INFLUENCE OF HEADTEACHER LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT ON IMPLEMENTATION OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN PUBLIC PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN KIAMBU COUNTY, KENYA

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DECLARATION

This research thesis is my original work and has not been presented for a degree award in any other university.

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To my wife Beatrice, our children James, Daniel, and Joemark—Thanks for your love, patience, and support. You are a great inspiration.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

AIDS   Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome

CAST   Centre for Applied Special Technology

CDF   Constituency Development Fund

EFA   Education for All

FPE   Free Primary Education

HIV   Human Immunodeficiency Virus

ICT   Information Communication and Technology

IDEA   Individuals with Disabilities Education Act

KEMI   Kenya Education Management Institute

KESSP   Kenya Education Sector Support Programme

MOEST   Ministry of Education, Science and Technology

MVC   Marginalized and Vulnerable Children

NCLB   No Child Left Behind

OECD   Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development

RTI   Response to Intervention

SNE   Special Needs Education

SREB   Southern Regional Education Board

TSC   Teachers Service Commission

UDL   Universal Design for Learning

UN   United Nations

UNESCO   United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization

UNICEF   United Nations Children's Fund

ABSTRACT

Effective headteacher leadership is critical to the successful implementation of inclusive education (Waldron, McLeskey & Redd, 2011). The mandate to achieve inclusive schooling implies that headteachers are expected to ensure their schools are both excellent and equitable. This is particularly imperative considering that the overarching principle of inclusive education is that every child counts (Bernard, 2000). Besides, most research on inclusive education in Kenya appears to consistently support effective implementation and sustainability of inclusive schooling (Buhere & Ochieng, 2013; Njoka et al., 2012). Nonetheless, a research gap exists in relation to the leadership development of headteachers in order to transform schools into effective inclusive learning environments. Thus, this research was designed to investigate the influence of headteacher leadership development on the implementation of inclusive education. The research was guided by five questions, which investigated the existing types of leadership development programmes for headteachers, the adequacy of the programmes' contents, and the effectiveness of their design features in relation to inclusive education implementation. The study also examined the effectiveness of the leadership development programmes in facilitating inclusive education. Finally, the policy and institutional challenges experienced in the implementation process were investigated. The research was conducted in public primary schools in Kiambu County. The target population was 475 headteachers, 7472 class teachers, and 30 Quality Assurance and Standards Officers drawn from the 10 districts and Thika municipality in Kiambu County. Also targeted were 10 KEMI trainers. The final sample constituted 125 headteachers and 240 class teachers randomly selected from 5 districts and Thika municipality. It also included 12 Quality Assurance and Standards Officers and 8 KEMI trainers, who were purposefully sampled. The research utilized a mixed methods approach. The convergent parallel design was adopted, since it provides for collection and analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in the same phase of study (Creswell & Clark, 2011). Quantitative data was analysed using descriptive statistics and presented in frequency tables, pie charts and bar graphs. Qualitative data was coded according to content, analysed based on emerging themes, and presented in narrative form.

The study established that the most common forms of leadership development were short courses such as, conferences, workshops, and seminars. The KEMI modular-based programme was ranked first, with 78% of headteachers in the study deeming the leadership programme the most helpful in facilitating inclusive education. The innovative practices of the KEMI programme included the use of the cohort model, problem-based learning, case studies, and projects. However, specific gaps such as, limited inclusive education focus, non-alignment to leadership standards, lack of mentoring and coaching, and insufficient focus on career stages were identified. Overall, the study established that the existing headteacher leadership development programmes were not based on particular leadership standards or inclusive education philosophy, vision and mission. Also, the programmes were neither ongoing nor career-staged. They seemed to apply the concept of "one-size fits all" and did not utilize job-embedded learning practices, such as mentoring and coaching. Instructively, only six percent of the headteachers deemed the existing leadership programmes to be effective. The

majority of headteachers (94%) rated the programmes as either somewhat effective (30%) or not effective (64%) respectively. Likewise, 88% of headteachers did not perceive themselves competent to lead inclusive education implementation. The main conclusion of the study was that the headteacher leadership development programmes were not comprehensive and well-integrated to effectively facilitate implementation of inclusive education. Therefore, the study recommends a coordinated and multi-pronged action plan to spur requisite policy reforms, system alignments, and funding strategies in order reframe headteacher leadership development. Specifically, the Teachers' Service Commission and Ministry of Education, Science and Technology should collaboratively develop leadership standards for headteachers in order to spur improvements in leadership programmes' quality and effectiveness. The County Education Board should develop inclusive education indicators to be utilized when designing and implementing school development plans. Moreover, in order to model effective inclusive programmes and practices at least five model inclusive schools should be established in each district through a well-resourced programme implemented by respective District Education Board.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the study

Inclusive education is a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all learners through increasing participation in learning, cultures, and communities, and reducing exclusion within and from education (UNESCO, 2003, 2005[a], 2009). The framework of human rights, equity, and diversity underpins the policy and practice of inclusive education (Winzer & Mazurek, 2012). Thus, inclusive education is anchored on the right to education that is enshrined in the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Its development has been stimulated by the Education for All (EFA) initiative of the United Nations that evolved from the 1990 Jomtien Declaration and reaffirmed in the Dakar declaration of 2000. Likewise, the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action (UNESCO, 1994), which adopted the principle of inclusion, provided the major impetus for inclusive education.

According to UNESCO (2009) policy guidelines, inclusive education is premised on three key justifications. There is the educational justification in which inclusive schools educate all children together. This provides for the development of teaching approaches that respond to individual differences for the benefit of all children. On the other hand, the social justification recognizes that inclusive schools educate all children together and change attitudes towards diversity. This forms the basis for a just and non-discriminatory society. Finally, the economic rationale accentuates the cost-effectiveness of establishing and maintaining

schools that educate all children together instead of setting up different types of schools specializing in different groups of children. The Salamanca Statement (UNESCO, 1994) appears to sum up the benefits of inclusive education by acknowledging that:

> Regular schools with inclusive orientation are the most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all; moreover, they provide an effective education to the majority of children and improve the efficiency and ultimately the cost-effectiveness of the entire education system (Article 2, p. ix).

The Kenyan government has made some strides towards meeting obligations under its laws as well as ratifying and domesticating various international policy frameworks to promote inclusive education (Njoka et al., 2012). Notably, the constitution of Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 2010) adopts a bold rights-based approach to education, which provides for the right of all children to free and compulsory basic education. The Policy Framework for Education (Republic of Kenya, 2012) recognizes inclusive education as a key strategy in enhancing education access, quality, relevance, and equity for all children, including those at the greatest risk of being excluded such as, children with special education needs, minorities, and other vulnerable groups. Moreover, the intention of the Government of Kenya remains to "develop an all-inclusive and quality education that is accessible and relevant to all Kenyans" (Republic of Kenya, 2003, p.5). However, some of the specific programmes being implemented in Kenya have not been effective in enhancing inclusive education (Njoka et al., 2012; Republic

of Kenya, 2009; UNESCO, 2005[b]). For example, whereas the Free Primary Education (FPE) policy adopted by the Government of Kenya from 2003 significantly enhanced access to schooling for many children, considerable challenges still remain in reaching out to all children (Republic of Kenya, 2005[a], 2009; UNESCO, 2005[b]). Furthermore, while the Government of Kenya embraces inclusive education policy (Republic of Kenya, 2003, 2009, 2010, 2012), the policy is limited in scope and lacks a clear framework for leadership development of headteachers.

Despite a high net enrolment rate of 90.8% in primary schools in Kiambu County compared to the national average of 77.2% (Republic of Kenya, 2012), many children, including those with special needs and other vulnerable groups still face challenges related to education access, quality, equity, and retention. According to Kiambu District Strategic Plan, 2005-2010, the dropout rate for primary schools in Kiambu stood at 30% (Republic of Kenya, 2005[b]). In a study conducted within Kiambu County, Mwaura (2004) established that inclusive education was desirable. In spite of this, the implementation process was faced with a myriad of challenges such as, inadequate support from headteachers, insufficient funding, and negative teacher attitudes.

According to Wangari (2009), a complex web of social and economic issues such as poverty, stigmatization of HIV/AIDS orphans, and child labour led to non-enrolment and poor retention of orphans in primary schools within Kiambu. Specifically, the study revealed that 36% of the sampled orphans were not

enrolled in school, while 80% of the enrolled dropped out before reaching grade four. Manda et al. (2003) cite data on worst forms of child labour, which show about 60% of the workers in coffee and tea plantations in Central Kenya, of which Kiambu County is a part of, are children. Accordingly, child labour has a negative impact on education since 78.6% of affected children usually drop out of school at primary level. In addition, in two separate studies conducted in primary schools within Kiambu County, Ngaruiya (2013) established poor academic performance, while Mwaura (2010) found the school infrastructure to be inadequate and the existing facilities in poor condition.

The situation in Kiambu County underpins the stance by Bernard (2000) that increases in the percentage of children with access to schooling are important, but no longer sufficient. All children, she affirms, have the right to quality education without exceptions, even on the basis of "especially difficult circumstances" (p.2). Moreover, inclusive education is a complex and interwoven reform into the functions, content, processes, and structures of schooling to educate all children (Winzer & Mazurek, 2012), which raises the threshold of effective opportunities to schooling beyond the parameters of high enrolment rates.

School leadership has a substantial effect on student achievement (Marzano, Waters, & McNulty, 2005). It is, therefore, imperative that attention be focused on headteachers, who play a critical role in the successful implementation of inclusive education (Hoppey & McLeskey, 2013; McLeskey, Waldron, & Redd, 2014; Mthethwa, 2008; Salisbury & McGregor, 2002). The high expectations and

mandates to achieve inclusive schooling imply that headteachers should be highly accomplished leaders to ensure their schools are both excellent and equitable for all students. Headteachers identify and approve changes that support inclusive education. They also eliminate existing practices that undermine inclusive education and ensure inclusive programmes are institutionalized and sustained (Salisbury & McGregor 2005; Waldron, McLeskey, & Redd, 2011). Likewise, effective headteachers align schools in order to improve instruction and promote the success for all children (Darling-Hammond, Meyerson, LaPointe, & Orr, 2010).

Since headteachers shoulder the burden of making inclusive education a reality in their schools, they need exemplary leadership development programmes to enhance their leadership competencies. Mdikana, Ntshangase and Mayekiso (2007) assert that pre-service training and continued professional development are significant for inclusive education to be successfully implemented. However, Nandwa (2011) established headteacher leadership development in Kenya was not ongoing and lacked a systematic approach. In view of the foregoing, this study was designed to investigate the influence of the existing headteacher leadership development on implementation of inclusive education in primary schools in Kiambu County.

1.2 Statement of the problem

Three interrelated research based premises provide a rationale for headteacher leadership development that positively influences the implementation of

inclusive education. These are: school leadership influences student learning (Leithwood & Louis, 2012); effective headteacher leadership is critical to the successful implementation of inclusive education (Causton & Theoharis, 2014; Hehir & Katzman, 2012; Salisbury & McGregor, 2002; Waldron, McLeskey & Redd, 2011); exemplary leadership development programmes produce headteachers with the capacity to engage in effective practices associated with improved student learning outcomes (Darling-Hammond et al., 2010; Davis et al., 2005).

Effective headteacher leadership is particularly imperative considering that the overarching principle of inclusive education is that every child counts (Bernard, 2000). Besides, most of the research on inclusive education in Kenya appears to be consistent in the support for effective implementation and sustainability of inclusive education (Buhere, Ndiku & Kindiki, 2014; Buhere & Ochieng, 2013; Manzi, 2011; Mwangi & Orodho, 2014; Mwaura, 2004; Njoka et al., 2012). Nonetheless, a research gap exists in relation to the leadership development of headteachers with the goal of transforming schools into effective inclusive learning environments. Thus, this study investigated the influence of headteacher leadership development on implementation of inclusive education.

1.3 Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study was to investigate the influence of headteacher leadership development on implementation of inclusive education programmes in public primary schools in Kiambu County, Kenya.

1.4 Objectives of the study

To fulfil the stated purpose, the objectives of the study were to:

i) Examine the types of leadership development programmes available for headteachers to facilitate implementation of inclusive education.

ii) Establish the adequacy of the contents of the leadership development programmes for headteachers in facilitating implementation of inclusive education.

iii) Determine the effectiveness of design features of leadership development programmes for headteachers in facilitating implementation of inclusive education.

iv) Determine the effectiveness of the leadership development programmes in meeting leadership needs of headteachers in the implementation of inclusive education.

v) Find out the policy challenges faced by headteachers in the implementation inclusive education programmes.

vi) Establish the institutional challenges experienced by headteachers in the implementation inclusive education programmes.

1.5 Research questions

To achieve its purpose and specific objectives, the study sought to answer the following research questions:

i) What types of leadership development programmes are available for headteachers to facilitate implementation of inclusive education?

ii) How adequate are the contents of the leadership development programmes for headteachers in facilitating implementation of inclusive education?

iii) How effective are the design features of the leadership development for headteachers in facilitating implementation of inclusive education?

iv) How effective are the existing leadership development programmes in meeting headteachers' leadership needs in the implementation of inclusive education?

v) What policy challenges did the headteachers face while implementing inclusive education programmes?

vi) What are the institutional challenges that headteachers experience in the implementation of inclusive education programmes?

1.6 Significance of the study

The findings and recommendations of this study are expected to provide institutions charged with the responsibility of providing leadership development programmes for headteachers, for example, the Kenya Education Management Institute (KEMI) and universities, with information drawn from the field that could facilitate the alignment of their courses with the leadership needs of headteachers in inclusive education.

The study also provides information to policy makers in Kenya, especially at the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology (MOEST) and the Teachers Service Commission (TSC) level, on policy interventions that comprehensively

address the leadership development needs of primary school headteachers in inclusive education.

1.7   Limitations of the study

The researcher appreciated that other data sources, including participant observations in the course of performing specific leadership tasks, would provide valuable information regarding the purpose of this research. However, the study relied on the participant perspectives, through questionnaire and interview methods, which were supplemented with documentary analysis. However, these limitations did not affect the study outcomes and generalizability. The triangulation method ensured the reliability of data sources. Besides, Kiambu County's blend of urban, small town and rural schools fairly represents the diversity of Kenya's public schools system. Thus, the research outcomes may be generalized beyond the study sample and area.

1.8   Delimitations of the study

The study confined itself to examining the influence of headteachers' leadership development programmes on implementation of inclusive education. The study was conducted in Kiambu County. The study population constituted primary school headteachers, class teachers, KEMI trainers and District Quality Assurance and Standards Officers (DQASOs) serving the public primary schools in the County.

1.9 Basic assumptions of the study

The study was based on the assumptions that:

i) All headteachers irrespective of school category had attended leadership development programmes to facilitate inclusive education implementation.

ii) A cohesive and standard-based leadership development system enhances headteachers' capacity in implementing inclusive education.

1.10 Definition of significant terms

Leadership development: refers to the knowledge, skills, and dispositions attained through various types of facilitated learning opportunities such as, college degrees, workshops, seminars, in-service training, conferences, and job-embedded learning opportunities, which ensure headteachers provide efficient and effective leadership to improve student learning and achievement. The term professional development as used in this study is equivalent to leadership development.

Inclusive Education: Inclusive education is a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all learners through increasing participation in learning, cultures, and communities, and reducing exclusion within and from education.

Headteacher: refers to the lead administrator and educator in an educational institution who is responsible for implementing educational policies and professional practices that promote synergy for the optimal utilization of resources in the provision of education. The term headteacher, as used in this study, is equivalent to the term principal.

Regular Schools: otherwise known as mainstream schools, these typically provide instruction and education services that do not focus primarily on special education, vocational/technical education, alternative education, or on any of the particular themes associated with special programme emphasis schools.

Implementation: the second phase in the change process, which provides ongoing support for the realization of an application, or execution of a plan, idea, model, design, specification, or standard.

1.11   Organization of the study

This study is organized in five chapters. The introduction chapter covers the background to the study, the statement of the problem, the purpose, objectives, research questions, and significance of the study. The limitations, delimitations, basic assumptions and definition of significant terms are also covered in chapter one. Chapter two extensively explores literature related to inclusive education, its implementation and the role of headteachers in inclusive education leadership. The theoretical and conceptual frameworks are also included in the chapter. Chapter three describes the research methodology, that is, the research design, target population, sample size and sampling procedures, research instruments, instrument validity and reliability, and data collection and analysis techniques. Chapter four contains data analysis, interpretation and discussion. Chapter five is focused on the summary of findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 Introduction

Literature related to this study has been reviewed under several sub-headings.

The themes addressed are foundations and global perspectives on inclusive

education, inclusive education service delivery models, the implementation of

inclusive education, and the role of the headteachers in the implementation

process. The reviewed literature also focuses on role of headteachers in

promoting school leadership effectiveness. Other issues examined are the

headteacher leadership development processes, including the contents, design

features and delivery strategies. Areas also covered are leadership standards,

headteacher evaluation, and the district and their significance in providing for

effective school leadership practices. The section includes the theoretical and

conceptual frameworks, and the summary of reviewed literature. The reviewed

literature provides a context for this research by examining existing knowledge in

the problem area. The gaps that the research sought to address have equally been

identified.

2.2 The foundations and global perspective on inclusive education

Inclusive education is anchored on the framework of human rights, equity and

diversity (Riehl, 2000; Winzer and Mazurek, 2012). Its development revolves

around the right of every individual to education, as stated in the 1948 Universal

Declaration of Human Rights and in the context of the United Nations' agenda of

Education for All (EFA) that was stimulated by the 1990 Jomtien Declaration

(UNESCO, 2005). Consequently, policy makers and educators, according to Winzer and Mazurek (2012), are adopting the notion that all children should be educated together and the functions, content, processes, and structures of schooling are being recast in nations around the world. Moreover, "developments in thinking and practice in inclusion indicate that the issue is now at the heart of policy and planning in education throughout the world, and is a central part of the movement towards Education for All" (Farrel, Ainscow, Howes, Frankham, Fox & Davis, 2004, p.10).

Peters (2004) acknowledges that countries of the north such as the United States, Canada, and many European countries have recognized the need to safeguard the educational rights of all students through legislative and policy frameworks that comprehensively address the provision of inclusive education. In the United States, for instance, the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) that was enacted in 2002 creates provisions to ensure that no children especially those with the greatest learning needs, are not neglected in the standards-driven learning environments. The 1997 and 2004 amendments to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act provides for inclusive learning by specifying that students with disabilities should access the general education curriculum and participate in assessments (IDEA 1997; 2004). Mukuria and Obiakor (2004) examine the differences between developed and developing countries in serving students with disabilities, who are a key constituency in inclusive learning. Referring to Kenya, Nigeria, and South Africa, they observe that unlike the developed world, the education of learners with disabilities in developing

countries is yet to be sufficiently addressed. Bayat (2014) acknowledges a lack of major achievements with inclusive education by most developing countries.

Eleweke and Rodda (2002) observe that the implementation of inclusive education in most developing countries is inadequate. They identify factors such as a lack of adequate support services, relevant materials, personnel training programmes, effective funding structure, and enabling legislation as the major bottlenecks hindering the effective implementation of inclusive education in these countries. Besides, a myriad of challenges have been identified in enhancing inclusive education in Kenya (Buhere, Ndiku & Kindiki, 2014; Buhere & Ochieng, 2013; Manzi, 2011; Mwangi & Orodho, 2014; Mwaura, 2004; Njoka et al., 2012). This rationale makes this study both necessary and urgent.

2.3 Inclusive Education Service Delivery Models

The EFA Global Monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2005) affirms that inclusive education and quality education are reciprocal. The report emphasizes the need for learning to take into account that learners are individuals with diverse characteristics and backgrounds. Consequently, effective inclusive education implementation should be done within the framework of research-based models. The Universal Design for Learning (UDL), Response to Intervention (RTI), and Differentiated Instruction (DI) are among models that provide service delivery frameworks for effective implementation of inclusive education.

Universal Design for Learning (UDL) is a research-based framework for curriculum design that encompasses the educational goals, methods, materials, and assessments to enable all learners access the knowledge and skills required for successful mastery of desired learning outcomes. Rich supports for learning are also provided to reduce learning barriers that may be inherent in the curriculum, while maintaining rigor and high achievement standards for all students. UDL is based on three primary principles: multiple means of representation, to give diverse learners options for acquiring information and knowledge; multiple means of action and expression, to provide learners options for demonstrating what they know and; multiple means of engagement, to tap into learners' interests, offer appropriate challenges, and increase motivation (Centre for Applied Special Technology, 2012; Jiménez, Graf & Rose 2007; Meo, 2008; Rose & Meyer, 2000, 2002, 2006).

Katzel and Richards (2013), assert that UDL is among proven strategies for implementing an inclusive learning strategy to reach a broader diversity of learning styles in the classroom. Since every student learns differently, instructors need to educate students using a variety of ways to think, learn, and solve problems independently and effectively. In their research on effective inclusive schools, Hehir and Kartzman (2012) observe that UDL promotes a framework for ensuring instruction, materials, and content are accessible and engaging for students of all learning styles. Using the principles of UDL, teachers utilize universally designed instruction (UDI) to deliver effective instruction that meets diverse learning needs of all students. Consequently, UDL enhances

outcomes for both students and their teachers (Hehir & Kartzman, 2012; Katzel & Richards, 2013; Rose & Meyer, 2006).

Hitchcock, Meyer, Rose, and Jackson (2002) postulate that the UDL is a framework for curriculum reform that takes advantage of new media and new technologies for learning. This is consistent with the assertion by Dolan and Hall (2001), that to provide multiple means of recognition, expression, and engagement, Universal Design for Learning relies on the ability of new digital media to provide flexible presentation. Unlike printed matter, new digital media, such as audio text, images, audio, video, and networked environments, allow for transformation from one medium to another, such as text-to-speech, for example, talking word processors; speech-to-text, for example, captions; text-to-touch, for example, Braille; and image to-touch, for example, tactile graphics. These transformations not only permit a user to choose the format that is most accessible, but they also allow for multiple representations for clarity and enhanced meaning. Thus, new media have the potential to go beyond merely providing access to information and actually enrich the communication and absorption of that information, and thus potentially improve learning and mastery of the material. Jiménez, Graf, and Rose (2007) recommend professional development of teachers and other school professionals to effectively implement a comprehensive UDL curriculum at the school and classroom levels. Messinger-William and Marino (2010) also recommend professional development to enhance the capacity to implement both UDL and assistive technology.

Response to Intervention (RTI) is a multi-step approach to providing instruction and interventions to learners at increasing levels of intensity. Implementation of RTI can be diverse, but all approaches share some common components: evidence-based instructional practices; a tiered hierarchy of supports and services; comprehensive assessments and progress monitoring; and standard protocols for intervention and problem solving approaches. Generally, in Tier I general education teachers provide instruction and interventions. Tier II includes supports and services that are provided collaboratively, drawing general and special education resources and personnel. Supports and services at this level are more targeted, intensive and individualized. At Tier III the most intensive and specialized supports and services are provided. These supports and services include identification of students for special education, with a requirement for individualized educational programming (Fuchs, Fuchs & Compton, 2012; Kirk, Gallagher, Coleman & Anastasiow 2009; Klotz & Canter, 2007).

Kirk et al. (2009) assert that the RTI model that helps teachers and related service providers to match the students' needs with evidence-based instructional approaches. Fuchs, Fuchs & Compton (2012), while proposing Smart RTI approach to multilevel prevention and instruction, posit that, "successful implementation of RTI requires ambitious intent, a comprehensive structure, and coordinated service delivery" (p.263). Smart RTI aims at efficient use of school resources while maximizing on students' achievement. The key features of smart RTI are: (a) multistage screening to identify risk, (b) multistage assessment to determine appropriate level of instruction, and (c) a role for special education that

supports prevention. This approach to RTI differs from others because its features address the prevention-intervention dimension of RTI, and not the identification and eligibility dimension. Smart RTI levels are distinguished by the distinctiveness of instruction delivered and by the skill set required of instructors. Culot (2011) asserts that the headteacher plays a critical role in the successful implementation of RTI. He emphasizes that RTI provides headteachers with a framework for delivering academic intervention services to students earlier while often maintaining those students in the general education classroom. Within the context of RTI, Causton & Theoharis (2014) assert that authentic inclusive education can promote significant success for students struggling academically.

Subban (2006) asserts that contemporary classrooms are becoming increasingly diverse and educational authorities; teachers and school administrators are looking to teaching and learning strategies that cater for a variety of learning profiles. Differentiated Instruction (DI) model provides for a rethinking of the structure, management and content of the classroom, to ensure participants within the learning context are actively engaged in and benefit from the process. Tomlinson (2001) illustrates how Differentiated Instruction (DI) meets the diverse learning needs in classrooms. She asserts that differentiated instruction is proactively planned to address a range of learners' needs. Differentiation, she affirms, should be learner centred, so that learning is engaging, relevant and interesting. She posits that "in a differentiated classroom, the teacher proactively plans and carries out varied approaches to content, process, and product in

anticipation of and in response to student differences in readiness, interest and learning needs" (p.7).

Inclusive education is at the centre of ongoing educational reform focusing on reshaping general education into a multilevel system with the capacity to cater for the unique and diverse needs of all students. Given that headteachers play a key role in this process, this study examined the influence of their leadership development process in facilitating the implementation of inclusive education.

2.4 Developing effective inclusive schools

Causton and Theoharis (2014) acknowledge the compelling body of research on the central role of school leaders in creating inclusive schools that are both excellent and equitable for all students. Successful school leaders, they postulate, adopt a variety of strategies. These include: (a) setting a vision, (b) developing democratic implementation plans, (c) systematic utilization of staff to ensure effective inclusive service delivery, (d) creating and developing collaborative frameworks and teams, (e) providing ongoing professional learning opportunities to staff, regularly monitoring and evaluating service delivery, and (f) purposely developing a positive school climate.

Booth and Ainscow (2002), emphasize the significance of the *Index for Inclusion* developed by The Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education, in guiding the transformation of the school into an effective inclusive environment. The index comprises three dimensions, namely; creating inclusive cultures, producing

inclusive policies, and evolving inclusive practices. The index provides the framework for self-review of school cultures, policies, and practices, and the identification the barriers to learning and participation. Furthermore, it also assists schools to prioritize change based on their contextual realities. The elements in the index are:

- Valuing all students and staff equally.

- Increasing the participation of students in, and reducing their exclusion from, the cultures, curricula and communities of local schools.

- Restructuring the cultures, policies and practices in schools so that they respond to the diversity of students in the locality.

- Reducing barriers to learning and participation for all students, not only those with impairments or those categorized as 'having special educational needs.'

- Learning from attempts to overcome barriers to the access and participation of particular students to make changes for the benefit of students more widely.

- Viewing the difference between students as resources to support learning, rather than as problems to be overcome.

- Acknowledging the right of students to an education in their locality.

- Improving schools for staff as well as for students.

- Emphasizing the role of schools in building community and developing values, as well as in increasing achievement.

- Fostering mutually sustaining relationships between schools and communities.

- Recognizing that inclusion in education is one aspect of inclusion in society (Booth and Ainscow, 2002, p.3)

The New Jersey Council on Developmental Disabilities and the New Jersey Coalition for Inclusive Education (2009) developed the *Quality Indicators for Effective Inclusive Education Guidebook.* The Quality Indicators are statements of specific evidence-based practices that aim to promote the creation of inclusive learning communities that guarantee the success of all students. The indicators serve as guideposts of best practices in inclusion. They help schools to identify areas of programmatic strength and those in need of further development. The quality indicators can also be utilized to generate a comprehensive school improvement plan for inclusive education.

The Quality Indicators focus on eleven critical areas namely; leadership; school climate; scheduling and participation; curriculum, instruction and assessment; programme planning and development; programme implementation and assessment; individual student supports and family-school partnerships. The other areas are, collaborative planning and teaching; professional development; and planning for continued best practice improvement. Similarly, Maryland Coalition for Inclusive Education (2011) has developed quality indicators, designed to assist school teams in determining the extent to which their schools are inclusive and meeting the needs of their diverse learners.

In order to develop effective inclusive schools, there is need for school leaders to establish collaborative frameworks, collegiality, and a commitment to support diversity among students (Kugelmass, 2004). Though not explicit to inclusive education implementation, Fullan (2014) articulates what he terms the three keys that maximizing a headteachers' impact. He suggests that a headteacher can achieve this by being: (a) a leader of learning to ensure intense instructional focus and continuous learning are the core work at the school; (b) a district and system player in order to access the wide range of resources within the system to leverage leadership success; (c) a change agent to foster school effectiveness and improved student learning and achievement. The conceptualization of the headteacher as a change agent is critical to inclusive implementation and its sustainability. Referring to seven critical competencies suggested by Kirtman (2013), Fullan (2014) asserts that as the change agent, the headteacher requires these competencies to facilitate the building of personal and organizational capacity for greater leadership success. With these competencies, the headteacher:

- Challenges the status quo by interrogating common practices, takes risks, and explores innovations with the aim of improving the learning of all students.

- Builds trust through clear communication and expectation to ensure improved performance and organizational effectiveness.

- Creates commonly owned plan for success by working to ensure ownership of the plan, monitoring implementation, and making adjustments as appropriate.

- Focuses on the team over self by supporting the professional growth of all staff and seeking critical feedback.

- Has a sense of urgency for sustainable by mobilizing people to tackle core issues while matching passion and urgency with requisite skills.

- Commits to continuous improvement for self by seeking learning opportunities and innovative ideas to ensure sustained improvements.

- Builds external networks and partnerships to adequate and sustainable support that makes a positive difference to the organization (Fullan, 2014, pp. 128-134).

In view of the foregoing, it was imperative to investigate whether the districts, the county and school teams in the study utilized tools like the index and indicators for inclusion. Also to establish what the headteachers were doing to develop leadership capacity to leverage inclusive education implementation and to ensure its sustainability.

2.5 The implementation of inclusive education in Kenya

The Government of Kenya has made some progress in developing a policy environment for the implementation of inclusive education. In support of inclusive education, the Constitution of Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 2010), section 43 (1), affirms the right of every person to education. Further, section 53 (1) (b) states that every child has the right to free and compulsory basic education. The Sessional Paper No. 1 (Republic of Kenya, 2005[a]) provides a policy framework for the education sector in Kenya, including the requisite legal context, within which to design, develop and implement inclusive education

programmes. It outlines policy recommendations for enhancing education access, quality, relevance, equity and efficiency, which are important factors in the overall success of inclusive education.

The Special Needs Education Policy Framework (Republic of Kenya, 2009) addresses a wide range of critical issues impacting on special needs education and provides a comprehensive policy framework that seeks to harmonize education service delivery for learners with special needs in all education subsectors. The document embraces inclusive education as the viable option in enhancing education access, equity, quality, and relevance for children with special needs. It also acknowledges the monumental challenges in the provision of inclusive education.

The policy framework for Education (Republic of Kenya, 2012) outlines a myriad of challenges facing the primary education subsector, including; high pupil-teacher ratios, overcrowded classrooms, absenteeism, high drop-out rates, high repetition rates, increased number of orphans due to HIV and AIDS, inadequate infrastructural development, weak governance and financial management, inequitable deployment and weak management of teachers, and gender and regional disparities. Though the framework does not outline an explicit inclusive education policy, it embraces inclusive strategies by adopting the principle of child-friendly schooling, while simultaneously focusing on a requisite legal framework to ensure that schools respect diversity and ensure equality of learning for all children and that they do not exclude, discriminate, or

stereotype on the basis of difference. In a study of school management practices and their implication for in-service training of headteachers, Kalai (2011) postulates that inclusive education should be embraced in all schools to cater for diverse students including the gifted and talented and those with disabilities. He calls for preparation of headteachers and teachers to ensure effective education children with diverse special needs.

