1.044	1.090	0.757	0.451	

TABLE 6.27 (Continued)

Item	Beginning principals mean score $\bar{X}_1$	Experienced principals mean score $\bar{X}_2$	$\bar{S}_1$	$\bar{S}_2$	t	p-value	d-value
3.9 Knowledge of department rules	1.333	1.320	0.596	0.596	0.131	0.896	
3.10 Compiling master time-table	1.219	1.189	0.487	0.428	0.376	0.379	
3.11 Setting up school assemblies	1.078	1.053	0.324	0.226	0.515	0.608	
3.12 Ordering school equipment	1.516	1.307	0.805	0.636	1.665	0.099	
3.13 Record keeping	1.719	1.592	0.745	0.715	1.021	0.309	
3.14 Operating school equipment	1.922	1.764	0.981	0.796	1.023	0.308	
3.15 Organizing Harambee fund-raising	2.548	2.500	1.003	1.113	0.267	0.790	
3.16 Managing one's own time	1.750	1.703	0.926	0.839	0.312	0.755	
3.17 Lack of sufficient time	2.16	2.080	1.042	0.941	0.449	0.654	
3.18 Too much administrative work	2.297	2.360	1.049	0.968	-0.366	0.713	

TABLE 6.27 (Continued)

Item	Beginning principals mean score $\bar{X}_1$	Experienced principals mean score $\bar{X}_2$	$\bar{S}_1$	$\bar{S}_2$	t	p-value	d-value
3.19 Getting information about the school	1.746	1.707	0.761	0.867	0.284	0.777	
3.20 Social relationships inside the school	1.547	1.405	0.754	0.547	1.244	0.216	
3.21 Conducting meetings	1.266	1.173	0.597	0.446	1.017	0.311	
3.22 Handling stress	1.875	1.893	0.934	0.894	-0.118	0.907	
4.1 Recruitment of teachers	2.145	2.108	0.956	1.028	0.218	0.828	
4.2 Appointment of teachers	2.066	1.878	1.014	0.906	1.119	0.265	
4.3 Inducting (helping) new teachers	1.524	1.703	0.800	0.754	-1.339	0.183	
4.4 Classroom supervision of teachers	2.063	1.947	0.957	0.781	0.770	0.443	
4.5 Dealing with incompetent teachers	2.313	2.427	1.037	0.918	-0.682	0.497	
4.6 Handling teacher absenteeism	2.109	2.013	0.928	0.808	0.648	0.518	

TABLE 6.27 (Continued)

Item	Beginning principals mean score $\bar{X}_1$	Experienced principals mean score $\bar{X}_2$	$\bar{S}_1$	$\bar{S}_2$	t	p-value	d-value
4.7 Disciplining teachers	2.206	2.040	0.986	0.923	1.017	0.311	
4.8 Transfers of teachers	2.190	2.222	1.148	1.028	-0.178	0.859	
5.1 Working with incompetent members of senior management team	2.082	2.219	0.936	1.017	-0.812	0.418	
5.2 Working with uncooperative teachers	2.269	2.280	1.019	0.924	-0.061	0.952	
5.3 Winning trust from staff	1.444	1.493	0.589	0.623	-0.473	0.637	
5.4 Motivating staff	1.844	1.699	0.821	0.739	1.081	0.282	
5.5 Dealing with previous head's influence	2.188	1.739	1.052	0.799	2.774	xx 0.007	●● 0.563
5.6 Managing conflict	1.953	1.840	0.722	0.736	0.912	0.363	
5.7 Managing change	2.047	1.934	0.825	0.822	0.806	0.421	
5.8 Managing resistance to change	2.297	2.197	0.903	0.834	0.673	0.502	

● Small effect size
●● Medium effect size
x P< 0.05
xx P< 0.01

TABLE 6.27 (Continued)

Item	Beginning principals mean score $\bar{X}_1$	Experienced principals mean score $\bar{X}_2$	$\bar{S}_1$	$\bar{S}_2$	t	p-value	d-value
6.1 Dealings with students with special needs	2.048	2.247	0.923	0.795	-1.335	0.184	
6.2 Dealing with gifted students	1.397	1.547	0.583	0.703	-1.369	0.173	
6.3 Dealing with student meetings	1.937	2.066	0.878	0.884	-0.862	0.391	
6.4 Conducting student meetings	1.175	1.373	0.422	0.652	-2.153	x 0.033	● 0.306
6.5 Lack of a learning culture	2.516	2.382	1.127	1.006	0.732	0.466	
6.6 Dormitory issues	1.893	1.957	0.928	0.908	-0.390	0.697	
6.7 Food service	1.783	1.957	0.825	1.028	-1.069	0.287	
6.8 Sexual misconduct	1.754	1.541	0.767	0.627	1.729	0.087	
6.9 Student absenteeism	2.375	2.013	1.016	0.797	2.307	x 0.023	● 0.364
6.10 Overage students	1.597	1.536	0.711	0.632	0.512	0.609	

● Small effect size
●● Medium effect size
x P< 0.05
xx P< 0.01

TABLE 6.27 (Continued)

Item	Beginning principals mean score $\bar{X}_1$	Experienced principals mean score $\bar{X}_2$	$\bar{S}_1$	$\bar{S}_2$	t	p-value	d-value
7.1 Relationship with Area Education Officer (AEO)	1.219	1.093	0.519	0.293	1.716	0.089	
7.2 Relationship with District Education Officer (DEO)	1.203	1.147	0.539	0.425	0.677	0.500	
7.3 Relationship with school inspectors	1.125	1.213	0.378	0.552	-1.113	0.268	
7.4 Relationship with school committee	1.365	1.240	0.629	0.460	1.309	0.193	
7.5 Relationship Relationship with Parent Teacher Association (PTA)	1.297	1.229	0.659	0.484	0.673	0.502	
7.6 Relationship with Kenya National Union of Teachers (KNUT)	1.150	1.356	0.481	0.856	-1.749	0.083	
7.7 Relationship with Teachers Service Commission (TSC)	1.172	1.237	0.489	0.513	-0.765	0.446	
7.8 Parental problems	2.000	1.947	0.909	0.922	0.339	0.735	
7.9 Liaison problems	1.565	1.473	0.716	0.624	0.787	0.433	
7.10 Party politics	1.571	1.405	0.911	0.618	1.227	0.223	

TABLE 6.27 (Continued)

Item	Beginning principals mean score $\bar{X}_1$	Experienced principals mean score $\bar{X}_2$	$\bar{S}_1$	$\bar{S}_2$	t	p-value	d-value
7.11 Dealing with religious issues	1.578	1.440	0.813	0.642	1.099	0.274	
8.1 Flushing toilets	2.086	2.329	1.261	1.139	-1.131	0.260	
8.2 Running water	2.524	2.417	1.219	1.148	0.523	0.602	
8.3 Shortage of physical facilities	3.406	2.618	0.706	1.032	5.333	xx 0.001	●● 0.767
8.4 Staff accommodation	3.313	2.986	0.906	0.999	2.009	x 0.047	● 0.320
8.5 Students travelling long distances	2.766	2.329	1.649	1.081	2.265	x 0.025	● 0.378
8.6 Installing telephones	2.828	2.067	1.893	1.131	3.848	xx 0.002	●● 0.639
8.7 Parents' literacy	2.797	2.427	1.011	1.016	2.148	x 0.034	● 0.364
8.8 Inaccessibility of parents	2.484	2.147	1.098	0.968	1.907	0.059	
8.9 Geographical location of the school	2.203	1.560	1.086	0.889	3.778	0.000	●● 0.589

● Small effect size
●● Medium effect size
x P< 0.05
xx P< 0.01

TABLE 6.27 (Continued)

Item	Beginning principals mean score $\bar{X}_1$	Experienced principals mean score $\bar{X}_2$	$\bar{S}_1$	$\bar{S}_2$	t	p-value	d-value
8.10 Lack of mailing facilities	1.688	1.360	0.906	0.709	2.342	x 0.021	● 0.364
8.11 Lack of administrative staff	1.984	1.800	0.882	0.869	1.236	0.219	
8.12 Students cannot pay school fees	3.677	3.442	0.533	0.752	2.174	x 0.032	● 0.319
8.13 Students who cannot buy books	3.477	3.108	0.812	1.001	2.396	0.018	● 0.380
8.14 Shortage of school equipment	3.508	2.787	0.687	0.949	5.194	xx 0.001	●● 0.759
8.15 Lack of playgrounds	2.754	2.280	1.061	1.047	2.651	xx 2.65	● 0.442
8.16 Shortage of teachers	2.415	2.093	1.029	0.989	1.881	0.062	
8.17 Political unrest	1.569	1.480	0.901	0.811	0.612	0.542	
8.18 Dealing with strikes	1.484	1.507	0.756	0.778	-0.171	0.865	
8.19 Overcrowded classrooms	1.563	1.933	0.794	0.949	-2.508	x 0.013	● 0.389
8.20 Dealing with tribal issues	1.462	1.320	0.772	0.701	1.129	0.261	
8.21 Use of English as a medium of instruction	2.585	2.480	1.144	1.189	0.529	0.597	

● Small effect size. ●● Medium effect size

x P< 0.05.

xx P< 0.01

6.10.1 The t-test

The **t-test** is usually used to find the significance of the difference between means of two samples (Ary et al., 1976). In this study the **t-test** was computed to find the significance of the differences between the means of the two samples used in this study (beginning and experienced secondary school principals).

6.10.2 The p-value

The **p-value** indicates whether there are statistically significant differences between the two means of the samples (Ary et al., 1976). In this study a **p-value** of less than **0,05** indicates that there are statistically significant differences between the two means of the samples (beginning and experienced principals).

A statistically significant difference means that the differences between means of samples are not due to chance or coincidence but point towards a real difference between the population means (Ary et al., 1976).

6.10.3 The d-value (effect size)

The **d-value (effect size)** indicates the practically significant difference between two groups (Cohen, 1988). The **d-value (effect size)** is the quantitative way of describing how differently beginning principals view the problems facing them and the critical skills they need relative to experienced principals views.

In this study, in order to compare the views of beginning principals with those of experienced principals, the **d-value (effect size)** was computed using the following formula (Cohen, 1988):

$$\mathbf{d} = \frac{\bar{X}1 - \bar{X}2}{Sd\,\max}$$

where:

$\bar{\mathbf{X}}\mathbf{1}$ = the mean of beginning principals
$\bar{\mathbf{X}}\mathbf{2}$ = the mean of experienced principals
Sd max = the maximum standard deviation (of either beginning or experienced principals)
d = the effect size

In order to interpret the **d-value (effect size)** the following guidelines were adopted (Cohen, 1988).

d= 0,2 (small effect)
d= 0,5 (medium effect)
d= 0,8 (large effect)

6.10.4 Differences in responses between beginning and experienced principals on problems

From Table 6.27 it is clear that the responses between the groups overwhelmingly indicate that there are a few statistically significant differences which are not practically significant. However, a few of the responses on some problems do indicate either a small or a medium statistically and practically significant difference. Therefore, the responses which indicate either a small or a medium practical significant difference are highlighted and discussed.

It should also be noted that practical significance makes sense when a result has statistical significant. Therefore, **d-values** are only displayed in Table 6.27 in cases where **p < 0,05.**

6.10.4.1 Responses with small effect size

Table 6.27 indicates that there is a small practically significant difference between the responses of the two groups in the following problems:

* Item B-1.6: Lack of experience as acting principal (t=2,169; p = 0,032; d= 0,35).

* Item B-2.1: Housing for your family (t=2,640; p = 0,009; d= 0,413).

* Item B-6.4: Conducting student meetings (t= -2,153; p = 0,033; d = 0,306).

* Item B-6.9: Student absenteeism (t=2,307; p 0,023; d = 0,364).

* Item B-8.4: Staff accommodation (t=2,009 p; 0,047; d = 0,320).

* Item B-8.5: Students travelling long distances (t=2,265; p=0,025; d= 0,378).

* Item B-8.7: Parents' illiteracy (t=0,364; p=0,034; d= 0,364).

* Item B.8.10: Lack of mailing facilities(t=2,342; p=0,021; d= 0,364).

* Item B-8.12: Students who cannot pay school fees (t=2,174; p =0,032; d = 0,313).

* Item B-8.13: Students who cannot buy books(t=2,396; p=0,018; d= 0,380).

* Item B-8.15: Lack of playgrounds (t=2,651; p=0,009; d=0,442).

* Item B-8.19: Overcrowded classrooms (t=2,508; p=0,013 d= 0,389).

Although there is only a small practically significant difference between the two groups, the challenges facing beginning principals on all of the above problems cannot be ignored.

6.10.4.2 Responses with medium effect size

Table 6.27 shows that there is a statistically practically significant difference of medium effect size between the responses of the two groups on some problems. These problems with medium effect size are highlighted and discussed:

* Item B-2.2: Locating a school for your children (t=3,436; p=0,532; d= 0,532).

As Table 6.27 indicates, beginning principals experience more problems locating schools for their children than experienced principals. Possibly, this difference could be ascribed to the younger families of beginning principals. Table 6.1 (cf.6.2) shows that the majority of beginning principals (75,4%) are in the age group of 31-45 while the majority of experienced principals (78,0) are in the age group of 36-50. The majority of beginning principals (87,7%) are married as well (cf.6.2). This implies that many of them have young school-age children and that may not be the case with experienced principals whose children could be grown-ups and out of school.

