

## Left to their own Devices: Understanding the Induction Needs of Beginning P1 Teachers in Public Primary Schools in Kenya

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### ABSTRACT

This article reports on the findings from quantitative research on the views and experiences of beginning P1 teachers in public primary schools in Kenya regarding induction, mentoring and other supportive programmes. *Aim:* To investigate the views and experiences of P1 teachers in public primary schools on induction, mentoring and support programmes. *Study design:* The study adopted a quantitative survey design and took place in Kisii and Nyamira Counties in Kenya. *Methodology:* The study is a quantitative survey involving 24 beginning P1 teachers in public primary schools (45.8% males and 54.2 females). 70.2% were in the 30-40 age groups, while 20.8% were in the 41-51 one. 33.3% graduated between 1995 and 2000, while 66.7% graduated between 2001- 2006. All the respondents got jobs in public primary schools between 2009 and 2013, just over half (54.2%) of them in 2012. 75% got jobs in private or academy primary schools immediately after graduation. 79.2% were still teaching in academies when they secured jobs in public primary schools. 20.8% who were not teaching at the time they secured jobs in public primary schools, were involved in their own business (not related to teaching). Some of them got jobs in academies but left shortly after due to what they considered as mistreatment, poor pay, harsh working environment and poor working relationship with Teachers Service Commission (TSC) teachers. *Result:* 37.8% had induction when they started teaching at public primary schools which lasted between 1 and 4 weeks. 41.7% received personal support. Some of the challenges cited in the study include insufficient and/or inadequate teaching materials (54%), reality shock (29%), dealing with individual differences (25%), classroom discipline (21%), motivating students (21%), relationships with parents (21%), assessing pupils' work (17%), dealing with problems of individual pupils (17%) organisation with class work (13%) and problems of experienced teachers (13%). *Conclusion:* Effective induction programme for beginning public primary school teachers was limited and inadequate.

**Keywords:** Kenya, P1 teachers, Public primary school, Induction, Mentoring, Beginning teachers, new teachers.

### INTRODUCTION

Several studies (Mokgatle and Acker, 2002; Mulkeen, 2010; Darling- Hammond and Berry, 1999; Zepeda and Ponticell, 1997; Ganser, 1995; Mayer, Jocus, Murphy, Calkins, Smith, Campbell, Merrick, Rudolph, Wilkins, Harmston, Yamashiro, Hanson, Wentworth and Upton, 1991) have examined induction and its role in initiating beginning teachers into the teaching profession and their findings are consistent and compelling. Effective induction has been noted to lower attrition rates of new teachers as well as contribute positively to teachers' success (Darling-Hammond and Berry, 1999). Darling-Hammond and Berry, 1999, p.270) also add that induction initiatives can "make a substantial difference in teacher recruitment and retention". Effective induction programme has also been associated with quality teaching among new teachers reflected in the use of effective instructional planning practices and offering students more learning opportunities with higher students' engagement rates (Darling- Hammond and Berry, 1999). Further benefits associated with additional support given to new teachers have been cited by Davies and his colleague, they include: a) make their early years of teaching more effective; b) improve

instruction that students receive; c) eventually stem the tide of attrition (Davies, Petish and Sithey, 2006, p.608).

Besides, new teachers joining the profession have been recognised in the literature as a source of renewal within the professions, because they provide new opportunities for the teaching community members to re-examine their practices and re-think their positions (Mayer et al. 1991, p.79). This is also echoed by Wilkins (2005, p.84) who observes that: “The protégé professional development does not have to be the only outcome of a mentoring relationship. The mentor is a second beneficiary of the close observation of instructional practice”. Therefore it is important that beginning teachers receive on-going support (Mokgatle and Acker, 2002).

Studies have suggested areas that new teachers need support and include classroom procedures, planning lessons, teaching methods and decisions about discipline (Darling- Hammond and Berry, 1999). Other areas they struggle with include understanding the organisational context of their individual schools; understanding the climate and culture of the school, the practices of the human relationships among teachers, administrators, parents and students in the school (Zepeda and Ponticell, 1997, p.8). New or beginning teachers also face the challenge of isolation, lack of appropriate opportunity to observe other teachers in their classrooms (Zepeda and Ponticell, 1997). It is for these reasons that effective induction is necessary in order to provide the required support. Watkins (2005, P.83) argues that “new teachers cannot be left to figure out things in a vacuum”.

Effective induction has been linked to mentoring. Wong, Britton and Ganser (2005) note that mentoring is a component of the induction process. Ganser (1995) outlines the qualities of suitable mentors, among them being experienced, competent and accomplished teachers. However, mentors have to be trained for their role (Mulkeen, 2010). Mulkeen (2010) notes however, that in several Sub-Saharan countries training for mentors was limited. Darling-Hammond and Berry (1999, p.255) links teachers’ effectiveness to quality of teacher preparation and induction:

Poor preparation and lack of support for newly hired teachers often undermine their willingness to remain in teaching and develop knowledge and skills. High quality preparation, induction and mentoring programme, lower attrition rates for new teachers and can enhance teacher effectiveness.

This study reports on the induction needs of beginning P1 teachers in public primary schools in Kenya. It is important to mention that this article is an outcome of a somewhat casual conversation the author had with two P1 teachers who had been recently employed in public primary schools in Kenya. One graduated from a primary teachers training college in the late 1990s and had been employed as a teachers since then. So this was her first opportunity to enter a classroom as a teacher. The other one also graduated in the late 1990s but managed work in academy primary schools but on ‘on and off’ basis. Both of them were beginners in the public primary schools. The conversation was very revealing and compelling. The conversations revealed hard work and frequent frustration, and lack of support system in place e.g. induction. The conversation led to a more deliberate programme of investigation into concerns of beginning teachers in public primary schools in Kenya. McCann and Johannessen (2004, p.144), observe that “new teachers need help to realise the importance of their work and find resources that will allow them to continue their work in an effective and satisfying way”. Watkins (2005, P.83) also argues that:

Effective teaching is not intuitive whether new teachers come to the classroom as a second career or directly from a teacher education programme, they all share the need for support and belonging. Further, Watkins (2005, P.84) argues that “ A novice just joining the teaching staff after years in earlier career presents no less of a challenge than a novice fresh from university programme”.