Despite the policy intent by Government of Kenya (Republic of Kenya 2005[a], 2005[c], 2009, 2010, 2012), there seems to be insufficient specifics on the nature and the scope of inclusive education policy. The specifics on service delivery models and the roles of stakeholders, including those of headteachers, within the inclusive education framework are less clear. There is no clear roadmap outlining the envisioned trajectory of the implementation process in different education subsectors, with timelines and benchmarks. Nonetheless, headteachers have a key role in ensuring effective implementation and sustainability of inclusive education programmes (Causton & Theoharis 2014; Hehir & Katzman, 2012; Munk & Dempsey, 2010; Salisbury & McGregor, 2002, 2005; Waldron, McLeskey & Redd, 2011, 2014). To this end, it is imperative that the intricate dynamics of their leadership development and how these influence their leadership capacities to implement inclusive education be examined.

2.6 Role of headteachers in promoting school effectiveness

According to Portin, Paul, Michael, and Lauren (2003), the core mandate of the headteacher's job is to diagnose his or her particular school's needs and to meet

these needs by utilizing the resources and talents available. They assert that regardless of school type, schools need leadership in seven critical areas. These are:

- Instructional Leadership- Assuring quality of instruction, modelling teaching practice, supervising curriculum, and assuring quality of teaching resources.

- Cultural Leadership- Tending to the symbolic resources of the school, for example, its traditions, climate, and history.

- Managerial Leadership- Tending to the operations of the school such as, its budget, schedule, facilities, safety and security.

- Human Resource Leadership- Recruiting, hiring, firing, inducting, mentoring teachers and administrators; developing leadership capacity and professional development opportunities.

- Strategic Leadership- Promoting a vision, mission, goals, and developing a means to reach them.

- External Development- Representing the school in the community, developing capital, public relations, recruiting students, buffering and mediating external interests, and advocating for the school's interests.

- Micro-political Leadership- Buffering and mediating internal interests; maximizing financial and human resources (Portin et al., 2003 p. 18)

A Wallace Foundation Perspective Report on the effectiveness of school leaders (The Wallace Foundation, 2009) suggests that effective leadership is critical to the success of a school. According to the report, "research and practice confirm that there is slim chance of creating and sustaining high-quality learning

environments without a skilled and committed leader to help shape teaching and learning. That's especially true in the most challenging schools" (p.1). As a result, there has been sharp focus on the role of headteachers pursuant to emergence of research establishing an empirical link between school leadership to student learning and achievement (Leithwood and Louis, 2012, Leithwood et al. 2004; Leithwood, Harris & Hopkins 2008; Louis, Dretzke & Wahlstrom, 2010; Mendel, 2012).

School leaders play a critical role in improving learning through four sets of leadership practices. First, they set directions by building a shared vision, fostering the acceptance of group goals, creating high performance expectations, and communicating the direction. Second, they develop staff by providing individualized support and consideration, offering intellectual stimulation, and modelling appropriate values and practices. Third, effective leaders refine and align their organizations when they build collaborative cultures, restructure the organization to support collaboration, build productive relationships with families and connect the school to the wider community. Last, they improve the instructional programme through practices that influence the nature and quality of instruction in classrooms (Leithwood & Louis, 2012; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008).

Headteachers according to a Wallace Foundation Perspective report can no longer function simply as school managers but also instructional leaders (The Wallace Foundation, 2013). To be successful, they are also expected to distribute

leadership effectively for sustainable educational change and improvement that translates into improved learning outcomes (Harris, 2014). This can be achieved through what Dufour and Marzano (2011) advocate; a shift in focus to efforts aimed at building the collective capacity of educators.

However, the functions of the headteacher, discussed above, do not directly address inclusive education. It can only be assumed that leadership skills in the critical areas are helpful in leading inclusive schools. This makes it necessary to interrogate the role of headteachers for the implementation of inclusive education and to review the effectiveness of leadership development programmes in fostering effective leadership practices.

2.7 Role of headteacher leadership in inclusive education implementation

Furney, Aiken, Clark/Keefe, and Hasazi, (2005) conducted a policy study on the development of support systems and teams to enhance the capacity of schools to effectively educate students with diverse needs in general education classrooms. They established four themes related to leadership in effective schools: (a) fostering shared vision, planning, and decision-making processes, (b) creating collaborative structures and processes, (c) using data to make decisions about curriculum and instruction, and (d) understanding and utilizing policy to create comprehensive school and district wide systems. These themes mirror those identified by Waldron, McLeskey, and Redd (2014) in their case study of a highly effective, inclusive school. For this research, the themes are crucial

because each point to potential areas of implications not only for practice but also for focus of and approaches to headteacher leadership development.

Salisbury and McGregor (2002) assert that inclusive education has emerged as a school wide improvement approach for educating students with diverse abilities in general education classes. Effective inclusive schools share characteristics of innovativeness, commitment to diversity, and a strong emphasis on school improvement. Headteachers share common personal attributes such as sharing decision-making power with their staff, leading their school by example, extending the core values around inclusiveness and quality initiatives throughout the school, and actively promoting learning communities. Waldron, McLeskey, and Redd (2011) acknowledge that strong headteacher leadership is pivotal to effective implementation of inclusive education. Their description of the characteristics of effective inclusive schools and the personal attributes of headteachers of such schools are consistent with those articulated by Salisbury and McGregor (2002) and Hehir and Katzman (2012).

Hehir and Kartzman (2012) affirm that inclusive schools are dynamic, problem-solving organizations. Strong leadership from headteachers of such schools creates both a sense of common purpose and internal accountability as well as conditions for high-quality teaching and learning to take place. Their stance is that complex and interrelated factors undergird the success of schools with effective inclusive education models. Successful inclusive schools embrace comprehensive school-wide approaches, including a clear vision of high

expectations and universally designed instructional practices that address both academic and behavioral components of schooling. Kugelmass (2004) asserts that effective inclusive schools are characterized by coherent school cultures in which teachers and school leaders demonstrate high levels of personal responsibility and collective commitments that place students at the centre of educational decision making. Kgothule (2004) asserts that efficient leadership remains an important indicator of successful inclusive education implementation. He established that most of the leadership issues effecting inclusive education implementation are known but not sufficiently addressed in practice.

While research literature on the role of headteachers in the implementation of inclusive education appears compelling and clearly defined, it is less clear in Kenya. Even less clear is the influence of leadership development on the effectiveness of headteachers in the implementation of inclusive education. However, headteachers have a pivotal role to play in making schools both excellent and equitable (Causton & Theoharis, 2014; Causton-Theoharis & Theoharis, 2008; Kugelmass, 2004; McLeskey & Waldron, 2011; Munk & Dempsey, 2010; Rhiel, 2000). In the study schools, what is the influence of headteacher leadership development on implementation inclusive education? This is the gap this research sought to fill.

2.8 Headteacher leadership development for effective school leadership

Davis et al. (2005) observe that the growing consensus on the attributes of effective headteachers show that successful school leaders influence student

achievement through two important pathways—the support and development of effective teachers and the implementation of effective organizational processes. Likewise, Hale and Moorman (2003) assert that while the jobs of headteachers, like other school leaders, have changed dramatically, neither organized professional development programmes nor formal preparation programmes have adequately prepared those holding these jobs to meet the priority demands of the 21st century, namely, improved student achievement.

Drawing lessons from exemplary leadership development programmes designs and features, Darling-Hammond et al. (2010) suggest that pre-service and in-service programmes develop headteachers with the capacity to engage successfully in many of the practices associated with school success: cultivating a shared vision and practice, leading instructional improvement, developing organizational capacity, and managing change. Davis et al. (2005) and Darling-Hammond et al. (2010) share evidence from research on principal preparation and development programmes that suggests that certain programme features are essential in the development of effective school leaders. They cite evidence indicating that effective programmes are research-based, have curricular coherence, provide experience in authentic contexts, use cohort groupings and mentors, and are structured to provide for collaboration between the programme and target schools.

Several research studies in Kenya have also examined leadership development of headteachers. In a research study that investigated the competences needed by headteachers for effective and efficient management and leadership of secondary

schools, Onyango (2001) established that the existing training programmes were inadequate. He recommends comprehensive policies by the Government of Kenya to facilitate the professionalization of headship and make training of headteachers mandatory. The study also makes the case for the introduction of certificate, diploma and degree courses in school management for aspiring and practicing headteachers. Nandwa (2011) examined different methods used in leadership preparation and development of high school principals in Kenya, such as experiences through leadership roles, attendance of in-service courses, headteachers' conferences and personal initiatives of headteachers. The research found that in-service courses offered by KEMI and other in-service providers were few and irregular and could not be fully depended upon for effective leadership preparation and development. Muganda (2011), in a study of the effects of KEMI in-service training on headteachers' performance of administrative tasks, recommends the diversification of KEMI courses to sufficiently respond to the needs of headteachers. Thus, research studies have investigated leadership development of headteachers in Kenya. However, there is a gap in research knowledge regarding the leadership development of headteachers and its influence on implementation of inclusive education.

2.9 Headteacher leadership development contents and design features

According to Darling Hammond et al. (2010), existing leadership development programmes for headteachers have been criticized for fundamental weaknesses such as, misalignment between programme content and candidate needs, failure to link professional learning with school mission and needs, failure to leverage

job-embedded learning opportunities, and uneven use of powerful learning technologies. Drawing lessons from exemplary programmes in the United States, these researchers assert that effective programmes typically offer extensive, high-quality learning opportunities focused on curriculum and instruction. They also provide supports in the form of mentoring, participation in headteachers' networks and study groups, collegial school visits, and peer coaching.

On the other hand, a report by two umbrella bodies in the United States, the National Association of Elementary School Principals and the National Association of Secondary School Principals observes that the contents of leadership development should be individualized and tightly linked with headteacher evaluation and development opportunities. Efforts should be made to provide leadership development that is job-embedded (NAESP & NASSP, 2013). Dempster, Lovett, and Flückiger (2011) suggest that the content of leadership programmes should be founded on current research and should ensure that organizational improvement and effective student learning and achievement are explicit goals. The leadership development processes and strategies ought to acknowledge the complexity of school circumstances. They also need to allow sufficient time for learning to influence practice and for collegial feedback on that practice to shape future improvement. In order to ensure maximum effectiveness, Van der Westhuizen and van Vuuren (2007) acknowledge a shift in emphasis in the twenty-first century from content to process. This means a shift from "what" is included in development programmes to "how" they are designed and delivered.

Bush (2009) argues that the shift in emphasis from the traditional content-based to a process driven model is premised on an emerging recognition that classroom learning has a limited impact on leadership practice. Participant-centred leadership development is most preferred and requires the strategies of facilitation, coaching and mentoring. Bolam (1999) suggests that in a process driven approach, leaders are developed through a range of action modes instead of the adoption of a prescribed curriculum. Furthermore, leadership development is often customized to the specific needs of headteachers through "personalized" or "individualized" learning.

Bush, Glover, and Harris (2007) identify four dimensions that underpin the design of effective leadership development programmes: (a) the learning environment-effective learning experiences that occur when they bridge the work situation and the learning situation, and through which participants have the opportunity to reflect on their own practice and share their experiences with others, (b) learning styles-successful adult learning appears to grow from the identification of personalized learning needs, (c) learning approaches-literature shows limited value in didactic approaches and considerable benefits from active learning, and (d) learning support- based on ongoing evaluation of relationships to ensure the quality of support.

In Kenya, several studies have investigated in-service leadership development and recommended the need to review content, delivery methods, and follow up to ensure headteacher needs are met (Omara, 2007, Muganda, 2011, Nandwa,

2011). Inclusive education being a complex reform process, it is crucial that leadership development programmes' contents, design features, and delivery strategies in be interrogated.

2.10 Effective leadership development strategies for school leaders

According to an OECD report (Schleicher, 2012), as more countries around the world require improved achievement from their schools and grant greater autonomy to schools in designing curricula and managing resources, the role of the school leader has changed from the traditional administrator model. Consequently, the report suggests that developing school leaders "requires clearly defining their responsibilities, providing access to appropriate professional development throughout their careers, and acknowledging their pivotal role in improving school and student performance" (p.12). Effective leadership programmes, the report postulates, prepare and develop school leaders using innovative approaches that address the broader roles and responsibilities of leaders and the purposes of schooling. They are designed to develop leaders who build student-centred schools with the capacity for high performance and continuous improvement; and take a system-wide perspective to ensure school improvement, student performance, and enhanced efficiency and effectiveness.

Dempster, Lovett, and Flückiger (2011) assert that leadership development strategies for school leaders should consistently ensure learning processes are directed towards clear improvement purposes. They identify ten critical features of leadership development. According to them, strategies without these features

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are unlikely to have the desired impact where it really matters—schools and classrooms. They affirm that leadership development should be:

- Philosophically and theoretically attuned to individual and system needs in leadership and professional learning.

- Goal-oriented, with primacy given to the dual aims of school improvement and improvement in student learning and achievement.

- Informed by the weight of research evidence.

- Time-rich, allowing for learning sequences to be spaced and interspersed with collegial support, in-school applications and reflective encounters.

- Practice-centred, so that knowledge is taken back into the school in ways that maximize the effects of leadership capability.

- Purpose-designed for specific career stages, with ready transfer of theory into practice.

- Peer-supported within or beyond the school, so that feedback helps to transfer theory and knowledge into improved practice.

- Context-sensitive and thus able to build in and make relevant use of school leaders' knowledge of their circumstances.

- Partnership-powered, with external support through joint ventures involving associations, universities and the wider professional world.

- Committed to evaluating the effects on leaders, as well as on school practices to which their learning applies (Dempster et al., 2011, p.35).

Effective leadership development is systematic and job-embedded. It is planned, purposeful, coherent, and comprehensive in scope. It is also aligned to student learning and achievement goals (Darling-Hammond et al.; Davis et al.; Zepeda,

2008). Speck and Knipe (2005:73) postulate that effective professional development should be aligned with the theory of adult learning. The rationale for the alignment is because adult learners: will commit to learning when they believe that the objectives are realistic and important to their personal and professional needs; want to have some control over what, who, how, why, when, and where of their learning; resist what they perceive as an attack on their competence; need direct, concrete experiences for applying what they have learned in their work; require follow up support to sustain learning since they do not automatically transfer learning into their daily practice; require opportunities to share, reflect, and generalize their learning and experiences; come into the learning process with a wide range of previous experiences, knowledge, interests, and competencies; adults enjoy novelty and variety in their learning experiences.

2.11 Significance of leadership standards and headteacher evaluation in promoting effective school leadership practices

The Council of Chief State School Officers (2008) developed the educational leadership policy standards commonly referred to as the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards of 2008. These six standards represent the broad, high-priority themes that every education leader must address in order to promote the success of every student in their schools. These six standards focus on: (1) setting a widely shared vision for learning; (2) developing a school culture and instructional programme conducive to student learning and staff professional growth; (3) ensuring effective management of the organization, operation, and resources for a safe, efficient, and effective learning

environment; (4) collaborating with faculty and community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources; (5) acting with integrity, fairness, and in an ethical manner; and (6) understanding, responding to, and influencing the political, social, legal, and cultural contexts. In summary, the ISLLC standards aim at ensuring that principals work within a well-formed ethical code to oversee instructional quality; develop teacher talents; establish a learning culture in schools; and work within and beyond the school to secure financial, human, and political capital to maintain and advance organizational operations (Condon & Clifford, 2012).

The Wallace Foundation Report (2009) emphasizes that these standards inform the performance-based systems of assessment and evaluation for school leaders to determine gaps in their performance that could be addressed through leadership development. Porter, Murphy, Goldring, and Elliott (2008) observe that the Vanderbilt Assessment of Leadership in Education (VAL-ED) is an evidenced-based, multi-rating scale that assesses headteachers' learning-centred leadership behaviours known to directly influence teachers' performance, and in turn students' learning outcomes. The VAL-ED measures critical learning-centred leadership behaviours for the purposes of diagnostic analyses, performance feedback, progress monitoring, and professional development planning. The outcomes of the assessment are profiles, interpretable from both norm-referenced and standards-referenced perspectives, and suggested clusters of behaviours for improvement.

2.12 Role of the district in supporting headteacher leadership development and school improvement

According to Wallace Foundation Report (2013), the school district profoundly shapes the destinies of its headteachers by how they are trained, hired, mentored, evaluated and developed on the job. Given the importance of school leadership, the report indicates that districts have a role in building a large corps of well-qualified candidates to be headteachers: creating job descriptions that clearly spell out what principals need to know and do to drive better instruction; improve pre-service training; establish selective hiring procedures that identify the most promising future leaders and match them to the right schools; ensure that hard-to-staff schools get top-quality leaders. Districts also support headteachers on the job. They:

- Develop fair, reliable performance evaluations that hold principals accountable for student progress and inform their ongoing training.

- Offer mentoring to novice headteachers and professional development to all headteachers, so school leaders improve throughout their careers.

- Provide school leaders with timely, useful data and training on how to use it.

- Enable headteachers to devote sufficient time to instruction improvement.

- Plan for orderly turnover and leadership succession (The Wallace Foundation, 2013, p.5).

Turnbull, Riley, Arcaira, Anderson, and MacFarlane (2013) report efforts by six urban districts in the United States, which had been actively working on all required headteacher pipeline components. They describe the role of the districts in developing standards and identifying competencies for headteachers to guide

their training, hiring, evaluation, and support. They had initiated or strengthened partnerships with university training programmes. For hiring, they had standard performance tasks and were developing data systems on candidates' experience. The districts had developed diagnostic evaluation tools and were building the capacity of headteacher supervisors and mentors to support headteachers' skill development. They were also bolstering district-run training programmes for graduates of university training programmes who aspire to become headteachers.

Leithwood et al. (2004) assert that evidence of district-wide improvement and success for all categories of students and schools is more likely when districts establish a clear framework for attaining high standards of student achievement. Such districts have explicit goals and targets for student performance. They employ multi-measure accountability systems and system-wide use of data to inform practice and to hold school and the district leaders accountable for results. Successful districts invest considerable resources to develop their capacity to assess the performance of students, teachers, and schools, and to utilize these assessments to inform decision-making about needs and strategies for improvement at classroom, school, and district levels. They focus on district-wide, job-embedded professional development and supports for teachers. According to them, districts that are successful in moving from low to high performance make an intensive long-term investment in developing instructional leadership capacity at the school and district levels.

There seven strategies utilized by districts in supporting principals effectively to

promote school improvement. The strategies are: (a) establishing a clear focus and a strategic framework of core beliefs, effective practices and goals for improving student achievement; (b) organizing and engaging the school board and district education leaders in support of each school; (c) providing instructional coherence and support; (d) investing heavily in instruction-related professional learning for headteachers, teacher-leaders and district staff; (e) providing high-quality data that link student achievement to school and classroom practices, and assisting schools with how to use data effectively; (f) optimizing the use of resources to improve student learning; (g) and utilizing open, credible processes to involve key school and community leaders in shaping a vision for improving schools (Southern Regional Education Board, 2010, p.1).

Orr, King and LaPointe (2010) examined eight school districts in the United States. They established that these districts were faced with two persistent challenges related to school leadership. First, there was a consistent rise in demand for highly qualified school leaders that exceeded the number of qualified and available local candidates. The second challenge was an urgent need for leaders with the capacity to dramatically improve chronically low-performing schools. The districts focused reform initiatives to foster instructional change through a comprehensive leadership development strategy. The districts' used their consumer influence to improve leadership programmes: a) each district became a discerning customer. This approach defined clear expectations for school leader standards and competencies and strategically used them to articulate recruitment and selection criteria for aspiring headteacher candidates

and preparation programmes; b) the districts became competitors by creating their own leadership programmes that were directly aligned with their own standards and reform priorities; c) they became collaborators and used contracts and incentives such as scholarships and designation of "preferred provider" status or collaborator status to induce local university programmes to change selection criteria and customize programme content, instructional methods, internships, and assessment practices.

Corcoran, Casserly, Price-Baugh, Walston, Hall, Simon (2013) suggest the need for consistency, focus, and coherence in how districts define and support the work of headteacher supervisors. Districts should align their strategic goals for supporting and evaluating headteachers with the management structure of the supervisory and support systems. For headteacher supervisors to provide individualized, hands-on leadership support to headteachers, it is imperative that their background skills, workload, spans of control, and the criteria for selection, training, and evaluation reflect this core function. Besides, headteacher supervisory systems should be both internally consistent and effectively integrated into the district reform efforts.

The research discussed above synthesizes the key role of the district in supporting headteacher leadership development and school improvement. There are also significant lessons on how districts can effectively promote leadership development and ensure successful leadership for school improvement. However, studies conducted within the districts of Kiambu County on inclusive education

and related issues reveal a myriad of challenges in the implementation process (Mwaura, 2004; Mwaura, 2010; Ngaruiya, 2013; Wangari, 2009). The Kiambu District Strategic Plan, 2005-2010 (Republic of Kenya, 2005[b]) also highlights challenges that have direct bearing on inclusive education implementation.

The importance of district focus for leadership development and implementation of inclusive education programmes provides the rationale to investigate the current situation in Kiambu County of Kenya. This study therefore, as part of its purpose, sought to address critical gaps in relation to the role of districts. What specific role do the districts in the county play in supporting leadership development of headteachers to implement of inclusive education? How effectively do the districts play this role? The gaps identified portend critical implications not only for leadership development programmes and infrastructure but also the implementation and sustainability of inclusive education.

2.15 Summary of reviewed literature

The literature reviewed traces the foundation of inclusive education to the right of every individual to education. The development of inclusive education in both the developed and developing countries has been reviewed. The policy environment and the role of headteachers in the implementation of inclusive education have been examined. The literature also examines a wide range of critical issues related to leadership development. Existing gaps in relation to inclusive education implementation such as lack of clear benchmarks, timelines, and the specific roles of stakeholders have been identified (Republic of Kenya

2005a, 2009, 2012). Also identified is the escalating need for highly effective headteachers with the capacity to ensure improved student learning and achievement and the role of leadership development programmes in meeting their leadership needs.

2.13 Theoretical framework

There are several theories of leadership, such as situational, contingency, transactional, and transformational. This research was guided by the Transformational Leadership Theory, which was developed by Burns (1978). According to this theory, transformational leadership involves leaders exerting influence on followers to increase their commitment to organizational goals (Bass, 1998; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Bush, 2014; Leithwood, 1994; Leithwood, Harris & Hopkins, 2008). Transformational leadership does not seek to maintain the status quo but provides an impetus for change and innovation (Bass & Avolio, 1994).

According to Bass (1985, 1990), there are four elements that embody the full range of transformational leadership. These elements are individual consideration, intellectual stimulation, inspirational motivation, and idealized influence. Individualized consideration reflects the degree to which the leader attends to each follower's concerns and needs. Intellectual stimulation involves the leader challenging assumptions while encouraging creativity and innovation. Inspirational motivation includes ways in which leaders motivate and inspire their followers. They communicate high expectations by projecting of a powerful

and dynamic presence that invigorates followers. Idealized influence reflects the way the leader role models to followers through highly ethical behaviour, consequently instilling pride, trust and respect among followers.

In their transformational leadership model, Leithwood and colleagues articulate four main categories of leadership practices (Leithwood, Harris & Hopkins, 2008; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Leithwood & Louis, 2012). These are: (a) setting directions—the four specific practices in this category comprise of building a shared vision, fostering the acceptance of group goals, creating high performance expectations, and communicating the direction; (b) developing people—the practices in this category include leaders offering individualized support and consideration, intellectual stimulation, and modelling appropriate values and practices; (c) refining and aligning the organization—in this category, specific practices revolve around building collaborative cultures, restructuring the organization to support collaboration, building productive relationships with families and communities, and connecting the school to the wider community; (d) improving the instructional programme—practices in this category focus primarily on teaching and learning. Therefore, the school leader's goal is to staff the programme, provide instructional support, monitor progress, buffer staff from distractions to their work, and align resources. In a case study research, Waldron, McLeskey, and Redd (2011) established that developing and sustaining a highly effective, inclusive school required the adoption of effective leadership practices; these transformative leadership practices by the headteacher correspond with those articulated by Leithwood and Louis (2012).

Taking cognizance of the conceptualization of transformational leadership within school contexts, the model provides the framework for enhancing headteachers' capacity to implement the complex reforms associated with inclusive education. There is also the growing understanding of the transformative power of school leadership, which according to Corcoran et al. (2013), has helped redefine the role and expectations of headteachers. Transformational leadership seeks to build the organization's capacity to define its vision and to support the development of changes to practices of teaching and learning (Hallinger, 2003). Transformational leadership is therefore critical to effective implementation and sustainability of inclusive education. Furthermore, as Winzer and Mazurek (2012) postulate, inclusive education is a complex and interwoven reform into the functions, content, processes, and structures of schooling to educate all children. Consequently, it is imperative that school leadership is exercised in the form that makes the greatest impact for inclusive reforms to be effective. Three assertions by Leithwoood and Louis (2012) that are research based support the case for leadership effectiveness anchored on the transformational model. First, school leadership influences student learning and achievement. Second, leadership has a greater influence on schools and students when it is widely distributed. Third, due to its inherent focus on developing a shared vision and commitment to school change, transformational leadership may be viewed as distributed.

Darling-Hammond et al. (2010) observes that transformational leadership is highly descriptive of leadership practices associated with gains in student achievement. Consequently, to ensure leadership effectiveness in the process of

implementing inclusive educations and to ensure the sustainability of inclusive reforms, headteachers require the necessary knowledge, skills, and dispositions. Both Ross (2004) and Leithwood et al. (2004[a]) found evidence that leadership training had significant effects on the development of Transformational Leadership Behaviours (TLBs) among headteachers and on student achievement. This link presupposes the capacity of leadership development to influence the transformation of schools into effective inclusive environments. Everything considered, transformational leadership from headteachers would ensure, as Salisbury and Mcgregor (2005) postulate, they bring reforms that eliminate existing practices that undermine inclusive education and ensure implemented inclusive programmes are institutionalized and sustained. Leithwood et al. (2004[b]), seems to support the efficacy of the transformational leadership by affirming that it draws attention to a broader array of school and classroom conditions that may need to be changed if learning is to improve. Furthermore, Leithwood and Louis (2012) suggest that the transformational model of leadership emphasizes communicating a compelling vision, conveying high performance expectations, projecting self-confidence, modelling appropriate roles, expressing confidence in the followers' ability to achieve goals, and emphasizing a collective purpose. Thus, the Transformational Leadership Theory holds promise for effecting comprehensive and sustainable inclusive reforms.

2.14 Conceptual framework

This research was designed to examine the influence of leadership development on implementation of inclusive education. Therefore, the conceptual framework

represented by Figure 2.1 graphically illustrates the interrelationships between the key research variables.

Figure 2.1: Headteacher Leadership Development and Inclusive Education Implementation Model.
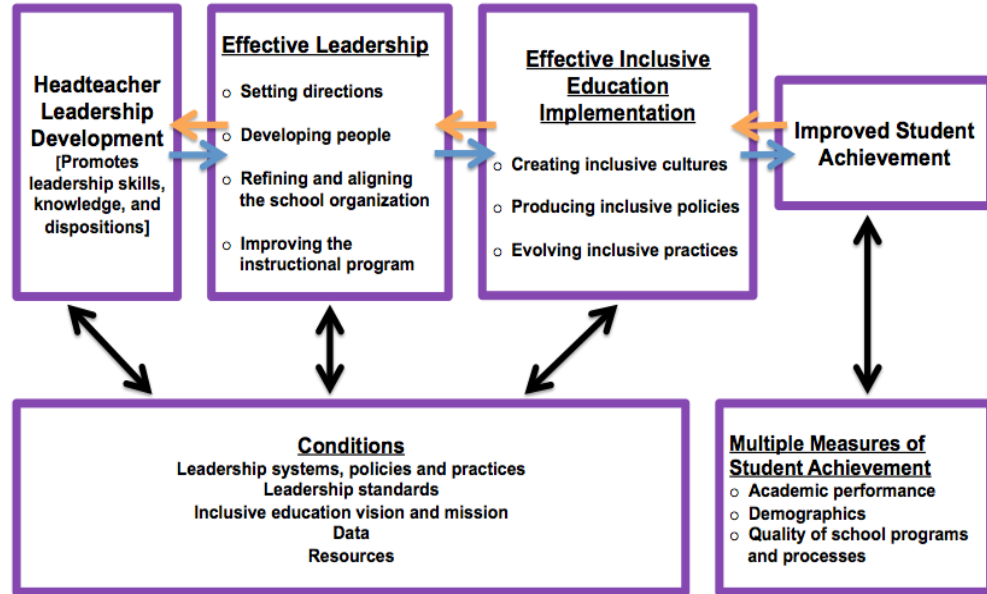
Legend. Effective leadership practices are adapted to the framework from Leithwood and Louis (2012) and effective inclusive education implementation index from Booth and Ainscow (2002).

First, the main input variable into the process is headteacher leadership development, which may be typically accessed through workshops, conferences, seminars, symposiums, open and distance learning programmes, personal initiatives of headteachers and peer support programmes, among other avenues. Exemplary leadership programmes produce headteachers with the knowledge, skills and dispositions to engage in effective leadership practices. Specifically, these headteachers set clear directions for their schools based on high expectations for all students. They use disaggregated data from multiple sources

to inform inclusive education decisions. These headteachers also engage in effective organizational processes, including developing their staff and distributing leadership roles to effective teams to collaboratively plan and implement inclusive education programmes that improve achievement for all students. Effective headteacher leadership facilitates effective implementation of inclusive education that is characterized by the evolvement of sustainable inclusive cultures, policies, and practices. Inclusive school indicators include: positive attitude toward diversity, curriculum adaptations, school-wide positive behaviour supports, technology integration, adequate school facilities, barrier-free environment, high retention and low dropout rates, stakeholder collaboration, and safe and healthy environment.

The ultimate outcome is improved achievement for all students while closing the achievement gap. In inclusive settings, disaggregated data is vitally important in determining student achievement and progress in closing the achievement gap. These data should be based on multiple measures. The measures include: (a) academic performance data, based on multiple measures beyond mean scores; (b) demographics such as attendance, dropout, completion, and transition rates; and (c) the quality of school programmes and processes. Finally, the model provides for monitoring and evaluation at all levels and utilization of resultant feedback to determine and implement appropriate data-based interventions and adjustments.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter describes the procedures that were used in carrying out this research. These are research design, target population, sample size and sample procedures, research instruments, instrument validity and reliability, data collection procedures, and data analysis techniques. The chapter also addresses the ethical issues that were considered for this study.

3.2 Research design

The research study adopted a mixed research methods approach in order to provide an in-depth and complete perspective on the influence of headteacher leadership development on implementation of inclusive education. According to Johnson, Onwuegbuzie, and Turner (2007), a mixed methods research combines elements of qualitative and quantitative approaches for purposes of breadth and depth of understanding and corroboration. Further, Creswell and Clark (2011) justify the use of mixed methods because the combination of qualitative and quantitative data provides a more complete understanding of the research problem than either approach by itself. The stance taken by Best and Kahn (2006) that qualitative and quantitative research should be viewed as a continuum, and not mutually exclusive dichotomies, reinforces the justification for adopting a mixed methods approach.