* Item B-5.2: Dealing with previous head's influence (t=2,774; p = 0,007; d= 0,563).

From Table 6.26 it is clear that there is a medium practically significant difference between the beginning principals and experience principals in dealing with previous head's

influence. Although it was noted earlier (cf.6.3.2) that internal promotions and postings to manage local schools are common practice in Kenya, it was also discovered during the field study that transfers, particularly of beginning principals who have been posted to schools in other districts, are very frequent as well.

Additionally, Griffin (1994) points out that there are too frequent transfers in Kenyan schools and this hampers the effectiveness of most beginning and experienced principals.

Too many managerial replacements in too brief a period could be disruptive. This seems to be borne out by the responses of four beginning principals who mentioned to the researcher during the field study that they had been transferred two times within a period of three years. And since stepping into someone else's school can often be a problem, a review of the leaders' succession literature from a variety of fields conclude that the personality and style of a predecessor can create lasting effects, making changes by a successor difficult to achieve (Gordon & Rose, 1981).

* Item B-8.3: Shortage of physical facilities($t=5,333$; $p = 0,0001$; $d= 0,767$).

* Item B-8.6: Installing telephones($t=3,848$; $p= 0,0002$; $d = 0,639$).

* Item B-8.9: Geographical location of the school ($t=3,778$; $p =0002$; $d= 0,589$).

* Item B-8.14: Shortage of school equipment($t=5,194$; $p = 0,0001$; $d = 0,759$).

Table 6.27 further shows that there is a medium practically significant difference in the above four mentioned items between the two groups. The four items are interwoven and interconnected. Therefore, the reasons for the medium practically significant difference are deemed the same and as such they will be dealt with collectively.

As was noted in Table 6.1 (cf.6.2), the majority of beginning principals' schools (80,0%) are in the rural areas as opposed to 53,2% of rural schools run by experienced principals. Additionally, Table 6.1 (cf. 6.2) shows further that most of beginning principals' schools are Harambee (56,9%) compared to 22,1%)of Harambee schools run by experienced principals.

Therefore, this implies that beginning principals whose schools are mostly in the rural areas experience a lot of problems typical of rural areas in developing countries, including poor infrastructure, which makes communication for them difficult (cf. 3.12). It was

realized during the field study that the majority of beginning principals' schools in the rural areas had no telephone and therefore they could only be reached by mail during the follow-ups. This was not the case with experienced principals for most of them were contacted through by telephone during the follow-ups.

Additionally, it was pointed out that unlike government schools, Harambee schools in Kenya do not receive funding from the government (cf. 6.3; 6.4). As such, it is the responsibility of the local communities to raise money not only for physical facilities, but for the school equipment as well.

Therefore since most of the parents in these rural areas are of a low socio-economic status, this creates a problem for most beginning principals running schools in the rural areas. As a result, beginning principals must not only deal with parents and communities who can ill afford to raise money for physical facilities and school equipment but they must contend with parents who cannot pay school fees and buy books for their children as well (cf. 3.12; 6.3.8; 6.4.8).

6.10.5 Differences in responses between beginning and experienced principals on critical skills

The **t-test, p-value** and **d-value (effect size)** were also used to compute the difference in responses between beginning and experienced principals on critical skills.

Table 6.28 summarizes the results. From Table 6.28, it seems that there is no statistically or practically significant difference between the views of beginning and experienced principals on critical skills. Beginning principals need the critical skills for effective and efficient performance of their principalship roles.

In sum, lack of significant difference on the rating highlights the importance of these critical skills not only for beginning principals but for experienced principals as well.

TABLE 6.28: DIFFERENCES IN RESPONSES BETWEEN BEGINNING AND EXPERIENCED PRINCIPALS ON CRITICAL SKILLS FOR BEGINNING PRINCIPALS

	Item	Beginning principals mean score $\bar{X}_1$	Experienced principals mean score $\bar{X}_2$	$\bar{S}_1$	$\bar{S}_2$	t	p-value	d-value
1	How to evaluate the staff	4.272	4.065	0.976	0.964	1.296	0.197	
2	How to facilitate/conduct a group meeting	4.000	4.120	1.000	0.899	-0.742	0.459	
3	How to design and implement a databased improvement process for goalsetting and evaluation	4.281	4.213	0.951	0.949	0.420	0.675	
4	How to develop and monitor a school financial budget	4.662	4.653	0.834	0.688	0.063	0.949	
5	How to organize and conduct parent-teacher-student conferences	4.015	3.973	0.960	0.822	0.276	0.783	
6	How to establish a scheduling programme for students and staff	4.065	4.014	1.014	0.986	0.282	0.778	
7	Awareness of issues related to local school law	4.062	3.892	1.029	0.987	0.989	0.325	
8	How to manage food services, custodial and secretarial staff	4.063	4.203	0.990	0.936	-0.851	0.396	
9	Establish a positive and cooperative relationship with other education officers	4.302	4.068	0.961	0.941	1.434	0.154	
10	How to determine who is what in the school setting	4.185	3.905	0.917	1.036	1.686	0.094	
11	Knowing how to relate to school committee members and district office personnel	4.138	4.149	0.949	0.961	-0.063	0.950	
12	Knowing where the limits exist within the school and balancing that knowledge with one's professional values	4.277	4.081	0.943	0.962	1.209	0.229	

TABLE 6.28 (Continued)

Item	Beginning principals mean score $\bar{X}_1$	Experienced principals mean score $\bar{X}_2$	$\bar{S}_1$	$\bar{S}_2$	t	p-value	d-value
13 Understanding how the principalship changes family and other personal relationships	3.692	3.622	1.117	1.131	0.370	0.712	
14 Developing interpersonal networking skills that may be used with individuals inside and outside the system	4.000	3.822	1.054	1.097	0.968	0.335	
15 Ability to encourage involvement by all parties in the educational community	4.234	4.229	0.831	1.001	0.029	0.976	
16 How to develop positive relationships with other organizations and agencies located in the school's surrounding community	4.107	3.855	0.970	1.042	1.488	0.139	
17 Demonstrating an awareness as what it means to possess orginizational power and authority	3.969	3.812	1.054	1.131	0.849	0.398	
18 Demonstrating an awareness why one was selected for a leadership position in the first place	3.369	3.473	1.409	1.337	-0.444	0.658	
19 Portraying a sense of self-confidence on the job	4.508	4.467	0.793	0.890	0.288	0.774	
20 Having a vision along with an understanding needed to achieve relevant goals	4.446	4.419	0.902	0.844	0.183	0.855	
21 Demonstrating a desire to make a significant difference in the lives of students	4.385	4.369	0.896	0.825	0.100	0.920	
22 Being aware of one's biases, strengths and weaknesses.	4.203	4.311	0.929	0.775	-0.733	0.465	
23 Understanding and seeing that change is ongoing, and that it results in continually changing vision of the principalship	4.077	4.284	0.941	0.852	-1.352	0.179	
24 How to assess job responsibilities in terms of the "real role" of the principalship	4.190	4.208	0.981	0.918	-0.109	0.914	

6.11 Summary

This chapter gave an overview of the results of the empirical investigation undertaken to determine the problems, challenges, difficulties and concerns facing beginning principals in developing countries like Kenya, and important skills for them. Major findings of this study indicate that problems facing beginning principals in one cultural or environmental setting may not necessarily be problems experienced in another cultural or environmental setting.

Problems identified by researchers such as Weindling and Earley (1987) in the United Kingdom, Anderson (1989; 1991) and Daresh and Playko (1992b) in the United States, help one to understand problems facing beginning principals in these developed countries. Conversely, problems identified by Legotlo (1994) in Bophuthwatswana (South Africa) help to understand problems experienced by beginning principals in developing countries. However, the concern about the critical skills appears universal.

The more challenging problems for the subjects of this study could be attributed to lack of financial resources. Harambee fund-raising is the only recourse principals in Kenya have for addressing these problematic issues.

An induction programme for beginning principals must stem from and centre around their needs. Therefore, from the data presented and analyzed in this empirical investigation an induction programme for beginning principals must be developed. Such an induction programme should include some of the more pronounced issues of problematic nature to beginning principals inter alia:

* Locating schools for children.
* Organizing Harambee fund-raising.
* Dealing with students from poor socio-economic backgrounds.
* Dealing with students with special needs.
* Dealing with a lack of a learning culture.
* Better strategies for carrying out administrative work.
* Parents' illiteracy,
* Use of English as medium of instruction.
* How to address system problems including inadequate physical facilities, classrooms, and equipment.
* Dealing with previous head's influence .

The critical skills lifted out are important, according to the subjects of this study. Accordingly, they rank them as follows: (1) self-awareness skills, (2) technical skills and (3) socialization skills (cf. 6.9.1-6.9.2).

The three critical skills approach should therefore be taken into account in designing an induction programme which should include seminars, conferences, workshops or courses.

CHAPTER VII

AN INDUCTION PROGRAMME FOR BEGINNING SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN KENYA

7.1 Introduction

The overall purpose of this study was to investigate the problems facing beginning principals in Kenya and the skills they need, and to develop an induction programme for them. This chapter therefore presents a development and implementation process for the Beginning Principal Induction Programme in Kenya.

7.2 A conceptual framework for developing an induction programme

There is a growing awareness of the importance of the school principal as the engine that propels the school forward. Furthermore, the principalship is a critical point of leverage in obtaining the desired improvement in the school (Dekker & Lemmer, 1993).

Researchers are increasingly aware of the importance of identifying problems faced by beginning principals and suggesting solutions for them. Most of the work to date has been carried in developed countries such as the United States (Duke, 1988; Anderson, 1989; and Daresh & Playko, 1992b); the United Kingdom (Weindling & Earley, 1987) and Australia (Beeson & Matthews, 1992). A study focusing on problems facing beginning principals in developing countries has been done by Legotlo (1994) in Bophuthwatswana (South Africa).

A common finding in these works and also in broader studies has been that the beginning principal's year is marked by considerable anxiety, frustration and self-doubt (Daresh & Playko, 1994).

Among the recommodations from all these works is that educational managers (principals) need special consideration and support from their employing school systems.

However, in spite of this growing awareness of the problems facing beginning principals and the call to help them, little is known about problems facing beginning principals in developing countries and the critical skills for them. In addition, very little or no attention is being paid to developing comprehensive induction programmes for beginning principals, more especially in developing countries like Kenya.

While the problems facing beginning principals in developing countries are monumental, there are few clues currently available to guide the development of policies or programmes which might be directed towards the needs, concerns and interests of these novice principals.

Therefore, the importance of the school principals as the key to school success, the problems they are facing and the vacuum for well-structured induction programmes for beginning principals in developing countries in a way justify the development of an induction programme for beginning principals in Kenya (a developing country).

The rationale for the induction programme emanates from the research concerning the induction of beginning principals reported in chapters 2, 3 and 4 (theory) and the empirical investigation conducted in chapters 5 and 6. As stated in chapter 1, the ultimate aim of this research is to develop an induction programme for beginning principals in Kenya.

The design of the induction programme is based on the premise that programming for adult learning should involve the following major responsibilities (Boone, 1985:3).

- identification, assessment and analysis of educational needs specific to the target programme;
- setting goals for the programme;
- planning and design of a programme to fit the expressed need;
- implementation of the planned programme; and
- evaluation and accountability for the outcome of the programme.

In the case of the induction programme, the problems facing beginning principals are determined in the research reported in chapters 2,3,4,5 and 6. The problems and skills identified imply a gap between what ought to be (cf. chapters 2,3, & 4) and what is (cf. chapters 5 & 6). The programme is designed to reconcile the two.

Murphy and Hallinger (1987:74-75) identify the following basic assumptions about adult learning which are critical for designing an induction programme:

- The best source of learning is experience, and adults have it.
- Feedback must be part of the learning process.
- Learning takes place when learners experience a felt need for a particular knowledge or skills.

* Adults learn for immediate application.
* Adults are self-directed learners.

To bring about change in behaviours or to develop new skills among beginning principals, an induction programme must incorporate several facets (Grier, 1987:121-122). These facets, which must be taken into account for the induction programme, including seminars, workshops and conferences, are:

- the activity must be based upon research, theory and the best educational practice;
- the activity must be long enough to allow for the transfer of learning through the practice of the new behaviours or skills;
- the activity must allow for the implementation of the new practice and also feedback;
- the activity should focus on the individual school principals as the primary unit of change;
- the activity should focus on the school system as the support and reinforcement for the implementation of the new knowledge and skills gained by the beginning principals;
- the activity should have immediate, practical aplplication for school improvement;
- the activity should be based on knowledge about adult learning; and
- the activity should include opportunities to improve and learn new methods of meeting the challenges of leadership.

Boone (1985:4-6) further states that a variety of assumptions underscore programming for adult education. The programme is directed towards equipping beginning principals with critical skills which will help them be effective and efficient educational managers, with consideration of the problems they are facing. A decision-making process is involved with the conscious choices and decisions being made throughout the induction programme process.