### **PRE-SERVICE PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS TRAINING PROGRAMME IN KENYA**

The importance of teachers in education is underscored by both the Educational International (2007) and Mulkeen (2010) in the following three quotations. According to the Educational International (2007,

p.16), “There is overwhelming evidence that qualified teacher contribute to quality teaching and learning”. Mulkeen (2010, p.13) adds that “teachers are central to both coverage and quality of education”. He further observes that “teachers are also central to determining the quality of education and outcomes and efforts to improve educational quality focus heavily on improving the capacity and management of teachers”. (Mulkeen, 2010, p.13). However there are number of inherent assumptions associated with these three quotations above, for instance, that a qualified teacher is always a quality teacher and that any teacher can contribute to quality education. A study in the United States identified teacher quality as the single most important variable which can determine student achievement (Thuranira, 2010).

According to Mpokosa and Ndarunutse (2008), the quality of teacher training dictates the quality of teaching. Similar views have been expressed by Mobegi and Ondigi (2011) that a better trained teaching workforce is important in providing quality education. Therefore quality training equips teachers with technical knowhow and makes them competent in the teaching-learning process. Cooper and Alvarado (2006) have identified four key components that contribute to effective teacher preparation programme. They include high standards of entry; strong content (subject matter) preparation; substantial pedagogical training and supervised clinical experiences. Similarly Shulman (1987) as cited in Bunyi, Wangia, Limboro and Akyeambong (2011) argue that effective teacher preparation programmes equips teachers with three types of knowledge that combine to produce effective teaching. They include knowledge about subject matter (content knowledge); knowledge on how to engage with the learners and manage classrooms (pedagogical knowledge) and knowledge of how to represent and formulate content knowledge to make it understandable to students (pedagogical content knowledge). Therefore improvement in teacher education or training has been recognised as part of the solution to educational problems (Thuranira, 2010).

### **Training of P1 teachers in Kenya**

P1 refers to primary 1, which is a certificate given to teachers after completing a two years programme (Thuranira, 2010). In the Kenyan context, P1 are primary school teachers. In the past Kenya primary teacher colleges used to offer P2, P3 and P4 grade programmes based on the trainees’ entry levels, for instance, primary education leavers or completers trained as P3 and P4, while Kenya Junior Secondary Examination (KJSE) leavers trained as P2 grade teachers, but all have now been discontinued (Thuranira, 2010; Bunyi et al., 2011). Currently, the P1 grade is the highest grade that primary school teacher can achieve, however Kenya government is considering raising the PTE programme from certificate to diploma, underpinned by two arguments a) Kenya require higher quality teachers in the 21 Century, b) Good proportion of teacher trainees in PTTCs possess the minimum (C plus) KCSE examination grade which is the university entry requirement (Bunyi et al. 2011). Similar reforms (phasing out of courses) have also been reported in Ghana, where previously teacher training colleges used to offer five different types of training (Adu-Yeboah, n.d). All them were phased out and now Colleges of Education (CoEs) offers a three- year, six semester Diploma in Basic Education (DBE) programme which commenced in the 2004/2005 academic year (Adu-Yeboah, n.d). However, challenges related to accessing relevant teaching and learning materials and poor library facilities have been highlighted as hindrance to effectiveness (Adu-Yeboah, n.d).

Review of literature shows that Uganda has also a two-year pre-service teacher training programme. However the programme has been described as inadequate for preparing new teachers (Kyeyune, Baleeta, Sentongo, Nambi, Katende, Westbrook and Lussier, 2011).

In Kenya primary school teachers are trained in 21 public primary teachers colleges (PPTCs) and 10 small private colleges (Bunyi et al., 2011; Republic of Kenya, 2005). Primary Teacher Education (PTE) in Kenya has come a long way, having been introduced by the Christian Missionaries in the early years of the Twentieth Century (Bunyi et al., 2011; Unesco, 2010). At independence in 1963 however, only 31.7%

of primary teacher were trained (Bunyi et al., 2011), because the colonial government paid little or no attention to African education (Kanonio and Musia, 2011).

The PTE curriculum in Kenya is centrally developed by the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) and therefore is expected to be uniform across the country (Bunyi et al., 2011). The PTE curriculum consists of two volume syllabuses; Vol. 1 first year and Vol. 2 second year. A total of 19 courses are covered within the two year period as follows (Bunyi et al., 2011; Unesco, 2010; Kanonio and Musia, 2011): In the first year, 10 subjects or courses are taught and include Mathematics, English, Kiswahili, Science, Religious Education, Social studies, Professional studies (Education), Creative Arts, Physical Education and Information Communication and Technology (ICT). During the second year 9 subjects or courses and practical teaching are covered. The 9 subjects or courses consists of 5 core and 4 optional. The core subjects or courses include English, Kiswahili, Professional Studies, Physical Education and ICT. Within the option subjects or courses there are two sub-options namely Option A (science subjects or courses) and option B (Art subjects or courses). Option A includes Science, Home science, Agriculture, and Mathematics, while option B- Music, Art and Crafts, Social studies and Religious Education (Bunyi et al., 2011; Unesco, 2010; Kanonio and Musia, 2011).

However, once qualified and if there is a need or shortage, teachers teach all subjects whether Science or Art that is taught in primary schools (Kanonio and Musia, 2011) and regardless of the option they specialised in.

The PTE curriculum was first introduced in Kenya in 1986 and then subsequently revised in 1994 and 2004 as a result of the revision of the primary school curriculum (Republic of Kenya, 2005). Therefore PTE curriculum was revised in order to create some match with the primary school curriculum. The revised curriculum covers current issues such as HIV and AIDs pandemic, drug and substance abuse, environmental education, human rights, gender awareness, modern technology and the inclusion policy (Republic of Kenya, 2005).

However a number of concerns have been reported regarding the current PTE curriculum, for instance, inadequate curriculum support materials for teacher trainers (Republic of Kenya, 2005). Thurair (2010) also reports that teachers qualifying from Kenya's PTE are ill-equipped to teach some subjects. A study conducted by Gathumbi and reported on the Daily Nation August, 17<sup>th</sup> 2009 as cited by Thurair (2010, p. 45-46) reveals that:

Forty percent of the primary teacher trainees do not have the desired English language skills. They end up teaching English skills, yet they are poor in listening and writing, which are key skills in the teaching of English and other subjects. They cannot even pass the exam they are supposed to set and administer to the pupils.

The situation is attributed to great emphasis Teacher Training Colleges (TTC) place on teaching methodology as opposed to subject matter (Thurair, 2010). Also there are concerns that teacher trainees are trained to teach subjects that they failed in the KCSE examination (Thurair, 2010). Therefore, suggesting that teacher trainees never qualified to train on those subjects in the first place, so they enter with low entry requirement (Mulkeen, 2010).