Within a mixed methods research paradigm, the study specifically utilized the convergent parallel design. This design, according to Creswell and Clark (2011), occurs when the researcher collects and analyses both quantitative and qualitative data in the same phase and then merges the two sets of results into an overall interpretation. The purpose is to triangulate the methods and to develop a more complete understanding of the phenomena, and comparing multiple levels within a system. A concurrent timing strategy was utilized to implement the quantitative and qualitative strands during the same phase of the research. Creswell and Clark (2011) affirm that concurrent timing prioritizes the methods equally, keeps the strands independent during analysis, and mixes the results during the overall interpretation.

The design and data sources were determined by the two broad components of the study, addressed in five specific research objectives. First, the study examined the headteacher leadership development programmes in relation to their contents, design features and delivery strategies. Second, the research analysed the effectiveness of headteacher leadership development in facilitating inclusive education implementation. The study also investigated the policy and institutional contexts in the implementation process.

3.3 Target population

The target population for this study constituted 475 headteachers from 10 districts and Thika municipality, 7472 class teachers, 30 District Quality

Assurance and Standards Officers (DQASOs) in Kiambu County and 10 KEMI

trainers. Table 3.1 represents the target population:

Table 3.1

Schools and Respondents in Kiambu County

	Schools/Headteachers				
District/Municipality	*HT/SCH*	*HT$_{S1}$*	*HT$_{S2}$*	*HT$_{S3}$*	*D*
Kiambu	43	5	28	10	2
Githunguri	53	11	30	12	2
Lari	58	16	34	8	2
Limuru	39	6	25	8	2
Kikuyu	58	20	21	17	2
Ruiru	30	11	12	7	4
Thika West	20	3	8	9	6
Thika East	38	12	20	6	2
Gatundu	55	20	24	11	3
Gatundu North	55	24	19	12	2
*Thika Municipality	26	3	8	15	3
Total	475	131	229	115	30

Note. The data show the distribution of headteachers based on the categories of schools they head. The data also show the distribution of DQASOs; *SCH* = School; *HT* = Headteacher; *HT$_{S1}$* = Headteachers of single streamed schools; *HT$_{S2}$* = Headteachers of two streamed schools; *HT$_{S3}$* = Headteachers of three streamed schools; *D* = District Quality Assurance and Standards Officers (DQASOs); *Thika Municipality is served by a Municipal Quality Assurance and Standards Officer (MQASO). Source: Kiambu County Education Office, 2012.

3.4 Sample size and sampling procedures

Probability and non-probability sampling procedures were utilized to determine

the final study sample. First, cluster sampling was utilized to determine the five

districts, based on total number of public primary schools and geographical

location, which constituted an accessible population from which the participants

for the study were selected. The randomly selected districts were Kiambu, Lari,

Limuru, Ruiru and Gatundu North. Geographically, three of these districts;

Kiambu, Lari, and Limuru are located in the western part of the county, while

Gatundu, Ruiru, and Thika Municipality are in the eastern region of the county. Best and Kahn (2006) assert that accessible populations are representative of the overall target population. The resultant sample was 50% of all the districts in Kiambu County. However, Thika municipality has been purposively sampled and included in the final study sample. This was due to its semi-autonomous status under a Municipal Education officer.

Table 3.2

Headteachers' and Class Teachers' Sample Size

District/Municipality	Headteachers				Class Teachers			
	HTs_1	HTs_2	HTs_3	Total	CTs_1	CTs_2	CTs_3	Total
Kiambu	3	14	5	22	3	28	15	46
Lari	8	17	4	29	8	34	12	54
Limuru	3	13	4	20	3	26	12	41
Ruiru	6	6	4	16	6	12	12	30
Gatundu North	12	10	6	28	12	20	18	50
Thika Municipality	2	4	8	14	2	8	24	34
Total	34	64	31	129	34	128	93	255

Note. The data show the proportionate sample size for headteachers and class teachers based on the number of streams in their respective schools. HT = Headteacher; CT = Class Teacher; s_1 = Single streamed school; s_2 = Two streamed school; s_3 = Three streamed school. Source: Kiambu County Education Office, 2012.

In the second stage, as shown in Table 3.2, 129 headteachers, constituting 50% of all headteachers from the sampled administrative units (five districts and Thika municipality), were selected using proportional stratified random sampling. In order to ensure proportional representation of headteachers based on the size of the school they headed, the schools were placed into three categories based on

size—small (single stream), medium-sized (double stream) and large (three streams). The total number of headteachers who participated in the study was 125, representing 96.4% of the targeted sample. In order to triangulate the information provided by headteachers on inclusive education implementation, 255 class teachers were selected through stratified random sampling. This represented 12.5% of class teachers from each school category in the sample. However, 240 out of 255 class teachers, representing 94.1% of the sample, participated in the study. Due to the relatively small population size, all the 15 Quality Assurance Officers and 10 KEMI trainers were purposefully selected for inclusion in the final sample.

Three headteachers from each administrative unit, and two class teachers, one from lower and upper primary respectively from each pilot school, were randomly sampled for the purpose of pilot-testing the research instruments. They were selected from outside the final study sample to maintain the 50% and 12.5% threshold for headteachers and class teachers respectively. Three District Quality Assurance Officers and two KEMI trainers from the study sample were used to pilot the research instruments but were not included in the final study. Consequently, the final sample targeted 404 respondents; 129 headteachers, 255 class teachers, 12 District Quality Assurance Officers, and 8 KEMI trainers. However, as indicated earlier, 125 headteachers and 240 class teachers respectively participated in the final study.

3.5 Research instruments

The research instruments for data collection in this study were two questionnaires and two interview guides. The first questionnaire (Appendix B) was administered to headteachers regarding the influence of their leadership development on implementation of inclusive education. In order to triangulate the information provided by the headteachers, a class teachers' questionnaire (Appendix C) was administered. The questionnaires gave standard instructions to all the participants. The questionnaires had both closed ended and open-ended items. Closed ended items facilitated straightforward scoring of data and data analysis. Open-ended items gave respondents an opportunity to give their opinion and provide in-depth information.

Interview guides were used to gather information from District Quality Assurance and Standards Officers and KEMI trainers. The interview method provided for in-depth probing of respondents regarding influence of headteachers' leadership development on implementation of inclusive education. The analysis of documentary evidence supplemented the questionnaire and interview methods. Documents that were examined included quality assurance reports, training manual, policy documents, assessment reports, and school development plans.

3.6 Validity of research instruments

According to Gall, Gall, and Borg (2003), validity is the degree to which the sample of test items represents the content that the test is designed to measure.

Burton and Mazerolle (2011) assert that in survey research, face validity establishes an instrument's ease of use, clarity, and readability, while content validity establishes the instrument's credibility, accuracy, relevance, and breadth of knowledge regarding the domain. Both face and content validity were enhanced through the views of experts in the field, including the research project supervisors, on the instrument's appearance, relevance and representativeness of its elements. The opinion of experts especially the research supervisors and the results of the pilot study facilitated necessary revision and modification of test items, which ensured that they measured what they were intended to measure.

3.7 Reliability of research instruments

Reliability of a research instrument refers to its ability to consistently measure what is intended (Best and Kahn, 2006). Several methods were employed to enhance the reliability of the research instruments. The pilot test results were used to correct ambiguities, repetitiveness, and jargon in the questionnaire and the interview guides to ensure their reliability. The triangulation method, that is, use of varied data sources enhanced the reliability. According to Gall et al. (2003), triangulation eliminates biases arising from relying exclusively on any one data collection method.

3.8 Data collection procedures

A permit to conduct research was obtained from the National Council of Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI), Nairobi. The researcher made courtesy calls to the District Education Officers for clearance to conduct research

in their respective districts. The researcher then visited education offices and schools in the selected districts and Thika Municipality to explain the study purpose and make appointments. The researcher also paid a courtesy call to the Kenya Education Management Institute (KEMI) in Nairobi. The researcher then met the participants on agreed dates to collect data.

3.9 Data analysis techniques

Quantitative and qualitative data collected from both primary and secondary sources were analysed. For purposes of organization and easier management during the data collection phase, quantitative data were first entered into an Excel Spreadsheet database and updated every day after fieldwork as appropriate. Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was utilized for data analysis. Demographic data were analysed using descriptive statistics, that is, frequencies and percentages. Participant responses on both the headteachers' leadership development and implementation of inclusive education in the study schools were also coded and analysed accordingly into frequencies and percentages. Quantitative data were presented in frequency tables, pie charts, and bar graphs.

Miles and Huberman (1994) categorize qualitative data analysis into three concurrent flows of activity: data reduction, data display, and conclusion drawing/verification. Consequently, the data reduction phase involved selecting, focusing, simplifying, abstracting, and transforming written up field notes or transcriptions. This phase of data analysis continued from data collection until the final report was completed. According to Miles and Huberman (1994), the

process of data reduction sorts, sharpens, focuses, discards, and organizes data. After data reduction, data display, which is the second major flow of analysis commenced. They emphasize that, "Generally, a display is an organized, compressed assembly of information that permits conclusion drawing and action" (Miles & Huberman, 1994, p.11). The researcher, therefore, organized data to establish relationships between and sequences among data to facilitate conclusion and recommendations, including recommendations for further research. The third stage involved conclusion drawing and verification based on emerging themes, patterns, explanations and causal flows. Qualitative findings were presented in narrative form based on emerging themes. Finally, quantitative and qualitative findings were interpreted and discussed in juxtaposition with confirming, reinforcing, and refuting research evidence as appropriate.

3.10 Ethical considerations in the study

Prior to the administration of the instruments, the researcher wrote to the participants to request them to participate in the study and to explain the nature of the research. The letter pointed out to the selected respondents that their participation was completely voluntary and that it could be terminated any time without penalty. The letter emphasized that the information given would be treated with utmost confidence. When collecting data, the procedure of the research was explained to the participants. They were instructed not to indicate their names anywhere in the questionnaire. This ensured anonymity and confidentiality of the participants. The participants were also asked to choose the location for interviews where they would feel secure and comfortable. The

researcher was the only person who had access from the moment information was gathered from a participant. All these measures were meant to guarantee participant's anonymity and confidentiality of the records.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION AND DISCUSSION

4.1.0   Introduction

This study investigated the influence of headteacher leadership development on implementation of inclusive education in public primary schools in Kiambu County, Kenya. The study was guided by five research questions. The questions addressed the types of headteacher leadership development programmes, adequacy of their contents, and the effectiveness of their design features in relation to inclusive education implementation. The questions also examined the effectiveness of the leadership programmes on headteachers' performance in the implementation of inclusive education. In addition, the study investigated policy and institutional challenges in the implementation of inclusive education.

In order gain deeper insight into the influence of the leadership development of headteachers, the study investigated the coherence of the leadership development system, programme evaluation, and funding. The roles of the districts and the county in supporting headteacher leadership development were also examined. The results assisted in determining the influence of leadership development in the implementation of inclusive education in study schools. This chapter, therefore, focuses on the analysis, interpretation, and discussion of findings.

4.1.1 Instrument return rate

A total of 125 headteachers, constituting a 96.9% response rate, completed and returned the questionnaire. On the other hand, 240 out of 255 class teachers

participated, which was a 94.1% response rate. Babbie (1989) in Best and Kahn (2006:324) suggests that a 50% response rate is adequate, while 60% and 70% are good and very good respectively. The rapport the researcher established with the respondents may have contributed to the high response rate. Furthermore, the strategy of distributing the questionnaires in person ensured standard administration to all the respondents. The researcher also made follow up telephone calls with the headteachers to ascertain the questionnaires were ready for collection. Best and Kahn (2006) support the use of vigorous follow-up procedures to increase the questionnaire return rate.

4.1.2 Characteristics of schools in the study

The schools were mixed day, that is, they catered for the education of both boys and girls. Twenty out of the total 125 public primary schools in the study had special units attached to them. Two schools in Lari district and one in Ruiru district were special schools, having been hived off from regular schools. While these three schools were substantially separate settings (restrictive environments), they were included in the study because the reasons for which they had separated from their mother schools had implications for inclusive education implementation in the county, as discussed later in this chapter. The schools in the study served with diverse students including those with disabilities.

4.1.3 Headteachers' demographic data

The researcher collected headteachers' demographic data on age, academic and professional qualifications, and their leadership experience.

Table 4.1

Headteachers' Age Distribution and Gender

*Age bracket	Male		Female		Total	
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*	*f*	*%*
≥ 50	30	24.0	19	15.2	49	39.2
40-49	23	18.4	25	20.0	48	38.4
30-39	16	12.8	12	9.6	28	22.4
Total	69	55.2	56	44.8	125	100.0

Note. N = 125; $\geq$ = Equal to or more than; *f* = frequency of responses; *%* = percentage of responses. *Age bracket categories are given in years.

The results in Table 4.1 illustrate the distribution of headteachers' ages. Their ages fell into three brackets, 30-39 years, 40-49 years, and 50 years or older. Specifically, of the 125 headteachers in the study schools, 22.4% are in the 30-39 year age bracket, while 38.4% are in the 40-49 year category. The table also shows that 39.2% of the headteachers are aged fifty years and above. The largest percentage of females is 40-49 years old, while the largest percentage of males is aged 50 years and older. Female headteachers constitute 44.8% of the study sample while male headteachers are 55.2%. Most male headteachers (24%) are 50 years of age and older, while most female headteachers (20%) are aged between 40-49 years. According to the table, 77.6% of all headteachers are aged 40 years and above.

4.1.4 Headteachers' academic and professional qualifications

The data on the academic and professional qualifications is shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2

Headteachers' Highest Academic and Professional Qualifications

Qualifications	Category/Scale	*f*	*%*
1. Academic	Master's degree	3	2.4
	Bachelor's degree	12	9.6
	College diploma	87	69.6
	High school certificate	23	18.4
2. Professional	M.Ed. degree (Graduate Teacher Scale)	3	2.4
	B.Ed. degree (Graduate Teacher Scale)	12	9.6
	Approved Teacher Scale (ATS)	110	88.0

Note. $N = 125$; *f* = frequency of responses; *%* = percentage of responses; M.Ed. = Master of Education (Graduate Teacher scale); B.Ed. = Bachelor of Education (Graduate Teacher scale); ATS = Approved Teacher scale.

Table 4.2 represents data on the highest academic and professional qualifications attained by headteachers in the study. As illustrated, headteachers' academic qualifications include masters' and bachelors' degrees, diplomas, and certificates. The majority of headteachers (69.6%) had a diploma. Only 9.6% and 2.4% respectively had a bachelor's and a master's degree. Up to 18.4% hold a high school certificate. The table also shows variation in the headteachers' levels of professional qualification, with the largest percentage (88%) being at Approved Graduate Teachers (ATS) scale. A smaller proportion, 9.6% and 2.4% respectively held a bachelor's and a master's degree in education.

The findings reveal significant variations in the headteachers' levels of academic and professional qualifications. They also reveal that the professional qualifications of headteachers accrue from teacher preparation as opposed to educational leadership preparation programmes. These findings, therefore, led credence to observations by Bush and Oduro (2006) that headteachers in countries in Africa, including Kenya are appointed without formal leadership training with the implicit assumption that good teachers can become effective managers and leaders without specific preparation. In contrast, they reveal, without the requisite leadership skills headteachers face considerable challenges in their school leadership roles.

4.1.5 Headteachers' leadership experience

As reflected in the information presented Table 4.3, there were variations in headteachers' levels of experience as measured by the number of years of service since appointment to headship and in their current station.

Table 4.3

Headteachers Experience since Appointment and in their Current Station

*Experience	*Since appointment*		*Current station*	
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*
< 5	34	27.2	75	60.0
5-9	33	26.4	40	32.0
10-14	33	26.4	6	4.8
15-19	15	12.0	4	3.2
≥ 20	10	8.0	0	0.0
Total	125	100.0	125	100.0

Note. $N = 125$; < = Less than; ≥ = Equal to or more than; f = frequency of responses; % = percentage of responses. *Experience = the length of service (number of years) as headteacher.

Table 4.3 shows that 53.6% the respondents had served as headteachers for up to 9 years since appointment. Further, 26.4% and 12% of headteachers had served for between 10-14 years and 15-19 years respectively. Only 8% of headteachers had served in that position for 20 years and above. According to the table, 60% of the respondents had served for less than five years in their current stations, while 32% had served for between five and nine years. A further eight percent

had served in their current stations for periods ranging from 10 to 19 years. However, no headtecher had served for 20 years in their current station.

The variation in the length of service illustrated above and the experience accrued in the process imply that headteachers are at different career stages; some are beginners or novice headteachers, others at mid-career level, yet other headteachers are in the late career stage preparing for retirement. Snell and Bohlander (2013) observe that the challenges people encounter at the same career stage are remarkably similar. In view of the foregoing, leadership development should be career-staged to provide for a learning continuum from pre-service preparation and throughout a headteacher's career. The career-staged approach individualizes and personalizes learning to meet participants' learning needs, interests and learning styles (Speck and Knipe, 2010). It also improves the quality of experience in the workplace and the organizational climate (Joyce & Calhoun, 2010), which are critical in the implementation of inclusive education. Furthermore, Speck and Knipe (2010) postulate that, "adults come to the learning process with a wide range of previous experiences, knowledge, interests, and competencies" (p.74). Therefore, considering the data on headteachers' age distribution, educational background, and leadership experience, their leadership development needs to take cognizance of the theory of adult learning.

The demographic data also reveals that headteachers at some point were transferred to other schools in the same capacity. While such leadership change is inevitable, it has implications on sustainability of implemented inclusive

education reforms. Sindelar, Shearer, Yendol-Hoppy and Leibert (2006) established that leadership change affects the sustainability of inclusive reforms depending on the new leader's affinity for and commitment to an established school-wide inclusive education reform agenda. Leithwood and Louis (2012) assert that coordinated forms of leadership distribution potentially mitigate some negative consequences arising from headteacher turnover. The implication for this study is that succession planning is critical to effective leadership change that positively facilitates sustainable implementation inclusive education reforms.

4.2.0 Types of leadership development programmes for headteachers

The study sought to examine the types of leadership development programmes available to headteachers, including job-embedded learning opportunities, which facilitated the implementation of inclusive education. These findings are presented below under several sub-headings:

4.2.1 Leadership experiences prior to becoming headteachers

In order to establish the context for leadership development, the study examined different types of prior teacher leadership experiences, which the participants deemed critical in enhancing leadership skills.

Table 4.4

Headteachers' Prior Teacher Leadership Responsibilities

Responsibility	f	%
Class teacher	125	100.0
Head of subject	69	55.2
Deputy headteacher	119	95.2
Senior teacher	55	44.0
Games teacher	32	25.6
Guidance & counselling teacher	30	24.0

Note. $N = 125$; f = frequency of responses; $\%$ = percentage of responses.

Table 4.4 shows the responses on job-embedded teacher leadership responsibilities held before appointment to headship that were useful in developing inclusive education leadership skills. According to the data, 100% of headteachers in the study had served both as class teachers and as subject teachers in their teaching career. The majority of the headteachers, 95.2% had served as deputy headteachers. Those who had served in the position of head of subject and senior teacher are 55.2% and 44% respectively. The participants who were previously games teachers constituted 25.6%. Prior to becoming headteachers, 24% of respondents served as guidance and counselling teachers.

These prior leadership experiences portend several implications for sustainable inclusive education leadership and leadership development. First, they imply that the participants had job-embedded opportunities to practice leadership skills prior to assuming their headteachers' responsibilities. Further, by identifying exposure

to teacher leadership experiences as critical to their leadership of inclusive education when they became headteachers, the respondents suggest that such leadership roles enhance aspiring headteachers' potential for leadership success. This is echoed by Young, Crow, Murphy, and Ogawa (2009), who posit that teachers with prior leadership experiences are better equipped to transition directly into school administrative positions successfully. Speck & Knipe, (2010) reinforce this notion by affirming that professional development must be provided within the context of a larger frame, whereby previous experiences are enhanced while developing new learning. Besides, the appointment of teacher leaders also implies the distribution of leadership in the school with the potential to promote greater school effectiveness. Consistent with this implication, Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) assert that leadership of a school is too complex to be left to the headteacher alone and should be shared by a team. This stance also mirrors that of Lambert (2002) who suggests that the old model of one-person leadership leaves out tremendous talents of teachers and does not promote sustainability if the headteacher leaves the school.

4.2.2 Significance of prior experiences in enhancing inclusive leadership

The researcher sought to establish the significance of prior leadership experiences to fostering inclusive education leadership. These teacher leadership experiences are divided into three broad categories: classroom-based leadership, senior teacher leadership, and non-academic leadership roles.

4.2.2.1 Importance of classroom-based leadership role

All the 125 headteachers in the study indicated having previously served as class teachers. The headteachers deemed this role significant in enhancing their leadership skills. The importance of this role to inclusive leadership is illustrated in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5

Importance of Classroom-Based Role to Inclusive Leadership

Class Teacher	*f*	*%*
Collaborate with parents/families	125	100.0
Identify students' learning needs	125	100.0
Adapt the curriculum	50	40.0
Develop teaching/learning resources	85	68.0
Differentiate instruction	42	33.6
Develop classroom and behaviour management strategies	125	100.0

Note. N = 125; *f* = frequency of responses; *%* = percentage of responses

According to Table 4.5, all the headteachers indicated that their role as class teachers was significant in nurturing skills for identifying diverse learning needs of students, and collaboration with parents and families. Forty percent of headteachers indicated that being class teachers honed their skills in adapting the curriculum. Notably, most of the headteachers who suggested curriculum adaptation had training in special education background. Development of teaching and learning resources was reported by 68% of the headteachers. Only 33.6% of the participants indicated that having been class teachers helped them to

differentiate instruction to meet the diverse needs of their learners. It is instructive that most of these participants had a diploma or a bachelor's degree in special education. All the headteachers indicated that they gained skills in the classroom and behaviour management.

The classroom-based experiences relate directly to student learning and achievement. According research evidence, classroom teaching exerts the greatest influence on student learning among school related factors (Leithwood et al., 2004). This implies that classroom-based leadership experiences have the potential to promote instructional leadership skills. These skills are critical given that inclusive education and quality education are reciprocal (UNESCO, 2005). As class teachers gain more experience and eventually transition to headship, these skills promote improvements in teaching and learning.

4.2.2.2 Senior teacher leadership experiences

The majority of the headteachers in the study (95.2%) had previously served as deputy headteachers, while 44% served as senior teachers.

Table 4.6

Significance of Senior Teacher Leadership Responsibilities

Responsibility	*n*	*Significance*	*f*	*%*
1. Deputy Headteacher	119	Maintain school discipline	119	100.0
		Monitor curriculum implementation	119	100.0
		Schedule lessons	103	86.6
		Collaborate with parents	42	35.3
		Manage school finances	20	16.8
		Review student and staff attendance	92	77.3
2. Senior Teacher	55	Monitor curriculum implementation	55	100.0
		Schedule lessons	45	81.8
		Recommend learning materials	33	60.0
		Collaborate with parents	12	21.8
		Enforce school discipline	45	81.8

Note. $N = 125$; f = frequency of responses; $\%$ = percentage of responses; n = the proportion of respondents who previously served as, (1) deputy headteacher, and (2) senior teacher.

According to the findings shown in Table 4.6, all the respondents indicated that by serving as deputy headteachers, they gained skills in maintenance of school discipline and monitoring curriculum implementation. A majority of the respondents 86.6% cited scheduling lessons as a critical skill they developed, while 35.3% indicated advancing their skills collaborating with parents and

families. Only 16.8% of the participants indicated having gained financial management skills while serving as deputy headteachers. A significant majority deemed the position of deputy principal helpful in promoting the development of skills in monitoring and reviewing students and staff attendance.

Some of the participants (44%) had served as senior teachers prior to appointment as headteachers. According to the findings, 81.8% of these respondents indicated that being a senior teacher promoted skills in school discipline matters since they worked collaboratively with headteachers and their deputies. Another 81.8% of the respondents gained skills in scheduling lessons and revising the timetable. According to 21.8%, the senior teacher role was helpful in following up with students' attendance records. Skills in monitoring curriculum implementation were cited by all the participants, while making recommendation for learning material was reported by 54.5% of headteachers. Only 21.8% cited skills in collaborating with families.

4.2.2.3 Non-academic teacher leadership responsibilities

The respondents who indicated having previously served as games teacher were 25.6% of the respondents, while 24% had served as guidance and counselling teachers. The participants reported that these roles were helpful in developing leadership skills they deemed useful upon assuming the role of a headteachers. Table 4.7 presents the finding.

Table 4.7

Significance of Non-Academic Teacher Leadership Responsibilities

Responsibility	*n*	*Significance*	*f*	*%*
1. Games Teacher	32	Coordinate programme	32	100.0
		Recommend PE materials	32	100.0
		Adapt PE curriculum/materials	8	25.0
		Collaborate with parents	20	62.5
		Monitor discipline	30	93.8
2. Guidance & Counselling	30	Coordinate counselling	30	100.0
		Provide career guidance	19	63.3
		Collaborate with families	24	80.0

Note. N = 125; *f* = frequency of responses; *%* = percentage of responses; *n* = the proportion of respondents who previously served as, (1) games teachers, (2) guidance and counselling teachers.

Data presented in Table 4.7 reveal that 32 headteachers in the study indicated they served as games teachers at some point in their teaching careers, which enhanced their leadership skills. All the headteachers indicated that they gained skills in coordinating co-curricular activities in their schools and recommending physical education materials and equipment. Also, 25% of the headteachers cited adapting the physical education curriculum, materials and equipment. A majority, 93.8%, indicated that this role helped in monitoring the discipline of students during sports related events. Communicating and collaborating with parents and families on co-curricular activities was cited by 62.5% of the headteachers. On the other hand, all the respondents indicated attaining leadership skills in addressing their students' counselling needs. Career guidance was referenced by

63.3% of the participants. A vast majority, 80%, indicated they developed skills for effective collaboration with parents and families to provide guidance and counselling support to their children.

Leadership experiences of the participants prior to their appointment as headteachers have significant implications on both leadership development and inclusive education implementation. On the one hand, they imply that headteacher's influence on student achievement is channelled through the teachers and teacher leaders. On the other, they suggest that headteachers have a role in fostering shared leadership and a collaborative team structure. Lindsrom and Speck (2004) harmonize with this notion by asserting that schools which are effective and inclusive embrace shared leadership as part of their culture. Within shared leadership, team leaders need ongoing training to enhance capacity for building consensus, facilitating dialogue, collaborative problem-solving and conflicts resolution (Linden, 2003). Consistent with the stance by Speck and Knipe (2010), the above responsibilities suggest that taking teacher leadership roles provides opportunities to participate in a collaborative leadership process that builds ownership and commitment to the school improvement process.

The responsibilities discussed above are critical to the implementation of inclusive education. They also imply that to facilitate inclusive education implementation, they must be exercised within an effective inclusive framework. This includes a clear a vision, service delivery indicators and models, and collaborative frameworks. Teacher leadership positions by themselves may not automatically translate into effective inclusive practices. As Salisbury and

McGregor (2002) postulate, inclusive education is affected by structures, policies, attitudes, and practices. Furthermore, Greenlee (2007) asserts that teacher leadership goes beyond decentralizing decision-making authority to increasing access to resources, information, and expertize. Therefore, an effective leadership development system can empower teacher leaders and leverage their impact on inclusive education implementation.

4.2.3 Leadership development programmes for aspiring headteachers

The researcher sought to determine whether the headteachers in the study participated in a leadership programme for aspiring headteachers, which prepared them for school leadership before they were appointed to serve as headteachers. Also investigated was the significance of the programme in facilitating implementation of inclusive education. Figure 4.1 illustrates the findings:

FIGURE 4.1. Respondents' Participation in Aspiring Headteachers' Programmes
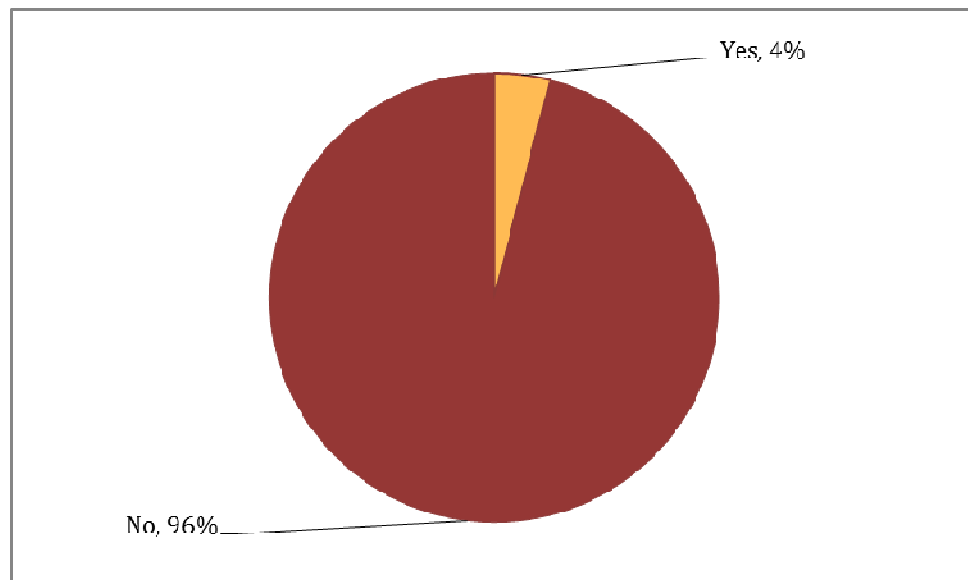
Legend. N = 125; *Percentage (%) = percentage of headteachers' responses on participation or non-participation in leadership programmes for aspiring headteachers.

According to results presented in Figure 4.1, only four percent of headteachers indicated having attended programmes for aspiring headteachers while 96% had not. It is worth noting that when the four percent was probed on the aspiring programme they went through, they indicated having attended the Kenya Education Management Institute's induction programme for newly appointed headteachers. However, this programme lacks some critical features of an effective aspiring programme for headteachers such as, mentoring and coaching, leadership standards, internship, a developmental continuum of practice, and rigorous participant evaluation (SREB, 2005). Nonetheless, the participants indicated that an aspiring headteachers' programme would equip them with knowledge, skills, and dispositions for effective leadership before assuming the headteacher's job. Table 4.8 shows participant responses on the importance of an aspiring headteachers' programme:

Table 4.8

Importance of Aspiring Headteachers' Programmes

Significance	*f*	*%*
Improve leadership and management skills	125	100.0
Foster practical leadership skills through internship	98	78.4
Draw important lessons from effective practices	90	72.0
Gain confidence to assume headship	49	39.2
Expand knowledge of leadership task areas	96	76.8
Interact with experienced headteachers	78	62.4
Expand knowledge of educational policies	40	32.0

Note. N = 125; *f* = frequency of responses; *%* = percentage of responses.

The findings in Table 4.8 indicate that all the participants expressed the opinion that they would gain valuable educational leadership and management skills through a programme for aspiring headteachers. A significant majority (78.4%) indicated that they would benefit from practical experiences through internships, which would mean exposing them to the demands of headship beforehand. According to 72% of the respondents, the programme would help them to draw important lessons from effective leadership practices in the field, while 39.2% suggested that such a programme in itself would be a moral boost to aspiring headteachers before assuming their leadership roles. The programmes would expand knowledge of the leadership task areas according to 76.8% of the headteachers. There were 62.4% of the participants who indicated that the programme would provide them with an opportunity to interact with experienced headteachers and learn from them. Thirty two percent stated an aspiring programme would help them gain valuable insights into policies relating to education and their significance to the implementation process.