The induction programme process is furthermore viewed as a system and more specifically a holistic one in that its phases are integrated, interconnected and interwoven to make a collective whole. The phases of the programme exist in different phases including pre-service, induction and pre-service.

These basic assumption are incorporated in the induction programme in the following manner:

* changes in the way beginning principals are inducted are proposed to facilitate their transition into the principalship especially, the first year, taking cognizance of the limitations of the educational system.
* Decisions based on the research of chapters 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 are made.
* Goals are set.
* The entire induction programme is designed to function as an integrated whole in an interrelated, interconnected and interwoven manner.
* Plans of actions and implementation are proposed which include costs and people responsible for the induction programme process.
* Evaluation is important to determine the strengths and weaknesses of the programme.

7.3 Clinical model

A review of research on programmes development reveals a wide range of models. In this study, the clinical model will be adopted. According to Kraker(1992) a clinically, designed programme must include the following:

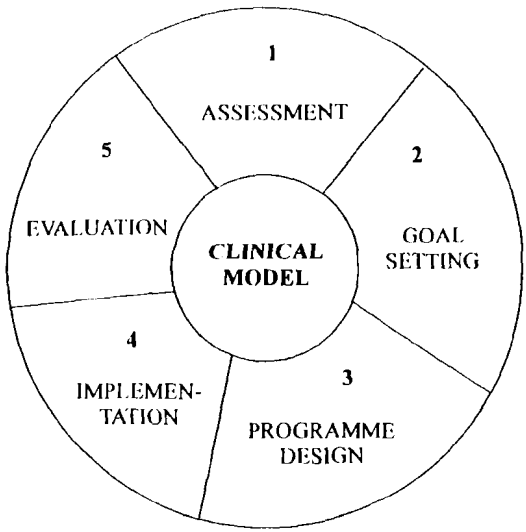
- Assessment of needs.
- Setting of goals.
* Designing the programme.
* Implementation of the programme.
* Evaluation

The clinical model (Fig. 7.1) provides a logical path for developing an induction programme for beginning principals. It has what it takes to make a good programme for it takes cognizance of all the elements necessary for a programme that begins with the felt need and culminates with the control process.

The clinical model is adopted because it meets most, if not all of the characteristics for an effective model identified by Mouton and Marais (1988:141):

* Models identify central problems or questions concerning phenomena that ought to be investigated.
- Models limit, isolate, simplify and systematize the domain that is investigated.
- Models provide new language games or universes of discourse within which the phenomena may be discussed.
* Models provide explanations, sketches and the means for making predictions.

Figure 7.1 Clinical Model



An induction model, therefore, provides an explanatory sketch of the induction process (Mouton & Marais, 1988). However, it may not provide a complete explanation of the phenomenon **induction.**

From the foregoing, it is clear that an induction programme must have a conceptual framework and a clinically designed programme must be based on the felt need. The subsequent sections therefore articulate the Beginning Principal Induction Programme in Kenya.

7.4 The Beginning Principals' Induction Programme (BPIP) in Kenya

The proposed induction programme for beginning principals in Kenya is here referred to as the **Beginning principals induction programme (BPIP).** It should be pointed out at the outset that the proposed **Beginning Principals Induction Programme (BPIP)** does not exist independently of existing educational structures in Kenya. Rather, it must be incorporated into them.

* **Definition of the concept induction programme**

In this study, an induction programme was defined as a well- structured professional development strategy, with clearly defined goals designed to develop, among beginning principals, the knowledge, skills, attitudes and values to carry out their principalship roles effectively and efficiently (cf. 1.6; 2.4.11).

* **Assessment of needs**

An induction programme following the clinical model must start with the assessment of needs. In order to determine the induction needs of beginning principals, an extensive study of literature was carried in chapters 2, 3 and 4. These chapters focused on the problems facing beginning principals and the critical needs for them. Furthermore, chapters 5 and 6 provided an empirical investigation of the problems facing beginning principals and the critical skills for them.

Therefore, the problems facing beginning principals are identified and the critical skills they need outlined. These underscore the need and cause for an induction programme.

7.4.1 Rationale for the Beginning Principals' Induction Programme (BPIP)

As one considers the major applied professions such as law, medicine, architecture and engineering in Kenyan society, one is struck by the massive amounts of knowledge available to practioners in those fields. Not only is the knowledge extensive and applicable to solving problems within each profession, but it is organized or codified according to the types of problems that are encountered in practice.

Unfortunately, the field of educational management in developing countries like Kenya is characterized by la ack of such knowledge that can be used to solve management problems. There is neither research focusing on the problem facing beginning principals nor induction programmes for them (cf. 1.2).

In Kenya, following independence, the tremendous mushrooming of schools allowed no time for educational management development and this has forced the appointment of unprepared and insufficiently competent principals (Griffin, 1994). Consequently, effective educational managers (principals) are few since most of them are left to either swim or sink in principalship positions.

Problems facing beginning principals are documented in chapters 2, 3 and 4 (theory) and the empirical investigation documented in chapters 5 and 6. These chapters reveal overwhelmingly that beginning principals need support not only to survive but more importantly, to be effective and efficient as well. Therefore, the cry for help from beginning principals as evidenced in the theoretical and the empirical studies, coupled with the lack of induction practices and policies regarding the needs of beginning principals in Kenya, form the basic rationale for the **BPIP.**

In addition, the **BPIP** should be established with the following rationale in mind (Murphy & Hallinger, 1987:120).

- The most efficient way to delivering training is to usea pyramid approach, that is, a cadre of people are trained to train others.
- A successful induction programme is one in which peers train peers.
- In each zone, there will be a cadre of experts available for consultation, planning, or training for the implementation of innovation.
- Training which affects educational practices moves beyond the introduction of knowledge into skills development and implementation of the new practices.

7.4.2 Legal provision for BPIP

In Kenya, the need for training in public service in general was diagnosed by the Wamalwa (1978) Training Review Commission Reports 1978 which noted that there was an increasingly declining productivity in performance among staff in the Public Service (including school principals) due to lack of relevant administrative and managerial knowledge, skills and attitudes as especially demanded by the nature of the job.

This scenario has consistently been confirmed by the subsequent Presidential Civil Service salaries Review Commission Reports of Ndegwa (1974); Waruhiu (1980) and Ramtu (1985).

As such, the Kenya Institute of Administration (K.I.A), has, through its training programmes, altered this general trend for the top level senior public servants and provincial administrators. It was similarly conceived between 1974 to 1978 that professional educationists in administration and management positions (principals) would also benefit through the in-service training programmes conducted by the Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI, 1994).

Furthermore, the need for consolidation and co-ordination of training and staff development strategies implemented at the ministerial level was articulated by the Government of Kenya in 1985 and 1986 through the Directorate of Personnel Management (DPM) in the office of the President in relation to National Manpower Development Policies and Programmes (Report of the Presidential Working Party on Education and Manpower Training for the Next Decade and Beyond, 1988).

This underscored the need for exploitation of local initiatives and capacities on in-service training and development of ministerial personnel to improve the quality of service to the public (KESI, 1994). Local training and training ventures were considered to be cost-effective and relevant to the immediate job requirements.

Besides, changes in Kenyan society and within the educational system itself pose challenges in terms of management of change for improved services giving rise for continuous in-servicing of staff to acquire improved knowledge, skills and attitudes for new role.

Additionally, the present Kenyan government development strategy of District Focus for Rural Development since 1983 and the implementation of the new education system (8-4-4) since 1985 place additional responsibility on educational managers and administrators. Educational managers (principals) are expected to meaningfully participate in the planning, implementation and evaluation of educational programmes and projects. Such expectations demand that educational managers be competent in aspects of projects planning, design, development, implementation and evaluation (Sessional Paper, 1988).

Additionally, the legal status of training educational managers is defined in the Legal Notice Number 565 of the December 1988 Gazette by the Minister of Education in Kenya (KESI, 1994).

From the above review of reports, it can be emphatically argued that the proposed **Beginning Principals' Induction Programme (BPIP)** has strong legal provision. As such it can play a vital role in filling such gaps as noted above.

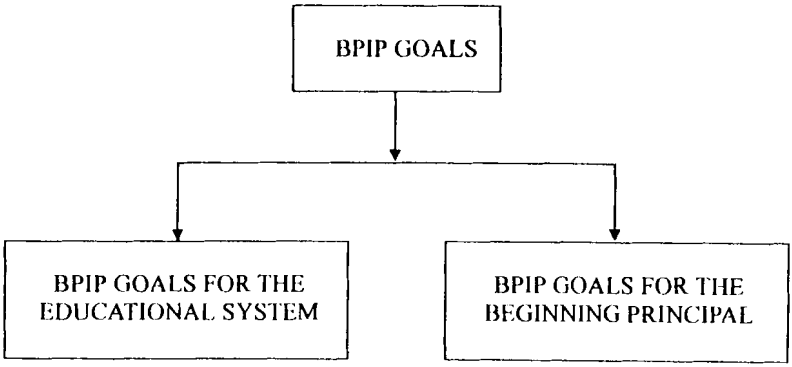
7.4.3 Goals of the Beginning Principals' Induction Programme (BPIP)

An induction programme must have goals that are explicit (cf. 2.5). In addition, these goals must conform to the educational system's philosophy and mission. Goals provide

direction to the whole induction process and it is only through well stated goals that the effectiveness of the entire induction process can be measured.

According to Gerber et al. (1987:210) an induction programme must be designed to cater for the needs of both the enterprise (school system) and the new employee (beginning principal).

Figure 7.2 Beginning Principals Induction Programme Goals



- **BPIP goals for the school system**

For the educational system the major goals of the induction programme are:

* To minimize turnovers (cf. 2.5-2.6).
* To increase the retention rate of beginning principals (cf.2.5-2.6)
* To increase productivity performance among beginning principals (cf. 7.2).

* **BPIP goals for the beginning principal**

For the beginning principals the major goals of the induction programme are:

* School improvement (cf. 2.5).
* Professional development (2.4.11).
* Collegial support.
* Adjustment to the job.
* To provide security.
* To provide information about the community and school system at large (cf. 2.4.11).
* To provide learning opportunity for self-awareness, technical and socialization skills.
* To afford an opportunity for continued improvement.

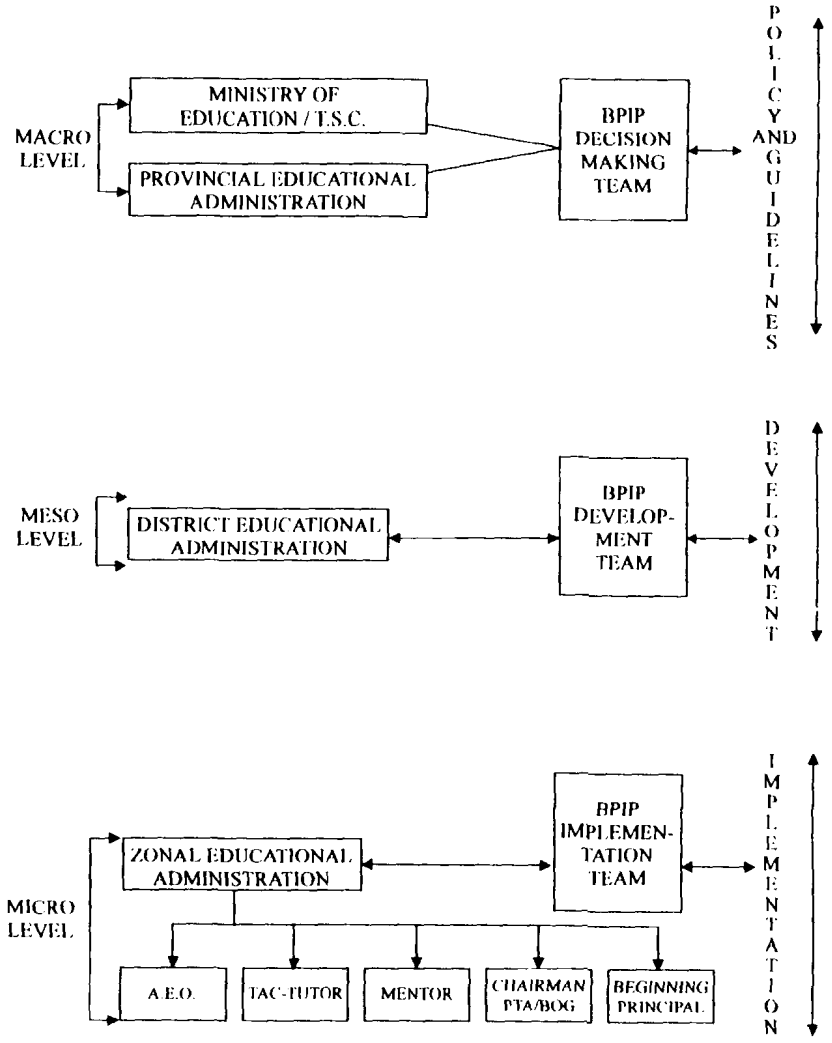
All in all, the overarching goal of the **BPIP** is to help beginning principals improve their professional competencies so that they can, in turn, be effective and efficient and hence improve school programmes for students. It is only through a well-structure induction programme that the above two-fold identified goals can be realized. The process of realizing them must include a prioritization of the goals coupled with the people responsible for the entire induction process and programme(cf.2.4.12).