Serious mismatch concerns have been raised, for instance, a mismatch between skills acquired in training and the skill needs of the industry because some teachers are inadequately trained (Kanonio and Musia, 2011). Mulkeen (2010) highlights potential lack of alignment between the taught content and the school curriculum content, and especially in university programmes. This happens in what Mulkeen (2010, p. 83) describes as "consecutive training model", "where students are expected to undergo a general degree and later undergo pedagogical training."

### **Factors that may impede the effectiveness of a teacher training programme**

Studies have identified a number of factors that could undermine the effectiveness of a teacher training or preparation programme. For instance, lack of suitably qualified school leavers to join teacher training

colleges perhaps due to high entry requirements. In a number of countries entry requirement is based heavily on academic performance either in state examination or dedicated entry tests (Mulkeen, 2010). In The Gambia, for instance, entry requirements consists of state examination, special entrance examination and an interview because of impersonation issues (MULkeen, 2010). At times countries in Sub-Saharan Africa and elsewhere have had make some compromises to attract students to teacher training colleges (Mulkeen, 2010):

- Lower the entry requirements in order to attract applicants;
- Use of affirmative actions in order to improve equity access. For instance both Malawi and Zambia 40 percent and 50 percent of places for female students respectively. But in Malawi colleges were unable to meet the target, because entry requirements were not reduced;
- Use of quota system to ensure geographical balance with a fixed proportion of students from each district e.g. Lesotho. But still college experienced difficulties in filling available spaces;
- In a number of occasions, in a number of countries in Sub-Saharan Africa teacher training curriculum content lacked close alignment with the school curriculum content needs;
- Tutors in teacher training colleges lacked appropriate skills and experiences to provide required training and support to future teachers.

### **INDUCTION OF BEGINNING TEACHERS**

Induction has been defined as highly organised and comprehensive form of staff development, involving many people and components that typically continue as a sustained process for the first two to five years of a teacher's career (Wong et al., 2005; p. 379). Mentoring is often a component of the induction process (Wong et al., 2005; p.379). A study involving five countries (Switzerland, Japan, Shanghai (China), New Zealand, France) reveals significant degree of variations and some similarities (Wong et al., 2005) in relation to induction. For instance, in France new teachers work with a group of peers to share experiences, practices and professional language for an extended period of time; In Japan new teachers are assigned guiding teachers and receive reduced teaching load. Also formal public lesson (demonstration) is a common practice; In New Zealand the induction phase is called 'Advice and Guidance (AG) programme and every new teacher receive 20% release time to participate in the programme; In Switzerland new teachers are involved in practice groups where they network in learning; In Shanghai (China) new teachers join lesson preparation and teaching research groups (Wong et al., 2005; p. 379-382). Despite such significant degree of variation, there are some common grounds among the five countries (Wong et al., 2005; p. 383):

- They are highly structured;
- They focus on professional learning;
- They emphasise collaboration.

The three similarities highlight something about the nature and quality of induction programme that exist in those five countries. Jensen, Sandoval-Hernández, Knoll and Gonzalez (2008) note that induction programme can vary widely between countries and between schools within countries. For instance it can be perfunctory, focusing on logistics and meeting people or focusing on extensive interaction between more effective teachers and new teachers with frequent feedback (Jensen et al., 2008).

Darling-Hammond and Berry (1999) identify poor preparation and lack of support for newly hired teachers as two important factors that undermine the willingness of beginning teachers to remain in teaching and to develop their knowledge and skills. They therefore single out high quality preparation,

induction and mentoring programmes as factors that can lower attrition rates for new teachers and enhance teachers' effectiveness.

The National Commission of Teaching and America's Future (NCTAF, 1996 as cited in Darling-Hammond and Berry (1999, p.255) has also identified four factors that undermines the teacher quality :

- Recruitment of teachers and other educational personnel is frequently ad hoc;
- Teacher preparation is uneven and often insufficiently aligned with the needs of contemporary classrooms and diverse learners;
- Selection of hiring decisions are too often disconnected from either specific school district goals or from conception of quality teaching;
- Induction and mentoring efforts are frequently scattershot and likely to be the first programmes eliminated when districts cut their budgets.

The commission further argue that (NCTAF, 1996 as cited in Darling-Hammond and Berry, 1999, p.255):

Given growing teacher demand, changing student demographics, and more ambitious school improvement goals, the United States need more thoughtful, sustained and systematic approaches to teacher recruitment, development and support

The above statement also applies to other countries as well that have a concern for quality education, because the changes taking place among students and in the teaching and learning environment require appropriate response.

The New Haven District in the United States has been recognised in the literature for having successful teacher support and assessment programme that provide support for teachers in their first two years of the classroom (Darling- Hammond and Berry, 1999). And many beginning teachers have reported that they chose to teach in New Haven District because of availability of strong initial support (Darling-Hammond and Berry. 1999, p.270).

It is important to highlight the fact that new teachers need go through an adjustment period where they learn the craft of teaching along with adjusting to other aspects of an initial job (Rivkin, Hanushek and Kain, 2005). Similarly, Ünal and Ünal (2012) for instance, report that: "new teachers spend more time adjusting into the existing culture rather than trying out their newly learned strategies" (p.52).

### **Professional activities that contribute to the success of beginning teachers in a school**

Furt Wengher (1993) as cited in Ganser (1995, p.307) argues that "programmes aimed at improving the experience of beginning teachers are an important part of professional activities". In that connection studies have identified activities that contribute positively to professional experiences of beginning teachers in schools. They include being involved in athletics and extra-curricular programmes; moderating students' activities and coaching sports (Zepeda and Ponticell, 1997). Such activities provided beginning teachers opportunities to learn more about the context, climate, characteristics and culture of

the school (Zepeda and Ponticell, 1997, p.10). The activities also provide beginning teachers with opportunities to meet teachers from other departments resulting in the development of networks. Activities such as coaching sports and moderating students' activities give beginning teachers an opportunity to meet and interact with students outside the classroom environment (Zepeda and Ponticell, 1997, p.10).

### **Importance of mentors in supporting beginning teachers**

The importance of mentors in supporting beginning teachers' professional progress is underscored by Ganser (1995, p.308) that:

Mentors are instrumental in "inducting" new teachers into profession and in helping them make the transition from being a student of teaching to being a teacher of students.

Ganser (1995, p.308) has highlighted some of the areas the mentors need to support novice teachers:

- To Understand the relationship between their own work inside the classroom and those forces outside the classroom that can and do influence their work, e.g. the organisation of schools and schooling, family and community values and the public image of teachers and schools;
- To strike a reasonable balance between the ideals and their day-to-day experiences.