These findings imply that while most respondents had not attended an aspiring headteachers' programme, they acknowledged the significance of such a programme to their leadership growth and effectiveness. These findings also suggest that headteachers were conscious of the significant leadership capacity gap that the absence of aspiring programme portends. Citing research evidence on successful aspiring headteachers' programmes, Darling-Hammond et al., (2010), reveal that these programmes embrace purposeful, targeted recruitment to admit talented teachers with leadership potential; have a coherent curriculum

aligned with professional standards; integrate theory and practice through problem-based learning; are designed around a cohort structure and involve formalized mentoring; and encompass well-designed internships. Thus, inadequate preparation of potential headteachers reflects a fundamental weakness in the leadership development system that leaves them ill prepared to lead inclusive education once they become headteachers. One headteacher lamented:

> I was a great classroom teacher but the story was different when I become a headteacher two years ago. I was faced with significant challenges ranging from indiscipline among students and staff to pretty tough parents. I felt overwhelmed and very frustrated. To this day, I still wonder why the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology does not sufficiently prepare headteachers for this job!

This sentiment illustrates the challenges faced by headteachers due to inadequate focus on career-staged leadership development, typified by a lack of leadership training programmes for aspiring headteachers. The result of this significant gap, Bush and Oduro (2006) posit, is that headteachers in Africa face a daunting challenge and make the case for leadership development as essential in guaranteeing schools of high quality leadership. Consequently, availing effective programmes to develop aspiring headteachers constitutes a great starting point in providing for leadership effectiveness. In order to address the situation, Onyango (2001) recommends that the government should professionalize headship by

enacting comprehensive policies that make leadership development of aspiring and serving headteachers mandatory.

4.2.4 Induction programmes for headteachers

The researcher sought to know whether the headteachers in the study received induction training after their appointment to serve as headteachers. The researcher also examined the nature of the induction programmes the headteachers went through and the effect of these programmes on their leadership capacity. Figure 4.2 shows the percentage of headteachers who had been exposed induction programmes upon appointment and those who had not.

FIGURE 4.2. Headteachers' Participation in Induction Programmes upon Appointment
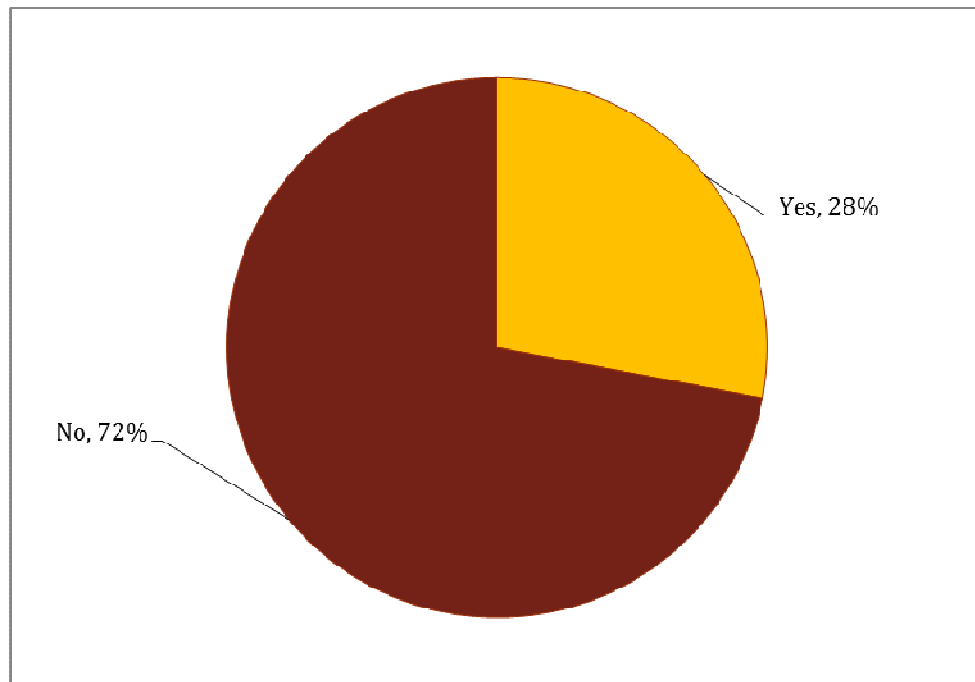
Legend. N = 125; *Percentage (%) = percentage of headteachers' responses regarding their participation or non- participation in an induction programme upon appointment.

According to results shown in Figure 4.2, 28% of the headteachers reported having received induction training upon appointment. A majority, 72% of the headteachers in the study had not received any form of induction training. However, headteachers cited a number of challenges regarding the nature and impact of induction programmes for headteachers. They stated that the induction programmes were on general school management and not specific to inclusive education. The KEMI induction programme was more detailed and covered a wider range of headteachers task areas than the one lead by district education office. The headteachers who attended this course deemed it helpful in equipping them with pertinent knowledge and skills. The course was a one-off event that did not involve follow up to determine its effectiveness. Additionally, this course was not aligned to specific leadership standards.

The headteachers indicated that while a more formal induction programme was organized by the Kenya Education Management Institute (KEMI), the district education officers also organized induction programmes for newly appointed headteachers. The duration of induction programme ranged from one to three days for the district-led programme and up to four days for the KEMI course. The participants observed that the duration was not sufficient to build their capacity to implement inclusive education. The district-based induction programme seemed designed for orientation purposes and was mainly done at the school level as part of the handover process to a new headteacher.

The programme covered mainly school financial operations and management. Moreover, the headteachers reported that the induction programmes came too late

after they had already made many mistakes. Notably, the induction programmes neither had attainment standards nor follow up to evaluate their effectiveness in enhancing headteachers' leadership competence. There was non-utilization of structured job-embedded induction programmes involving mentoring and coaching. Moreover, the induction programmes did not appear to be part of a coherent in-service support system for headteachers.

The fact that majority of the headteachers had not been inducted into their roles suggests a professional socialization gap. This gap points towards potential negative impact on inclusive education implementation. Indeed, without induction training the majority of the participants exercised leadership without the requisite professional support to tackle complex challenges associated with the foundational years in a headteacher's career. Young et al., (2009) asserts that a lack of induction leads to feelings of inadequacy during the initial entry into headship. Consistent with these findings, Bush and Oduro (2006) recommend well-structured induction to ensure effective and efficient school leadership. Without induction, they affirm, most novice headteachers in African countries, including Kenya handle leadership tasks through trial and error, which adversely affects the delivery of educational services. In sharp contrast, Young et al., (2009) acknowledge that induction is the most prevalent design for headteacher leadership preparation in developed countries of Europe and North America and includes mentoring, coaching, and internship. Induction programmes, they affirm, deepen headteachers' awareness of leadership tasks and help them manage their roles in a goal-oriented way.

4.3.0 Types of in-service headteacher leadership development programmes

In order to understand the leadership development infrastructure, the study investigated the different types of leadership development available for headteachers. The headteachers cited several types of leadership development programmes they had attended in the last three years. The researcher supplemented the survey findings with follow up interviews and documentary analysis to establish the course objectives and contents of the programmes cited by the headteachers in the study. The information is presented on Figure 4.3:

FIGURE 4.3. Types of Leadership Development Programmes that Headteachers Deemed Beneficial Towards Inclusive Education Leadership
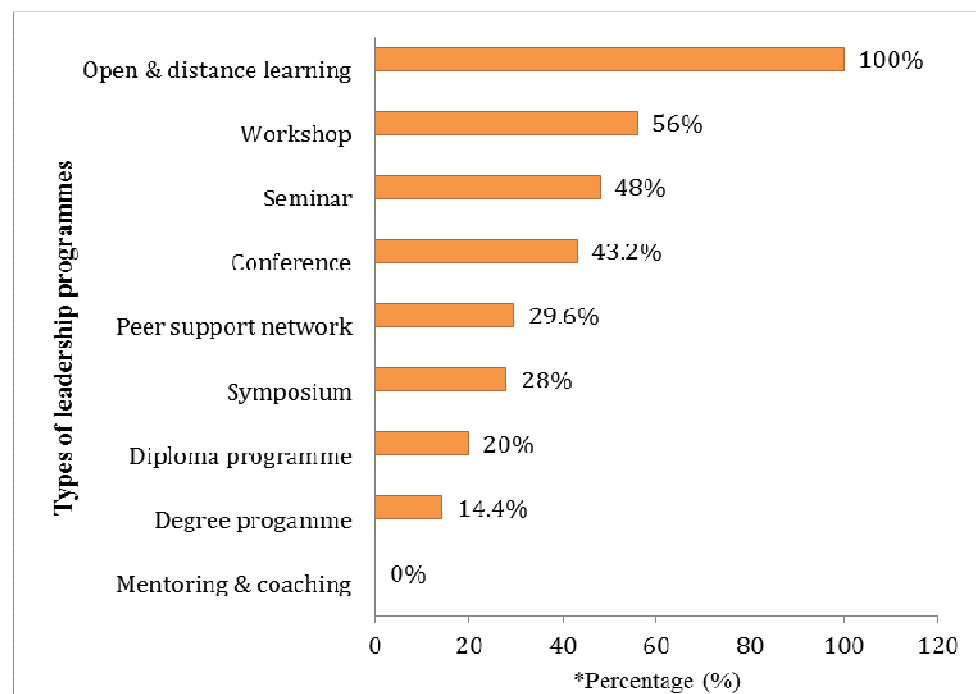
Legend. N = 125; *Percentage (%) = percentage of headteachers' responses on the types of leadership development programmes they attended, which they deemed beneficial inclusive education leadership.

The information captured in Figure 4.3 shows that 56% percent of the respondents had attended workshops, while 28% referenced symposiums, which

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they reported to have been helpful in inclusive education leadership. Similarly, 48% of the headteachers in the study had attended seminars, which facilitated inclusive education leadership. Forty three percent indicated that they participated in a conference that covered some content that was helpful in inclusive education leadership and implementation.

Analysis of the short duration programmes such as workshops, conferences, seminars, and symposiums revealed that they were the most common types of leadership development opportunities available to headteachers in the study. They were organized by different bodies and agencies, for example, national and regional headteachers' associations, non-governmental organizations, publishing companies, Ministry of Education, Science and Technology through its field officers at the district and county levels, among others. The duration of these programmes ranged from one day to two weeks depending on the subject to be covered. According to the headteachers, they are commonly designed to cover a broad range of topics related to school management. All headteachers indicated that these types of programmes were helpful in raising awareness on new policies, emerging and cross-cutting issues in education, and strategies for addressing common challenges in education. They also addressed topics such as, instructional strategies, curriculum and syllabus changes, new resource materials, books, and compliance with the ministry's regulations.

However, while the headteachers reported that the short courses were helpful they also indicated that they were not specific to inclusive education leadership and implementation. They involved no follow up regarding their effectiveness.

These short programmes mainly adopted the lecture method of instructional delivery led by a key presenter or a group of presenters and facilitators. Conversely, for most successful learning to occur, Peterson (2002) suggests that professional development should adopt a variety of delivery strategies that are related to the nature of their specific contents and learner needs. He suggests use of experiential learning, utilization of technology, small group work, simulation, videotapes, role-playing, case study method, and action research.

The findings on these programmes also revealed a number of salient features, which portend critical implications for inclusive education implementation. The programmes are not based on headteacher leadership standards. Since they were organized on an ad hoc basis, they are not part of a cohesive leadership development process. The fact that they take place away from school in central places such as hotels, district, and county headquarters, denies headteachers the opportunities to effectively utilize their school data and context in the learning process. Moreover, they were not based on particular school, district, or county improvement plan.

These findings are consistent with research findings that critique headteacher leadership development, such as failure to link programmes with the school or district core values, and missions. These programmes also fail to leverage job-embedded learning opportunities (Darling-Hammond et al., 2010). Furthermore, these types of short duration workshop-type professional development programmes have minimal impact on practice, accounting for less than 5%. In

contrast, the job-embedded types of leadership development programmes and practices such as mentoring and coaching, which were utilized in the existing programmes, have an evidence-based impact of 85-90% on practice (Guskey, 2000; Lindstrom & Speck, 2004; Speck & Knipe, 2010). Speck and Knipe (2010) recommend a broader and more complex approach to professional development. They affirm that "the traditional professional development model of onetime workshops delivered by an outside expert with no follow up is out-dated" (p.52) and is not an effective approach to adult learning. According to Guskey (2000) professional development is a purposeful and intentional process that is designed to bring positive change and improvement. This implies that effective leadership development programmes for headteachers should be implemented with a coherent focus, while keeping their impact on practice in mind.

4.3.1 Diploma Courses in Education

Various public and private institutions of higher learning offered diploma programmes. The duration of courses ranged from two to three years. The courses were varied but diploma in education and special education were main courses preferred by headteachers. The courses were offered as in-service programmes targeting headteachers and teachers. The classes were conducted mainly during school holidays. Though the programmes were not specific to inclusive education, the headteachers who had attended these programmes deemed them helpful in facilitating the implementation of inclusive education. The diploma course in special education by Kenya Institute of Special Education (KISE) had specific courses that addressed inclusive education. The courses did

not provide opportunities for follow up on how the graduates were implementing the education they acquired in the field. This course was meant to prepare the candidates for teaching children with special needs and not to provide school leadership. The contents were not aligned to the broader context of inclusive education implementation and sustainability especially purposeful capacity building of headteachers.

4.3.2 University-based degree programmes

The analysis indicates that 14.4% of the respondents had completed various degree programmes, which they indicated were helpful in promoting inclusive education leadership. Various public and private universities offered these degree programmes. The duration of programmes averaged three to four years. Most headteachers pursued degrees in education, early childhood education, and special education at the bachelor's level. Three headteachers reported having pursued master's degrees in educational administration and management. However, the programmes were not specific to inclusive education. The programmes as designed were meant to prepare regular teachers but were not specifically tailored to equip headteachers with leadership and managerial skills. The educational administration course for the education-based bachelor's degree programmes did not comprehensively cover inclusive education. The education management coursework covered general school management and was not specific to inclusive education.

These programmes imply that while headteachers in the study may have deemed them useful in facilitating the implementation of inclusive education, they lacked sufficient inclusive education leadership focus. However, given the fact that the headteachers were making personal initiatives to enrol in these programmes implies a desire on their part to build leadership capacity. Nonetheless, it would serve headteachers better there were university programmes that matched their personal and professional growth needs while aligning them with school leadership needs, inclusive leadership.

4.3.3 Peer support networks and initiatives

While all headteachers acknowledged they were members of a peer network at the local, district, county, and national level through respective headteachers' associations, only 29.6% reported participating in a peer support initiative which supported inclusive education leadership. Most of these headteachers were those heading schools with special unit classes. They stated that the networks were informal, aimed at learning from each other and finding strategies to address common challenges related to special needs education. All of them indicated that the nature of their peer support initiative was in form of interschool visitation to learn from each other's experiences and challenges. Other peer initiatives involve cited included attending workshops and conferences. However, such conferences often covered a broad range of topics but had minimal impact on practice.

These findings indicate that peer networks were not part of a cohesive leadership development infrastructure aligned to specific leadership standards and aimed at leveraging leadership development in the county. They are not well structured to

effectively address school improvement plans and the inclusive education priorities. Darling-Hammond et al. (2010) observe that exemplary programmes evolve more productive headteachers' peer initiatives. Such initiatives form a primary strategy for professional development by creating leadership learning communities of practice. The headteachers get opportunities to learn from each other through inter-visitations, engage in peer coaching and mentoring, organize workshops and study groups, and share their instructional needs and professional development priorities. The networks also include district facilitation by providing regular, intensive, professional learning seminars around regional priorities and emerging ideas. Peer networks provide structured avenues to share challenges as well as sharing successes and strategies. However these initiatives are part of a cohesive professional development infrastructure and guided by the leadership standards, the schools' missions and the districts' leadership development vision.

4.3.4 The Kenya Education Management Institute's Open and Distance Learning Programme

All of the headteachers in the study reported having participated in the open and distance learning (ODEL) programme organized by Kenya Education Management Institute (KEMI). The headteachers also rated the programme as the most helpful towards enhancing their leadership skills for inclusive education implementation. In order to gain in-depth insights into KEMI's open and distance learning programme's contents, design features and delivery structures, the researcher analysed data obtained from headteachers through the questionnaire

and interview information from Kenya Education Management Institute (KEMI) trainers and District Quality Assurance and Standards officers (DQASOs). The researcher also conducted documentary analysis of KEMI's training manuals.

KEMI is a semi-autonomous agency of the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology. As per Legal Notice No. 19 of 2010, KEMI is mandated to provide capacity building training among stakeholders within the Ministry. The ODEL programme was delivered through open and distance learning for the duration of one year. The design and delivery strategy offered flexibility by providing the opportunity for the learners to study at time and places suited to them. Headteachers reported that the modality allowed them the flexibility to learn and attend to the many demands of their job. It also saved them the cost of travelling frequently to access classes at KEMI headquarters or its regional centres. The course was designed to equip headteachers with management and leadership skills to implement policies, effective practices, and reforms in the education sector. According to the learners' guide, the course aimed at providing headteachers with a general understanding of resource management, performance management, curriculum, and emerging issues in educational management. The programme utilized course modules with specific learning objectives. Learning for each module is structured to promote job-embedded learning and problem solving, including the use of the case study approach to learning. This indicates that the approaches accommodated the linkage between theory and practice by making part of the learning process job-embedded and allowing participants to reflect on their practice. This is consistent with the findings by Darling-

Hammond et al., (2010) that effective programmes utilize problem-based learning strategies, such as case methods, action research, and projects, which link theory and practice and support reflection. The use of these methods by KEMI suggests innovative approach to leadership development of headteachers.

The course covered sixteen broad topics related to school management. These were: introduction to resource management; human resource management; financial management; procurement and stores management; fraud and credit management; integrity and good governance; strategic leadership; building top performing teams; results based management; strategic planning; project planning and management; customer care and public relations; curriculum implementation; ICT integration in education management; conflict resolution and disaster management; mainstreaming cross cutting issues. According to Darling-Hammond et al (2010) exemplary programmes utilize research-based content that is aligned with leadership standards and focused on instruction, organizational development, and change management. Consequently, the programme deserves credit for incorporating critical school management and leadership content. Nonetheless, the KEMI open and distance learning programme's content was not aligned to specific leadership standards for headteachers that would determine the knowledge and skills that headteachers required to provide effective leadership. Furthermore, the programme was not specific to inclusive education. On the contrary, inclusive education was covered as part of broader emerging and cross cutting issues in education.

The course involved both summative and formative assessments. Continuous assessments were given inform of course assignments and projects. The final examination consisted of six papers each taking between two to three hours. After successful completion, each participant would be awarded a diploma certificate in educational management. The participants were placed into groups or cohorts and served at different KEMI centres. The use of cohorts of headteachers was yet another innovation. The cohort model enabled headteachers to collaborate with each other during and even after the completion of the programmes. This is consistent with the findings by Darling-Hammond et al. (2010) that the cohort model of provides for collaboration, teamwork, and mutual support among participants. The KEMI programme, therefore, presents innovative features, and implications for future improvements to meet the needs of participants and their organizations.

Some of the gaps identified included a lack of follow up mechanism to determine how headteachers were implementing the knowledge and skills acquired. The programme is only specific to headteachers and does not have framework to include teacher leaders and teachers despite their critical role in inclusive learning. The programme is not career-staged and seems to apply the concept of "one-size fits all." The job-embedded component of the programme is not strong enough as it does not utilize mentoring and coaching. The programme also does not seem to be aligned to Specific County or district professional development missions or school improvement plans. The fact that headteachers are not evaluated on their job performance formally using diagnostic evaluation tools

denies KEMI a significant data-based tool to improve the programme by addressing the identified gaps. The programme covers broad areas and according to most participants interviewed, the one year timeline was not sufficient to exhaustively accomplish the course objectives. Important topics, including inclusive education were given inadequate coverage; only mentioned at the end of the course as an emerging and crosscutting issue.

The course delivery mode was mainly the lecture method during the face-to-face sessions. The respondents reported inadequate utilization of technology in the programme's design and delivery strategies. For example, none of the courses were done online or other delivery modes on digital platform. The District Quality Assurance and Standards officers reported that districts in the county had a weak capacity for conducting needs assessments for KEMI to reference when conducting training for teachers in their districts. One officer stated;

> Even if we had the capacity at the district level to conduct a comprehensive needs assessment, there is no policy framework that allows us to influence the content of headteachers' leadership development. We cannot influence what KEMI, colleges or other service providers teach. I don't think that will happen any time soon either!

The above remarks cast districts in the study being unable to influence leadership programmes. On the contrary, research evidence provides evidence of district practices that influence programme features and overall quality. Orr, King and

LaPointe (2010) identify three ways in which districts can exert their consumer influence to improve leadership programmes. First, districts become a discerning customer by defining clear expectations for school leader standards and competencies. Second, the districts can create their own leadership programmes that are directly aligned with their standards and reform priorities and compete with other service providers. Third, they can collaborate and use incentives, such as contracts, scholarships, and designation of "preferred provider" status, to encourage programmes to improve content, instructional methods, internships, and assessment practices. This shows that districts have greater potential to influence leadership development of their headteachers.

4.4.0 Headteacher leadership development programmes' contents

The study investigated the leadership development programmes' contents to determine their adequacy in enhancing headteachers' capacity to effectively promote inclusive education implementation. Table 4.9 illustrates the information gathered.

Table 4.9

Inclusive Leadership Development Contents for the Last Three Years

Content covered	f	%
The legal/policy framework for inclusive education	15	12.0
Classroom and behaviour management in inclusive contexts	8	6.4
Quality assurance for inclusive education	0	0.0
Instructional leadership for inclusive education	4	3.2
Teachers professional development on inclusive practices	5	4.0
Use of technology in curriculum and instruction	0	0.0
Inclusive school improvement planning	35	28.0
Procurement of materials for inclusive education	32	25.6
Parent collaboration in inclusive settings	50	40.0
Special and regular education teachers' collaboration	13	10.4
Infrastructure design and development	23	18.4
Resource mobilization for inclusive education	23	18.4
Data-based decision making	3	2.4
Implementing school reforms for inclusive education	5	4.0
Effective inclusive education service delivery models	0	0.0
Evidence-based practices in inclusive education	0	0.0

Note. $N = 125$; f = frequency of responses; % = percentage of responses.

The analysis presented in Table 4.9 illustrates the leadership development contents and the percentage of headteachers who had covered each area. The data reveal that the majority of headteachers had not covered content critical to inclusive education leadership, implementation, and sustainability. According to

the findings, only 12% of headteachers indicated having covered content on the legal framework for inclusive education while the majority (88%) had not. This suggests that the majority of headteachers might have been leading their schools without sufficient knowledge of the constitutional provisions, statutory enactments, and the complex body of regulations that govern the provision of inclusive education. The Constitution of Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 2010), the Teachers Service Commission Act (Republic of Kenya, 2012), the Basic Education Act (Republic of Kenya, 2013), and other requisite legal provisions and frameworks have increased the volume and complexity of relevant legislation, which headteachers require to be knowledgeable about to facilitate successful implementation of inclusive education. Moreover, there is evidence suggesting the need for headteachers to be well versed with the legal framework for inclusive education. A Kenya National Commission on Human Rights (KNCHR, 2007) report, for example, has documented complaints on alleged violations of the right to education for children with disabilities in Kenya. Among KNCHR's recommendations to mitigate the situation, are a review of inclusive education implementation and the provision of professional development to headteachers and teachers.

The findings also show that the majority of the headteachers had not covered content on important policy provisions for inclusive education despite the fact that headteachers are expected to implement a raft of policies that have direct or indirect impact on inclusive education at the school level. These policies include Free Primary Education (FPE) policy (Republic of Kenya, 2003), Special Needs Education Policy Framework (Republic of Kenya, 2009), the HIV/AIDS

Education Sector Policy (Republic of Kenya, 2004); re-entry policy for girls who dropped out of schools due to pregnancies and early marriages; Marginalized and Orphaned Children (MVCs) policy, Gender policy, and others.

Only 6.4% of the respondents had covered content on classroom and behaviour management in inclusive learning contexts. The implication of inadequate coverage of this content area was evident because class teachers reported they neither utilized individualized behaviour support plans nor anti-bullying policies and curriculum (Refer to Table 4.19, p.159). However, Friend (2008) asserts that professionals in schools using school-wide positive behaviour supports (PBS) report that they are more effective in behaviour management. This suggests that the content on behaviour management is critical in ensuring headteachers learn systematic procedures for documentation of students' behaviour problems, analysis of the antecedent conditions, and the functions of behaviour. They also facilitate systematic implementation of data driven interventions that comprehensively address inappropriate behaviour while simultaneously reinforce positive behaviours.

None of the headteachers had covered the critical content areas of quality assurance for inclusive education and use of technology in curriculum and instruction. Considering that the headteacher is the school's curriculum leader, these content areas have the potential to transform schools. Glatthorn and Jailall (2009) emphasize the central role played by headteachers as curriculum leaders in ensuring quality in what students learn. To be effective, the headteachers need

to have an in-depth knowledge of the curriculum and to understand their quality assurance role in this area. There were no headteachers who had covered the topic on use of technology in curriculum and instruction. Smith and Tyler (2010) acknowledge that can "level the playing field" for students with special needs in accessing the general education curriculum and instruction. Thus, this content area is integral to inclusive learning.

None of the headteachers reported having covered the content on research-based models of inclusive education service delivery, for example, Response to Intervention (RTI) and Universal Design for Learning (UDL). The implication of a lack of this content coverage was consistent with the gaping lack of utilization of these service delivery models at the school level. Without knowledge of inclusive learning models, it is difficult for headteachers to effectively implement inclusive education. In a case study of three highly effective inclusive schools within Boston urban district, Hehir and Katzman (2012) attribute these schools' success to the fidelity of inclusive education implementation within the framework of Universal Design for Learning (UDL) and Response to Intervention (RTI) models. None of the headteachers had covered the content area on evidence-based practices in inclusive education. This suggests that it may be difficult to anchor service delivery models on effective inclusive practices.

While the most important role of a headteacher is to facilitate high-quality instruction (Darling-Hammond et al., 2010; Leithwood & Loius, 2012), only 3.2% of the respondents had covered the very important content area of

instructional leadership for inclusive education. This implies that the majority of headteachers maybe inadequately prepared to align all aspects of schooling toward the goal of improving instruction and ensuring the achievement of all students. Furthermore, inadequate coverage of instructional leadership content appears to be reflected in the findings of a World Bank report (Martin & Pimhidzai, 2013) on service delivery indicators (SDI) in public primary schools in Kenya. The report reveals that just a little more than third (35%) of public school teachers showed mastery of the curriculum they teach. The situation is especially concerning given the empirical evidence that classroom instruction; among school related factors has the greatest influence in student learning (Leithwood et al., 2004; Leithwood & Louis, 2012). Consequently, the 96.8% of the respondents who had not covered this content area suggest a significant training gap. Besides, the leadership development of headteachers to play their role in instructional leadership is crucial in enhancing teachers' instructional practices (Darling-Hammond et al., 2010; Leithwood & Loius, 2012).

Again, only 4% of headteachers indicated that they have covered the content area on their role in the professional development of teachers to promote and sustain inclusive practices. This is situation is concerning given that inadequacies in the professional development of teachers have been observed in Kenya (Bunyi, Wangia, Magoma, & Limboro, 2013; Gathumbi, Mungai, & Hintze, 2013). According to Lindstrom and Speck (2004), for headteachers to best develop the vision of quality education for all students, they require clear understanding, skills, and abilities to lead professional development within their schools.

Further, professional development is a key leverage point in ensuring sustained improvements in teacher quality and gains in students learning outcomes. The huge gap involving up to 96% of respondents who had not covered the content on their role in professional development of teachers portends serious implications on teacher quality and sustainable implementation of inclusive education.

Only 28% of headteachers had covered the content area on inclusive school improvement planning, which implies that majority of headteachers (72%) had not covered this content area in their professional development. In contrast, Hoachlander, Alt, and Beltranena (2001) assert that an effective leader of school improvement is knowledgeable about the elements that contribute to student learning and ensures a coherent instructional programme. The leader is able to work with teachers and other stakeholders to implement the instructional programme in a fashion appropriately tailored to students and their circumstance. Therefore, the headteachers in the study require knowledge and skills to develop and implement school improvement upon which inclusive learning is anchored. Headteacher leadership development is critical lever in achieving this endeavour.

There were 25.6% of the respondents who had covered procurement of learning and teaching materials for inclusive education. Less than half of the headteachers (40%) indicated having covered the content area of parent collaboration in inclusive educational settings. The content area on collaboration between special and regular education teachers was indicated by 10.4% of the respondents. It was mainly the headteachers with special education background who indicated the

content area on collaboration was covered in their professional development. A small proportion of the participants (18.4%) had covered the topic on infrastructure design and development for inclusive education. Similarly, 18.4% of headteachers had covered community and resource mobilization for inclusive education. Only 2.4% of the headteachers had covered content on data-based decision making. The ramification of not covering this content area was the likelihood of headteachers facing challenges in effectively utilizing data-based decision support systems. Consistent with this notion, O'Neal (2012) asserts the headteachers' job is massive and they need to make data-informed decisions. In this regard, technology integration and technical infrastructure play critical roles within a successful data-informed educational culture.

There was only a small proportion of headteachers in the study (4%) who reported having covered the topic on implementation of inclusive education reforms in their leadership development programmes. This suggests that the majority of the headteachers are inadequately prepared to institute requisite inclusive reforms in their schools. Indeed, inclusive education is a complex and interwoven reform into the functions, content, processes and structures of schooling to educate all children (Winzer & Mazurek, 2012). It is therefore imperative that inclusive reform contents be an integral part of professional development for headteachers.

The portrait of the existing programmes implies the contents of headteachers leadership development were grossly inadequate and not guided by a specific

inclusive education framework, philosophy or mission. The contents were also not based on specific leadership standards that determined the knowledge, skills and disposition required by headteachers to effectively implement inclusive education. There was no research evidence into the efficacy of the contents, which made the existing leadership development not evidence-based. There was no differentiation of content based on headteachers' career stages. Most leadership development programmes did not involve follow up to determine the effectiveness of content covered in facilitating the implementation of inclusive education. These implications mirror the weaknesses regarding the contents of leadership programmes suggested by Darling-Hammond et al. (2010) and point to significant gaps that need to be addressed. It is also instructive that the majority of headteachers in the study sample (78.4%) indicated that lack of focused leadership development was one of the major challenges facing implementation of inclusive education.

4.5.0 Leadership development programmes' design features

The study was also designed to examine the effectiveness of the design features, including delivery strategies employed in leadership development programmes for headteachers in facilitating implementation of inclusive education. Headteachers were asked to identify three most useful programmes in enhancing inclusive leadership. The modular-based diploma in education management by KEMI was to be rated the most helpful programme by 78% of the headteachers. Diploma in special education was the second most helpful programme by 15% of the headteachers. Degree programmes came third and were referenced by 10% of

the headteachers. The findings regarding headteachers' perceptions of the design

features of the programmes are presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10

Design Features of Leadership Development Programmes for Headteachers

The leadership programmes...	SA	A	U	D	SD
Had coherently organized curriculum that was focused on inclusive education	0.0	14.4	13.6	44.0	28.0
Involved problem-based learning related to a headteacher's job	0.0	12.0	16.0	42.4	29.6
Involved practical activities on inclusive leadership roles	0.0	4.0	8.0	24.0	64.0
Were career-staged and ongoing throughout the headteachers' career	0.0	0.0	9.6	26.4	64.0
Were job-embedded with expert coaching and mentoring support	0.0	0.0	0.0	20.0	80.0
Involved formative and summative assessment.	0.0	20.0	18.4	13.6	40.0
Involved follow up to determine effectiveness	0.0	0.0	0.0	16.0	84.0
Involved the headteacher and a team of teachers from the school.	0.0	0.0	0.0	17.6	82.4
Were aligned to specific leadership standards.	0.0	0.0	0.0	22.4	77.6

Note. N = 125; percentage of responses (*%*); *SA* = Strongly Agree; *A* = Agree;
U = Undecided; *D* = Disagree; *SD* = Strongly Disagree.