7.5 The development and implementation of the BPIP

As mentioned earlier (cf. 7.4) the **BPIP** cannot exist independently of the existing educational structures in Kenya. Rather, it must complement them. Therefore, in order to ensure that the stated goals of the **BPIP** are realized by both the educational system and the individual beginning principals, a well co-ordinated operational structure is imperative.

Figure 7.3 illustrates the operational structure of the **BPIP** within the educational system in Kenya. As Fig.7.3 demonstrates, the operational structure of **BPIP** comprises three main levels, viz. the macro, meso and micro-levels. These levels interact and interconnect with each other so as to meet the stated educational system goals as well as the beginning principals' goals.

Fig. 7.3 The development and implementation of the BPIP



It should be pointed out that while each of the three levels is an important part of the entire **BPIP** operational structure, the most time and cost-effective induction programme must focus on the micro-level where the major players of the induction programme are.

This study has demonstrated overwhelmingly that the major problems facing beginning principals are money-related due to the educational system's failure to provide the necessary financial support (cf.6.3.8; 6.4.8). The **BPIP** must take cognizance of these realities. Therefore, in this study the emphasis will be on the micro-level, for this is the level where the beginning principals action begins. The following sections explain in brief how the micro-level operates in conjunction with the macro and meso-levels.

7.5.1 The macro-level development and management of the BPIP

In Kenya, the Inspectorate section of the Ministry of Education is responsible for the control of quality of education in Kenya at all levels throughout the country. This is achieved through inspection, guidance and advice to all schools in the country. The Inspectorate achieves its goals through the provincial, district and zonal administrators. In this study, the Ministry of Education and the provincial Education Administrators comprise the macro-level.

In order to harmonize all the infrastructures that are stakeholders in terms of the success of beginning principals, the Ministry of Education, in conjunction with the Provincial Education Administrators, holds the key role in formulating policy and guidelines for the **BPIP.** The policy and the guidelines should then be disseminated to the district educational administrators (meso-level) who will see to it that it is implemented at the micro-level (zonal).

- **Representation at the macro-level**

The Ministry of Education in Kenya already has a firm infrastructure of support services that could be used to develop and implement the **BPIP.** Some of the infrastructures and their functions are (Ministry of Education, 1984:5):

- **The Bureau of Education**

The Bureau of Education co-ordinates field activities and teacher education.

- **The Kenya Institute of Education (KIE)**

The KIE is mandated by the government to develop the necessary curricula for the entire educational system.

- **The Kenya Literature Bureau (KLB) and the Jomo Kenyatta Foundation (KJF)**

Both the KLB and JKF work together to publish books for the entire educational system.

- **The School Equipment Production Unit (SEPU)**

The SEPU produces science equipment like laboratory equipment for the education system.

- **The Teachers' Service Commission (TSC)**

The TSC employs and deploys teachers and school principals required for the education system.

- **The Kenya National Examination Council (KNEC)**

The KNEC plans and conducts examinations and certification on behalf of the Ministry of Education.

All of the above identified infrastructures should have at least one representative at the macro-level of the **BPIP** team. Each of them is a stakeholder for the success of the beginning principals. Literature consulted and the empirical investigation have shown that beginning principals in developing countries contend with problems such as lack of books for students, lack of school equipment and shortage of teachers (cf. 3.12.1-3.12.5; 6.3.8; 6.4.8).

The above identified infrastructure seems to deal with most of the issues and problems facing beginning principals. Therefore, they should send at least one representative to conduct either a workshop, seminar or conference during the induction phase.

In addition, although not part of Ministry of Education infrastructure, both the Kenya National Union of Teachers (KNUT) and the Kenya Secondary School Association (KSSA)

should be part of the macro-level team. Both are indeed stakeholders for the success of beginning principals.

Therefore, once the **BPIP** team has completed formulating policies guidelines for the **BPIP,** they are then passed on to the district educational administration for the development of the **BPIP.**

7.4.2 The meso-level development and management of the BPIP

As noted earlier (cf. 7.3.2) the present Kenya Government development strategy is decentralization at the district level throughout the country. The strategy adopted, which is called the District Focus for Rural Development (DFRD) fits in well with the **BPIP** since this study has shown that most of schools in Kenya are located in the rural areas (cf. 6.2). The districts are empowered by the government to develop programmes and projects focused at the district level. Development that does not focus on educational development is bound to fail. Therefore, the **BPIP** becomes one of the programmes and projects developed at the district level. Since the government funds all the projects and programmes developed at the district level, it should be called upon to fund the development and implementation of the **BPIP.**

- **Representation at the meso-level**

At the meso-level the development and management team for the **BPIP** should include:

- The District Education Officer(DEO).
- The district school inspector.
- A representative from the Kenya Secondary School Association (KSSA)

These people should be part of the committee for the District Focus for Rural Development (DFRD). Their responsibility should be the development of the **BPIP** with the help of the macro-level **BPIP** team.

It was pointed out that the most effective way to deliver training is to use the pyramid approach where a cadre of people are trained to train others (cf. 7.4.1). As such, it is at the district level where the people responsible for the induction process and programme are trained (cf. 2.4.12).

Following the pyramid approach rationale, the people to be trained at the meso-level include (cf. 2.4.12):

* The Area Education Officer(AEO).
* The Teachers' Advisory Centre-Tutor.
* The Chairman (PTA/BOG).
* Mentors.

Mentors must be trained after they have been selected following the appointment of the beginning principals and before the beginning principals take up their positions (cf. 4.11; 2.4.12.5). The rest of the role players must receive advance training since they are already known. Following the rationale for **BPIP,** the mentor should be an experienced principal (cf. 7.4.1). A successful induction programme is one in which peers train peers, thus principals train principals. Therefore, the **BPIP,** which will be made compulsory, will use experienced principals as mentors.

As was mentioned earlier, recently the Ministry of Education, following the District Focus for Rural Development (DFRD), established Teachers' Advisory Centres throughout the country at zonal Educational Administration level (cf. 2.4.11; 7.3.2). These centres are run by tutors. Thus, the utilization of the centres should be expanded to include induction programmes for beginning principals and the TAC-Tutors should be equipped to conduct the induction programmes. Hence, their training at the meso-level is of utmost importance.

After the **BPIP** has been developed and the people responsible for its implementation have been trained, the **BPIP** should be passed on to the zonal educational administration for implementation.

7.5.3 The micro-level development and implementation of the BPIP

The decisions and policies made at the macro-level and the **BPIP** developed at the meso-level are all realized at the micro-level. The vision and mission of the entire **BPIP** is executed at this level. The actual implementation process of **BPIP** must begin at the grassroots level.

* **Representation at the micro-level**

As noted in chapter two and illustrated in Figure 7.3, the people responsible for the implementation of the **BPIP** at the zonal level comprise the following (cf. 2.4.12; 7.4):

* The Area Education Officer (AEO).
* The Teachers' Advisory Centre Tutor (TAC-Tutor).
* The mentors (experienced principals).
* The Chairman (PTA/BOG).
* The beginning principal

The above team, with the help of the meso-level team and if necessary the macro-level team, should make the entry year of the beginning principal as smooth as possible.

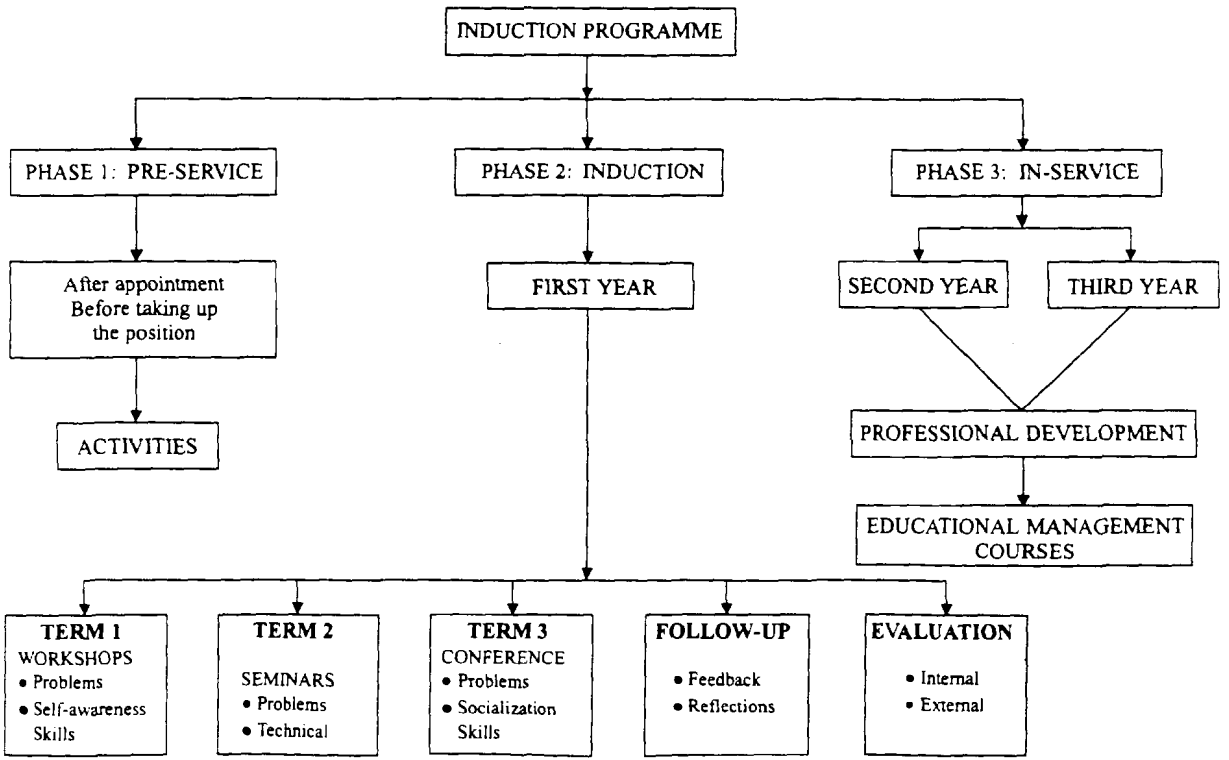
In sum, it is quite clear from Figure 7.3 and the overview given above that it is possible to operate a **BPIP** in Kenya which is legally based and cost and time-effective. As the levels of the **BPIP** development and management show, the entire **BPIP** process is interactive, interconnected and intertwined. One level leads to the other and all levels complement each in a well coordinated manner.

While the above overview articulated the development and management structure of the **BPIP,** in the next section the discussion centres on the induction process and programme as illustrated in Figure 7.4.

7.6 Beginning Principals' Induction Programme

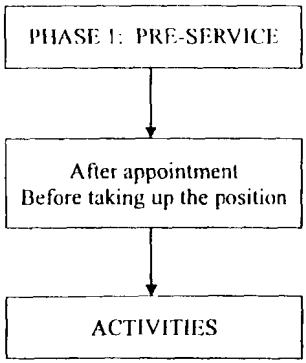
Figure 7.4 illustrates the induction process coupled with phases - each phase with its own programme. While Figure 7.4 shows three phases with different programmes, in this study, the second phase (first year) with its own complete programme is deemed the induction programme. The other two phases, viz. pre-service and in-service, are included to show that professional development is a continuous process which begins with pre-service and continues through the in-service period. The three phases are, however, interwoven and therefore the pre-service phase is discussed briefly just to show how it fits in with the entire induction process of the induction programme.

Figure 7.4 Beginning principal induction programme



7.6.1 Phase 1: The pre-service period

Figure 7.5 Phase 1: Pre-Service



The induction of beginning principals according to this model begins after appointment but before their taking up the positions (cf. 2.4.11). After the appointment and before taking up the position, the following activities should be focused on:

* A mentor should be identified who will begin helping the beginning principal immediately (cf. 2.4.1; 2.4.3; 2.4.11; 7.5.1-7.5.3).
* Materials which would help beginning principal should be given to him (cf. 2.4.3).
* Beginning principals should visit the outgoing principal for handing over (cf. 2.4.11: 6.5).
* The task and responsibilities of the principalship should be explained (cf. 2.4.1; 2.4.7; 2.4.11).
* Introduction to the major players of the induction programme should be done (cf. 2.4.12; 7.6.2-7.6.3).

In addition the following problems could be addressed by beginning principal himself:

* Locating housing accommodation (cf. 3.3.1;6.3.2; 6.4.2).
* Locating a suitable social club (cf. 6.3.2; 6.4.2).
* Locating schools for the beginning principals' children (cf. 3.3.1; 6.3.2; 6.4.2).
* Locating health care services (cf. 6.3.2; 6.4.2).

Furthermore, learning the following skills are in order during the pre-service phase:

* Knowing how to relate to the major role players of the induction programme (cf. 3.11.).
* Role clarification (cf.3.11.3).
* Understanding the staff's strengths and weaknesses (cf. 3.11.3).

These activities are essential in the sense that the beginning principal should not feel a stranger when he begins his job of the principalship for the first time (cf. 2.4.11). More importantly, these activities are crucial for a beginning principal who is an outsider and not a child of the soil. Additionally, the pre-service phase also helps the beginning principal to focus squarely on the academic programme of the school after taking up the position which is the main reason why he was appointed.