As mentioned earlier, mentors are components of induction programme. In Japan, mentors are known as guiding teachers (Wong et al., 2005). They are key components in what Darling-Hammond and Berry (1999, p.271) describe as "supervised induction". It is important to highlight the fact that mentoring is beneficial to both the mentor and the mentored as pointed out by Darling-Hammond and Berry, 1999, p.271): "Mentoring provides both the mentor and novice teachers, new opportunities for professional growth, especially developing analytical reflective and communication skills". Mentoring also provides opportunities for mentors to "re-examine their practices and rethink their positions" (Mayer et al., 1991, p.79). McCann and Johannessen (2004, P. 144) asserts that "the quality of mentoring programme make all the difference". It is important to highlight that poor quality mentoring programmes have been reported in the literature (McCann and Johannessen, 2004).

There is a need therefore for mentors to possess certain characteristics in order for them to be effective in supporting beginning teachers through induction programmes. Mentors are usually veteran teachers with proven track records (Zepeda and Ponticell, 1997). Ganser (1995) comments that mentors should be competent, accomplished teachers. Ganser recommends that mentors should have approximately eight to fifteen years of teaching experience, including several years at the current school" (Ganser, 1995, p.307). Ganser further suggests a number of areas that the school need to look for evidence of skills for mentors. The areas include successful experience as cooperating teachers for student teachers; involvement in faculty governance and committee work in and experience in professional development activities like peer coaching (Ganser, 1995, p. 308). The other aspect to consider about mentors is their enthusiastic and willingness about the service and fulfilling the role requirement (Ganser, 1995). It is also important that mentors know what is expected of them, for instance, time commitment for mentor, training, regular meeting with beginning teachers, classroom visits, and attending programme meeting with other mentors and/or protégés (Ganser, 1995, p.308). It is therefore important that care is taken in the selection of mentors, because in part they determine the success of the induction programme. This is also reinforced by (Ganser, 1995, p.308) that:

The success of mentoring as suitable alternative to a sink-swim approach for beginning teachers depends largely on the care taken in selecting mentors and pairing them with beginning teachers.

Training of mentors contributes to their success, for it prepares them for their role. However, Mulkeen (2010) reports that mentors' training was limited in a number of Sub-Saharan countries, such that in some countries there was no training or support for mentors at all, while others were beginning to provide

support for mentor teachers (p.87). The Gambia for instance, has annual training for new mentor teachers (Mulkeen, 2010). However, it is still not clear how effective is The Gambia's annual programme.

Aligning beginning teachers and mentors contributes to the success of mentoring process. Effective alignment results in mentor-beginning teacher connectedness (Zepeda and Ponticell, 1997). The alignment need to focus on areas such as subject matter, teaching assignment, physical closeness and teaching style, schedule, among others (Zepeda and Ponticell, 1997). Ganser (1995) talks of pairing of mentors and beginning teachers arguing that beginning teachers and mentors should have similar assignments with respect to grade level or contact area. Other area to consider is accessibility between the mentors and beginning teachers is both time and locations (Ganser, 1995). It is also important to consider closeness of mentors and beginning teachers in terms of their ideas and values in relation to children teaching and learning, because too greater difference can impede their personal and professional communication and development of a productive mentoring relationship (Ganser, 1995, p. 308). Overall the beginning teachers' success at school depends on their connectedness with colleagues, mentors, chairs of departments and administrators (Zepeda and Ponticell, 1997; Jones, 2013). For instance, Jones (2013, P.367) notes that when relationships with mentors are informal and more personal novice special education teachers are more likely to continue teaching". Jones (2013) also reports that informal channels of support are valued most highly by novices. Besides, accessing to formal and informal channels of support e.g. a formal mentoring programme, common planning, period with colleagues on instruction can play an important role in retention decisions (p.368).

The role of principals in the mentoring programme has been recognised in the literature reviewed, for instance, Unesco (2010) reports that it is expected that beginning teachers should receive their first professional support from the head teacher of their respective schools. The principal is instrumental to the success of any induction programme because as leaders and managers of schools, they are expected to establish a learning community that values ideas and experience of all its members including new teachers. The learning community must be willing to accept and value perspectives offered by new teachers (Watkins, 2005, P. 83). The principal should also encourage new teachers to feel part of the school culture, contribute as well as develop their own identity rather than become mere spectators (Watkins, 2005). The principal should do a number of things to facilitate induction programme (Watkins, 2005):

- Provide access to both the mentor and the mentored teacher so that they can visit each other's class;
- Provide substitute teachers to cover lessons during class visiting sessions;
- Establish a programme that allows the mentor and the mentored teacher time for collaboration.

Research indicate that mentoring is beneficial in terms of reducing early attrition rate of beginning teachers from the profession, improving their feeling of efficacy and use of wide range of instructional strategies (Darling- Hammond and Berry, 1999, p. 271). However, the success of any mentoring programme depends on its design (Darling –Hammond and Berry, 1999).

### **Theories and models associated with induction**

Several models and theories have been associated with induction as well as professional development of teachers as whole. For instance, the Stage Model identifies the competence stages of a teacher and include novice, through beginners, competent, proficient and expert level (Ling, 2003). Kowalchuk (1999) as cited in Ling (2003, p. 12) three paradigms linked to professional development and include the technical-development perspective; the subject matter orientation and the ecological interpretation of learning to teach. Fuller (1969) as cited in Ling (2003, p.12) identifies three phases teachers go through in their professional development and growth. The first phase is about the teachers' survival and therefore they



are concerned with classroom management and control of student behaviour; during phase two, the teacher is concerned with teaching and performance and the third phase is all about pupils' learning and characteristics. However, what is lacking in Fullers' three phases is the time frame. It is not clear how long each phase lasts. However, Galton (1997) as cited in Ling (2003) illustrates Fullers' three phases more or less in a continuum as the process of thinking, self, then task then child' (p.12).

Among the models identified by Ling (2003) is the intern/mentor model. Feiman- Nemser (2001) as cited in Ling (2003) observes that: "There is a growing interest in the idea of teacher induction and widespread support for innovation of assigning experienced teachers to work with beginning teachers" (p.14). This model is based on the notion that expert teachers are more knowledgeable than novices and therefore being in a position to provide educative mentoring (Ling, 2003).

### **Issues and challenges confronting beginning teachers**

Studies have identified a number of challenges that confront beginning teachers, for instance, Zepeda and Ponticell (1997) have highlighted limitations of beginning teachers in terms of knowledge in or subject matter, instruction, discipline, classroom management, addressing students' needs, isolation and training. Also in a study, Jensen and his colleagues report that new teachers had greater development needs in the areas of students' discipline, behaviour and classroom management problems compared to experienced teachers (Jensen et al., 2008, p.38). Zepeda and Ponticell (1997) have also identified three areas that beginning teachers struggle with (Zepeda and Ponticell, 1997, p.8): learning the organisational context of their individual schools; climate and culture of the schools and the politics of the human relationships among teachers, administrators, parents and students in the schools.