The analysis contained in Table 4.10, shows that 72% of the respondents

indicated that the leadership development programmes did not have a coherently

organized curriculum to address inclusive education. Conversely, Peterson (2002) affirms that effective programmes are structured to ensure coherence and alignment in the curriculum. Within programmes, the curricula should have an integrated and carefully planned set of topics, skills, and conceptualizations based on comprehensive and well-sequenced learning objectives. Across programmes, curriculum should be coordinated and aligned to enhance learning.

Seventy two percent of the respondents indicated that the programmes did not involve problem-based projects related to a headteacher's job. This implies that the headteachers did not derive the benefits accruing from problem-based learning. Davis et al. (2005) asserts that problem-based learning (PBL) activities simulate complex real-world problems and dilemmas, promote the blending of theoretical and practical knowledge, and improve participants' problem-solving capacity. According to 88% of the participants, the programmes did involve practical activities related to inclusive education leadership roles. None of the headteachers indicated the leadership development programmes were ongoing and career-staged. This implies that the programmes did not provide for a continuum of learning that targeted all stages in a headteachers' career. However, effective programmes are designed to promote an integrated learning view of school leadership as a continuum that operates systematically over the span of a headteacher's professional career (Darling-Hammond, 2010; Young, et al., 2009; Davis et al., 2005). Leadership development of school leaders is long-term, planned, and job-embedded (Young, et al., 2009).

All the respondents indicated that none of the programmes involved expert coaching and mentoring support. Davis et al., (2005) assert that mentoring relationships reduce the distance between the learner's independent problem-solving performance and the potential developmental level achieved with guidance from an expert. The mentor guides the learner to find strategies to resolve dilemmas, to boost self-confidence, and to construct a broad repertoire of leadership skills. The goal of coaching is to nurture personal, professional, and institutional growth. Coaching is more effective when training is comprehensive and specific (Bush, Glover, and Harris 2007).

Only 38.4% suggested that the programmes involved formative and summative assessment. These responses were specific to headteachers who had attended degree programmes offered by universities and others who had done diploma programmes by KEMI and in special education. These courses according to them involved assessments. However, the courses were not specific to inclusive education. Again all the respondents indicated that the programmes did not involve any follow up on evolving leadership knowledge, skills and dispositions. This implies there was no structured framework to assess to impact of the leadership development programmes on headteachers' capacity to provide effective leadership. Also according to the participants, none of the programmes were job embedded with the purpose of improving instruction. The respondents also indicated that the programmes did not usually involve the headteacher and a team of teachers in the school. On the contrary, Darling-Hammond et al., (2010) observe that headteachers attending exemplary programmes participated more

frequently in professional development activities with teachers from their schools. They assert that this practice is critical for instructional reform. Again, according to the respondents, the leadership development programmes for headteachers were not aligned to specific leadership standards that determined the knowledge, skills and dispositions required for effective leadership.

Peterson (2002) asserts that the design of professional development is complex and requires thoughtful planning to enhance quality and effectiveness. However, the above findings reflect significant gaps in the design features and delivery strategies of the professional development programmes. They are consistent the research-based criticisms levelled against the design features and delivery strategies leadership development programmes for headteachers. Many programmes have been criticized as being fragmented, incoherent, not sustained, lacking in rigor, and not aligned with leadership standards for effective administrative practice (Peters, 2002; Darling-Hammond et al., 2010). Research on headteacher preparation and development programmes suggests exemplary programmes are research-based; have curricular coherence that is aligned with professional standards; place emphasis on instructional leadership and school improvement; employ pedagogies that facilitate the integration of theory and practice and stimulate reflection, such as problem based learning, action research and field-based projects; provide experience in authentic contexts; use cohort groupings and mentors; and are structured to enable collaborative activity between the programmes and schools (Bush, 2009; Davis et. al., 2005; Darling-Hammond et al., 2010). Furthermore, professional development of school leaders

is long-term, planned and job-embedded (Young, et al., 2009). According to Davis et al., (2005), effective school leaders influence student achievement through two important pathways: the support and development of effective teachers and the implementation of effective organizational processes. It is therefore imperative that their leadership development be designed and delivered to promote and provide for effective leadership practices that positively influence the achievement of all students.

4.5.1 Evaluation of leadership development programmes and practices

The analysis of data revealed that there was no structured framework for regular evaluation of the types, content, and design features of the leadership development programmes for headteachers. In the absence of a formal process to evaluate the effectiveness of the programmes, it seemed that programme evaluation was mainly left at the sole discretion of the service providers. The headteachers were not involved in identifying their leadership development needs and in shaping their learning experiences. Consequently, there was no evidence-based mechanism to match leadership development to headteachers' needs for personal growth and organizational needs in the implementation of inclusive education. There was no system for information sharing between the providers and schools, the districts or the county to provide feedback on the impact of leadership programmes on headteachers' leadership competencies or its influence on inclusive learning.

The researcher established that there were no effective systems to track the quality and quantity of the leadership development activities of headteachers in the county. The leadership development activities did not provide for a formal evaluation by the headteachers on the quality, relevance, presenters, materials, learning environments, and duration, among other crucial indicators. Guskey (2000) affirms that professional development evaluation provides sufficiently reliable information for making critical decisions regarding professional development processes and effects. Conversely, the situation in the study schools demonstrates wide systemic, policy and practice gaps in relation to professional development evaluation that are yet to be addressed. The inadequate evaluation framework implies insufficient feedback to leverage leadership development influence on inclusive education implementation.

4.6.0 Influence of existing leadership development programmes on implementation of inclusive education

The study examined the influence of existing headteacher leadership development programmes on the implementation of inclusive education. Multiple methods were used to triangulate findings within and across the study schools.

4.6.1 Headteachers' perceptions of their competence to lead inclusive education

The researcher sought headteachers perceptions of their competence to lead inclusive education based on the leadership development they had so far received. The data is presented in Figure 4.4.

FIGURE 4.4. Percentage of Headteachers who deemed themselves Competent

to Lead Inclusive Education and those who did not
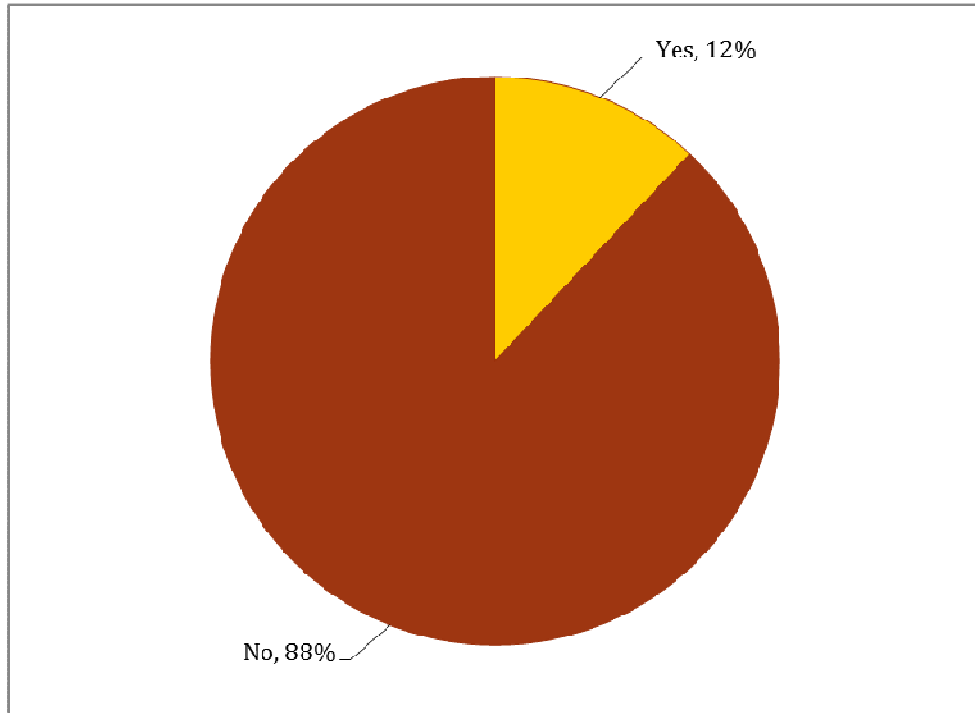
Legend. N = 125; *Percentage (%) = percentage of headteachers' responses on perceptions regarding
their competency to lead in education.

The information contained in Figure 4.4 shows that only 12% of the headteachers

in the study indicated that they perceived themselves competent enough to lead

inclusive practices. The number of headteachers who feel competent to lead

inclusive education is therefore far less than those who do not feel competent to

do so. The majority, 88%, indicated that they did not feel competent enough to

lead inclusive practices based on the leadership development they had so far

received. These results may suggest an implicit verdict by the headteachers that

their leadership programmes were inadequate in meeting their leadership needs.

4.6.2 Headteachers' perceptions of the effectiveness of leadership development programmes in facilitating implementation of inclusive education

The study sought the opinion of headteachers regarding the influence of leadership development they had received in facilitating the implementation of inclusive education in the study schools. The headteachers were to indicate whether the leadership development programmes were highly effective, effective, somewhat effective or not effective. The results are presented in Figure 4.5.

FIGURE 4.5. Headteachers' Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Leadership Development Programmes in Facilitating Inclusive Education Implementation
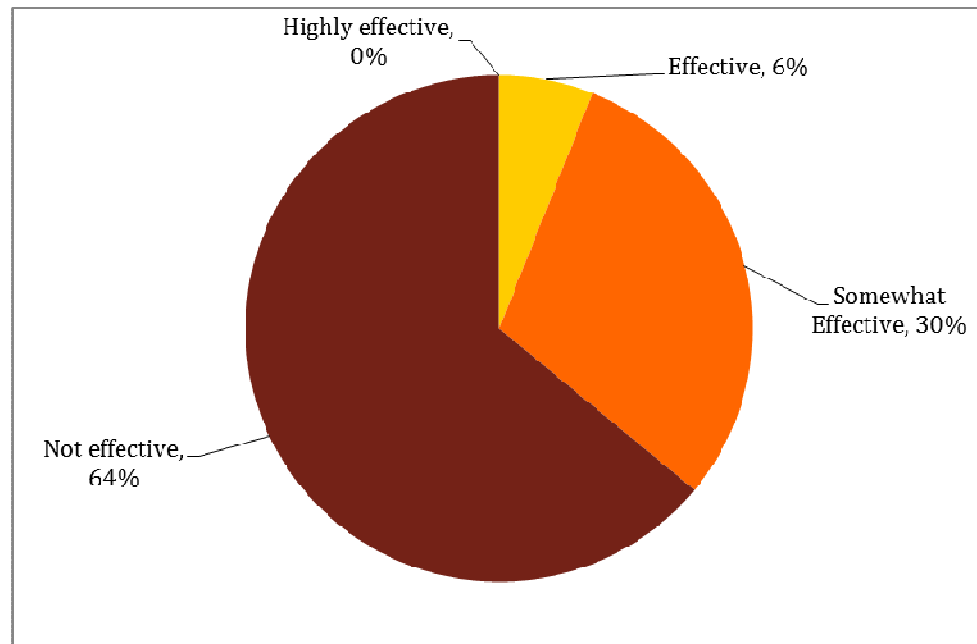
Legend. N = 125; *Percentage (%) = percentage of headteachers' responses on their perceptions regarding the effectiveness of their leadership development programmes in facilitating inclusive education implementation.

The data presented in Figure 4.5 indicate that none of the respondents found the leadership development programmes to be highly effective but 6% found them

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effective. The majority, 94%, rated the leadership development as either to some extent effective (30%) or not effective (64%). The reasons supporting their verdict are discussed in the subsection that follows.

4.6.2.1 Reasons for the rating on the effectiveness of leadership development programmes

Headteachers cited several reasons for their rating on the effectiveness of professional development in facilitating implementation of inclusive education. The reasons given are synthesized below.

a) **Contents:** Most of the headteachers (88%) the leadership development programmes' contents focused almost exclusively on general school management and not on inclusive education leadership, implementation, and sustainability.

b) **Duration:** According to 76.8% of the respondents, majority of the leadership development programmes were standalone covered a short duration of time and designed as one off events. The short programmes while helpful did not give headteachers sufficient knowledge and skills to implement inclusive education.

c) **Scaffolding:** Leadership development, according to 72% of the participants, there were no structured job-embedded leadership development opportunities in the study schools, with the requisite design features, resources, delivery strategies, and contents to support headteachers alongside teachers and teacher leaders to enhance school-wide capacity for effective inclusive education implementation.

d) **Design features:** The majority of headteachers (84%) indicated that the leadership development provided them was neither aligned to specific leadership standards nor inclusive education reform process or vision. Further, it was not part of an ongoing and systematically implemented strategy to improve headteachers' and their schools' capacity for effective implementation of inclusive education. The programmes were not cohesive in terms of design features and most of them especially the short courses were organized on an ad hoc basis.

e) **Evaluation procedures:** Sixty percent of the participants reported that the leadership development programmes did not effectively provide for headteachers to give their input hence focusing on perceived rather than their authentic development needs. This was compounded by the absence of evidence-based formal headteacher evaluation tools to identify gaps in knowledge, skills and dispositions that could be utilized to inform leadership development programmes.

f) **Inclusive focus:** There were 96% of the respondents who indicated that 1nclusive education was treated as one of the emerging or crosscutting issues in education hence minimal time was allocated in the modular based programme for primary school headteachers organized by Kenya Education Management Institute (KEMI). The respondents reported that the leadership development programmes were not based on an inclusive philosophy, vision, or mission.

g) **Venue:** Most the leadership development activities, according to 65.6% of headteachers took place away from schools hence disconnected from daily

school realities. Therefore, headteachers did not have opportunities to utilize their school data and their own unique circumstances in the process of leadership development.

The verdict and the reasons given for the verdict suggest that headteachers in the study were aware of some significant gaps and limitations impacting on the existing leadership development programmes. However, Guskey (2000) postulates that effective leadership development is a deliberate process that is driven by a well-defined vision and planned goals. These goals therefore determine the criteria for the development of the content, process, and procedures. Zepeda (2008) points out that professional development should be embedded within context-specific needs of a particular setting, aligned to reform initiatives, and grounded in a collaborative, inquiry based approach to learning. On the contrary, these important principles were not adequately integrated into the existing leadership development programmes for headteachers.

4.6.3 Inclusive education programmes implemented by headteachers

The researcher investigated the inclusive programmes implemented by headteachers in their respective schools. Table 4.11 shows the projects.

Table 4.11

Inclusive Education Programmes Implemented by Headteachers

Inclusive programmes	*f*	*%*
Provision of clean water	69	55.2
School health and nutrition programme	43	34.4
Guidance and counselling	38	30.4
Parent/community collaboration	55	44.0
Child friendly school environment	10	8.0
Building additional classes	22	17.6
Disability compliant toilets	40	32.0
Individualized desks	14	11.2
Adaptive equipment	11	8.8

Note. N = 125; *f* = frequency of responses; *%* = percentage of responses.

The analysis illustrated in Table 4.11 shows that 55.2% of the headteachers had ensured provision of clean water in their schools, while 34.4% had introduced some form of feeding programme. Of the headteachers in the study, 30.4% indicated that they had established guidance and counselling programmes in their schools. Furthermore, 44% indicated that they had given priority to parent collaboration, while 8% had started initiatives to promote a child friendly school

environment. A total of 17.6% of the participants had constructed ramps part of their infrastructural development while 32% had built disability compliant toilets. Only 11.2% and 8.8% respectively had invested in individualized desks and other adaptive equipment.

The aforementioned inclusive education programmes implemented by headteachers are positive outcomes that should be acknowledged and supported. However, all the programmes reflect what are referred to as incremental changes or surface changes (Salisbury & McGregor, 2002; Marzano, Waters and McNulty, 2005). The low percentage of headteachers reporting having initiated programmes of inclusive nature implies that even surface changes themselves are limited. On the other hand, headteachers in the study did not report engaging in efforts aimed at changing attitudes, beliefs, and practices that adversely affect inclusive education. Salisbury and McGregor (2002) observe that surface changes may not necessarily address attitudinal and knowledge barriers. They postulate that changing attitudes, beliefs, and practices imply deeper levels of change aimed at addressing those factors that influence the school culture. Marzano, et al., (2005), affirm that these deep reforms lead to a paradigm shift in ways of thinking and acting. Fullan (2014) affirms that for headteachers to maximize impact as change agents they need to comprehend how their leadership in enhancing or hindering capacity building in the school.

With regard to this study, the above results imply that while the schools are making surface changes to provide opportunities and supports to provide for the

inclusion of greater diversity in student population, including students with special needs, more surface and deeper changes are required to transform schools into inclusive environments. The results also suggest the need for a clear framework to implement these reforms is imperative, including leadership development programmes that equip headteachers and teacher with the necessary capacity to facilitate these changes.

4.6.4 Support by District Quality Assurance and Standards Officers towards the development headteachers' leadership capacity and inclusive education

The researchers examined the role of the District Quality Assurance and Standards Officers (DQASOs) and the district education office in enhancing the capacity headteachers to facilitate successful implementation and ensure sustainability of inclusive education. The results are shown in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12

Support Services by District Quality Assurance and Standards Officers

Support services	*f*	*%*
Monitor curriculum implementation	94	75.2
Supervise teachers' and headteachers'	68	54.4
Promote school safety and security	75	60.0
Monitor financial resources management	103	82.4

Note. N=125; *f* = frequency of responses; *%* = percentage of responses.

Data contained in Table 4.12 shows that the District Quality Assurance and Standards Officers played the role of monitoring the implementation of the

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curriculum, according to 75.2% of the respondents. There were 54.4% of the participants who stated that they supervised the performance of teachers and headteachers. Moreover, 60% indicated that they promoted safety and security in schools. Monitoring the management school finances was cited by 82.4% of the respondents.

The researcher also conducted in-depth interviews with DQASOs to have an in-depth understanding of the role of the district in developing headteachers and in providing support to promote leadership effectiveness in the implementation of inclusive education. From the analysis of interview data, several observations were made. It emerged that although the districts were implementing inclusive education, they faced numerous challenges. The districts were also playing a marginal role in building headteachers' capacity to implement inclusive education. Besides, there was a lack of cohesive leadership system at all levels from the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology headquarters to the field offices in the implementation process. The scope of initiatives to improve leadership, stakeholder engagement, and coordination for inclusive schooling depended more on individual headteachers and schools rather than the districts. Districts cited several challenges supporting headteachers leadership development and the implementation of inclusive education.

The districts did not have sufficient autonomy to establish inclusive guidelines, indicators, and service delivery models tailored to their schools specific needs. This was because the districts depended on directions from the ministry

headquarters to implement them in the field. The officers reported many priority areas that needed significant financial resources such as, raising public awareness and organizing professional development for teachers and headteachers. However, available funds were inadequate. The analysis findings also suggest the existence of insufficient coordination mechanisms between the district and zonal offices. This was partly due to inadequate staffing and weak budgetary capacity. The officers reported inadequate information sharing with their Educational Assessments and Resource Centres (EARCs) counterparts. This was due to the absence of efficient and effective information systems.

Most of the officers expressed concern that whereas the government policy on education seemed to support inclusive education, there was insufficient knowledge and skills to effectively address issues of inclusive education implementation and professional development of teachers and headteachers. Whereas the districts had data on staffing, national examination results, and student population, they had inadequate capacity for collecting, analysing and interpreting data wider range of indicators for use in decision-making and to provide effective support to headteachers and their schools in the implementation inclusive education. Inadequate transport means was another major bottleneck that the officers reported. In each district education headquarter there was a small number of vehicles, only one or two, which were expected to traverse the entire district to monitor progress, among other activities. This made it difficult for the officers to focus on all schools in the district effectively. One officer admitted, "Owing mainly to inadequate means of transport, which has been further

aggravated by low levels of staffing, we have not been able to visit many schools for over one year now."

Ignorance among parents was also reported as a challenge. Some parents were reported as not placing much value on education and therefore not keen to have their children in school. Additionally, some of the district officials indicated that some of grass root leaders did not support the idea of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular schools. The reason for this was these leaders felt that such an approach was responsible for declining performance of education standards. While the officers maintained the districts had a critical role to play in the implementation process, they cited inadequate framework for stakeholder engagement. The district officials stated that there was insufficient capacity on the part of school committees on governance issues and specifically as they relate to inclusive education. This was due to the fact that most members of these committees were not literate or because the level of their education was a barrier to productive engagement with stakeholders on implementation of inclusive education. The officers explained that the Ministry seemed to operate in the absence of a clear policy on inclusive education standards, headteacher leadership standards, and their role on implementation of inclusive education. One officer quipped, "As you know we seem to be muddling through a process we are not clear about. Somebody needs to clarify what we are expected to do! Without that we shall continue to remain in a state of inertia since, as you can see, nothing much is happening."

Districts matter (The Wallace Foundation, 2013) and their unique role in supporting headteachers in their central responsibility of improving teaching and learning is well documented (Leithwood et al. 2004; Orr et al., 2013; SREB, 2010; Turnbull et al., 2013; Wallace Foundation, 2013). However, the above analysis on the role of the districts in Kiambu County, suggest that while the DQASOs were involved in administrative and compliance issues in schools they had limited capacity to effectively support headteachers in an individualized manner to implement inclusive education. There is a service delivery gap given that the district officials admit, inter alia, to lack of clarity on their role coupled with inadequate capacity. There is need, therefore, to review and redefine of their roles if inclusive reforms are to succeed.

Considering the foregoing, there is compelling research on transformation of headteacher supervisors' roles. Corcoran et al. (2013) observe headteacher supervisors in many districts are faced with a substantial amount of administrative and compliance duties. They recommend that districts redefine the roles of supervisors to narrow the responsibilities and spans of control so that they can provide headteachers with individualized support and oversight. Headteacher supervisors also require an adequate level of staffing and resources. Furthermore, Gill (2013) reports how the roles of these supervisors are being redefined to ensure greater school leadership effectiveness.

School district central office administrators also exercise essential leadership, in partnership with school leaders, to build capacity throughout public educational

systems for teaching and learning improvements. To this end, the district central offices are transforming into more learning-focused partnerships with school headteachers to deepen headteachers' instructional leadership practice (Honig, Copland, Rainey, Lorton & Newton, 2010). Capper and Frattura (2009) recommend the transformation of district central office roles towards successfully creating and sustaining equitable schools. Everything considered, these research-based insights offer lessons for replication by districts in the county in relation to district central office transformation to leverage teaching and learning improvement for all students.

4.6.5 Educational Assessment and Advisory Centres (EARCs)

The researcher investigated the nature of support provided to headteachers and their schools by the Educational Assessment and Resource Centres (EARCs) to enhance leadership capacity and to promote effective implementation of inclusive education. The findings are presented in Table 4.13.

Table 4.13

Educational Assessment and Resource Centres' (EARCs) Support Services

Support services	*f*	*%*
Conducting assessment of students with disabilities	102	81.6
Organizing in-service training for teachers	45	36.0
Provision of assistive technology devices	28	22.4
Organizing awareness programmes on disabilities	26	20.8
Making referral of students with disabilities	18	14.4

Note. $N = 125$; f = frequency of responses; $\%$ = percentage of responses.

According to information contained in Table 4.13, 81.6% of headteachers indicated they received support in the assessment of students with disabilities. Thirty-six percent of the headteachers stated that the EARCs provided in-service training on identification and assessment of students with disabilities. According to 22.4%, the centres were involved in the provision of assistive technology devices to students who needed them. A total of 20.8% of the study participants indicated that EARCs were involved in organizing awareness programmes on the education of children with disabilities and other special needs. Furthermore, 14.4% cited the role of EARCs in making referrals to regular schools or special education units and schools for students with disabilities.

The researcher gathered information through interviews with the assessment officers. The analysis of findings revealed that multiple challenges adversely affected the capacity of the assessment centres to provide timely, targeted and comprehensive support to schools to improve education service delivery and learning outcomes. The officers reported they had inadequate training in special needs education and educational assessments. The officers also stated that they did not have adequate and efficient assessment and diagnostic tools at the assessment centres. According to the officers, educational and diagnostic assessments were done late in a child's life, which denied them the benefits that accrue from early intervention services. There was also weak coordination of services between assessment centres, field offices and schools, including inadequate information sharing to ensure students access to the right services for effective learning and achievement. The assessment results were not properly

utilized for placement and intervention services since the identification and referral services were not clearly defined and no effective framework to utilize multidisciplinary teams in making critical service delivery decisions.

The assessment officers also cited insufficient financial resources as major bottleneck in the delivery of assessment and advisory services. The budgetary allocation from the government was low hence they depended on donors to equip the centres with the needed equipment and resources. Whereas the assessment centres were few, they also had limited capacity to offer mobile services due to inadequate transport means. They relied on support from other district education departments for vehicles, which in most cases were needed to facilitate provision of other services, especially by quality assurance and standards department. The resource centres were grossly understaffed with most having two to three assessment officers who were expected to cover all the schools in the districts.

The assessment officers also reported limited technical capacity to provide technology-based assessments. High costs of procuring and maintaining assessment equipment was also cited as a major challenge. Some of the assessment equipment was expensive and even when acquired through donations the cost of maintaining them remained high. The assessment centres depended mainly on manual systems due to inadequate modern information systems and digital infrastructure linkages with other departments in the district, the county, and the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology headquarters. The assessment officers also reported that most stakeholders, especially parents, had

limited awareness of the significance of assessments in placement decisions. As a result, many of them did not take their children with disabilities for assessment.

Educational assessments are critical in a variety of ways. They determine eligibility for services, individualized educational programme (IEP) goals and objectives, the service delivery model, classroom and behaviour management strategies, the range of supports and services needed for a student to make adequate progress. Also determines the necessary adaptations, modifications, and accommodations in the curriculum and the physical environment (Friend, 2008; Kirk, Gallagher, Coleman, & Anastasiow, 2009; Smith & Tylor, 2010; Rosenberg, Westling, & McLeskey, 2008). Causton and Theoharis (2014) assert that inclusive reforms prioritize full time access to the general education curriculum, instruction, and peer groups for all students, including those with disability. This ensures seamless provision of supports and services for students, within the context of general education, to reach their social and academic potential. Consequently, EARCs' services are integral to successful inclusive education implementation. The current challenges and inadequate capacity faced by EARCs in provision of critical services suggests urgent measures to ensure efficiency and effectiveness as they discharge their mandate.

4.7.0 Contextual characteristics of the study schools in relation to inclusive education implementation

The researcher examined the contextual characteristics of the study schools with respect to inclusive education. The findings are discussed under several themes:

4.7.1 Students' characteristics or backgrounds affecting inclusive education

The researcher sought to know other characteristics or backgrounds, which affected inclusive education in the study schools. This information is illustrated in Figure 4.6.

FIGURE 4.6. Students' Characteristics and Backgrounds Affecting Inclusive Education
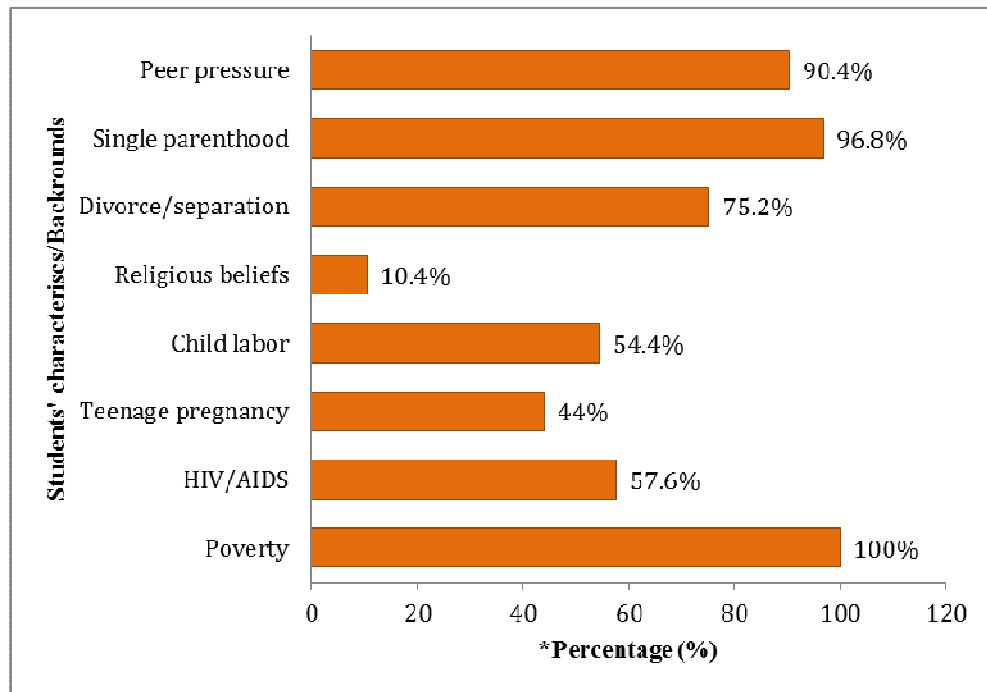
Legend. N = 125; *Percentage (%) = percentage of headteachers' responses on students' characteristics and backgrounds that affected inclusive education implementation.

Figure 4.6 reveals that all headteachers indicated that poverty was a major student background that affected inclusive education implementation in their schools. According to 57.6% of the participants, HIV/AIDS also had an impact on education. Teenage pregnancy was cited by 44% of headteachers as factor affecting education. Child labour was reported as a factor by 54.4% of headteachers while religious beliefs were cited by 10.4%. Divorce and separation

was regarded as a characteristic that affected education by 75.2%. Majority of headteachers, 96.8% and 90.4% respectively, cited single parenthood and peer pressure as factors affecting education.

The researcher made follow up interviews with headteachers and class teachers on the specific nature and impact of the aforementioned characteristics/backgrounds to implementation of inclusive education in the study schools. On poverty, the respondents indicated that it was a major hindrance to the implementation of inclusive education. They stated that poverty was responsible for high drop-out rates. It led to child labour and for some children, life in the streets. It also perpetuated absenteeism as some children stayed out school to support their parents earn a living.

HIV/AIDS was also cited as another factor that was affecting implementation of inclusive education. There were many children who had lost their parents to the scourge. Such children were either living with grandparents or other relatives, some of whom might not necessarily have been caring about their educational needs. Some of them were even abused by relatives and therefore living with trauma. Others were living in children homes or other environments that were not hospitable to learning. Teenage pregnancy, owing to many factors, was another factor that negatively impacted on implementation of inclusive education. Lastly, there was an impact because of media influence and proximity to urban and rural-urban fringe areas in the county. There were certain religious denominations that did not emphasize the importance of education adherents. As such, some of the

students were regularly absent from school for religious functions during school days. There were also some students who were members of the outlawed "Mungiki" sect in the region who were often absent from school.

Divorce and parent separation also affected education in the County because children of such families had to deal with emotional trauma as well as financial challenges associated with such situations. Single parenthood was another related factor, which affected implementation of inclusive education since some of the single parents did not have stable income sources to meet their children needs. The parents were also busy working to support their families hence devoting less time to follow up with their children's educational needs. Some children were also succumbing to negative peer pressure. Some of the examples given by the respondents include engaging in drug abuse, premarital sex, absenteeism, among other negative behaviour, which was detrimental to their education. According to some of the respondents, some of these factors affected a sizeable proportion of the students with disabilities, which made the situation complex hence calling for proactive strategies to address the situation.