7.6.2 Phase 2: Induction programme (First year)

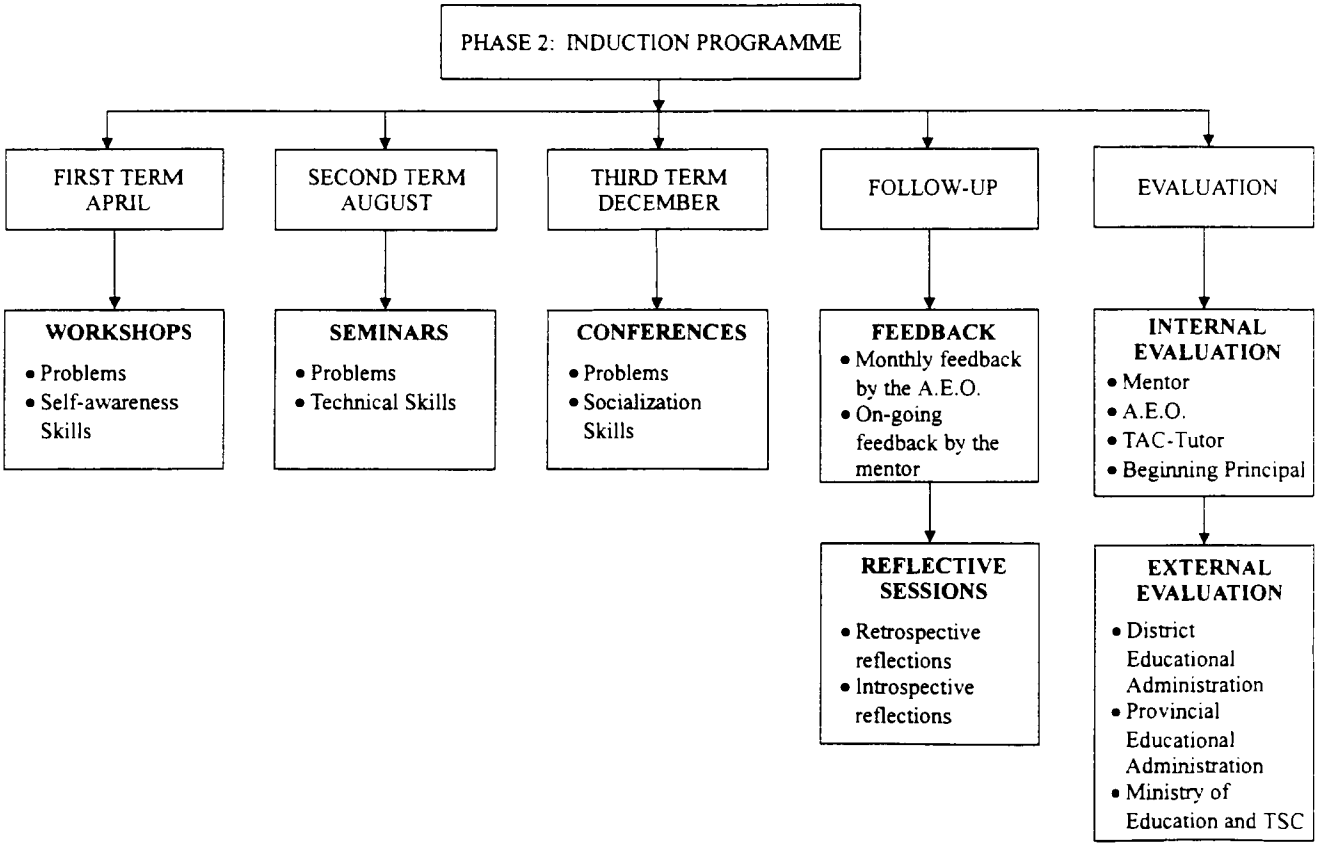
As noted earlier (cf. 2.4.11; 7.5) phase 2 is the induction programme, according to this study. This phase focuses on the entry year (first year) of the principalship. It is important in this study that the beginning principal's induction programme should focus on the first year because it is cost-effective and time-effective for all parties involved (cf. 2.4.12; 7.4.1-7.4.3).

In addition researchers such as Louis (1980); Gorton(1983); Castetter, (1986) and Jensen (1987) point out that the first year of the principalship is a crucial transition period. Therefore during this period beginning principals need information that will make them stand on their feet for the rest of their principalship career. Moreover, entry year experiences have a profound impact on their future skills development.

As noted earlier (cf.2.6) there is a growing concern that the first year teachers as well as first year principals who leave their profession do it because nobody helped them to learn the "ropes". Research has also shown that the influence of the first year's experiences has a lasting effect on the performance and turnover.

Some of the beginning and experienced principals in this study also included some footnotes in their questionnaires indicating that they wished that somebody had helped them in their first year.

Figure 7.6 Induction



Thus, on account of the above, the induction programme in this study will emphasize mainly the first year of principalship. In addition, the induction phase has two parallel programmes viz. the formal and the informal. While the formal programme is conducted formally and realized outside the school at the Teachers' Advisory Centre (TACs), through workshops, seminars and conferences, the informal programme will be actualized through the use of a mentor inside the school. The two programmes run concurrently.

7.6.2.1 Formal induction programme

Figure 7.6 demonstrates the conceptualization of the entire induction programme. From Figure 7.6 it is clear that the induction programme has five major components. Each component includes activities that address problems and critical skills needed. Although each critical skill is important and must be dealt with in each term, there will be a special emphasis on a particular category of skills for each term as was revealed by the overall rankings of critical skills by both beginning and experienced principals (cf. 3.9.3).

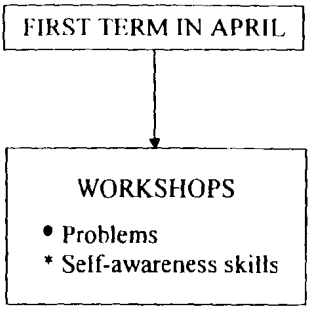
A further look at Figure 7.6 shows that the programme is designed following the school year calendar that includes three terms. As pointed out earlier (cf. 2.4.11), the school system in Kenya has three terms of academic work. An academic term has three months of schooling and one month recess. The recesses are in the months of April, August and December. Therefore, the induction workshops, seminars and conferences are conducted during these recess months, and this helps the beginning principal not to miss any day of the school academic days.

An mentioned earlier (cf. 2.4.11; 7.5.2-7.5.3), the workshops, seminars and conferences will be venued at the already established Teachers' Advisory Centres (TACs) which are located in every zone within the country. This provides for convenience for most beginning principals who are appointed to manage schools located in their own localities (cf. 6.3.2; 6.4.2).

The **BPIP** has twofold goals, namely goals for beginning principals and goals for the educational system (cf. 7.4.3). Therefore the workshops, seminars and conferences must address both the system's problems and beginning principals' problems.

7.6.2.1.1 Term 1: Workshops

Figure 7.7 First term workshops



A three-week workshop which must take place in April at the Teachers' Advisory Centre should be conducted by an Area Education Officer and the TAC-tutor. Additionally, the Ministry of Education, Teachers' Service Commission, Kenya Literature Bureau and Jomo Kenyatta Foundation must each send a representative to be part of the induction workshop. The workshop leaders must address the following problems and needs of beginning principals as illustrated by Figure 7.7.

* **Management issues:**

- budgeting and controlling finance (cf. 6.3.3; 6.4.3);
- feedback from supervisors (cf. 3..3.3; 6.3.3; 6.4.3);
- meeting job demands (cf. 6.3.3; 6.4.3);
- handling legal issues (cf. 6.3.3; 6.4.3);
- organizing Harambee fund raising (cf. 6.3.3; 6.4.3);
- dealing with previous head's influence (cf. 6.3.5; 6.4.5);
- managing own time and lack of sufficient time (cf. 3.3.6; 6.3.3).

* **System problems**

- support services (cf. 7.4.1);
- staff accommodation (cf. 6.3.8; 6.4.8);
- English as medium of instruction (cf. 3.13; 6.3.8; 6.4.8);

- shortage of school equipment (cf. 3.12.3; 6.3.8; 6.4.8);
- overcrowded classrooms (cf. 3.12.3; 6.3.8; 6.4.8).

* **Skills**

As noted earlier, each term will emphasize a particular skill in line with skills following the overall ranking of the importance of the skills (cf. 6.9.3). Therefore the first term will emphasize self-awareness skills.

* **Self-awareness skills**

- assessing job responsibilities in terms of the real role of the principalship (cf. 3.11.3; 6.9.3);
- demonstrating awareness of what it means to possess organizational power and authority (cf. 3.11.3; 6.9.3);
- portraying a sense of self-confidence on the job (cf. 3.11.3; 6.9.3);
- being aware of one's biases, strengths and weaknesses (cf. 3.11.3; 6.9.3).

* **Technical skills**

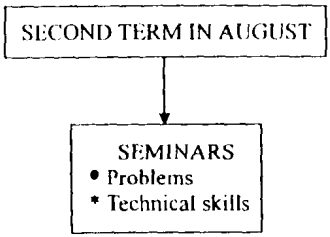
- how to evaluate the staff (cf.3.11.1; 6.9.3);
- awareness of issues related to school law (cf. 3.11.1; 6.9.3);
- how to organize Harambee fund raising (cf. 6.3.3; 6.3.4).

* **Socialization skills**

- how to establish a positive and co-operative relationship with other district educational managers (cf. 3.11.2; 6.9.3);
- how to determine who is who in a school setting (cf. 3.11.2).

7.6.2.1.2 Term 2: Seminars

Figure 7.8: Second term seminar



During the second term (August) at the Teachers' Advisory Centres a seminar of three weeks' duration will be conducted by the Area Education Officer and the TAC-Tutor. In addition, the Bureau of Education, Kenya National Examination, and School Equipment Production Unit must send representatives to be part of the seminar induction programme. The following issues must be dealt with concerning beginning principals' problems and system problems as demonstrated by Figure 7.8.

* **Management issues for beginning principals**

- dealing with incompetent teachers (cf. 3.5.2.5; 6.3.4; 6.4.4);
- discipline and transfer of teachers (cf. 3.5.2.7; 6.3.4; 6.4.4);
- lack of a learning culture (cf. 6.3.6; 6.4.6);
- parental problems (cf. 3.6.7; 3.4.7);
- security in the school (cf. 6.5);
- dealing with unbalanced subject teaching staff (cf. 6.5);
- too much administrative work (cf. 6.3.3; 6.4.3).

* **System problems**

- lack of playgrounds (cf. 3.12.1; 6.3.8; 6.4.8);
- shortage of teachers (cf. 3.12.4; 6.3.8; 6.4.8);
- shortage of running water (cf. 6.3.8; 6.4.8);

- how to deal with students who cannot pay fees and buy books (cf. 3.12.5; 6.3.8; 6.4.8).

* **Skills**

The main skill to be emphasized during second term is technical skills.

* **Technical skills**

- how to manage food service, custodial and secretarial services (cf. 3.11.1; 6.9.3);
- how to develop and monitor a school financial budget (cf. 3.11.1; 6.9.3);
- how to design and implement a data-base improvement process (cf. 3.11.1; 6.9.3);
- how to facilitate group meetings (cf. 3.11.1; 6.9.3).

* **Self-awareness skills**

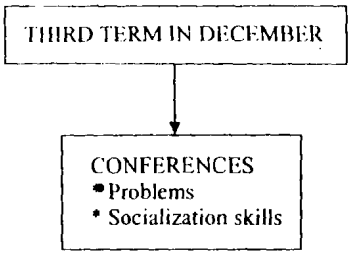
- having a vision along with an understanding needed to achieve relevant goals (cf. 3.11.3; 6.9.3);
- demonstrating a desire to make a significant difference to the lives of students (cf. 3.11.1; 6.9.3).

* **Socialization skills**

- developing interpersonal networking skills that may be used with individuals inside and outside the system (cf. 3.11.2; 6.9.3);
- ability to encourage involvement by all parties in the educational community (cf. 3.11.2; 6.9.3).

7.6.2.1.3 Term 3: Conferences

Figure 7.9 Third term conferences



During the third term (December) a three-week conference induction programme at the Teachers' Advisory Centre will be conducted by the Area Education Officer and the TAC-Tutor. Additionally, the Kenya National Union of Teachers, Kenya Institute of Education and Kenya Secondary School Association must also send representatives to be part of the conference induction programme leaders. The conference must focus on the following issues as Figure 7.9 illustrates:

* **Management problems for beginning principal**

- dealing with students with special academic needs (cf. 6.3.6; 6.4.6);
- dealing with student discipline (cf. 3.9.2; 6.3.6; 6.4.6);
- dealing with parents' illiteracy and inaccessible parents (cf. 6.3.8; 6.4.8);
- the geographical location of the school;
- administrative staff (cf. 3.9.1; 6.3.8; 6.4.8);
- dealing with strikes (cf. 6.3.8; 6.4.8).

* **System problems**

- installing telephones;
- students travelling long distances;
- shortage of physical facilities.

Skills

The main skill to be emphasized during the conference in the third term are socialization skills.