Other challenges identified by Davies et al. (2006, P.618) include challenges related to understanding learners, institution, learning environment, professionalism and developing confidence in themselves and effective practices in the classroom (self-efficacy). Their struggles revolve around knowing or understanding themselves, school, students, and the teaching and learning environment.

Other challenges are linked to assignment or deployment practices of new teachers. The common practices, for instance, in some districts in the United States is that new teachers are placed in the most difficult and challenging schools with the highest rates of teacher turnover, the greatest number of inexperienced staff and the least capacity to support teacher growth and development (Darling-Hammond and Berry, 1999, p.261). The result is that many of the teacher leave within a short time, while others learn merely to cope rather than to teach effectively (Darling- Hammond and Berry, 1999, p.261). Issues of loneliness or isolation experiences among new or beginning teachers have also been reported in the literature reviewed (Zepeda and Ponticell, 1997). For instance, Lortie (1975, p.72) as cited in Zepeda and Ponticell (1997, p.9) observe that "the cellular organisation of schools constrain the amount and type of interchange possible; beginning teachers spend most of their time physically apart from colleagues".

Another challenge that faces beginning teachers is lack of prior experience which may limit their involvement in certain aspects such as collaborative activities. For instance, in a study beginning teachers found inter-disciplinary planning problematic (Zepeda and Ponticell, 1997). Also because of lack of prior experience among beginning teachers their valuable insights may be ignored by experienced colleagues and school administrators (Zepeda and Ponticell, 1997). Workload has also been identified a challenge and even being a source of stress and job dissatisfaction (McCann and Johannessen, 2004). There are also issues of classroom management and struggles to craft public personal identity (McCann and Johannessen, 2004). Therefore new teachers have to deal with three types of identity e.g. professional identity, personal identity and, situated and social identity (Rizz, 2011). These dimensions of identity can positively or negatively affect the new teachers' resilience, commitment and effectiveness (Rizz, 2011).

A majority of the challenges discussed in this sub-section section and many others can be overcome in part by effective induction or professional development programmes.

## **STRUCTURAL ADJUSTMENT POLICY (SAP) AND ITS IMPLICATION IN THE RECRUITMENT OF TEACHERS**

Structural adjustment policy (SAP) of the World Bank and IMF was adopted in Kenya through the Kamunge Report of 1988 (Bunyi et al., 2011). Through this policy Kenya came under pressure to reduce spending, introduce cost sharing and freeze employment across all sectors and especially the social sector (Bunyi, et al., 2011; Educational International, 2007; ACTION AID INTERNATIONAL KENYA, 2009). Consequently Kenya suspended recruitment of new teachers in 1999 due to pressures from donors, IMF and World Bank (Educational International, 2007). The employment freeze also meant that retirements and deaths were not replaced (ACTION AID INTERNATIONAL KENYA, 2009). The policy led to a serious shortfall of teaching staff in both primary and secondary schools in the country. ACTION AID INTERNATIONAL KENYA (2009) reports a shortfall of over 60,000 teachers. That may explain the reason for the existence of unemployed graduates. Shortage of teachers was one of the serious challenges Kenya faced when commencing free primary education in 2003 (Makori and Onderi, 2013). It is also sad that SAP did not factor in the HIV and AIDS scourge that had led to massive deaths of employees in the education sector (ACTION AID INTERNATIONAL KENYA, 2009).

Implementation of SAP also resulted in privatisation of public institutions and introduction of user fees (cost sharing). SAP had negative impact on the poor resulting in a significant increase in the percentage of people living below poverty line, for instance, from 46% in 1992 to 49% in 1997 and to 56% in 2000 (ACTION AID INTERNATIONAL KENYA, 2009).

Adoption of the cost sharing policy meant that the Kenya government, the community and parents were all involved in the provision of education. For instance, the government was responsible for teachers and administrators' salaries and limited contribution towards facilities; parents were responsible for tuition, text books, activity and examination fees and the community was responsible for setting up and maintaining physical structures. This was a huge challenge to parents some of whom had been pushed into below poverty line zone. This led to a significant drop in primary school enrolment and increase in dropout rate as the majority of the poor could not afford (ACTION AID INTERNATIONAL KENYA, 2009, P. 23). The cost sharing policy affected the health sector equally (ACTION AID INTERNATIONAL KENYA, 2009).

## **METHOLODOLY**

The study reported in this article employed a quantitative design and was conducted to advance knowledge and understanding about the status of induction programme among beginning teachers in public primary schools in Nyamira and Kisii Counties in Kenya. These two counties were purposively selected for this study. A survey was used to collect data from 24 beginning public primary school teachers who were identified and included in the study through Snowball sampling technique. By this technique, suitable respondents were traced through social contacts (Bryman, 2008).

Prior to data collection, the suitable respondents (traced through snowball sampling) were contacted and invited to take part in the study, through a letter. In the letter the researcher introduced himself and explained the purpose of the study, brief guidelines on participation including expectations and opting out. The respondents were assured of confidentiality on their personal details. Informed consent form was also enclosed with the letter and respondents were asked to complete the declaration on the form therefore confirming their understanding of the research project and their voluntary involvement or participation. Care was taken to acknowledge respondents' privacy and address them with sensitivity. Their right to anonymity, confidentiality and voluntary participation was respected and survey was conducted within a relationship of trust and transparency after a consent form was signed by each respondent.

Questionnaires were used as the main tool for data collection. The questionnaires format consisted of closed-ended, open-ended and rating scale items (strongly disagree=1, disagree=2, agree=3 and strongly agree=4). This was necessary to minimise the effect of question fatigue and diversify responses (Watson