4.8.0 Inclusive education practices in the study schools

The study investigated class teachers' perspectives on inclusive education practices in order to triangulate information obtained from headteachers. The information on classroom practices is presented under several sections below.

4.8.1 Instructional strategies

Table 4.14 illustrates the instructional strategies utilized by class teachers to address the academic needs of diverse students in the classrooms.

Table 4.14

Instructional Strategies for Addressing Diverse Students' Academic Needs

Instructional strategies	*f*	*%*
Making modifications, accommodations, and adaptations	43	17.9
Utilizing assistive and instructional technology	12	5.0
Using co-teaching /collaborative teaching models	33	13.8
Utilizing differentiated instructional strategies	173	72.1
Providing support services and staff	2	0.8

Note. N = 240; *f* = frequency of responses; *%* = percentage of responses.

The researcher through a questionnaire sought to know from the class teachers in the study schools how they addressed the academic needs of diverse students in their classrooms. According to table 4.14, only 17.9% of the class teachers utilized modifications, accommodations, and adaptations to curriculum and instruction to meet the academic needs of their students. This implies that without instructional accommodations, modifications and adaptations, majority of students with disabilities are disadvantaged in accessing the curriculum. Mastropieri and Scruggs (2010) suggest strategies for making adaptations within inclusive classrooms. These include basing adaptations on student characteristics, types of learning, the appropriate level of learning and the principles of universal

design for learning. Of the respondents, only 0.8% cited the use of support staff and services in their classrooms to meet the academic needs of their students. Furthermore, only 5% of the respondents utilized some form of assistive technology in their classrooms. Most of those who responded to this question indicated that they utilized low technology in their classrooms. A significant majority, 72.1%, stated that they used the differentiation method of instructional delivery. However, follow up interviews revealed while differentiation was utilized the lecture method remained the most dominant method of instruction in the study schools. To make instruction effective, Mastropieri and Scruggs (2010) recommend implementation of SCREAM variables. These are structuring lessons; promoting clarity in presentations; employing redundancy effectively; teaching with enthusiasm; using an appropriate rate of presentation; and maximizing academic engagement. They also recommend strategies that enhance learning by increasing on-task student behaviour. Only 13.8% of the respondents reported utilizing co-teaching and collaborative teaching models.

The results suggest teachers in the study utilized varying instructional methods to meet diverse students' needs. Based on the findings, the level of adoption of effective strategies was fairly low across the study schools. Echevarria and Graves (2011) advocate sheltered instruction strategy in order to facilitate understanding of lesson content and increase learning and retention. Lee, Wehmeyer, Soukup, and Palmer (2010) confirm the positive impact of curriculum modifications on students' academic engagement. Haager and Klinger (2005) suggest that teachers use a variety of instructional strategies that increase

involvement while taking into account the needs of the students and the demands of the learning environment. Soukup, Wehmeyer, Bashinski, and Boviard (2007) acknowledge that inclusion in the regular classroom is a necessary but not sufficient step to promoting curriculum access. They suggest that for inclusion in the regular classroom to be effective, classroom settings and ecological variables should be considered. Additionally, they contend that students with disabilities should be provided with supplemental aids and services.

4.8.2 Behaviour management strategies

The researcher sought to know the behaviour management strategies that were employed by class teachers to address behavioural issues in their classrooms. The results are presented in Figure 4.7.

FIGURE 4.7. Strategies for Addressing Behavioural Needs of Students in inclusive settings
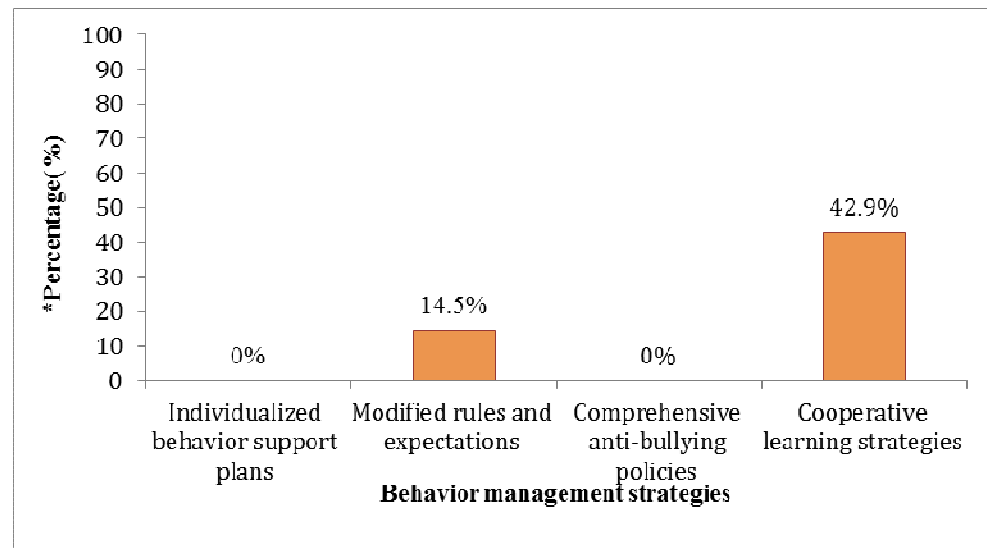
Legend. N = 240; *Percentage (%) = percentage of class teachers' responses regarding strategies utilized in addressing students behavioural needs in inclusive settings.

The data in Figure 4.7 show that individualized behaviour support plans were neither used to address behavioural issues nor were the schools utilizing anti-bullying policies and curriculum, including cyber bullying. Only 14.5% of the class teachers indicated that they modified rules and expectations to accommodate certain students with unique behavioural needs. However, 42.9% utilized cooperative learning strategies to address behavioural issues. Friend (2008) suggests that cooperative learning strategies are more effective when their implementation is based on research proven methods.

These results suggest that the headteachers may not have sufficient capacity to address behavioural challenges and to design school-wide systems of positive behaviour support to ensure student success. Given that safe and healthy learning environments are integral to inclusive education, the findings suggest a critical gap in the implementation process. Furthermore, Peck and Scarpati (2010) acknowledge that this era of inclusive school practices has sharpened the challenge of addressing the unique learning and behavioural characteristics exhibited by students. Consequently, schools are expected to design proactive strategies such as school-wide positive behavioural interventions supports (SPBIS) to promote positive student behaviour and learning environments that are safe and healthy for effective teaching and learning. Furthermore, while most behavioural needs may be addressed by school-wide and classroom supports, some students may require targeted and intensive intervention. These students require functional behaviour assessments (FBA) and accompanying positive behaviour intervention plans (BIP). Both support an effective, individualized, and

evidence-based process to determine the function, context, frequency, intensity, and variability of behaviour. Strategies in an individualized plan also proactively address the identified behaviours. Causton and Theoharis (2014) assert that headteacher leadership is essential in facilitating behaviour supports for students. This implies that leadership programmes should sufficiently address this content area in order to build headteachers' capacity to support inclusive learning.

4.8.3 Addressing students' social needs

The researcher sought to know strategies for addressing different social needs of students in the classroom:

FIGURE 4:8. Strategies for addressing social skills needs of diverse students
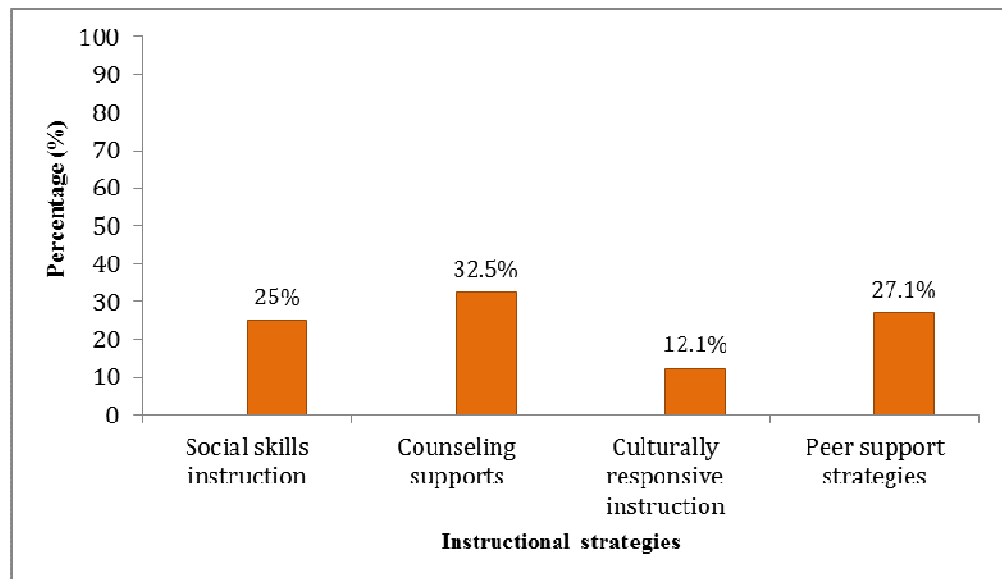
Legend. N = 240; *Percentage (%) = percentage of class teachers' responses on strategies for addressing diverse students' social skills needs.

According to class teachers in the study sample, only 25% of the class teachers engaged in social skills instructional strategies. This implies that the majority of teachers were not utilizing these strategies to address the social needs of their

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students. On the contrary, Jones and Bouffard (2012) assert that schools are an important context for social and emotional development because of the significant portion of time that children spend there. Consequently, they postulate that schools should integrate the teaching and reinforcement of social emotional learning skills into their missions and daily interactions with students. Choate (2004) suggests the use of modelling, role-play, and direct instruction as some of the strategies for teaching social skills. Social and emotional skills are integral to inclusive learning and their low utilization implies a gap that needs to be filled.

Up to 32.5% of the class teachers indicated using counselling supports. This implies that the majority of class teachers were not utilizing these strategies to address the students' social needs. While suggesting a new approach to counselling support, Louis and Gordon (2006) assert that counselling support is critical to student learning because students face pressures from peers, family, and society, which impact their performance in school. They acknowledge that the work of counsellors is often poorly defined and suggest that headteachers need to facilitate a role shift to provide for the effective alignment of counselling support with student achievement goals.

Only 12.1% of the responses showed that class teachers utilized culturally responsive instruction to address the social needs of their students. This finding appears to confirm the assertion by Gay (2002) that many teachers and teacher educators think that their subjects and cultural diversity are incompatible. On the contrary he affirms that, "academic achievement of ethnically diverse students

will improve when they are taught through their own cultural and experiential filters" (p.106). He suggests that developing a knowledge base for culturally responsive teaching is needed to make schooling more interesting and stimulating for, representative of, and responsive to ethnically diverse students. Culturally responsive instruction for diverse students is important given that inclusive education is about increasing participation in learning, cultures, and communities (UNESCO, 2005).

The use of peer counselling strategy to address the social skills needs of students was cited by only 27.1% of respondents. This suggests that peer counselling may not be well established in the study schools as an effective means of addressing social skills development. This finding appears to be inconsistent with that of Marangu, Bururia, and Njonge (2012) that peer counselling is widely accepted as a contributor to behaviour change among learners. They affirm that peer counselling assists students in building communication, problem solving, and decision-making skills. Even though peer counselling seems not well established in the study schools, it remains a pivotal in addressing students' social skills development in inclusive educational settings.

4.8.4 Adaptations/ modifications to the physical classroom environment

The class teachers in the study sample identified various adaptations/ modifications to the physical environment in their classrooms.

Table 4:15

Adaptations/Modifications to the Physical Classroom Environment

Adaptations/Modifications	f	%
Furniture arrangement and orientation	32	13.3
Specific seating arrangements	13	5.4
Customized furniture (individualized desk, chair, etc.)	10	4.2
Assistive and adaptive equipment (wheelchair, etc.)	0	0.0
Adjustments to sensory input (light, sound, etc.)	0	0.0
Environmental aids (ventilation, adjustable sound, heating, etc.)	220	91.7
Structural aids (wheel chair accessibility, grab bars, etc.)	43	17.9

Note. N = 240; f = frequency of responses; % = percentage of responses.

According to the responses in figure 4.15 above, 13.3% cited the furniture arrangement and orientation to maximize learning. However, when probed further, they indicated that the desks were especially heavy and cumbersome to move around. Only 5.4% indicated that they had specific arrangement for various lessons while 4.2% indicated use of customized furniture such as, individualized desks or chairs. The study revealed that adaptive equipment or adjustments to the sensory input such as light or sound in the classrooms were not utilized as adaptations to the physical classroom environment. However, 91.7% of the

responses indicated that the classrooms as designed allowed for ventilation but other environmental aids such as adjustable sound ability and heating during the cold seasons were not factored in the design of buildings. Only 17.9% of the respondents indicated that the classrooms had structural aids such as, grab bars and wheelchair accessible entrances.

The above findings imply that not many schools in the study had made extensive and appropriate adaptations to the physical environment. According to Mastropieri and Scruggs (2010), while each individual and disability area may require specific adaptations, it is important to develop adaptations to the classroom to accommodate students with physical disabilities. Consistent with the principles of universal design for learning (UDL), they suggest several strategies for adapting the physical environment. These include classroom arrangement to meet mobility requirements, such as wide isles for wheelchairs, keeping isles clean of objects that may impede mobility, and examining the extent to which the classroom floors facilitate or impede mobility. Inclusive education implementation requires that due attention is paid to adaptions that address barriers to the physical classroom environment. The above findings, considered in the light of the ideal case scenario, suggest a significant gap in the inclusive education implementation process. Developing sufficient capacity for headteachers to address this gap is imperative for successful inclusive schooling.

4.8.5 Barriers to participation in inclusive learning

The researcher sought to establish from the class teachers the barriers that inhibited their ability to provide education to all students in inclusive setting.

Table 4.16

Teachers' Perceptions on Barriers to Inclusive Learning

Barriers	f	%
Non-conducive learning environment	202	84.2
Insufficient teaching and learning resources	218	90.8
Inadequate school infrastructure	218	90.8
Religious beliefs	23	9.6
Cultural attitudes	205	85.4
Indiscipline among students	187	77.9
Shortage of teaching staff	232	96.7
Inadequate support services	106	44.2
HIV/AIDS scourge	120	50.0
Early marriages	62	25.8
Teenage pregnancies	60	25.0
Internally displaced persons	25	10.4
Poverty	225	93.8
Child labour	67	27.9
Jigger infestation	56	23.3
Unemployment	198	82.5
Disabilities	45	18.8

Note. N = 240; f = frequency of responses; % = percentage of responses.

According to table 4.16, 84.2% of the class teachers indicated that the existing classrooms and schools in general did provide a suitable environment for learning. A vast majority, 90.8% of the participants indicated that the schools had inadequate learning and teaching resources to meet the learning needs of all students. Inadequate school infrastructure was cited as a barrier to participation

by 90.8% of the respondents. Cultural and religious beliefs were referenced as barriers to learning by 85.4% and 9.6% of the respondents respectively. According to 77.9% of the respondents indiscipline among students in schools was a significant barrier to learning while 96.7% cited shortage of teachers. According to 44.2 % of the respondents, learning was adversely affected by inadequate support services, such as speech and language, physical therapy, communication, occupational therapy, mental health, among other critical services. The response from 50% of the respondents indicated that the HIV and AIDS scourge was a barrier to learning. Besides, 25.8% and 25% of the participants respectively cited early marriages and teenage pregnancies. Living as internally displaced persons was stated as a barrier by 10.4% of the class teachers. Poverty and child labour were referenced as significant barriers to learning by 93.8% and 27.9% of the participants respectively. Up to 23.3% cited jigger infestation as having negative influence on learning in the study schools. According to 82.5%, unemployment negatively affected learning since parents were not able to pay for costs not provided for in the Free Primary Education Policy (FPE) financing framework. Having a disability, according to 18.8% of the respondents was reported as a barrier to learning.

The researcher made follow up interviews to gain more insights regarding how the barriers cited by headteachers specifically affected inclusive education implementation. According to the respondents, the barriers were significantly affecting inclusive education implementation as well as its sustainability. The results are discussed below under several sub-headings:

Economic barriers such as insufficient funds, late disbursement of FPE funds, and high levels of poverty among parents and guardians had negative implications in the implementation process. Poverty was seen as the main barrier to learning since it also triggered many other related barriers such as child labour, and high dropout rates. After dropping out of school, some of the children were working in coffee and tea plantations as well as dairy and horticultural farms in different parts of the county. Others were serving as domestic workers, while some were living in the streets of the urban centres in the County. Some of the respondents reported that some of the school dropouts were also working as hawkers in the local towns and market centres. One headteacher summarized the problem of poverty,

> Poverty is like a curse or a dragon rearing its many ugly heads. It spells doom for families and their children. The different heads of the poverty "dragon" that is wreaking havoc in this region as demonstrated by high dropout rates are: domestic workers, child hawkers, child labourers in coffee and tea plantations, teenage "matatu" touts, street children, teenage mothers…and the list goes on and on. It is a very worrying situation.

The above sentiments underscore the overarching role played by poverty as an exclusionary factor in education. They echo the stance by Bernard (2000) that poverty is the most persistent and inexorable of all exclusionary factors. According to her, poverty affects every facet of a family's life and that of its children; hence making education a less compelling value. Moreover, this view

on poverty is also harmonizes with that of Booth and Ainscow (2002) that the most powerful barriers to achievement are those associated with poverty and the stresses it produces. In view of the foregoing, it is instructive that schools were excluding owing, in part, to failure by headteachers to proactively reach out to the families of children who had been made vulnerable by poverty, including absolute poverty. There was no data from the study schools on the number children affected by poverty or interagency efforts to map out their needs for successful inclusion. This situation suggests a service delivery gap that has a bearing towards the nature and impact of leadership development in enhancing headteachers capacity to promote inclusive schooling. Furthermore, economic barriers also resulted in inadequate funding streams and levels, leading to inability of schools to develop adequate infrastructure, attain optimum staffing levels, and ensure sufficient learning and teaching resources.

Physical/environmental barriers that were outlined by the respondents included inadequate physical infrastructure such as classrooms, toilets, offices, playgrounds, pavements, and ramps, among others. The infrastructure design and layout was cited as a barrier. In this regard, respondents revealed steep ramps and in other schools there was inadequate number of ramps. They also reported narrow corridors and doors that would otherwise not be accessible easily especially to students on mobility and support assistive devices such as wheelchairs. In other schools, some wooden and metal doors were extremely heavy. They also had combination latches that were difficult for students with fine and gross motor difficulties to open without support. Some classrooms had

rough uneven surfaces and narrow spaces between desks. Others had inadequate ventilation and lighting. Some playgrounds were uneven and others had overgrown grass and bushes. Other playgrounds did not have equipment such goal posts, marked tracks, among others. Other physical barriers included the location of certain schools especially valley areas with sharp descents and on steep slopes, which made accessibility difficult.

Sociocultural and religious barriers-the respondents reported various sociocultural barriers. These included the stigmatization of students with disabilities, those from poor families, and teenage mothers who opted to continue with school. Besides, the cultural practice of female circumcision was cited as a barrier. Those who underwent the rite often dropped out of school either because of being ridiculed or because they considered themselves mature and ready for marriage. Religious barriers were also common. In this regard, some students and parents belonged to religious sects that did not place a high premium on education. Specifically, some respondents reported that some adherents of the outlawed "Mungiki" religious sect did not encourage their children to attend school hence many dropout cases.

The aforementioned multiple barriers negatively influenced the implementation and sustainability of inclusive education. Eleweke and Rodda (2002) call for reforms to remove barriers to learning and to spur implementation of programmes that transform schools into effective inclusive environments. Pivik, Mccomas and Laflame (2002), while examining barriers and facilitators to

inclusive schooling affirm that facilitating inclusive environments requires physical access, opportunity for optimal learning and social experiences, and a nurturing climate. They recommend that governments enforce civil rights laws, develop inclusive policies and procedures for schools and provide resources to achieve them. Additionally, they assert that headteachers should model inclusive attitudes and behaviours in order to lead the evolvement of inclusive cultures and practices.

4.8.6 Teaching and learning resource needs

Through a questionnaire, the researcher sought to know the resource needs of the class teachers, in order to include more students with special needs as well as other vulnerable learners in their classroom. Table 4.17 illustrates the needs:

Table 4.17

Types of Resources Needed to Facilitate Inclusive Classroom Practices

Resources needed	f	%
Availability of assistive technology	45	18.8
Adequate teaching and learning materials	234	97.5
Conducive classroom environment	78	32.5
Availability of appropriate supports and services	45	18.8
Connectivity to electricity supply	98	40.8
Accessibility of ICT infrastructure	62	25.8
Structured teacher collaboration time	45	18.8
Adequate curriculum guides and resources	68	28.3

Note. $N = 240$; $f =$ frequency of responses; $\% =$ percentage of responses.

The results in table 4.17 show that 18.8% of the respondents cited a need for availability of assistive technology (AT) for use in curriculum and instruction. Besides, 97.5% of the participants stated they needed adequate learning and teaching materials. The need for a suitable classroom environment was suggested by 32.5% of the respondents. Availability of appropriate support and services were cited as resource need by 18.8% of the participants. Electricity supply,

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according to 40.8% was a resource need, while 25.8% cited the for ICT infrastructure to be accessible. Likewise, 18.8% and 28.3% respectively indicated the need for structured collaboration time and adequate curriculum guides and resources respectively. In view of the aforementioned, Pivik, Mccomas and Laflame (2002) suggest the way forward in making schools fully inclusive; they require the necessary effort, policies, and resources. Hehir and Katzman (2012) assert that headteachers should ensure adequate resources to achieve inclusive learning and establish strong collaborative problem-solving cultures in schools.

4.8.7 Class teachers' professional development needs

The researcher sought to establish the professional development needs of class teachers to ensure their classrooms were more inclusive and that they held all students to high academic standards.

Table 4.18

Teachers' Inclusive Education Professional Development Needs

Training needs	*f*	*%*
Modification of the curriculum	240	100.0
Assistive and instructional technology	215	89.6
Guidance and counselling skills	102	42.5
Inclusive learning strategies	240	100.0
Collaboration with parents and families	205	85.4
Educational assessments	58	24.2
Effective lesson planning and implementation	75	31.3
Classroom management strategies	116	48.3
Behaviour management strategies	175	72.9
More knowledge on diverse disabilities	179	74.6
Inclusive education service delivery models	45	18.8
Transition planning	43	17.9

Note. $N = 240$; *f* = frequency of responses; *%* = percentage of responses.

According to Table 4.18, all the respondents indicated that they needed training on how to modify the curriculum to meet the diverse needs of learners. Assistive and instructional technology was indicated as a training need by 89.6% of the

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respondents. There was 42.5% of the staff that reported they needed training in guidance and counselling skills while all the respondents cited the need for training in inclusive learning strategies. Up to 85.4% indicated need for training in collaborating with parents and families. Educational assessment was cited as an area of need for training by 24.2% of the respondents. Effective lesson planning and implementation, according to 31.3%, was an area of need for further training. Classroom and behaviour management strategies were cited as areas of training need by 48.3% and 72.9% of the respondents. Still, 74.6% were interested in gaining deeper insight into different disabilities. Further, 18.8% and 17.9% respectively indicated a need for training in inclusive education service delivery models and transition planning respectively.

Professional development is vital for effective inclusive learning (Munk & Dempsey, 2010; Haager & Klinger, 2005). Hehir and Katzman (2012) report significant depth and breadth of professional development in effective inclusive schools. The professional development in these schools addresses pertinent topics, such as the ones suggested by teachers in the study. Haager and Klinger (2005) assert that effective professional development for teachers in collaborative inclusive programmes focuses various components such as, exploration of theory, demonstrations in actual classrooms, practice under simulated conditions, and coaching to address challenges during implementation. They also affirm that teachers require structured job-embedded opportunities to share expertize through peer coaching, and adapt teaching models to the needs of learners.

4.8.8 Headteachers' classroom level inclusive education support

The researcher investigated the support that the class teachers received from headteachers in promoting and sustaining inclusion of diverse learners in their classrooms. The teachers indicated the support they received was general and not specific to inclusive education.

Table 4.19

Support Provided by Headteachers to Promote Inclusive Classroom Practices

Types of support	f	%
Collaboration with parents and families	205	85.4
Resource mobilization and management	200	83.3
Handling of student and staff discipline issues	155	64.6
Procurement of teaching and learning materials	129	53.8
Physical facilities development and maintenance	122	50.8
Allocating time for professional development	38	15.8
Motivational programmes for students and staff	29	12.1

Note. N = 240; *f* = frequency of responses; *%* = percentage of responses.

According to table 4.19 above, 85.4% of the respondents, headteachers provided support in collaborating with parents and families while 83.3% cited support in resource mobilization and management. A significant number of headteachers, 64.6% indicated that they received support on matters relating to disciplinary issues of students and staff. Further, 53.8% and 50.8% of the respondents respectively cited support in procuring teaching and learning materials and the development and maintenance of physical facilities. Also, 15.8% and 12.1% of

the participants respectively alluded to receiving support in terms allocation of time to attend professional development forums and motivation to improve teaching and learning.

The types of supports reported class teachers in the study are consistent with the stance taken by Riehl (2000) on the role of headteachers of inclusive schools. She asserts that three broad categories of tasks by headteachers facilitate inclusive practices. These are: fostering new meanings about diversity, promoting inclusive cultures and instructional programmes, and building relationships between schools and communities. She affirms that the headteacher's approach to these tasks determines the degree to which their practice can be characterized as inclusive and transformative. Consequently, headteachers require effective leadership development to promote inclusive learning through transformative leadership.

4.8.9 Class teachers' perceptions of the challenges facing headteachers

The researcher sought the class teachers' perceptions of the challenges that faced headteachers in implementing inclusive education. The results are presented in Figure 4.9.

FIGURE 4.9. Class Teachers' Perceptions of the Challenges facing Headteachers in the Implementation of Inclusive Education**.**
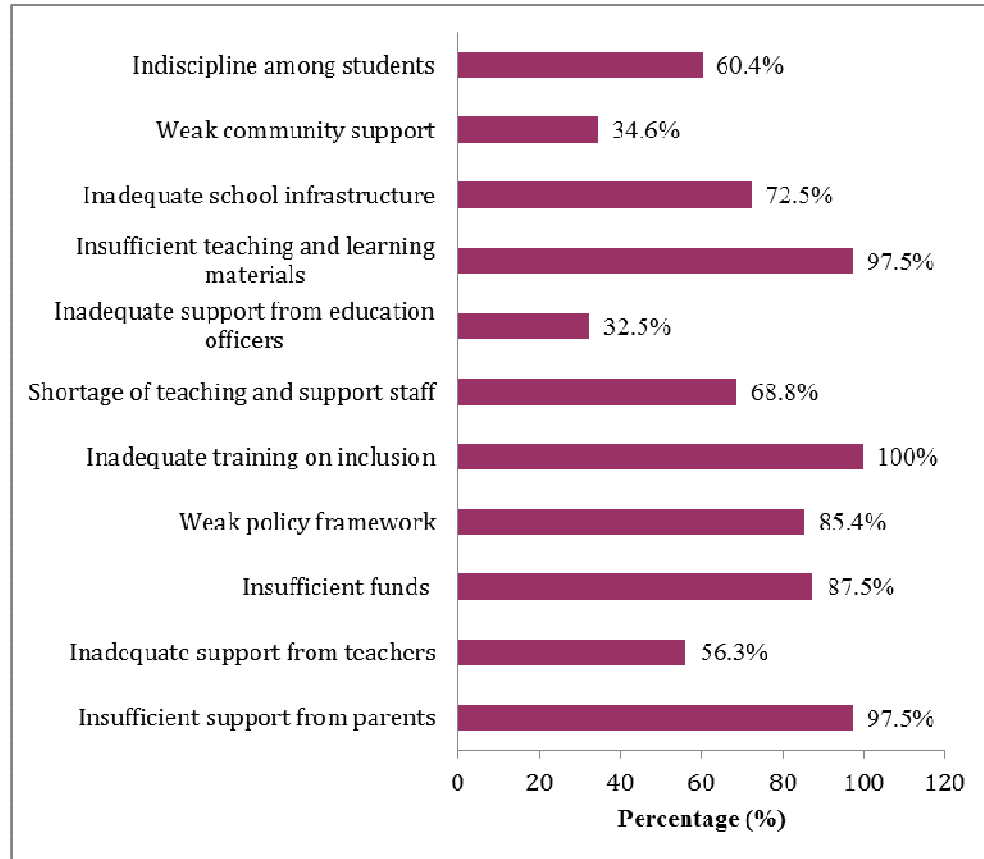
Legend. N=240; *Percentage (%) = percentage of class teachers' responses on their perceptions regarding the challenges faced by headteachers in the implementation of inclusive education.

Data presented in Figure 4.9 show that 97.5% of the class teachers reported insufficient support from parents was one of the challenges the headteachers faced in promoting and sustaining inclusion. Up to 56.3% of the respondents felt that their headteachers received inadequate support from teachers to promote inclusive education. A significant majority, 87.5% cited insufficient funding streams and levels as a challenge facing headteachers. The absence of an inclusive culture was reported as a challenge to inclusion by 85.4% while all the class teachers felt that headteachers had insufficient knowledge and skills to promote and sustain inclusive education. Shortage of teaching staff and support

staff was reported by 68.8% of respondents while 32.5% cited ineffective monitoring and coordination by the field officers as challenges confronting headteachers. Lack teaching and learning materials was stated by 97.5% of the respondents. Further, 72.5% of the respondents perceived inadequate school physical infrastructure as a challenge. Weak community support for inclusive education was referenced by 34.4% of the respondents. Students' indiscipline issues were reported by 60.4% of the respondents.

4.9.0 The inclusive education service delivery model in the study schools

The study schools fell into three categories; 110 regular schools, 12 regular schools with special units attached to them and three special schools that had been hived off from regular schools. Data analysis revealed that each school enrolled students with a diverse student population, including students with disabilities and other special needs. In the three categories of schools, there seemed to be no specific service delivery model upon which inclusive education implementation was anchored. Few and unstructured elements of models like the Universal Design for Learning (UDL) and multi-tiered instruction were discernible. Consequently, in the absence of an effective model of service delivery none of the schools implemented inclusive with fidelity and integrity. There was no evidence of pull-in services where special education and related services were brought to the students in the regular education classrooms. Also, there were no pull-out services for special education students within an inclusive learning framework.

The existing inclusive learning framework also did not provide for effective co-teaching, which within an inclusive perspective, promotes harmonious working relationships between the special education and regular education teachers by way of team teaching, modifying the curriculum, designing accommodations, and implementing diverse instructional strategies to meet the learning needs of all students. Furthermore, the inclusive framework did not provide for effective collaborative problem solving and networking between teachers to ensure higher levels of student achievement. The special education teachers actually appeared to operate independently with little or no collaboration with regular class teachers. The existing framework did not provide for related services in inclusive settings. The respondents indicated that teachers, parents, and students were not effectively involved in decision-making process of the school and most appeared not to support the inclusion of children with disability in the regular classrooms. Specifically, the climate and culture in most schools seemed to suggest that change towards effective inclusion of students with disabilities was not expected, supported, and encouraged.

4.9.1 Assessment and placement of children with disabilities

There was no clear system for the identification and assessment of students with disabilities. The students were either referred for assessment by schools or directly by parents. Assessment was done at the assessment centres in districts. There were four Educational Assessment and Resource Centres (EARCs) at Limuru, Kiambu, Ruiru, and Thika. Educational assessments were done at the centres and referral or placement decisions made. The assessment report mainly

referred children to special education in the special units. Most of these students with disabilities were not placed in age-appropriate, general education classrooms, but instead they were placed in the special units. In the units children of diverse ages were educated together. According to some teachers, some of the students had stayed in the same class for more than seven years. It was evident that there was no clear inclusive approach to special education delivery as students with disabilities were placed in Special Unit classes.