* **Socialization skills**

- knowing where the limits exist in the job (cf. 3.11.2; 6.9.3);
- understanding that the principalship changes family and other relationships (cf. 3.11.2; 6.9.3);
- knowing how to relate to PTA/BOG members and central office (cf. 3.11.2; 6.9.3);
- how to develop positive relationships with other organizations and agencies located in the school's surrounding community (cf. 3.11.2; 6.9.3).

* **Technical skills**

- how to establish a scheduling programme for staff (cf. 3.11.1; 6.9.3);
- how to organize and conduct parent-student-teacher conferences (cf. 3.11.1; 6.9.3).

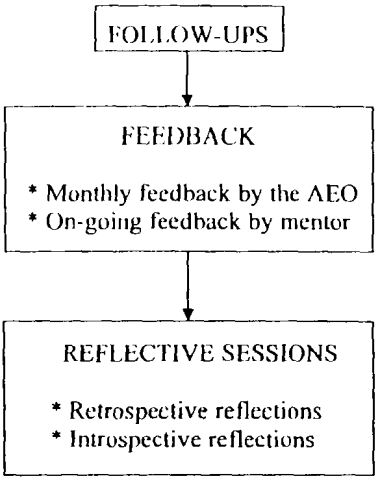
* **Self-awareness skills**

- understanding and seeing that change is ongoing and that it results in a continual changing vision of the principalship (cf. 3.11.3; 6.9.3);
- demonstrating an awareness why one was chosen for the principalship position in the first place (cf. 3.11.3; 6.9.3).

7.6.2.1.4 Follow-up activities

Figure 7.10 outlines the activities to be carried out during the follow-ups.

Figure 7.10 Follow-ups activities



Induction should be a continuous process during the first year of beginning principals. The AEO should provide guidelines for follow-ups. The visits are important to clarify assignment and answer questions and concerns that the beginning principals may have.

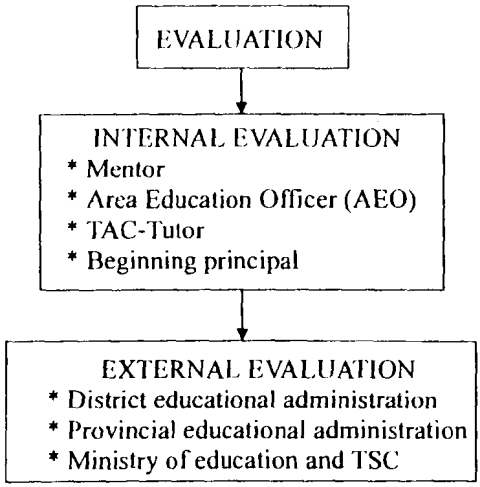
The mentoring aspect of the induction is crucial. The mentor holds monthly rap sessions with the mentee to discuss questions, problems and experience encountered. Holding regular conferences as needed with the mentor is important. The beginning principal must also regularly visit other schools to see what other principals are doing. In addition specific supervisory assistance must be given especially with the evaluation of teachers.

As illustrated by Figure 7.10, provision is made for both the mentor and mentee to retrospectively and introspectively reflect.

7.6.2.1.5 Evaluation of the Beginning Principals' Induction Programme

Figure 7.11 demonstrates the evaluation components of the induction process and programme.

Figure 7.11 Evaluation of the induction programme



Evaluation is the only viable means of determining whether the needs of the beginning principal are being met and to what extent the goals of the induction programme have been achieved.

As 7.11 demonstrates, the whole induction programme should be evaluated by both internal and external evaluators. The internal evaluators should include the major players or the implementors of the **BPIP** at the zonal level (micro-level) namely beginning principal, AEO and the TAC-Tutor.

The external evaluators should include the people responsible for the development of the **BPIP** at the district level (meso-level) and the people responsible for setting policies and guidelines for the **BPIP** at the national level (macro-level).

Both internal and external evaluations should determine the strengths and weaknesses of the **BPIP** with recommendations for changes or modifications.

7.6.2.2 Informal induction programme

As said earlier (cf. 7.6.2.) the induction programme has both formal and informal aspects. The above section dealt with the formal induction programme. This section explains the informal programme which ivolves the use of mentors.

* **The mentors (2.4.11; 2.4.12.5; 7.5.3; 7.6.2).**

As noted earlier (cf. 2.4.12.5) a mentoring system benefits both the mentor and the mentee and ultimately the educational system benefits. As such, the selection of mentors and pairing with mentees must be done with great care. Mentors, who should be experienced principals, must be willing and not forced to help the beginning principal and they must be trained. The role of the mentor should include:

- Providing the needed support;
- guiding the beginning principal and acquainting him with the procedures, policies, and norms of the zonal educational administration.
- Advising beginning principal in carrying out his role.
- Helping the beginning principal in preparing for the workshops, seminars and conferences
- Helping the beginning principal with learning the self-awareness skills, technical skills and socialization skills needed in carrying out his role effectively.
- Providing informative feedback to the beginning principals on his management performance.

The mentor must hold regular conferences with the mentee to answer questions from the mentee and reflect together.

* **Time guidelines for a mentoring programme**

The time schedule within which the mentoring activities are occurring are determined by the mentee's developmental needs and are established by both the participants during the planning of the mentoring activities (Van der Westhuizen & Erasmus, 1994b).

Van der Westhuizen and Erasmus (1994b:5-6) recommend the following time guideline which serves as a possible indication of the period of time within which a mentoring programme could be developed and implemented:

- **Training and orientation:** the training and orientation of the mentor and mentee are dealt with in two ways under the guidance of co-ordinator including separate training (mentor and mentee) for three days and combined orientation for one day.

- **The formal mentoring period:** the formal mentoring period is implemented in two sessions of one month each during which the following must occur, including observation for one day a week and a reflective interview for one hour

- **Retrospection:** the co-ordinator of the mentoring programme is responsible for the review following each complete formal mentoring period, which takes place during two retrospective meetings of one day each.

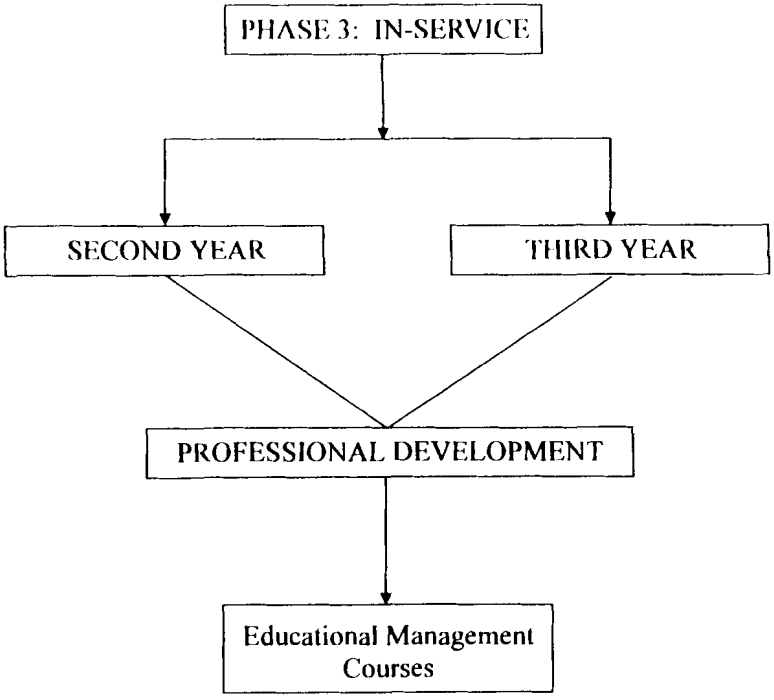
In the context of this study, it should be remembered, however, that due to the complexity involved in the personal nature of the mentoring relationships, the above noted guidelines serve only as a possible framework with which the informal side of the **Beginning Principals' Induction Programme** could be implemented.

7.6.3 Phase 3: In-service

As noted earlier, this study focuses on phase 2 of the induction process. This phase is considered a complete induction programme. However, other phases namely pre-service and in-service, are included here to illustrate the interwovenness of the induction process and programme. The needs of beginning principals in this study can be well served in their first year.

As Figure 7.12 demonstrates, the in-service phase comprises the second and third year period. These years are part of the professional development process. Induction courses are considered to be the hallmark of this phase. The in-service phase will comprise formal and informal programmes as well.

Figure 7.12 In-Service



7.6.3.1 Formal programme

Formal academic training in educational management in Kenya is neither there nor required for future principals (Griffin, 1994). Therefore, the formal aspect of the in-service will require a compulsory attendance of some courses which would lead to certification in educational mangement.

These mandatory courses, scheduled for two weeks around the months of April, August and December at the Teachers' Advisory Centre, should be conducted by the TAC-Tutors, Area Education Officer and some invited guests from area colleges and universities and management experts to lecture on areas related to school management. Some of the courses that could be conducted one in each term may include the following:

* Management tasks.
* Management areas.
* Organizational theory.
* Participatory management.
* Human resource management.
* Financial management.
* Communication skills.
* Performance appraisal.
* Leadership styles.

The above courses should focus on equipping the educational managers with theoretical knowledge on the issues that hinge on effective educational management. The certification also provides a motivation for principals in attending these courses.

7.6.3.2 Informal in-service

The informal aspect of the in-service facet should take the form of mentoring as well. After the induction phase (first year) is over, mentors and mentees should be encouraged to continue their relationship but with infrequent feedbacks. The beginning principal should be encouraged to visit other schools just to see what is going on in them.

It should be remembered, however, that professional development is a process that cannot be measured by time. Therefore, it should be construed as a process that goes beyond the second and third year.

7.7 Summary

From the foregoing it has emerged that the **BPIP** has been developed and the process of its development and implementation outlined. The overarching goal of the **BPIP** is to assist beginning principals to improve their professional competencies so that, they can, *in* turn, be effective and efficient educational managers.

The development and implementation of the induction programme involves all the stakeholders of the beginning principals' success. It spells out clearly who is doing what and at what level. Thus the complete structure is inter-connected, inter-dependent and inter-complementary.

Although the induction phases were treated separately and phase 2 was more emphasized, the induction phases must be seen from a holistic point of view. The three induction phases form what Daresh and Playko (1992a) call the tri-dimensional development of educational managers. The induction programme is not to be followed rigorously but it must be tailored to meet the unique needs of each individual beginning principal in each zone.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY, FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

This final chapter attempts to draw together the main points of the research. The overall findings of the research aims are provided. In addition, a set of recommendations in the form of statements is provided. These recommendations are provided for the improvement of current practices in educational management in Kenya and for further research in professional development of schools principals.

8.2 Summary

Chapter 1 served as an orientation to the entire research process. Here the problem in this research was identified as a lack of an induction process for beginning school principals in Kenya. The research aims for investigating the problem were stated from both theoretical and empirical perspectives. The methods of research for attaining these aims were stated as being a literature study, an attempt to gain the theoretical perspective and empirical research to gain the practical perspective. Furthermore, the demarcation of the research, the feasibility of the study and the proposed chapters of the research were also highlighted.

Chapter 2 investigated the nature of induction from a theoretical viewpoint. Induction was first put in the context of personnel management. The chapter also looked at different definitions of induction and an overview of induction approaches. From the literature studies it emerged that there are different definitions of induction and different induction models as well (cf. 2.3; 2.4.1-2.4.10). However, the goals and importance of induction were underscored by all definitions and approaches as assisting beginning principals in their quests as effective educational managers (cf. 2.5-2.6).

Furthermore, the demarcation of the research was articulated and induction defined as a **process with many phases, each phase with its own programme or programmes tailored to meet individual needs for the sore purpose of assisting beginning principals to be more effective and efficient educational managers (cf. 2.4.11). Additionally, an induction programme was defined as a well-structured programme with concisely articulated goals for the purpose of helping beginning principals to meet both their needs and those of the educational system.**

In chapter 3, problems of and skills for beginning principals were discussed from a theoretical point of view. From the literature consulted, it emerged that beginning principals experience problems on different levels, including pre-service training, personal problems, socialization problems, problems with personnel and staff, internal and external relations, students and with management of change.

Moreover, they need skills such as technical skills, socialization skills and self-awareness skills in order to meet the formidable challenges of the job (cf. 3.11.1-3.11.3).

Chapter 4 looked at induction programmes and practices from different countries including the U.S.A., the U.K., Australia, South Africa and Kenya as well as some commonwealth countries in Africa. In general, it appeared from the literature that there is not a rich tradition of research focusing on the problems faced by beginning principals. What the literature seemed to suggest is, however, that beginning principals believe that they need special support and assistance, and help should be directed towards clear and consistent themes.

Chapter 5 and 6 provided the empirical investigation for determining the problems facing beginning principals and critical skills for them.

From the empirical investigation it surfaced that beginning principals in developing countries problems are not typically the same kind of problems faced by their counter parts in developed countries such as the U.S.A. and the U.K. Rather, the nature of their problems hinges on problems of finance and this is ascribed to the system's failure to provide the finances needed. Therefore, while there is nothing they can do about the financial problems, they should be made aware of the problems nevertheless.

The empirical investigation also revealed that beginning principals need self-awareness skills, technical skills and socialization skills to carry out their roles more effectively (cf. 6.6).