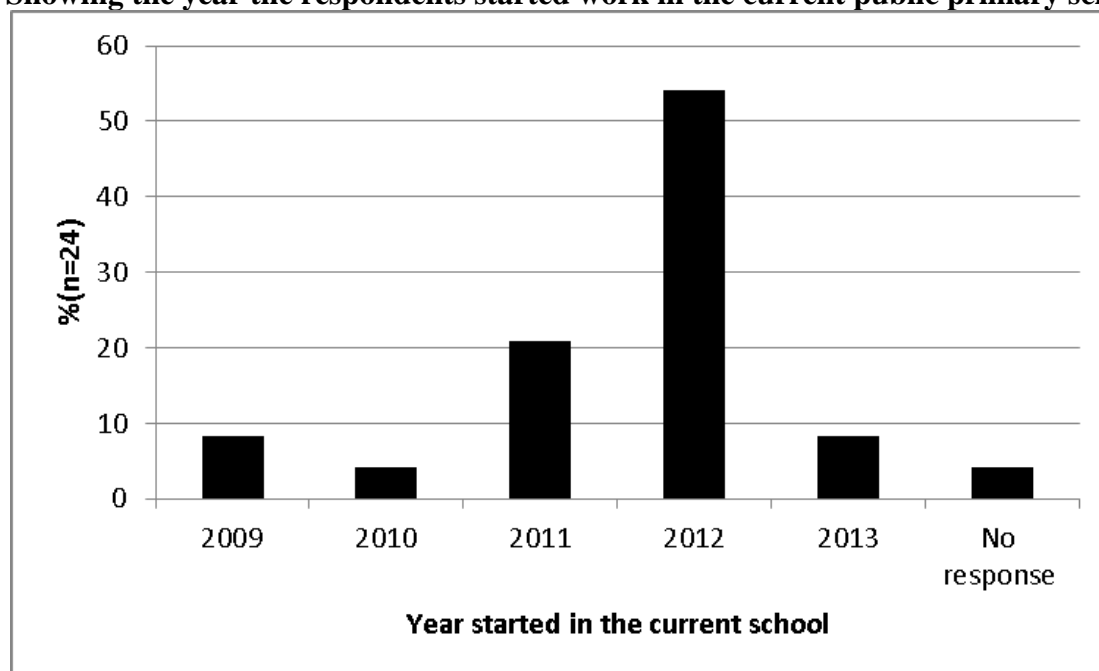
and Coombes, 2009; Onderi and makori, 2012). The open-ended section offered the respondents opportunity to make a comment, expand, or clarify some information on their responses and in that way researchers would gain insights into issues associated with induction of public primary school teachers. Regarding analysis, closed-ended responses were analysed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) resulting in descriptive data. The open-ended comments or responses yielded qualitative data which was analysed into emerging categories or themes.

## RESULT

### Respondents' characteristics

The respondents were mainly beginning public primary school teachers and were 24 in number drawn from two Counties in Kenya. 45.8% of them were males while 54.2% were females. 70.2% were in the 30-40 years old age band while 20.8% were in the 41-51 years old band. 66.7% graduated in the 2001- 2006 period while 33.3% graduated in the 1995- 2000 period. 54.2% started work at the public primary schools in 2012, the rest of the details are illustrated on Chart 1 and other tables below.

**Chart 1: Showing the year the respondents started work in the current public primary school**



Based on Chart 1 above, just more than half of the teachers started work at their current public primary school in 2012, which was their first teaching job in a public primary school in Kenya. However 75% indicate that they got jobs immediately after graduation but in private schools or academies. 79.2% were still teaching in private schools or academies when they secured employment at the current public primary schools. Those who were not teaching in private schools or academies prior to taking up a teaching appointment at public schools were asked to give reasons. Their comments reveal a number of issues and challenges such as frustration, poor payment and harsh working conditions at academies as a result they were forced to people quit teaching at academies and set up their own business or secured jobs in other fields (no related to education) in order to support their families. Some had issues with TSC teachers at the academies.

- “After college I stayed home for four months and after which started teaching for five years in an academy. Later I stopped teaching and joined other fields of working till my current teaching job.”

- “I didn’t get employment immediately. I have taught more than three schools since graduated. The reasons being poor payments, harsh environment and poor cooperation between the TSC teachers.” (*sic*)
- “Anyway after graduation and after spending a lot of money in my studies. I made several attempts to private academy schools but it was all in vain. I therefore decided not to waste my time and started a business. That has brought me thus far until the time I got my employment.”
- “Immediately after graduation I got a job in an academy where I devoted myself to work as a trained teacher but due to hard working conditions I decided to look for a different school due to poor payments, mistreatments, false promises and etc. After several challenges I decided to have at least a rest and look for an alternative that can support my life plus my small family.”
- “ Since life is a challenge, I was called by a friend in a foreign land (Botswana) where I got a teaching job which although life was difficult due to work permit and residence permits at least I was able to support myself and my family until last year 2012 august when I came back home and got a current job.”

Further analysis reveal that just over one third graduated in the period 1999-2000; and just over two-thirds graduated in the period 2001- 2006. Other details are contained in Table 1 below

*Comparison between age groups, gender and year of graduation (Tables 1.1 – 1.3)*

**Table 1.1: Comparing gender and age group**

Gender	Age group (% , n=24)			Total
	30-40	41-51	NR	
Male	25	17	4.2	45.8
Female	45.8	4.2	4.2	54.2
NR	0	0	0	0
Total	70.8	21.2	8.4	100

Table 1.1 shows that one quarter of males were aged 30-40 years compared to just fewer than half of females. A majority (70.8%) of the respondents were aged 30 -40. Just over half of the respondents were females.

**Table 2.2: Comparing gender and year of graduation**

Gender	Year of graduation (% , n=24)			Total
	1999-2000	2001-2006	NR	
Male	12.6	33.6	0	45.8
Female	21	33.6	0	54.6
NR	0	0	0	0
Total	33.6	67.2	0	100

Table 1.2 show that just over one third of the respondents graduated in the 1999- 2000 period, while two-thirds graduated in the 2001- 2006 period. Interestingly equal proportion (33.6%) of males and females P1 graduated in 2001- 2006.

**Table 1.3: Comparing year of graduation and age-groups**

Age group (% , n=24)				
Year of Graduation	30-40	41-51	NR	Total
1999- 2000	25	4.2	4.2	33.6
2001-2006	45.8	14.8	4.2	54.2
NR	0	0	0	0
Total	70.8	19	8.4	100

Table 1.3 shows that nearly three-quarters of P1 teachers were in the 30-40 age band, while nearly one quarter was in the 41-51 age band. Also just fewer than half aged 30-40 graduated in 2001- 2006.

*Year started teaching at the current public primary school.*

**Table 2: Comparing gender and year started teaching at the current public primary school**

Year started at Current school (% , n=24)							
Gender	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	NR	Total
Male	4.2	4.2	8.4	16.8	8.2	4.2	45.8
Female	14.2	0	12.6	37.8	0	0	54.2
NR	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	18.4	4.2	21	54.6	8.2	4.2	100

Table 2 shows that just over half (majority) of the respondents started teaching at their current school in the year 2012 and the ratio of male: female 1:2.