The classes seemed to operate with inadequate teaching and learning materials. Another feature was the fact that they operated with no onsite provision of training and technical assistance for classroom delivery of educational supports. There were no resource rooms or self-contained classrooms to promote the delivery of special educational supports. Some DQASOs and class teacher alluded to the fact that some headteachers were not in favour of implementation of inclusive education on grounds that inclusion of students with disabilities negatively impact on their schools' academic performance. The schools operated without a clear inclusive service delivery model and headteachers seemed not aware of such models.

Analysis of data reveals that each school had made some initiative to accommodate diverse students. However, there was a lack of a framework to harmonize the general and special education services into an effective inclusive learning model. There was no evidence that schools and districts adequate data system to inform decision-making regarding how and where to deploy resources

effectively and efficiently to promote inclusive education reforms. The teachers were not involved in educational assessments of students with special needs and Individualized Educational Programmes (IEPs) were not utilized, after referral and placement, to provide strengths-based interventions for these students in general education classrooms.

4.9.2 Provision of Educational services and supports

From the analysis of data, it was evident that the study schools served diverse student populations. Certain students, especially those with disabilities required extensive supports and services across many areas of the curriculum. However, such services were significantly limited or virtually unavailable at the school level. For example, multi-disciplinary teams bringing together professionals such as, speech and language pathologists, communication experts, physical therapists, audiologists, and school psychologists, among others, were not available to offer on-site support services to students. There was also a significant deficiency of instructional supports such as, augmentative and alternative communication (AAC) devices and other forms of assistive technology (AT). On the contrary, students with disabilities require intensive and sustained services and supports to ensure effective learning (Friend, 2008; Kirk et al., 2009; Smith & Tyler, 2010). Moreover, services and supports are needed for the success of students with disabilities in inclusive learning environments (Caustin & Theoharis, 2014; Hehir and Kartzman, 2012).

4.9.3 Educational setting and student groupings

The educational setting in the study schools suggested low level of inclusion. The special and regular education operated mostly as mutually exclusive dichotomies. Most of the students with disabilities were served in the special unit. However, the perception was that the schools were inclusive despite placing these students in a restrictive environment. Comprehensive assessments were not used to determine eligibility and placement decisions. On the contrary, intuition, beliefs, and stereotypes seemed to play a major role in influencing placement decisions for students with disabilities. The students with disabilities spent all their day in the special unit. The special units utilized a cross-categorical special education model, which involved mixing students with different disabilities and basing educational service delivery more on student needs rather than their identified disabilities. In other cases the students were placed in substantially separate settings, meaning special schools. Three schools included in the study had been hived off regular schools with the notion that the students with disabilities would be served better. Conversely, this substantially separate educational setting suggests marginalization of the very students the education system seeks to include in mainstream education.

4.9.4 Level of assistive and instructional technology utilization

The range of assistive technology and the level of technology integration in the study schools were significantly low. There was a limited range of low technology especially use of charts, adapted desks. There was also a significantly limited range high technology in the study schools. The range included manual

wheel chairs, and hearing aids, among others. The majority of the schools had inadequate ICT infrastructure. High impact technology devices such as computers, voice output devices, communication cards, and educational software were not available to support learners with disabilities. The schools were grossly deficient in terms of integration of technology with the curriculum.

It was also evident that technology was not considered in the development of IEPs as a critical component of education service delivery for students with disabilities. Instead, the few IEP documents analysed do not specify if a student needs assistive technology as an accommodation for learning or mobility and support. The funds provided for each student under free primary education were not enough to meet the cost of most forms of assistive technology while most teachers were not aware of the available technology options for their students in the market. Technology integration was made worse by the fact that the majority of teachers had limited technical capacity for classroom and school-wide technology integration with the curriculum. In addition, the ICT integration policy does not spell out how assistive technology can be integrated in both inclusive and special education.

Notably, the Constitution of Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 2010), section 54 (1), states that a person with any disability is entitled to: (b) access educational institutions and facilities for persons with disabilities that are integrated into society to the extent compatible with the interests of the person; (c) to reasonable access to all places, public transport and information; (d) to use Sign language,

Braille or other appropriate means of communication; and (e) to access materials and devices to overcome constraints arising from the person's disability. It is therefore clear that the letter and spirit of the constitution is that assistive technology is critical to the effective functioning and education of persons with disability. This resonates with the stance by Smith and Tyler (2010) that technology helps to "level the playing field" (p.28) and facilitate access the general curriculum in regular education classrooms for learners with disability.

Kuder (2013) recommends development of competencies with Augmentative and Alternative Communication (AAC) operations. Beukelman and Miranda (2005) in their review of research have identified administrative support, availability of an AAC system, strategies for modifying/adapting the curriculum, team expertise on assistive technology use and inclusive practices, and a collaborative school culture as integral to the successful inclusion of AAC users with disabilities. Moreover, successful inclusion is premised on students with disabilities participating to the maximum extent possible with typically developing peers in the regular education classroom. Utilization of assistive and instructional technology facilitates this successful inclusion process. The headteacher as the technology leader has an important role in supporting technology integration into student learning activities and professional development of teachers in this area (Grady, 2011).

4.9.5 Individualized education programmes (IEPs)

The Basic Education Act (Republic of Kenya, 2013) does not expressly mandate that an IEP, which is a roadmap to guide instructional delivery and the provision of other requisite services, be delivered to every child identified with a disability. The Act is also not clear on accountability for each IEP developed. During this research, the teachers reported that IEP meetings were not held to review students' progress and most were not aware of who should be in the IEP teams. As a consequence, the IEP process in the study schools was insufficiently provided for. The teachers interviewed reported having no records of the accommodations for students' special conditions without which their educational performance is affected.

The headteachers, teachers, parents, the district personnel, and other stakeholders were not actively involved in the development and implementation of IEPs. The criteria for the development of IEPs were not clearly specified. For example, class teachers indicated there was no pre-referral process in place through which struggling students in general education classrooms could be identified and appropriate interventions designed. Other than academic test results that analysed mainly the mean standard scores, there were inadequate measures aimed at establishing how and why students were struggling. Multiple measures were also not utilized to determine the effectiveness of supports and related services. To determine eligibility, the EARCs administered "a school readiness test" with the students only receiving a placement letter but the results were not communicated to the school.

Student referrals to special education were suggested by parents and teachers based on identifiable disability characteristics and intuition, especially for students with intellectual and cognitive disabilities. This suggests that the identification and referral of student were in most cases not based on diagnostic and other necessary assessments done by professionals. As such the children were denied early intervention services that would otherwise minimize the impact of disability in the learning process and facilitate greater student learning and achievement. Instead of utilizing multidisciplinary teams in the identification process, individual assessment officers at the EARCs did the assessment and single-handedly determined eligibility for special education services. Besides, eligibility for special educational services was not automatically followed by IEP development. There were no formal IEP meetings to deliberate on the appropriate education and the array of supports and related services to facilitate achievement of IEP goals and objectives.

An IEP documents the child's special education needs and the related services and supports that will be provided to address those needs. This implies that IEPs are critical to the success of students with special needs in inclusive educational settings. However, the situation in the study schools implies that the IEP process is not adequately developed. Contrary to the situation in the study schools, Gleckel & Koretz, (2008) affirm the significance of the IEP as a multi-stage process that includes: (a) exploration of pre-referral concerns and options; (b) designing the collaborative individualized assessment plan; (c) collecting, charting, and analysing assessment data; (d) engaging in an IEP meeting to

synthesize assessment data, determining eligibility and planning for instruction; (e) writing the IEP document; (f) implementing the IEP and monitoring progress. Bateman and Linden (2008) reference the reauthorized IDEA law (IDEA, 2004) in the United States and affirm that the IEP process includes procedural safeguards designed to ensure access to free and appropriate education for children with disabilities. The gap with the IEP process in the study schools is that while the law provides for access to education for all students with disability, the procedural safeguards are not explicit. Furthermore, the IEPs should be both legally correct and educationally useful (Bateman & Linden, 2008) for students with disabilities to receive appropriate and quality education.

4.9.6 School safety and security standards

The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology has developed the Safety Standards Manual for Schools in Kenya (Ministry of Education, 2008), which outlines safety guidelines for schools in the country. Documentary analysis reveals the standards in the manual are premised on the rationale that safe and secure school environments facilitate and foster quality teaching and learning in educational institutions. The development of these standards is in recognition of the critical role of school safety in the provision of quality education. They demonstrate the commitment of the Government of Kenya through the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology to institutionalize and mainstream school safety. The manual spells out the critical roles of stakeholders in promoting safety and security. They also mandate the establishment of a safety sub-committee in each school. They also specify the roles of the headteacher and the

teacher in charge of school safety. However, the study findings reveal the standards were not implemented with fidelity.

The study established that the majority of the schools did not have a safety curriculum and critical equipment. Most schools did not have secure compounds and buildings. Some classrooms had no windows and doors, which made them unsafe. The structure and design features of most buildings raise safety concerns. For instance, some buildings had grilled windows and story buildings had narrow and steep stairs. Story buildings did not have ramps or elevators, which made accessibility difficult for students with physical handicaps. Most of the buildings had no fire equipment or procedures for dealing with fire emergencies. None of the schools practiced evacuation drills, lockdowns or other emergency procedures. Some of the stores and classes were not organized with safety in mind. For example, some classes were crowded with narrow spaces between desks; stores were crammed with books and other teaching and learning materials without due regard to fire emergency responses. Children were not instructed on emergency response and safety plans for learners with disability were inadequate. Uneven surfaces and overgrown vegetation on many school compounds made them unsafe for students. In many buildings and classrooms there was poor ventilation and insufficient lighting. There were also open sewers and dumpsites close to schools in urban centres while some respondents reported leaking roofs in their schools.

Many schools did not have a well-established visitor protocol other than routine visitor's book signing without, in most cases, verifying the identities of visitors. Teachers and other employees of the school were not, on a regular basis, required to go through background checks, including criminal records. None of the study schools had developed anti-bullying curriculum, policies and procedures including cyber bullying. The schools also operated without a clearly defined mandated reporter framework for identifying and reporting cases of neglect and abuse of students.

The Safety Standards Manual indicates that headteachers are in charge of the proper implementation of school safety policies and coordination of all stages in the implementation process to ensure safe, secure and caring schools. However, the wide gaps in the implementation process observed in the study schools raise serious and pertinent concerns regarding the capacity of headteachers to ensure the integrity of the implementation of the safety standards. A safe and orderly school environment is a necessary condition for student achievement (Robinson, 2011; Marzano, 2003). Further, Marzano (2003) recommends ecological interventions, school-wide rules and procedures, and programmes for enhancing student self-discipline and responsibility. However the situation in the study school reveals safety and security related gaps. For schools to be successful inclusive learning environments they need to be safe and secure.

4.10.0 Policy challenges facing implementation of inclusive education

The study examined policy challenges affecting the implementation of inclusive education in the study schools. To reinforce the information provided by headteachers regarding programmes implemented in schools to support inclusive education, the District Quality Assurance and Standards Officers (DQASOs) indicated that the government of Kenya had designed interventions that the headteachers were implementing under different frameworks with the support of their school districts. The Free Primary Education (FPE) policy was introduced in 2003 to ensure universal access to basic education as a right of every child. The FPE funds are disbursed directly to schools through two accounts, the School Instructional Materials Bank Account (SIMBA), used for the purchase of instructional materials and General Purpose Account (GPA) for meeting operational expenses. Specifically, the SIMBA account caters for the following items: text books, exercise books, supplementary readers and reference materials, pencils, dusters, chalks, registers and charts and wall maps. GPA on the other hand is responsible for operational expenses, support staff wages, repair, maintenance and improvements (RMI), activities, quality assurance, local travelling and transport, electricity, water and conservancy (EWC), postage/box rental/telephone and contingencies. One DEO asserted, **"**In this district, the FPE policy has significantly improved access to education for children from poor families, the orphans and other vulnerable groups. This is perhaps the most significant policy of this decade."

The DQASOs also cited Kenya Education Sector Support Programme (KESSP) as another funding framework under which programmes beneficial to inclusive education had been implemented. This multi-pronged strategy covers a plethora of programmes. They include infrastructure development, water and sanitation, as well as health and nutrition. The Constituency Development Fund (CDF) and funds from other donor organizations had significantly supplemented the existing funding framework. Other frameworks implemented in schools with the aim of promoting inclusive education include the special needs education policy. Through this policy regular schools have been opened up to children with disabilities. Students have been enrolled in the special units with the hope that those who qualify are integrated into regular classrooms. Another policy is the HIV/AIDS education sector policy of 2004 with the objective of ensuring the environment is conducive for those affected and infected with the HIV/ AIDS scourge. Other policies include re-entry policy for girls who dropped out of schools due to pregnancies and early marriages. Also, policy on Marginalized and orphaned children (MVCs) has been instrumental in promoting inclusive education. The DQASOs also mentioned the Gender policy in education of 2007 as yet another one, which supported inclusive education implementation in their respective districts. This policy continues to promote gender parity and equality for in education in the sample districts. According to one DQASO:

> The gender policy seems to have worked really well for the girl-child; not just in our district but also in the entire county. There are schools now where the population of girls is higher compared to that of boys!

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Certainly, the focus should now shift to the boy-child who seems to be steadily becoming both vulnerable and marginalized.

However, interview data reveals that headteachers did not utilize an index or indicators of inclusive education in the implementation process. This is inconsistent with the stance by Booth and Ainscow (2002) who affirm the critical role of index for inclusion in ensuring the capacity of schools to determine priorities for change based on their contextual realities and to evaluate progress. They also did not anchor the implementation of inclusive education on evidence-based service delivery models. The current approach therefore raises pertinent questions regarding the effectiveness of inclusive education policies, the focus of headteachers' leadership development and the capacity of headteachers to implement inclusive education in a systematic and sustainable manner. Moreover, the districts and the county had not registered or mapped out the needy and vulnerable children to ensure policies and other interventions targeting them remained effective.

Documentary analysis was done to examine headteachers' leadership development policy in relation to inclusive education. The Teacher's Service Commission (TSC) Act (2012), section 35, mandates professional development for teachers in compliance with the teaching standards. Sub-section (1) states that the Commission shall ensure steps are taken to ensure persons in the teaching service comply with the teaching standards prescribed by the Commission. Sub-section (2)(a) states that every registered teacher should undertake career

progression and professional development programmes. The Commission is also empowered under the Act to enter into agreements with any institution, body, department or agency of the Government with regard to, among others, pursuant of its functions and powers in teaching standards, career growth, and professional development. Headteachers being employees of the TSC are expected to comply with the provisions of this section, including the sanctions provided for in subsection (3) in the event of failure to undertake career and professional development. Additionally, section 68(1), the Cabinet Secretary shall in collaboration with the relevant stakeholders develop the National Qualifications Framework to- (a) set the standards and benchmarks for qualifications and competencies including skills, knowledge, attitudes, and values; (b) define the levels of qualifications and competencies; (c) provide for the recognition of attainment or competencies including skills, knowledge, attitudes, and values; and (d) facilitate linkages, credit transfers and exemptions, and a vertical and horizontal mobility at all levels to enable entry, re-entry and exit.

However, the professional development mandate is not specific to inclusive education. There is also no policy provision that specifies how professional development for headteachers should be conducted. Furthermore, the mandate does not specify framework for accessing leadership development services. Consequently, there is a clear policy gap on mandated sources of leadership development and the criteria or threshold a service provider should meet to be licensed. As a result, headteachers in the study received leadership development from diverse sources with significant variations in their contents, design features,

delivery strategies, quality, quantity, and relevance. Besides, in the absence of a clear policy framework, the headteachers faced no sanctions for failure to acquire leadership development.

The absence of a clear policy framework also contributed to the lack of a cohesive leadership development infrastructure in the county. For instance, the county had no educational leadership institutions or collaborative frameworks with institutions of higher learning to provide leadership development to its headteachers. The county and the districts did not have a specific department or unit charged with coordinating and harmonizing the leadership development of headteachers. At the district level, there was no department that kept track the nature and quality of the leadership development activities of headteachers. There was no policy framework on the evaluation headteacher leadership development and its impact in the implementation of inclusive education. Apart from a college certificate, there were no licensure requirements or policy to determine the specific leadership competencies that headteachers were expected to attain. Consequently, effective approaches such as mentoring and coaching were not utilized to facilitate the development of headteachers in a personalized manner. Also, a lack of clear policy contributed to headteachers not being exposed to inclusive education service delivery models such as, Response to Intervention (RTI), Universal Design for Learning (UDL).

4.11.0 Institutional challenges experienced in the implementation of inclusive education

The researcher sought to know the institutional challenging that headteachers experienced in the implementation of inclusive education.

Table 4.20

Institutional Challenges Facing Implementation of Inclusive Education

Challenges	*f*	*%*
Inadequate financial resources	122	97.6
Insufficient support from education officers	76	60.8
Negative attitude towards inclusion	72	57.6
Lack of focused professional development	98	78.4
Inadequate assistive technology	45	36.0
Weak inclusive policy framework	88	70.4
High teacher pupil ratios	103	82.4
Inadequate school infrastructure	65	52.0
Ineffective students' assessment and identification	45	36.0
Examination oriented system	42	33.6
Delayed disbursement of funds	118	94.4
High number of 'at risk' children	105	84.0
Limited capacity of school committees	68	54.4
Weak accountability systems	48	38.4
Ineffective coordination mechanisms	66	52.8

Note. $N = 125$; *f* = frequency of responses; *%* = percentage of responses.

According to the Table 4.20, inadequate financial resources were cited by 97.6% of headteachers as a major challenge in the implementation of inclusive education in the study schools. Limited support from the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology's field officers was referenced by 60.8% of the participants. Other challenges cited included negative attitudes towards the inclusive approach to education (57.6%), lack of focused professional development (78.4%), limited availability of assistive and instructional technology (36%), and unclear policy on inclusive education (70.4%). Besides, headteachers cited high teacher pupil ratios (82.4%), inadequate school infrastructure (52%), ineffective assessment and identification (36%), examination-oriented system of education (33.6%), and delayed disbursement of free primary education (FPE) funds (94.4%). The high number of students 'at risk' of academic failure or dropping out school such as, orphans, students with disabilities, and those from extreme poverty backgrounds, was cited as challenge by 84% of the respondents. Further challenges outlined were, the weak capacity of school committees (54.4%), weak accountability systems in the inclusive education implementation process (38.4%) and ineffective coordination mechanisms between the districts and the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology headquarters (52.8%). These institutional challenges and how they inhibit inclusive education are discussed in more detail in section 4.9.2.

4.11.2 Challenges inhibiting inclusive education implementation

The results of survey data, follow-up interviews with headteachers and class teachers, in-depth interviews with DQASOs, and documentary analysis provided

deeper insights into challenges inhibiting effective inclusive education in the study schools. The factors affecting inclusive education implementation are discussed below under several themes:

1. **Inadequate knowledge and skills to effectively implement inclusion**

   Majority of headteachers perceived themselves as having insufficient knowledge and skills to implement inclusive education in their schools. They indicated this was particularly difficult, given that inclusive education focuses on all students regardless of their unique and diverse learning needs. They also felt that the issue was compounded by lack of pre-service and in-service training with a specific focus on inclusive education implementation. The DQASOs indicated there was indeed a huge system-wide knowledge and skills gap relating to inclusive education. They observed that each district lacked personnel trained adequately on issues of inclusive education. They attributed this to lack of adequate and focused leadership development opportunities in this key area. The lack of capacity at the district level was cited by the DQASOs as a major barrier to inclusive education implementation because it inhibited the ability of districts to effectively monitor and evaluate the implementation process at the school level.

2. **Unclear inclusive vision and mission**

   An inclusive vision and mission that held all students to high educational standards did not drive the implementation process in study schools. Most of the school mottos reflected a focus on academic achievement, with only a few

schools whose vision and mission statements and core values exemplified a commitment to equitable and inclusive education. There were no schools with specific ceremonies and rituals that emphasized inclusive education. The headteachers and teachers alluded to the fact that they did not utilize the symbolic framework, for example, inclusive core values and vision to entrench inclusive education in their schools. However, the school's culture must be founded on a set of core values and beliefs that inform all decision-making, policies, and practices to achieve inclusive education (Munk & Dempsey, 2010).

3. **Negative attitude toward diversity and the inclusive education approach**

Most of the headteachers interviewed seemed to find difficulty in admitting students with diverse needs especially those with cognitive disabilities for fear they would have a negative impact on academic results. Besides, some of the headteachers indicated that students with cognitive disabilities were bound to demonstrate challenging behaviours. There was evidence that majority of the headteachers made little conscious effort to embrace diversity since most of the school mottos reflected pursuit of academic goals. Only few schools had mission and vision statements, most of which exemplified academic achievement and value for diversity. If inclusive reforms are to succeed, then schools and their stakeholders must embrace diversity. Furthermore, Riehl (2000) asserts that school reform can only take place when broad constituencies, including professionals, students, parents, and the general public embrace the reforms.

4. **Insufficient professional supports and services**

The study schools were characterized by insufficient professional supports and services within and outside the education system to effectively implement inclusive education. Different departments and line ministries provided the professional supports and services according to headteachers. Services such as health, social services, ICT, assessments, counselling and rehabilitation, justice and many others were not easily accessible in most districts despite their pivotal role in promoting inclusive education. Within the educational system itself, key support services from professionals such as support teachers, special subjects teachers, physical therapists, school psychologists, speech and language pathologists, social workers, and communication specialists, among others, were not available to support inclusive education implementation.

5. **Limited cohesive accountability systems**

Cohesive accountability systems were limited in the county, the districts and the schools to support inclusive education implementation and sustainability. This had resulted in inconsistent implementation of inclusive education. For example, whereas the goal of inclusive education was to have regular schools educate all students, one of the districts had change the status of two schools by splitting them into regular and special schools based on the notion that the move provided for access to funding from the government. While the thinking that informed the change of status may be valid, it went against the

spirit of inclusion since it marginalizes the very students the system seeks to include. A concerned teacher summed it this way:

> My students were making good progress in the regular classroom. Just seeing their typical peers raise their hands to answer a question was sufficient motivation for some of them to try. They had come to bond with each other and this was great. But all that has now changed. It is like our students no longer matter and this is terribly wrong.

Issues of accountability also revolve around implementation of policies related to inclusive education. There are many policies and implemented by different line ministries, which had resulted in disparate responses that had not produced the intended outcomes at the school level. There was no accountability framework to determine how different multi-pronged approaches impacted on inclusive education and to establish the level of inclusiveness in each of the public primary schools in the County. There were no indicators developed by the districts in the county to determine the effectiveness of inclusive implementation in study schools. Instead, the effectiveness of inclusion as described in the District Quality Assurance and Standards reports focused mainly on physical infrastructure in terms of accessibility such as, number of ramps and disability compliant toilets.

6. **Inadequate collaborative planning time and implementation framework**

According to class teachers and headteachers, collaborative teaming, which they asserted was important for successful inclusive learning, was provided for sufficiently. The schools did not adequately structure time for staff to collaboratively prepare lessons and plan instructional strategies, including curriculum adaptions and accommodations. There was also inadequate collaboration between the schools and districts in developing innovative strategies to make schools more inclusive. The DQASOs cited time constraints, transport challenges, inadequate personnel, and other challenges. There was insufficient collaboration in personnel training to support effective implementation of inclusive education. In contrast, Munk & Dempsey (2010) assert collaborative problem solving and planning are critical features in the effective provision of inclusive education.

7. **The high teacher pupil ratios**

High teacher pupil ratios seem to have been compounded the problem of implementation of inclusive education. The average teacher–pupil ratio stood at 1:50. This made it difficult for the teacher to effectively individualize learning to meet the needs of all students in the classroom. As a result, the teachers tended to give priority to students doing better academically while neglecting the weaker ones. Such an approach put those students with learning disabilities, and other learning needs at a disadvantage. The problem of high teacher-pupil ratio made it difficult for teachers to regularly assess students' progress. These findings are consistent a UNESCO (2005) report on

the increases in the number of pupils in primary schools against a growing shortage of teachers. Saphier, Harry-Speca and Gower (2008) assert that students are more likely to succeed academically when teachers know them individually, are aware of their backgrounds, interests, characteristic behaviours, and learning styles. However, high teacher-pupil ratios make it difficult to ensure that instruction meets the diverse needs of all students.

8. **Absence of specific inclusive education service delivery models**

The schools operated without a clear inclusive education service delivery model. As a consequence, effective inclusive education practices, including the use of multi-level instruction and interventions were not being utilized to meet the diverse leaning needs of students. Inclusive education service delivery frameworks such as, Universal Design for Learning (UDL) Response-to-Intervention (RTI) were lacking in all the study schools to ensure that curriculum and instruction meet the needs of all learners.

9. **Deficiencies with the existing policy framework**

The Teachers Service Commission Act (2012), Section 35, mandates the professional development for teachers and headteachers. This mandate is not specific to inclusive education and does not indicate how professional development in this area should be conducted. There was no specific requirement on the minimum number of professional development hours that the headteacher must acquire and the avenues through which the development must be accessed. There also seemed to be no clear policy on authorized

sources of professional development and what criteria or threshold a service provider should meet to be licensed. As a result, headteachers received professional development from varied sources with significant differences on their nature and focus. There were neither licensure requirements nor penalties for failing to acquire professional development. Furthermore, there was no specific department charged with coordinating and harmonizing all the professional development activities of headteachers by various service providers at the district level.

10. Teacher apathy and absenteeism

Interview data from DQASOs indicated that there was a chronic problem of teacher apathy and absenteeism. Teachers in the county absented themselves due to various reasons such as, attending to personal businesses and alcoholism. According to headteachers, this problem affected the education standards in schools, including inclusive programmes. These results are consistent with a World Bank report (Martin & Pimhidzai, 2013) on service delivery indicators in Kenya's public schools. The average absence in schools was 16%. Furthermore, a fifth of schools had a school absence rate between 20-40%, and for a tenth of schools it is above 40%. The report found that public teachers may be at school, but are 50% less likely to be in class teaching. The implication is that for every term, a child in a public school receives 20 days less of teaching time.

11. Limited support from the ministry's field officers

The headteachers cited inadequate support from the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology field officers. They pointed out that the officers did not regularly visit their schools for the purpose of enhancing inclusive education. Instead, their visits were irregular and many times only occurred when the schools registered poor examination results. The DQASOs acknowledged that they had limited capacity to make regular visits to schools due to transport challenges and personnel available. The officers also admitted that few among them were conversant with special education and how to effectively include students with special needs. The DQASOs therefore relied on personnel from the EARCs for advice during quality assurance visits. This led to the lack of adequate accountability for what happened in special needs classes and the process of including them in the regular education classroom.

4.11.2 Suggestions for successful inclusive education implementation

Headteachers made several suggestions regarding successful inclusive education implementation. Their suggestions are outlined in Figure 4.10:

FIGURE 4.10. Suggestions for Successful Inclusive Education Implementation
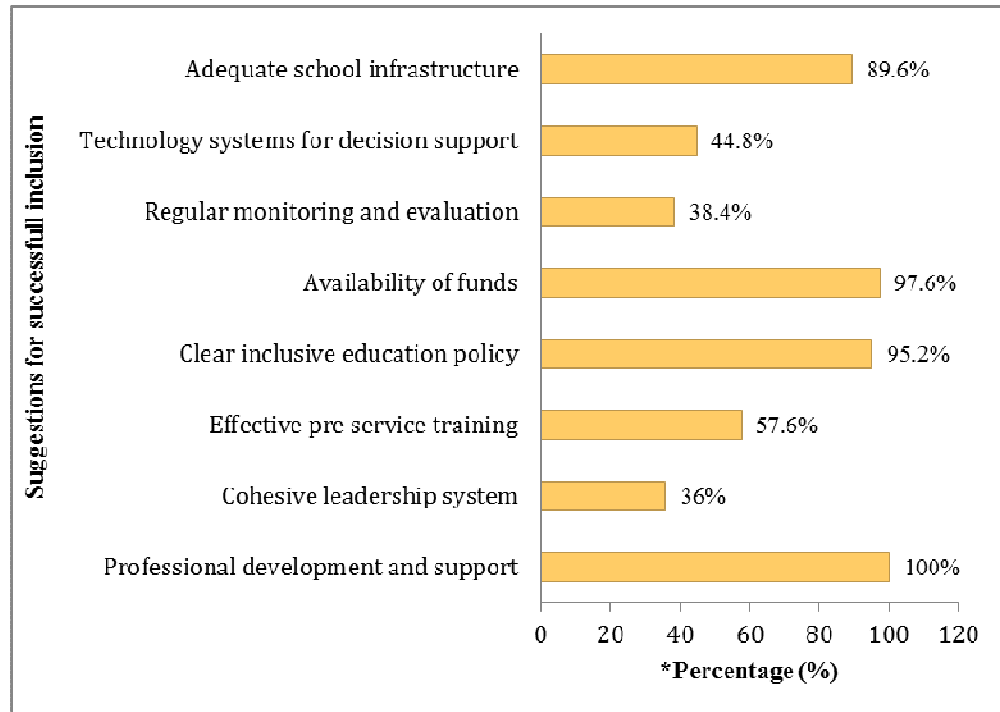
Legend. N = 125; **Percentage (%)* = percentage of responses showing headteachers' suggestions for successful implementation of inclusive education.

The data above shows that all the headteachers suggested they needed more professional development targeted on inclusive education implementation. There was need for cohesive leadership system according to 36% of the respondents. Over 57% of the respondents suggested more effective pre-service training would improve performance in inclusive education. A significant 95.2% of the headteachers called for a clear policy on inclusive education for clarity on the role of stakeholders. A majority of the headteachers, 97.6%, called for

availability of funds. Another 38.4% called for regular monitoring and evaluation of inclusive learning. According to 44.8%, there was need for technology for decision support systems. Furthermore, 89.6% called for financial resources to ensure adequate school infrastructure.

Notably, foregoing results suggest that the headteachers in the study have viable strategies for addressing the challenges they face while implementing inclusive education. The analysis of these findings also reveals that headteachers view their leadership development as important but not sufficient to ensure successful inclusive education implementation. However, the headteachers acknowledge the integral role of effective leadership development in the overall strategy. The import of the suggestions by headteachers is that attention needs to be focused on effective leadership practices that lead to increased student learning and achievement. Leithwood and Louis (2012) while linking leadership to student learning, allude to effective practices that promote student learning. These transformational leadership practices involve setting directions, developing people, refining and aligning the school organization, and improving the instructional programme.

Darling-Hammond et al. (2010) postulate that exemplary programmes produce headteachers with the capacity to engage in effective leadership practices, which promote student achievement. The searchlight, therefore, beams on the type, contents, designs features, and delivery strategies of headteacher leadership development programmes. Moreover, Munk and Dempsey (2010) assert that

effective leadership practices in inclusive contexts maximize access to and success in general education classrooms, curriculum, and culture. They recommend the adoption of distributed leadership or "role release" in order to evolve school-wide and class-wide inclusive practices. Distributed leadership is a critical link to school leadership effectiveness (Hallinger & Heck, 2010; Harris, 2014). This collective leadership, as opposed that of the headteacher alone, provides expanded and sustainable avenues for reshaping the conditions that directly impact teaching and learning (Hallinger & Heck, 2010).