The ultimate goal of this research was to design an induction programme for beginning school principals in Kenya. Therefore, based on the literature findings of chapter 2, 3 and 4 and the empirical investigations of chapters 5 and 6, a **Beginning Principals' Induction Programme(BPIP)** was developed in chapter 7.

The **BPIP** was designed so that it could fit within the existing educational structures in Kenya. Thus, the induction programme which includes workshops, seminars and

conferences in addition to follow-ups and evaluation was designed around the recess months of April, August and December. The induction programme takes cognizance of the time and cost factor, thus its development and implementation are locally based.

Important findings related to professional development of beginning school principals emerged in each section of this study.

8.3 Research findings

8.3.1 Findings with regard to Aim # 1

Regarding Aim # 1, namely to determine the nature of induction theoretically, that is, from a literature study, the following findings surfaced:

* In educational management, the way in which school principals are trained, recruited and selected determines how they will be inducted and to a greater extent how effective they are going to be in their principalship (cf. 2.2.3). Therefore, if professional development among beginning principals is to be realized, attention should be given on how they are trained, recruited, selected and inducted.
* Although there are definitions and perspectives on the nature of induction they all underscore the fact that beginning principals need special assistance and support (cf. 2.4.1-2.4.11).
* An effective induction programme must have clear, well-articulated goals and must be tailored to suit the individual needs (cf. 2.4.11-2.5).
* An effective induction programme must take cognizance of cost and time factors in addition to the people involved in its implementation at the grassroots level (cf.2.4.12; 7.4).
* The success of beginning principals is not a one-man effort but a concern of all parties who care about education. Everybody including the Ministry of Education, Teachers' Service Commission, Provincial Educational Administration, District Educational Administration, outgoing principal, Area Education Officer, Mentor and the school council, are stakeholders of beginning principals' success (cf. 2.4.12; 7.4.1-7.4.3).

8.3.2 Findings with regard to Aim # 2

With regard to Aim # 2, namely to determine problems of and skills for beginning principals, the following facets were found from the literature:

* Beginning principals face a whole paronama of problems as they endeavour to execute their principalship roles (cf. 3.2-3.9).
* They face problems at the pre-service level including formal training and inadequacies of mediated entry (cf. 3.2.1-3.2.2).
* They face problems at the personal level such as professional isolation, role clarification and limited technical expertise (cf. 3.3).
* They face problems socialization in both the school and the profession (cf. 3.4).
* Personnel and staff create problems for beginning principals like dealing with incompetent teachers and lack of discipline among staff (cf. 3.5).
* Problems with both international and external relations such as poor staff morale and unco-operativeness with Board of Education members (cf. 3.6; 3.9).
* In developing countries beginning principalship is characterized by inadequacies. As such they experience unique problems such as inadequate physical facilities, inadequate classrooms, lack of equipment, shortage of teachers, and students who cannot pay school fees or buy books (cf. 3.12-3.13.5).
* Beginning principals need skills in order to be effective and efficient in their principalship. Three categories of skills that are essential for them include (cf. 3.11):

- technical skills (cf. 3.11.1);
- socialization skills (cf. 3.11.2); and
- self-awareness skills (cf .3.11.3).

* It is important that beginning principals know how to do the things they are supposed to, know how to relate with the people they serve and work with and be able to conceptualize principalship in its totality.

8.3.3 Findings with regard to Aim # 3

With regard to Aim # 3, namely to examine existing models of induction programmes for beginning principals, the following was found:

* Although beginning principals believe that they need special assistance and support, there are very few well-structured induction programmes designed for them, particularly in developing countries like Kenya (cf. 1.2; 4.1; 4.7).

* In some countries like the U.S.A, an attempt has been made to research the problems and skills needed by beginning principals. Consequently, some assistance and support for beginning principals are being provided through some state legislation, university and college initiatives, and by both school districts and professional associations who are big stakeholders in terms of the principals' success (cf. 4.2.2).
* The U.K., like the U.S.A., is paying attention to the plight of beginning principals and some extensive research has been undertaken to determine their needs and the support they need. The recently launched mentoring scheme for beginning principals and the induction programme of Weindling and Earley would be a case in point (cf. 4.4.4; 4.4.6).
* Current developments for supporting beginning principals in Australia include the recently developed principal induction programme in Victoria by the joint venture of both the Victoria Association of Secondary School Principals and the Victoria Primary Principals' Association (cf. 4.5.4).
* In some African countries, especially commonwealth countries, strides have been made to support both beginning and experienced principals' professional development through in-service training programmes (cf. 4.6).
* In South Africa and Kenya more efforts have been put into in-servicing both beginning and experienced principals through in-service courses (cf. 4.7; 4.8).

8.3.4 Findings with regard to Aim # 4

With respect to Aim # 4, namely to investigate the problems of and skills for beginning principals in Kenya, the following emerged from the empirical study:

* From the empirical study, it become evident that problems facing beginning principals in developing countries like Kenya are experienced at other levels in contrast to problems experienced by beginning principals in some developed countries like the U.S.A and the U.K. (cf. 6.3.8; 6.4.8). Most of the problems they experience could be seen more as system problems and policies than what would be referred to typically as beginning principals' problems. For instance, from this study it came out that some of the most formidable challenges facing beginning principals include:

- students who cannot pay fees;
- students who cannot buy books;
- a shortage of school equipment;

- a shortage of physical facilities;
- staff accommodation;
- installing telephones;
- parents' illiteracy;
- students travelling long distances;
- lack of playgrounds;
- use of English as medium of instruction;
- lack of running water; and
- inaccessibility of parents.

* A standard curriculum or induction programme for educational managers cannot be prescribed since problems are not standard both in terms of the individual, the country and the time.
* The study also showed that beginning principals need critical skills, including (cf. 6.6):

- self-awareness skills;
- technical skills; and
- socialization skills.

8.3.5 Findings with regard to Aim # 5

Regarding Aim # 5, namely to develop an induction programme for beginning school principals in Kenya, the following findings were made:

* An induction programme should fit within the existing structures of the educational system and should make use of the existing infrastructural development and implementation (7.3-7.4).
* A comprehensive induction programme stems from well-articulated goals that are achievable and measurable, coupled with sound management structures that recognize the importance of the people responsible for its implementation as the key ingredients for its success.
* Everybody involved in the implementation of the induction programme must receive some sort of training so as to be an effective role player (cf. 7.4.1-7.4.3).
* An induction programme must be evaluated to determine its strengths and weaknesses (7.5.2.5).

8.4 Recommendation

Recommendation 1

Recruitment, selection and appointment of school principals should be done without political interference.

Motivation

The principal as the key person in the school must be a competent person who should champion the academic programme of the school. Politicization of the principalship taints that focus.

Recommendation 2

Beginning principals need special consideration and support from their employer.

Motivation

Very little or nothing is done at present to support beginning principals in their early years. Although no process will salvage the principal who doesn't have what it takes to succeed, thoughtful induction can help to avoid the failures of one who does.

Recommendation 3

Beginning principals should know how to organize effective Harambee fund raising.

Motivation

Many governments in developing countries cannot afford to meet the financial needs of their educational system. If beginning principals can effectively mobilize the community, some of the financial needs could be solved locally.

Recommendation 4

The utilization of the Teachers' Advisory Centres (TACs) should be expanded to include serving as centres for beginning principals as well.

Motivation

These centres are locally based and since most principals are appointed to manage schools within their vicinities, the centres provide a cost-effective and time-effective way of implementing an induction programme.

Recommendation 5

Efforts to improve the preparation for the principalship should be concentrated on aspiring vice-principals.

Motivation

Beginning principals are appointed mostly from the ranks of deputy principals. Improvement of their preparation as future heads would enhance their management capabilities.

Recommendation 6

Principals should be required to take an active role in preparing vice-principals for principalship.

Motivation

There is no academic pre-service training for beginning principals in most developing countries. By allowing the vice-principals more responsibilities, for instance, spending more time standing in for the principals, would give the vice-principals confidence in the job.

Recommendation 7

Professional associations of secondary and primary school principals should be established and supported by the Ministry of Education and the Teachers' Service Commission.

Motivation

Professional associations offer opportunities for networking and collaboration. Principals need the support of other principals.

Recommendation 8

Universities and Teachers' Training Colleges should offer courses in Educational management.

Motivation

There are no universities that offer specialized training in educational management in Kenya. Practice without theory to guide it is blind. Universities can provide theoretical frameworks in educational management.

Recommendation 9

Mentoring systems for beginning principals should be established.

Motivation

Mentoring has come to be considered as the panacea of the many problems facing beginning principals. It is cost-effective and time-effective as well. Besides, peers like to train peers, thus principals would like to train principals.

Recommendation 10

The Ministry of Education and the Teacherss Service Commission should consider the implementation of the **Beginning Principals' Induction Programme(BPIP)**

Motivation

Research has shown that beginning principals have pressing needs and problems. Since there is no other well-structured programme for beginning principals the **BPIP** could start as a catalyst.

8.5 Conclusion

It is widely accepted that educational managers (principals) exert considerable influence over the quality of education that occurs in the school. Therefore, the effectiveness of beginning principals is a desired factor in school effectiveness.

Effective induction of beginning principals is a profitable investment in line with human capital theory. However, very little attention has been paid to the induction of beginning principals in Kenya.

In a nutshell, the Kenyan educational system appoints principals from the ranks of experienced successful teachers and deputy principals. Therefore, as this study has shown, induction of beginning principals in their entry years is an imperative and not merely an option for consideration.

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APPENDIX A

Questionnaire No. | | | | (1-3)

Card No. | 1 | (4)

SECTION A

Please answer the following questions by putting a CROSS (X) on one of the appropriate numbers.

NB: School principal in all questions refers to headmaster or headmistress.

1. Your age category in years

1.1	Below 30	1	
1.2	31-35	2	
1.3	36-39	3	(5)
1.4	40-45	4	
1.5	46-50	5	
1.6	51 and over	6	

2. Sex

2.1	Male	1	(6)
2.2	Female	2	

3. Marital status

3.1	Married	1	(7)
3.2	Unmarried	2	

4. **For how long have you been a principal (H/M) i.e. number of years as a school principal?**

4.1	0-3	1	(8)
4.2	3 and over	2	

5. **What position did you hold immediately before becoming a principal (H/M)?**

5.1	Assistant teacher	1	
5.2	Deputy principal (DH/M)	2	
5.3	Acting principal (H/M)	3	(9)
5.4	Head of department	4	
5.5	Other: Please specify ...	5	

6. **Highest academic qualification.**

6.1	K.J.S.E.	1	
6.2	E.A.C.E./K.C.S.E. (O-level)	2	
6.3	Advanced Certificate (A-level)	3	
6.4	B.A. degree	4	(10)
6.5	B. Ed. degree	5	
6.6	Masters degree	6	
6.7	Doctorate degree	7	
6.8	Other: Please specify ..	8	

7. Highest professional qualification.

7.1	P4	1	
7.2	P3	2	
7.3	P2	3	
7.4	P1	4	(11)
7.5	S1	5	
7.6	Diploma	6	
7.7	Other: Please specify...	7	

8. Have you attended any form of educational management training?

8.1	Diploma	1	
8.2	Degree	2	
8.3	Seminars	3	(12)
8.4	In-Service	4	
8.5	Other: Please specify...	5	

9. Which of the following describes best the location of your school?

9.1	Urban	1	
9.2	Suburban	2	(13)
9.3	Rural	3	

10. Type of your school

10.1	Government	1	
10.2	Harambee	2	
10.3	Private	3	(14)
10.4	Parochial	4	

11. School category

11.1	Boarding school	1	
11.2	Day school	2	(15)
11.3	Both boarding and day school	3	

12. School composition

12.1	Boys only	1	
12.2	Girls only	2	(16)
12.3	Co-educational (Mixed)	3	

13. Number of students in your school

13.1	Below 100	1	
13.2	101-300	2	
13.3	301-600	3	(17)
13.4	601-900	4	
13.5	901 and over	5	

14. The level of your school

14.1	Primary	1	(18)
14.2	Secondary	2	

SECTION B

Please indicate to what extent each of the following has been a problem for you as a beginning principal by making a **CROSS (X)** on the appropriate number, using the following scale:

Scale

1. **Not a problem**
2. **Minor problem**
3. **A problem**
4. **Serious problem**

	1. Preservice training	**Not a problem**	**Minor problem**	**A Problem**	**Serious problem**	
1.1	Appropriateness of formal academic training	1	2	3	4	(19)
1.2	Appropriateness of formal education in management training	1	2	3	4	(20)
1.3	Lack of teaching experience	1	2	3	4	(21)
1.4	Lack of experience as head of department	1	2	3	4	(22)
1.5	Lack of experience as deputy principal	1	2	3	4	(23)
1.6	Lack of experience as acting principal	1	2	3	4	(24)

2. Personal problems

2.1	Housing for your family	1	2	3	4	(25)
2.2	Locating a school for your children	1	2	3	4	(26)
2.3	Locating a church belonging to your denomination	1	2	3	4	(27)
2.4	Locating comprehensive health care	1	2	3	4	(28)
2.5	Locating a suitable social club	1	2	3	4	(29)
2.6	Making new friends	1	2	3	4	(30)