*Comparison between gender, age group and years taught in an academy or private school (Table 3.1- 3.2).*

**Table 3.1: Comparing gender and number of years taught at previous school**

Number of years you taught at the previous school (% , n=24)						
Gender	Less 5yrs	5-10yrs	Over10	NR	NA	Total
Male	12.6	8.4	12.6	12.6	0	46.2
Female	4.2	33.6	4.2	8.4	4.2	54.6
NR	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	16.6	42	16.8	21	4.2	100

Table 3.1 shows that a significant number (42%) of the respondents worked in the previous schools (academies or private schools) for 5- 10 years prior to joining public primary schools, the ratio of male: female is 1:4.

**Table 3.2: Comparing age groups and number of years taught at the previous School**

Number of years taught at the previous school (% , n=24)						
Age group	Less 5	5-10yrs	Over 10	NR	NA	Total
30-40	12.6	29.4	8.4	16.8	4.2	71.4
41-51	0	12.6	4.2	4.2	0	21
NR	4.2	0	4.2	0	0	8.4
Total	16.8	42	16.8	21	4.2	100

Table 3.2 shows that just fewer than one third of the respondents aged 30-40 worked 5-10 years. The ratio of 30-40: 41-51 is 2:1; also the ratio of those who worked over ten years was 2:1. None of the older (41-51) age band worked for less than 5 years.

*Induction and professional support*

The following question was posed to the respondents: **Prior to starting teaching at your current public primary school, did you receive any induction or professional support?** The analysed result is illustrated on Tables 4.1- 4.2 below.

**Table 4.1: Comparison between gender and receiving induction**

Receiving induction prior to starting teaching (% , n=24)				
Gender	Yes	No	NR	Total
Male	21	25.2	0	46.2
Female	16.8	37.8	0	54.6
NR	0	0	0	0
Total	37.8	63	0	100

Table 4.1 shows that just fewer than 40% of the respondents received induction at the public primary school when they started teaching. Just over 20% males and just fewer than 20% females received induction.

**Table 4.2: Comparison age group and receiving induction**

Receiving induction prior to starting teaching (% , n=24)				
Age group	Yes	No	NR	Total
30-40	33.6	37.8	0	71.4
41-51	4.2	16.8	0	21
NR	0	8.4	0	8.4
Total	37.8	63	0	100

Table 4.2 shows that just fewer than 40% of the respondents received induction when they joined public primary schools. Just over one third of the 30-40 age bands against just fewer than 5% of the 41-51 age groups received induction when they joined their present public primary schools. That translates to a ratio of 8:1. Induction lasted for 1-4 weeks. For instance, 20.8% indicated one week, 4.2% indicated two weeks and 8.3% indicated over four weeks. This seems to suggest that induction was short and limited. However, just fewer than one third of those who received induction rated it as good (25%) or excellent (4.2%). Further analysis reveals that those who received induction indicate that they were more confident in delivering lessons. Something that is very positive.

The following question was also posed to the respondents: **When you started teaching at your current public primary school, did you receive any personal support?** 41.7% indicated to the affirmative while 50% indicate to the negative. Another related question that was posed is: **Do you think that you received adequate support both personally and professionally at your current school when you started teaching to prepare you for the teaching position?** 37.5% indicted to the affirmative, while 45.8% indicate to the negative. The support beginning P1 teachers received in public primary schools consisted of material, financial support and shared accommodation offer e.g. staying with a friend, transportation support and orientation. Some of these are captured in the following comments:

- “Accommodation was a problem and having moved from urban to rural I had to be accommodated with a friend; I had to survive on two meals because financially I was unstable and therefore wholly depended on this friend.”
- “The members of staff whom I found there were able to support me in the school feeding programme (teachers welfare) till the time I received my pay. Also they supported in providing the teaching materials since the school had not started receiving F.P.E (Free Primary Education) funds.”
- “The school management assisted me financially in order to orient me and assist me meet my financial obligations especially on transport since I got a job extremely far away from home”.

They found the support given very helpful.

On mentoring the following question was posed: **Did you have a mentor or senior teacher assigned to you for professional support?** 16.7% indicate to the affirmative, while 79.2 indicate to the negative. Further analysis reveal that the nature of induction provided was ad hoc and limited.

On induction, mentor and professional support policy, respondents were given a number of statements and were asked to rate them as strongly disagree, disagree, agree and strongly agree. The analysis of their responses is illustrated on Table 5 below.

**Table 5: Showing views of beginning teachers on induction and support programmes**

<b>Beginning teachers' views on induction and support programme (% , n=24)</b>						
<b>Item (s)</b>	<b>Strong Disagree</b>	<b>Disagree</b>	<b>Agree</b>	<b>Strongly Agree</b>	<b>No response</b>	<b>Total</b>
Not taught for more than 3 years since graduation require intensive induction and a mentor	4.2	8.3	62.5	20.5	4.2	100
Not taught for more than 6 years since graduation require intensive induction and a mentor for professional support	0	4.2	87.5	8.3	0	100
School need to have personal support programme for new teachers	0	0	66.7	33.3	0	100
School need to have professional support programme in place for new teachers	0	0	58.3	41.7	0	100
All schools should have a clear induction and support programme policy for new teachers	4.3	8.3	56.5	30.4	0	100

It is evident from Table 5 above that:

- Just over 80% indicates agree or strongly agree that teachers who have not taught for 3 year following graduation from college require intensive induction and a mentor for professional support prior to starting teaching again
- Just fewer than 100% indicates agree or strongly agree that who have not taught for more than six years following from college require intensive induction and a mentor for professional support prior to starting teaching gain.
- 100% indicates that schools need to have personal support programmes in place for beginning teachers.
- 100% indicates that schools need to have professional support programme in place for beginning teachers



- Just fewer than 90% indicates that all schools should have a clear induction and support programme policy for beginning teachers.

### Challenges that beginning teachers experienced

**Table 6: Showing challenges beginning teachers experienced at their school**

Respondents were given a table with various items representing challenges they experienced as beginning

<b>Challenges that beginning teachers experienced at their current school (% n=24)</b>			
<b>Aspect (s)</b>	<b>Not challenging</b>	<b>Challenging</b>	<b>More challenging</b>
Reality shock	25	42	29
Classroom discipline	17	63	21
Motivating students	29	46	21
Dealing with individual differences	21	54.2	25
Assessing pupils work	33	50	17
Relationships with parents	38	42	21
Organisation with class work	17	71	13
Insufficient and/or inadequate teaching materials	4.2	42	54
Dealing with problems of individual pupils	17	67	17
Problems of experienced teachers	33	54.2	13

teachers at their current public primary school and were asked to rate them as

not challenging, challenging and more challenging. Analysis of their responses is illustrated on Table 6 above.