		Not a problem	Minor problem	A Problem	Serious problem	
3. Management problems						
3.1	Lack of feedback from supervisors	1	2	3	4	(31)
3.2	Understanding your role as a school principal	1	2	3	4	(32)
3.3	Meeting job demands	1	2	3	4	(33)
3.4	Delegating responsibilities	1	2	3	4	(34)
3.5	Fear of being held accountable	1	2	3	4	(35)
3.6	Budgeting school finance	1	2	3	4	(36)
3.7	Controlling school finance	1	2	3	4	(37)
3.8	Handling legal issues	1	2	3	4	(38)
3.9	Knowledge of department rules	1	2	3	4	(39)
3.10	Compiling master time-table	1	2	3	4	(40)
3.11	Setting up school assemblies	1	2	3	4	(41)
3.12	Ordering school equipment	1	2	3	4	(42)
3.13	Record keeping	1	2	3	4	(43)
3.14	Operating school equipment (i.e. copy machines, etc.)	1	2	3	4	(44)
3.15	Organizing Harambee fund raising	1	2	3	4	(45)
3.16	Managing one's own time	1	2	3	4	(46)
3.17	Lack of sufficient time	1	2	3	4	(47)
3.18	Too much administrative work	1	2	3	4	(48)
3.19	Getting information about the school	1	2	3	4	(49)
3.20	Social relationships inside the school	1	2	3	4	(50)
3.21	Conducting meetings	1	2	3	4	(51)
3.22	Handling stress	1	2	3	4	(52)

		Not a problem	Minor problem	A Problem	Serious problem	
4. Instructional problems						
4.1	Recruitment of teachers	1	2	3	4	(53)
4.2	Appointment of teachers	1	2	3	4	(54)
4.3	Inducting (helping) new teachers	1	2	3	4	(55)
4.4	Classroom supervision of teachers	1	2	3	4	(56)
4.5	Dealing with incompetent teachers	1	2	3	4	(57)
4.6	Handling teacher absenteeism	1	2	3	4	(58)
4.7	Disciplining teachers	1	2	3	4	(59)
4.8	Transfer of teachers	1	2	3	4	(60)
5. Relationship problems						
5.1	Working with incompetent members of senior management team	1	2	3	4	(61)
5.2	Working with uncooperative teachers	1	2	3	4	(62)
5.3	Winning trust from staff	1	2	3	4	(63)
5.4	Motivating staff	1	2	3	4	(64)
5.5	Dealing with previous head's influence	1	2	3	4	(65)
5.6	Managing conflict	1	2	3	4	(66)
5.7	Managing change	1	2	3	4	(67)
5.8	Managing resistance to change	1	2	3	4	(68)

Card No. 2 (1)

		Not a problem	Minor problem	A Problem	Serious problem	
6. Problems with students						
6.1	Dealing with students with special needs (i.e. learning problems, etc.)	1	2	3	4	(2)
6.2	Dealing with gifted students	1	2	3	4	(3)
6.3	Dealing with student discipline	1	2	3	4	(4)
6.4	Conducting student meetings	1	2	3	4	(5)
6.5	Lack of a learning culture	1	2	3	4	(6)
6.6	Dormitory issues	1	2	3	4	(7)
6.7	Food service	1	2	3	4	(8)
6.8	Sexual misconduct	1	2	3	4	(9)
6.9	Student absenteeism	1	2	3	4	(10)
6.10	Overage students	1	2	3	4	(11)
7. Problems with external relations						
7.1	Relationship with Area Education Officer (AEO)	1	2	3	4	(12)
7.2	Relationship with District Education Officer (DEO)	1	2	3	4	(13)
7.3	Relationship with school inspectors	1	2	3	4	(14)

7. Problems with external relations (continued)		Not a problem	Minor problem	A Problem	Serious problem	
7.4	Relationship with school committee	1	2	3	4	(15)
7.5	Relationship with Parent Teacher Association (PTA)	1	2	3	4	(16)
7.6	Relationship with Kenya National Union of Teachers (KNUT)	1	2	3	4	(17)
7.7	Relationship with Teachers Service Commission (TSC)	1	2	3	4	(18)
7.8	Parental problems	1	2	3	4	(19)
7.9	Liaison problems	1	2	3	4	(20)
7.10	Party politics	1	2	3	4	(21)
7.11	Dealing with religious issues	1	2	3	4	(22)

8. General problems

8.1	Flushing toilets	1	2	3	4	(23)
8.2	Running water	1	2	3	4	(24)
8.3	Shortage of physical facilities	1	2	3	4	(25)
8.4	Staff accommodation	1	2	3	4	(26)
8.5	Student travelling long distances	1	2	3	4	(27)
8.6	Installing telephones	1	2	3	4	(28)
8.7	Parents illiteracy	1	2	3	4	(29)
8.8	Inaccessibility of parents	1	2	3	4	(30)
8.9	Geographical location of the school	1	2	3	4	(31)
8.10	Lack of mailing facilities	1	2	3	4	(32)

8. General problems (continued)		Not a problem	Minor problem	A Problem	Serious problem	
8.11	Lack of administrative staff	1	2	3	4	(33)
8.12	Students who cannot pay school fees	1	2	3	4	(34)
8.13	Students who cannot buy books	1	2	3	4	(35)
8.14	Shortage of school equipment	1	2	3	4	(36)
8.15	Lack of playgrounds	1	2	3	4	(37)
8.16	Shortage of teachers	1	2	3	4	(38)
8.17	Political unrest	1	2	3	4	(39)
8.18	Dealing with strikes	1	2	3	4	(40)
8.19	Overcrowded classrooms	1	2	3	4	(41)
8.20	Dealing with tribal issues	1	2	3	4	(42)
8.21	Use of English as a medium of instruction	1	2	3	4	(43)

9. List other problems which you have experienced as a beginning school principal (H/M) that have not been mentioned above.

_____

_____

_____

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SECTION C

Listed below are a series of skills that have been identified by a group of educational officers as relevant for individual to perform as part of their duties as beginning principals (H/Ms) Please read through the list and for each item use the rating scales to the right of each item to indicate the extent to which you believe a skill is critical for the effective performance of the job of the principal (H/Ms). Refer to the following scale as you respond to each item.

5 = **Extremely critical skill** (Not being able to do this would make it highly unlikely that a person could continue in the headship.)
4 = **Somewhat critical**
3 = **Fairly important, but not absolutely essential**
2 = **Somewhat unimportant**
1 = **Irrelevant skill for the effective performance of the job of the school principal.** (Not being able to do this would have no impact on a person's ability to serve as a principal.)

SECTION C: Skills	**Irrelevant skill**	**Somewhat unimportant**	**Fairly important**	**Somewhat critical**	**Extremely critical**	
1. How to evaluate the staff (i.e. procedures for the task and also the substance: (what standards really mean?)	1	2	3	4	5	(44)
2. How to facilitate/conduct a group meeting.	1	2	3	4	5	(45)
3. How to design and implement a data-based improvement process and goal-setting and evaluation.	1	2	3	4	5	(46)
4. How to develop and monitor a school financial budget.	1	2	3	4	5	(47)
5. How to organize and conduct parent-teacher-student conferences	1	2	3	4	5	(48)

SECTION C: Skills (continued)

		Irrelevent skill	Somewhat unimportant	Fairly important	Somewhat critical	Extremely critical	
6.	How to establish a scheduling programme for students and staff.	1	2	3	4	5	(49)
7.	Awareness of issues related to local school law.	1	2	3	4	5	(50)
8.	How to manage food services, custodial and secretarial staff.	1	2	3	4	5	(51)
9.	Establishing a positive and cooperative relationship with other education officers.	1	2	3	4	5	(52)
10.	How to determine who is what in the school setting.	1	2	3	4	5	(53)
11.	Knowing how to relate to school committee members and district office personnel.	1	2	3	4	5	(54)
12.	Knowing where the limits exists within the school and balancing that knowledge with one's professional values.	1	2	3	4	5	(55)
13.	Understanding how the principalship changes family and other personal relationship.	1	2	3	4	5	(56)
14.	Developing interpersonal networking skills that may be used with individuals inside and outside the system.	1	2	3	4	5	(57)
15.	Ability to encourage involvement by all parties in the educational community.	1	2	3	4	5	(58)
16.	How to develop positive relationships with other organizations and agencies located in the school's surrounding community.	1	2	3	4	5	(59)
17.	Demonstrating an awareness os what it means to possess organizational power and authority.	1	2	3	4	5	(60)

SECTION C: Skills (continued)

		Irrelevant skill	Somewhat unimportan	Fairly important	Somewhat critical	Extremely critical	
18.	Demonstrating an awareness why one was selected for a leadership position in the first place.	1	2	3	4	5	(61)
19.	Portraying a sense of self-confidence on the job.	1	2	3	4	5	(62)
20.	Having a vision along with an understanding needed to achieve relevant goals.	1	2	3	4	5	(63)
21.	Demonstrating a desire to make a significant difference in the live of students.	1	2	3	4	5	(64)
22.	Being aware of one's biases, strengths, and weaknesses.	1	2	3	4	5	(65)
23.	Understanding and seeing that change is ongoing, and that it results in continually changing vision of the principalship.	1	2	3	4	5	(66)
24.	How to assess job responsibilities in terms of the "real role" of the principalship.	1	2	3	4	5	(67)

25. List other essential skills for beginning school principals (H/Ms).

APPENDIX B

Mwaya Wa Kitavi
P.O Box 22397
Nairobi
Date: July 17,1994.

The Permanent Secretary
Office of the President
P.O Box 30510
Nairobi

Re: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A STUDY ON SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS IN KENYA

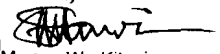
I am PhD student in educational management at the Potchefstroomse Universiteit in South Africa. My studies have reached a critical stage that requires me to carry out an empirical investigation through field work in Kenya.

The empirical part of my doctoral dissertation under the topic **"The Induction of beginning school principals(H/Ms) in Kenya** will be done through questionnaires send to secondary school principals throughout the country.

It is therefore on the account of the above that I am writing to the Office of the President seeking permission to carry out this study hence distribute the questionnaire to the principals.

Thanking you in advance for the permission.

Sincerely



Mwaya Wa Kitavi

APPENDIX C

Mwaya wa Kitavi
P.O Box 22397
Nairobi

Date: July 23, 1994

The Principals(H/M)

.....
.....
.....

Dear Sir/Madam

I'm undertaking a study to determine the problems, challenges, difficulties and concerns facing school principals in Kenya; and important skills for them. Ultimately, the aim of this study is to develop an induction programme for beginning school principals(H/Ms) in Kenya.

Your views and experience as a school principal(H/M) are very important in developing an induction programme for future beginning school principals in Kenya. Thus, the information you provide will contribute significantly to improving induction practices of future beginning principals(H/Ms) and educational management practices in Kenya.

Therefore, you are kindly requested to complete the entire questionnaire and return it as soon as possible using the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelop. Your questionnaire should be returned by the **10th of August 1994.** All information given will be strictly confidential and no person or school will be given or identified when the final report is completed.

Permission to conduct this study has been granted by the office of the president(see attached letter).

Let me thank you, in advance for taking your time and your cooperation on this important issue in Kenyan schools.

Sincerely,

Mwaya Wa Kitavi

NB: Without your questionnaire this study cannot be complete; therefore it is important that your questionnaire be returned on time.

APPENDIX D

OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT

PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION AND INTERNAL SECURITY BOx 30510, NAIROBI

REF. OP/13/001/24C 156/2 22nd July ....19.94..

The Secretary,
National Council for Science and Technology,
P.O. Box 30623,
NAIROBI.

RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

APPLICANT (S) MWAYA WA KITAVI

The above named has been authorized to conduct research on

THE INDUCTION OF BEGINNING SCHOOL PRINCIPALS (HEADTEACHERS) (KENYA)

As indicated on the application form, this research will be conducted in

ALL PROVINCES, KENYA

For a period ending JULY 1995

Under the Standing Research, Clearance awarded to Kenyan Universities/ Public Institutions.

I herewith enclose copies of his/her application for record purpose. He/She has also been notified that we will need a minimum of two copies of his/her research findings at the expiry of the project.

D. KIUA NZIOKA
FOR: PERMANENT SECRETARY/PROVINCIAL ADMINISTRATION

c.c.

THE PROVINCIAL COMMISSIONERS
ALL PROVINCES, KENYA

MWAYA WA KITAVI
P.O. BOx 22397
NAIROBI.

PROF. VANDER WESTHUIZEN
PV.VIR CHO 2520 POTCHEFSTROON
SOUTH AFRICA

APPENDIX E

Mwaya Wa Kitavi
P.O Box 22397
Nairobi

August 15, 1994

The Principal(H/M)

Dear Sir/Madam

Re: QUESTIONNAIRE

A few weeks ago, I sent a questionnaire to you to fill and send it back to me using a self-addressed stamped envelop which was enclosed. I am aware that my questionnaire found you at the busy time of the school year hence you may not have had time to fill it.

Therefore, I am writing to remind you that I am still waiting for your questionnaire anytime soon. Thus, please be kind enough and forward it.

Thanking you again for your time and cooperation.

Sincerely

Mwaya Wa Kitavi