The result from Table 6 arranged in order of importance (based on 'more challenging' options) shows: Insufficient and/or inadequate teaching materials (54%); Reality shock (29%); dealing with individual differences (25%); Dealing with parents, motivating students and classroom discipline (21%); Dealing with problems of individual pupils and assessing pupils work (17%), and problems of experienced teachers and organisation with class work (13%).

### Teaching load perspectives

Just over 2/5(42%) of the respondents indicate 22-26 hours of teaching per week; a further just over 1/5 had 27-30 hours a week. 25.2% of females had 22-26 hours a week against 16.8% males. Just fewer than one third (29.4%) of the 30-40 age group had 22-26 hours per week against 4.2 % of the 41-51 age bands. Same proportion of males and females (25.2%) had same hours since they started teaching at their current public primary school. In terms of age group just fewer than 2/5(33.6%) of the 30-40 age group had the same hours since they started teaching. Comparing with experienced staff, just over 2/5(42%) of the respondents indicate that their teaching load was more or less the same with their experienced peers; while just over one third (33.6%) indicated that their teaching load was less than that of their experienced peers. In terms of gender, 21% of the females and 12.6% of males indicated that their teaching load was less than that of experienced staff, which translates to one third of the respondents. Also 16.8% of females against 25.2% of males indicate that their teaching load was more or less the same as that of their experienced peers. In terms of age group, just fewer than 2/5 (37.9%) of the 30-40 age bands against just

fewer than 5% of 41- 51 age group said that their teaching load was more or less the same as that of their experienced peers.

## **DISCUSSION**

This study set out to investigate the experiences and views of beginning P1 public primary teachers regarding induction programmes. The empirical evidence indicates that some teachers (fewer than 40%) had induction when they started teaching in public primary schools while other did not. Also a small minority (fewer than 20%) had a mentor. Although professional support through induction and mentorship, the study findings reveals that these beginning teachers received personal support which includes material, financial and accommodation support. The personal support enabled the recipients' to settle in the school well. This is something that is positive.

On induction and mentoring, 81% of the respondents strongly felt that if a teacher has not taught for 3-6 years continuously following graduation from college, there is need for intensive induction and mentorship professional support for effective teaching and learning; 100% of the respondents strongly felt that their a need for public primary schools to have both personal and professional support for new teachers in order for them to be effective in the teaching and learning process and 96.9% strongly felt that public primary schools should have a clear a clear and support programme for new teachers policy in place.

Lack of support for new teachers has also been highlighted in the literature (Darling- Hammond and Berry, 1991). Poor mentoring programme has also been reported in the literature (McCann and Johannessen, 2004). Several studies (Darling- Hammond and Berry, 1999; Mayer et al., 1991; Wong et al., 2005; Jensen et al., 2008) have underscored the importance of effective induction programme arguing that it improves beginning teachers' effectiveness and thereby reduce attrition rates. It is also important to mention that mentoring is a component of induction programme (Wong et al., 2005). Mentoring provides opportunity for professional reflection and growth for both the mentor and the mentored (Ganser, 1995; Darling-Hammond, 1999).

The empirical evidence also revealed that some of the respondents had not taught for a long period of time (7- 18 years) since graduation, due to the World Bank and IMF austerity measures through the Structural Adjustment Policy (SAP). Through the policy Kenya suspended the recruitment of new teachers in public schools in 1999, in other words recruitment of teaching staff in both primary and secondary schools was frozen, resulting in serious shortfall (ACTION AID INTERNATIONAL KENYA, 2009; Educational International, 2007).

Therefore those who graduated while the austerity policy was in force either worked in private schools or academies or set up their own businesses (not related to teaching) in order to support their families. Even some of those who started teaching left after sometime because of some challenges they experienced, for instance, many of them experienced frustration, harsh working conditions and salary was poor. Such conditions were unbearable to them and they left teaching and set up their own businesses in order to support their families. Consequently many remained unemployed as teachers for a long period of time until the government resumed recruitment in public primary schools as a result of free primary education. Just over 2/5 worked in private or academies for a period of 10 years prior to joining public primary schools, so such teachers joined as mid-career teachers. Regardless, they also need induction, as Watkins (2005) argues that new teachers cannot be left on their own in a vacuum.

This study also identifies some of the challenges that beginning teachers experienced when they started working in public primary schools. They include insufficient and/or inadequate teaching materials, reality shock, dealing with individual differences, relationships with parents, classroom discipline, motivating students, assessing pupil work, organising class work and problems with experienced colleagues. Student discipline, behaviour and classroom management problems in relationship to new teachers have also been highlighted in the literature (Jensen et al., 2008). According to Ünal and Ünal (2012) classroom

management refer to a full range of teacher effort to oversee classroom activities, including learning, social interaction and student behaviour. Brophy (1986) as cited in Ünal and Ünal (2012, p. 42) defines classroom management as a teacher's effort to establish and maintain the classroom as an effective environment for teaching and learning. Savage and Savage (2009) as cited in Ünal and Ünal (2012, p.42) define classroom management as two levels of management a) the prevention of problems, b) response when problems do occur. Ünal and Ünal (2012) add that success in teaching is underpinned by the teacher's ability to manage the classroom and to organise lessons. Classroom management is an area that beginning teachers feel most unprepared (Ünal and Ünal, 2012). Reality shock or practice shock in relationship to new teachers has been reported by Rizz (2011). This is linked to new teachers' first experience in the classroom. There were also issues of teaching workload, for instance, just fewer than half (42%) of the respondents indicate that their teaching load was more or less the same as their experienced peers. Given that these new teachers lacked the necessary professional support such a workload could be pose serious challenge to them.

## CONCLUSION

This study investigated induction programmes among 24 beginning P1 teachers in public primary schools in two counties. The result indicate that fewer than 2/5 (37.8%) of the teachers had induction and fewer than 1/5 (16.7%) had a mentor. The induction programme lasted for one- four weeks, suggesting that it was limited. This seem to suggest that induction uptake in the schools involved in this study was poor and that raises serious concerns regarding availability of support programme in some primary schools, given the fact that some of the beginning P1 teachers had long gaps or breaks in their teaching career, while others had no teaching opportunity for a period ranging between 7 and 18 years following graduation and prior to securing a job at public primary school. Based on their wide ranging backgrounds it is evident that these teachers needed induction support including being assigned to experienced teachers as mentors for effective teaching and learning. There is also a need for schools to have a clear support programme policy for beginning teachers in order to support them overcome various challenges and improve their effectiveness in the teaching and learning process.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

Large scale in-depth study in necessary to advance more knowledge and understanding regarding the experiences of beginning teachers and especially those who have had long gaps or breaks in their teaching career and the support programme(s) needed.

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