The school complex reform process associated inclusive education requires effective school leadership capacity. Furthermore, Marzano (2003) identifies three principles of school reform namely: (a) reform is a highly contextualized phenomenon, which is "substantively different from school to school" (p.158); (b) is characterized by heavy emphasis on data to determine effective interventions; and (c) ought to be approached on an incremental basis so that the components of reform are spread over time. Consequently, based on the analysis and interpretation of the suggestions made by headteachers and all the other findings, the study has made conclusions and recommendations for action and for further research in chapter five.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1.0 Introduction

This chapter begins with a summary of the major findings in relation to the influence of headteacher leadership development on implementation of inclusive education in primary schools in Kiambu County, Kenya. The next section covers the conclusions, which have been drawn from the study findings. Finally, the study has made recommendations for action at two levels. The first level focuses on bold reform measures needed to restructure headteacher leadership development, while the second level outlines comprehensive recommendations for designing, implementing, and sustaining effective inclusive education. Recommendations for further research have also been made. The summary of findings is covered under several sections:

5.2.1 Initial leadership development

The study established that headteachers in the study did not receive any formal leadership preparation before their appointment to headship. They were appointed on the basis of their teaching experience. They therefore acquired leadership skills on the job; sometimes through trial and error. This confirms the findings by Bush and Oduro (2006) that headteachers in Africa, including Kenya are appointed without formal leadership training with the implicit assumption that good teachers can become effective managers and leaders without specific preparation. Given that the preparation system was lacking implies that headteachers' in-service leadership development was not anchored on a firm

foundation. Providing the case for a more cohesive leadership development system, Peterson (2002) confirms the need develop linkages between in-service and preparation programmes in developing a career staged professional development system.

However, headteachers were exposed to teacher leadership responsibilities, which they found helpful in facilitating inclusive leadership skills. These responsibilities included teacher leadership responsibilities such as, deputy headship and senior teacher positions. Others previously served as class teachers. Still, others served in non-academic capacities such as, games and guidance and counselling teachers. The respondents acknowledged that having served as teacher leaders was critical to their leadership of inclusive education once they became headteachers. This implies that prior teacher leadership roles enhance aspiring headteachers' potential for leadership success. This is consistent with the stance by Young, et al. (2009) that prior leadership experiences prepare teachers to transition successfully into school administrative positions. To positively influence inclusive education, teacher leaders require a professional development system that is aligned with an effective inclusive education framework.

5.2.2 Induction Training

Induction programmes are fundamental in equipping headteachers with the knowledge and skills to perform their job effectively in the initial years of service. However, induction programmes were not mandatory; hence the majority of headteachers had not been formally inducted into their roles. The programmes

were also not systematic and lacked quality standards. These induction programmes were also not part of coherent in-service support system for headteachers aimed developing their capacity to improve learning for all students. Young et al. (2009) observes the initial entry into headship can leads to feelings of inadequacy among novice headteachers, in part, due to poor preparation. Consequently, the above findings, where the majority of the headteachers in the study sample had not received any induction, imply a significant professional socialization gap. In particular, the gap impacts on the complex process of leading the implementation of inclusive education. Consistent with these findings, Bush and Oduro (2006) affirm that inadequate induction leaves beginning headteachers to handle leadership tasks through trial and error, which adversely affects the delivery of educational services.

5.3.0 Types of in-service leadership development

There were no leadership development programmes for headteachers in the study that specifically focused on inclusive education. The most common in-service leadership development programmes included conferences, workshops, seminars, symposiums, and the open and distance learning programme organized by KEMI. While the headteachers deemed the programmes helpful in facilitating inclusive education leadership, their contents were not specific to inclusive education. This implies that, based on their contents, they were inadequate in equipping headteachers with the knowledge, skills, and dispositions required to lead complex school reform processes involved in the implementation of inclusive

education. Besides, the design features and delivery strategies revealed structural and systemic weaknesses.

The short in-service programmes were not part of an ongoing and systematic professional leadership programme and infrastructure. They were organized on an ad hoc basis. These findings are consistent with the weaknesses of leadership development programmes cited by Darling-Hammond et al. (2010). In terms of nature and impact, the programmes resonate with what Speck and Knipe (2010) reference as awareness raising workshops and conferences whose impact on practice is less than 5%. Conversely, job-embedded leadership development programmes like mentoring and coaching, which were lacking in the study schools, have an impact 85%-90% on practice. Consequently, a paradigm shift to more job-embedded programmes is imperative for sustainable implementation of inclusive education.

Some of headteachers reported pursuing degree and diploma programmes offered by institutions of higher learning, as part of their personal initiatives to acquire leadership development. Regarding these personal initiatives, an important observation from the findings was that even though the headteachers in the study sample may have found them useful in the implementation of inclusive education, the programmes did not have sufficient inclusive education leadership focus. These development initiatives should be harnessed to promote headteachers' personal career growth while aligning them with school leadership needs, including inclusive education implementation.

Headteachers indicated belonging peer support networks. The nature of peer initiatives was mainly interschool visitations where they learnt from each other's experiences and challenges. Headteachers were also members of local, regional and national headteachers' associations. These peer initiatives involved attending mainly workshops and conferences. The peer initiatives were not systematic and ongoing. They were also not aligned to school or district improvement plans. These findings imply that peer networks were not part of a cohesive leadership development system aligned with specific leadership standards. They were not well structured to effectively address school improvement plans and the district inclusive education mission. Conversely, Darling-Hammond et al. (2010) observe that exemplary programmes evolve more productive headteachers' peer initiatives that evolve into leadership learning communities.

The KEMI open and distance diploma course was described by headteachers as the most helpful. The programme was delivered through open and distance learning for the duration of one year. The design and delivery strategy offered flexibility by providing the opportunity to learn and attend to the many demands of their job. It also saved them the cost of travelling frequently to access classes. The course was designed to equip headteachers with management and leadership skills to implement policies, procedures and reforms in the education sector. The programme utilized course modules with specific objectives. Learning for each module was structured to promote job-embedded learning and problem solving. This is consistent with the findings by Darling-Hammond et al., (2010) that effective programmes utilize problem-based learning strategies, such as case

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methods, action research, and projects, which link theory and practice and support reflection. The use of cohorts of headteachers was yet another innovation that enabled headteachers to collaborate during and even after the completion of the programmes. Davis et al. (2005) affirms that cohort models provide for collaboration, teamwork, and mutual support among participants.

However, this study identified certain gaps with regard to the contents, design and delivery strategies of the KEMI programme in relation to the development of inclusive leadership. The main gap was the fact that the programme was not specific to inclusive education. Inclusive education was covered under a broader topic on emerging and cross cutting issues in education. The programme was not career-staged and seemed to apply the concept of "one-size fits all" since all headteachers were admitted into the programme regardless of their length of service. The programme does not utilize mentoring and coaching which implies weak job-embedded component. According to majority of headteachers the one-year timeline was insufficient to achieve the course objectives. The course delivery mode was mainly the lecture method during the face-to-face sessions. The respondents reported that the programme was characterized by inadequate of utilization of instructional technology.

5.4.0 Leadership development programmes' contents

The majority of the headteachers in the study had not covered very pertinent content on inclusive education leadership and implementation. The portrait of the existing programmes suggests that the leadership development contents were

more geared towards general education management and whereas headteachers deemed it was helpful, it did not directly relate to inclusive education leadership, implementation and sustainability. Service providers determined the leadership development contents without a structured framework for information gathering from headteachers to enrich programme content. The contents were not tailored to the specific context of the study schools but mostly designed for a wider audience. The contents were also not based on leadership standards that determined the knowledge, skills and dispositions needed by headteachers to effectively implement inclusive education. Besides, there was no research available on the efficacy of the contents, which made the existing leadership development not evidence-based. The contents lacked sufficient differentiation based career stages hence ignoring a critical aspect of adult learning.

The leadership development programmes lacked follow up to determine the effectiveness of contents covered on the implementation of inclusive education. The existing scenario mirrors the weaknesses of leadership development programmes suggested by Darling-Hammond et al. (2010). They also point to significant gaps in the contents of headteacher programmes that need to be addressed. It is also instructive that the majority of headteachers in the study (78.4%) indicated that a lack of focused leadership development was a major challenge facing inclusive education implementation.

5.5.0 Leadership development programmes' design features

In terms of design features, the leadership development programmes did not have a curriculum that was coherently organized to address inclusive education. In contrast, Peterson (2002) affirms that within and across programmes, curricula should comprise of an integrated, carefully planned set of topics, skills, and conceptualizations derived from comprehensive and well-sequenced learning objectives. The programmes did not involve problem-based learning, which Davis et al. (2005) acknowledge is critical in promoting the integration of theory and practice while improving the participants' problem-solving capacity.

The leadership development programmes for headteachers were not designed for systematic and ongoing implementation, which indicates a weak capacity to leverage career-staged leadership learning. According to Young, et al. (2009), effective development of school leaders is long-term, planned, and job-embedded. On the contrary, the programmes for headteachers in the study were not effectively planned to provide for job–embedded learning opportunities. Furthermore, they did not involve expert mentoring and coaching support. With regard to mentoring, Davis et al. (2005) affirm that it bridges the gap between the learner's independent problem-solving performance and potential developmental level achieved with expert guidance. Further, coaching is more effective when training is comprehensive and specific (Bush, Glover, & Harris, 2007).

Some of the programmes involved formative and summative assessment. These were degree programmes and diploma courses. While the respondents indicated

that the programmes were helpful in building their leadership capacity, they were not specific to inclusive education. The majority of the leadership development programmes did not involve any follow up on evolving leadership knowledge, skills and dispositions. This implies a lack of structured framework to assess the effectiveness of the programmes in meeting headteachers' leadership needs. The programmes were not designed to involve the headteacher and a team of teachers in the school. Conversely, observe that headteachers attending exemplary programmes participated more frequently in development activities with teachers from their schools; a practice is pivotal to instructional reform (Darling-Hammond et al., 2010).

Again, the programmes were not aligned to specific leadership standards. Darling-Hammond et al. (2010) asserts that exemplary programmes use professional standards to improve their programmes. Peterson (2002) asserts that the design of professional development is complex and requires thoughtful planning to enhance quality and effectiveness. However, the above findings suggest significant gaps in the design features and delivery strategies of the existing headteacher leadership development programmes. These gaps are consistent with research-based criticisms levelled against the design features and delivery strategies of leadership development programmes for headteachers, including being fragmented, incoherent, not sustained, lacking in rigor and not aligned with leadership standards (Darling-Hammond et al., 2010; Davis et al., 2005; Peters, 2002; Young et al. 2009). Conversely, exemplary programmes are evidence-based; have coherent standard-based curriculum; emphasize on

instructional leadership and school improvement; effectively integrate theory and practice through problem based learning, action research and field-based projects; provide experience in authentic contexts; use cohort model and mentors (Bush, 2009; Davis, et al. 2005; Darling-Hammond et al. 2010). Furthermore, professional development of school leaders is long-term, planned and job-embedded (Young, et al., 2009). According to Davis, et al. (2005), effective school leaders influence student achievement through two important pathways: the support and development of effective teachers and the implementation of effective organizational processes. It is therefore imperative that headteacher leadership development be designed and delivered to promote effective leadership practices.

5.5.1 Evaluation of leadership development practices

There was no structured framework for regular evaluation of the leadership development programmes, including contents, design features and delivery strategies for the by headteachers. The majority of the development activities did not provide opportunities for headteachers to evaluate the quality, relevance, presenters, materials, learning environments, and duration, among other crucial service delivery indicators. In the absence of a formal process to evaluate the effectiveness of the programmes, it seemed that any form of evaluation was left at the sole discretion of the service providers. The headteachers were not adequately involved in identifying their leadership development needs and in shaping their learning experiences. This implies there was no evidence-based mechanism to match leadership development activities to headteachers'

leadership needs. There were no established systems for information sharing between the leadership programmes' service providers and the schools, the districts or the county to provide feedback on the impact of leadership development on the implementation and sustainability of inclusive education.

Guskey (2000) provides the clear rationale for professional development evaluation as the basis for providing sufficiently reliable information for making thoughtful and responsible decisions regarding professional development processes and their impact. In contrast, the existing situation in the study schools suggests wide systemic, policy, and practice gaps in relation to headteachers' leadership development evaluation that needs to be addressed. Moreover, the lack of evaluation framework implies ineffective feedback mechanism that could provide for more impactful leadership development on implementation of inclusive education.

5.6.0 Effectiveness of headteacher leadership development on implementation of inclusive education

Based on leadership development received, only 12% of headteachers in the study perceived themselves to be competent enough to lead inclusive learning practices while the majority (88%) did not. Those who deemed themselves competent cited their special education background. This appears to suggest that those who feel competent to lead inclusive education based their perceptions inclusive education from the perspective of special education. On the other hand, only a small proportion (6%) of the headteachers indicated that the leadership

development they received was adequate to facilitate effective implementation of inclusive education. The majority (94%) rated the leadership development either as effective to some extent (30%) or not effective (64%). These perceptions are consistent with other findings regarding the nature of their leadership development. The findings of the study indicate the development programmes were not specific to inclusive education. The programmes were also not aligned to specific standards. Besides, they were not aligned to school, district, and county inclusive education vision, mission, and philosophy.

Headteachers cited several reasons for the way they rated the effectiveness of leadership development in facilitating implementation of inclusive education. The reasons cited included: the programmes' contents being not tailored specifically towards inclusive education but general school management. The most common leadership development programmes were standalone workshop type courses, which have an evidence-based impact of less than 5% on practice. The more effective job-embedded approaches such as, coaching and mentoring with an evidence-based impact of 85-90% (Guskey, 2000; Lindstrom & Speck, 2004; Speck & Knipe, 2005; Zependa, 2008) on practice were not available.

Most of them especially the short courses were organized on an ad hoc basis. Also, inclusive education was treated as one of the emerging or cross-cutting issues in education hence minimal time was allocated in the modular based programme for primary school headteachers organized by KEMI. Most leadership development activities took place away from schools hence

headteachers did not have opportunities to utilize their school data and their own unique circumstances during their leadership development. Evidence from effective programmes suggest that professional development is a deliberate process driven by a well-defined vision and planned goals that determine its content, process and procedures (Guskey, 2000). Furthermore, Zapeda (2008) affirms that effective professional development is job-embedded, aligned to reform initiatives and based on a collaborative approach to learning. However, as reported by headteachers in the study, these principles seemed to be lacking in their leadership development.

Notably, some of the headteachers in the study had implemented inclusive education programmes in their schools. These initiatives should be acknowledged and supported. However, all the programmes reflect what Marzano, et al. (2005) refer as first-order changes or surface changes. The low percentage of headteachers reporting having initiated inclusive programmes in their schools implies that even surface changes themselves were limited. On the other hand, headteachers in the study did not reference engaging in changes, which Marzano et al. (2005) define as second-order or deep changes that involve a paradigm shift in ways of thinking and acting.

5.6.1 Inclusive education leadership development policy

The Basic Education Act (Republic of Kenya, 2013) and Teachers Service Commission Act (Republic of Kenya, 2012) mandate the professional development for headteachers. However, this professional development mandate

is neither specific to inclusive education nor does it specify how professional development in this area should be conducted. There were no specific requirements on the minimum number of professional development hours that headteachers were expected accumulate in a given period of time. There was no policy on authorized sources of leadership development and threshold to be met for a service provider to be licensed. As a result, headteachers received professional development from varied sources with significant differences on their nature and focus. The headteachers faced no sanctions for failure to acquire professional development. The county had no leadership institutions to provide professional development to its headteachers.

The county and the districts did not have a specific department or unit charged with coordinating and harmonizing the leadership development of headteachers. A policy regarding the qualities, proficiencies and leadership skills that headteachers were expected to attain was not in place. In addition, a lack of policy on evidence-based models for the delivery of inclusive education services such as Response to Intervention (RTI) and Universal Design for Learning (UDL) suggests a weak system upon which leadership development and inclusive education leadership implementation had been anchored.

5.7.0 Inclusive practices in the study schools

The study investigated inclusive practices to determine if they adequately met the diverse needs of all students. The findings are summarized under several themes:

Inclusive education service delivery model: The study schools fell into three categories, namely regular schools, regular schools with special units and special schools. Each school enrolled students with a wide range of diverse needs, including those with mild and severe disabilities. In the three categories of schools, no specific service delivery model was utilized to provide a clear framework for inclusive education implementation. The schools did not anchor the implementation process on any particular evidence-based models of service delivery like the Universal Design for Learning (UDL) and Response to Intervention (RTI). There were no collaborative frameworks between the special education and regular education teachers to promote team teaching, design accommodations, modifications and adaptations to the curriculum. The current framework did not provide for related services, such as speech and language pathology, occupational therapy, physical therapy, and communication.

Assessment and placement services: There was no clear system of identification and assessment of students with disabilities for placement in inclusive settings. The students were either referred for assessment by schools or directly by parents. Assessments were done at the assessment centres (EARCs) in the districts. At the assessment centres, referral or placement decisions were made. Most of the students with disabilities were not placed in age-appropriate regular education classroom. Besides, there seemed to be no clear inclusive approach to special education service delivery since students with disabilities were mostly placed in special unit classes.

Educational services and supports: While it was evident that many students, particularly those with disabilities, required extensive supports and services across many areas of the curriculum, such services were either inadequate or altogether lacking at the school level. Multi-disciplinary teams such as, speech and language pathologists, communication experts, physical therapists, audiologists, and school psychologists were not available to address students' needs. There were also insufficient instructional supports such augmentative and alternative communication (AAC) devices and other forms of assistive technology (AT).

Educational settings and groupings: The perception among study participants was that the schools were inclusive despite placing students with disabilities in the special unit, which is a more restrictive environment. Beliefs and stereotypes seemed to play a major role in placement decisions and delivery of educational services for students with disabilities. The special units operated a cross-categorical modality to special education delivery in which students were mixed together and provided with services based on individual needs rather than their identified disabilities.

Assistive and instructional technology: There was limited range utilization of low technology in the classrooms. High technology was significantly inadequate. The limited range of high tech assistive technology included, computers, voice output devices, motorized wheel chairs, digitized communication cards, and educational software to support learners with disabilities. The schools were

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grossly deficient in terms of integration of technology with the curriculum. Most school staff lacked the technical capacity to promote technology integration.

Individualized education programmes (IEPs): The Basic Education Act (Republic of Kenya, 2013) does not explicitly mandate that an IEP be delivered to every learner with a disability to guide delivery of special education and related services. As a result, there was no framework for the development of IEPs. Besides, parents, despite being key stakeholders, were not actively involved in the development and implementation of IEPs. There were no formal IEP meeting to discuss the appropriate education for the student and the supports and related services needed to achievement the IEP goals. There also were no policy guidelines on accountability for each IEP developed. There were no records of the accommodations for students' special conditions, which affected their educational performance. The teachers reported that no IEP meetings were held to review students' progress.

5.8.0 Challenges facing inclusive education implementation

A myriad of challenges affected the implementation of inclusive education in the study schools. The majority of the headteachers indicated that they lacked sufficient knowledge and skills to implement inclusion. In most of schools, an inclusive vision, mission, or philosophy did not guide provision of education. The pursuit of academic goals was emphasized at the expense of value for diversity. Besides, most headteachers were not enthusiastic about inclusion,

especially of students with developmental and intellectual disabilities. They feared doing this would negatively influence their schools' academic outcomes.

A cohesive professional support services system was lacking to facilitate effective implementation of inclusive education. Within the educational system, schools lacked critical support services staff such as, support teachers, special subjects' teachers, physical therapists, school psychologists, speech and language pathologists, social workers, case managers, and communication specialists. There was a lack of cohesive accountability systems in the county, the districts, and the schools to facilitate consistent implementation of inclusive education. Different line ministries implemented many policies addressing inclusive education. This led to disparate responses, which made the multi-pronged approaches not to achieve the targeted impact on inclusive education implementation. Also, no service delivery indicators, or models were utilized to determine inclusive policies, cultures, and practices.

The challenge of implementing inclusive education seems to have been compounded by the fact that leadership development for headteachers was not specific to inclusive education. Also, there was no clear policy on authorized sources of leadership development or the competencies that headteachers were expected to attain. Consequently, headteachers received training from diverse sources with significant variations on their focus. Moreover, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology field officers did not regularly visit schools

to provide support for inclusive learning due inadequate staffing, transport, among other challenges.

5.9.0 Conclusions

This research investigated the influence of headteacher leadership development on implementation of inclusive education. The study focused on the types of leadership development programmes for headteachers, the adequacy of the programmes' contents, and the effectiveness of their design features in relation to inclusive education. The study also examined the effectiveness of the programmes in facilitating inclusive education implementation. Finally, the research investigated policy and institutional challenges in the implementation process. Based on the research findings, several conclusions have been made:

5.9.1 Leadership development programmes and infrastructure

Majority of the leadership development programmes available to headteachers were standalone conferences, workshops, and seminars. Empirical evidence reveals that these types of programmes have less than 5% impact on practice. On the other hand, the more job-embedded leadership learning opportunities such as, mentoring and coaching that have 85-90% impact on practice (Guskey, 2000; Lindstrom & Speck, 2004; Speck & Knipe, 2010) were unavailable to headteachers. Therefore, the study concludes that headteachers in the study lacked comprehensive and well-integrated leadership development programmes and systems to bolster inclusive education implementation.

From the study findings, the leadership development programmes for headteachers were not based on specific leadership standards. Therefore, the programmes lacked an adequate framework to determine the competencies required by headteachers to provide effective leadership in the implementation of the complex school reform processes associated with inclusive education.

The KEMI modular-based programme was deemed the most helpful in facilitating inclusive education by the headteachers. Therefore, the study concludes that there is need to build upon the innovative practices of the programme such as, the use of the cohort model, problem-based learning, case studies, and projects in order to enhance headteachers' leadership skills. Additionally, this research identified specific gaps, which are limited inclusive schooling focus, non-alignment to leadership standards, lack of mentoring and coaching, and insufficient focus on career stages. These gaps should be addressed in order enhance the effectiveness of the modular-based programme.

In addition, some headteachers in the study were enrolled in diploma and degree programmes, including masters' degrees, as part of their own personal initiatives to enhance leadership capacity. Thus, the study concludes that this trend should not only be encouraged but should be structured to ensure these initiatives adequately meet the headteachers' personal and professional growth needs while being aligned to the inclusive education priorities of the schools in the county.

5.9.2 Leadership development contents

The study established that the majority of headteachers had not covered content areas critical to inclusive education implementation. Furthermore, the contents of the leadership development programmes were not specific to inclusive education. The study therefore concludes that the contents of the existing programmes were inadequate in meeting the inclusive leadership needs of headteachers. Besides, the leadership programmes' contents were not aligned to specific leadership standards and did not sufficiently focus on school, district, or county inclusive education goals. There was also a lack of differentiation of contents by career stages, meaning that the "one size fits all" approach was applied. Therefore, the study concludes that these limitations adversely affected the capacity of the programmes to adequately meet the leadership needs of headteachers for effective implementation of inclusive education.

5.9.3 Leadership development programmes' design features

Headteacher leadership development was not anchored in formal pre-service preparation in school leadership. On the other hand, the in-service leadership programmes were neither ongoing nor career staged. The majority of these programmes, especially the workshop-type courses were not only standalone but were also organized on an ad hoc basis. Therefore, the study concludes that the leadership programmes were not designed to provide a career-long pathway to headteachers' leadership growth that was aligned with inclusive learning and leadership development goals of the schools, districts, and the county.

Whereas the headteachers in the study belonged to local, regional, and national headteachers' associations, these peer support networks had not yet evolved into professional learning communities. The networks were not driven by specific leadership development and inclusive learning goals. Thus, it is concluded that the existing peer support networks lacked adequate capacity to promote effective professional learning opportunities, including peer mentoring and coaching.

5.9.4 Effectiveness of the existing leadership development programmes

There were multiple weaknesses in the existing leadership development programmes. For instance, the programmes were not ongoing and career staged. Also, they were not standard-based while their contents were inadequate. Moreover, the majority of the headteachers (88%) did not feel competent to lead inclusive education implementation. Therefore, based on multiple triangulated sources within and across schools, the study concludes that the multiple weaknesses in the leadership development programmes and systems significantly undermined the pace and quality of inclusive education implementation.

Related to service delivery, the Ministry's field officers at the county and district levels, focused primarily on administrative and compliance duties than providing headteachers with the support needed to improve inclusive learning. Consequently, the study concludes that the lack of more focused leadership development support for headteachers in the study schools constituted a major barrier to effective implementation and sustainability of inclusive education.

5.9.5 Policy and institutional challenges facing implementation of inclusive education

Multiple policy and institutional challenges facing implementation of inclusive education were identified. In addition, the findings suggest a possible link between these challenges and the deficiencies in the existing leadership development infrastructure. Thus, the study concludes that absence of a coherent leadership development system was a major bottleneck in enhancing headteachers' capacity to provide the transformational leadership needed to sustainably implement inclusive learning.

The study also established that the existing policy framework was weak. The conclusion drawn is that the weak policy framework undermines the evolvement of a robust leadership infrastructure with the capacity to positively influence implementation of inclusive education. Moreover, this weak policy environment contributed to insufficient funding for headteachers' leadership development.

5.10.0 Recommendations

A coordinated and multipronged action plan is needed to reframe leadership development programmes and systems in order to enhance headteachers' capacity to facilitate effective inclusive learning. When implemented, the plan should stimulate requisite policy reforms, system alignments, and funding strategies that will ensure effective implementation and sustainability of inclusive education. Consequently, recommendations have been made at two levels. The

first level addresses headteacher leadership development; the second aims at designing and sustainably implementing inclusive education.

5.10.1 Restructuring headteacher leadership development

Based on the findings, the following are mutually influential and interdependent recommendations aimed at promoting the transformation of headteacher leadership development in order to facilitate effective implementation of inclusive education:

1. In order to reframe headteacher leadership development, the Teachers Service Commission and the Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology should collaboratively develop leadership standards to serve as indicators of the knowledge, skills, and dispositions that headteachers need to provide effective leadership. The leadership standards will provide the impetus for radical transformation of the leadership programmes' contents, designs, and delivery strategies leading to greater programme quality and effectiveness.

2. The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology should develop formal preparation programmes for aspiring headteachers. This strategy will ensure a pipeline of potential headteachers with the requisite leadership knowledge, skills, and dispositions. To be effective, the programmes should employ a research-based curriculum that is aligned with leadership standards and coherently organized around headteachers' core responsibilities. The programmes should incorporate internships, mentoring, and coaching.

3. The districts in the county should organize high quality induction programmes for headteachers with effective job-embedded support structures, such as mentorship programmes with trained mentors and district support teams, expert coaching, and performance evaluation. These will ensure effective professional socialization of novice headteachers during their formative years. The induction programme should extend at least two years to provide a strong in-service foundation for leadership growth that positively impacts inclusive learning.

4. The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology should design a policy to spur collaborative frameworks between the county, districts, and training institutions. This will facilitate effective, consistent, and coherent implementation of leadership preparation and development programmes. This mutually beneficial collaboration will drive improvements in programmes' quality and ensure access to expanded resources in the areas of research, training, and funding.

5. The County Education Board should develop a leadership development master plan and establish leadership development committees at the district level to create the requisite infrastructure for a consistent source of leadership development opportunities for headteachers, which effectively facilitates the implementation and sustainability of inclusive education in all schools.

6. The county, through the devolved governance structure, should establish policies that promote effective programme designs through certification, licensure, and programme accreditation in order to improve the leadership development of headteachers. This will foster structured engagement with headteacher preparation and development service providers that will improve the quality of services and their impact on headteachers' leadership competencies.

7. The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, through the District Education Boards, should design and utilize evidence-based headteacher evaluation instruments to identify the gaps in knowledge, skills, and dispositions for purposes of designing leadership development programmes that systematically and comprehensively address those gaps. To achieve greater effectiveness, the boards should provide for mentoring and coaching of headteachers to address areas in need of improvement. Furthermore, headteacher evaluation data is essential in informing leadership development programme improvements.

8. The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology should provide adequate budgetary resources to facilitate the development of a cohesive leadership development infrastructure that provides for more coordinated efforts among all critical players in the educational leadership system. This will ensure sustained and long-term improvements in headteacher leadership quality and a positive impact on inclusive education implementation and sustainability.

9. The Kenya Education Management Institute (KEMI) should be transformed into a leadership institute and its mandate expanded to offer undergraduate and graduate programmes in educational leadership and management. The programmes' contents, design features, and delivery strategies should be reviewed to match the best practices in the field in meeting the needs of trainees and their organizations. The institute should also open a fully-fledged campus in every county in Kenya.

5.10.2 Designing, implementing, and sustaining effective inclusive education

In view of the foregoing recommendations regarding the leadership development of headteachers, this research underscores the need for a comprehensive framework to support sustainable implementation of inclusive education. To this end, the following recommendations have been made:

1. The Ministry of Education, Science and Technology should develop a master plan for standard-based school reforms premised on clear inclusive education vision and philosophy, policies, structures, and practices. The plan should be anchored on a cohesive leadership system at all levels of the education system, including at the county, districts, and school level to support sustainable implementation of inclusive education.

2. The County Education Board should establish an inclusive education coordinating committee. The committee should be mandated to develop structures and systems for sustainable implementation of inclusive education. Through a stakeholder partnership, the committee should work to identify and eliminate policy, structural, and systemic barriers. Simultaneously, it should promote policies and practices that support inclusive education. This committee should bolster internal accountability and affirm the value for diversity within the education system in order to entrench inclusive reforms.

3. The County Education Board should promote the integration of effective inclusive education service delivery models. Universal Design for Learning (UDL) and Response to Intervention (RTI) provide a clear framework in ensuring inclusive learning adequately addresses the needs of all students. Effective service delivery models will help determine the resources needed for inclusive education to be effectively implemented and provide a framework for optimal use of those resources; human or material.

4. In order to develop a robust infrastructure for inclusive education implementation in a devolved governance structure, the County Education Board should redefine the role of the districts in leadership development and provision of individualized support to headteachers. To enhance the district's education governance structure and capacity to provide support

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to headteachers for sustainable implementation of inclusive learning, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology should pursue a legislative agenda that makes districts central to educational development in the county.

5. The County Education Board should harmonize and broaden inter agency collaboration and cooperation. The overarching principle of the initiative is to ensure greater cooperation and coordination in service delivery, support, and funding critical to sustainable implementation of inclusive education. The multi-agency harmonization process will provide the impetus for addressing systemic policy and programme implementation challenges within and across the layers of the public primary education system in the county.

6. In order to fast track the implementation of inclusive education, the County Education Board should develop countywide indicators of inclusive education and require school committees to utilize them in designing and implementing school improvement plans. It should also be mandatory for school improvement plans to provide for clear timelines and benchmarks.

7. The county and districts quality assurance and standards departments and the audit units should be redesigned by the Ministry of Education Science and Technology to bolster their capacity to effectively monitor and

evaluate inclusive education implementation in the county, including headteachers' performance in the implementation process. The resource allocation to these departments should also be reviewed to provide for greater effectiveness.

8. The county should establish at least five model inclusive schools in each district. To this end, a well-resourced programme budgeted within each district's five-year development plan. As centres of excellence, the schools will nurture, inspire, and support sustainable inclusive education implementation. These schools' innovative programmes and practices when replicated in other schools will be a key driver to successful inclusive learning.

9. In order to ensure efficient and effective implementation of inclusive education, it is imperative that headteachers be put on performance contracts and be comprehensively evaluated once every year using evidence-based tools. Those headteachers who meet the set performance threshold should be given incentives to sustain progress. Conversely, the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and the Teachers Service Commission should also expeditiously take action on non-performing headteachers in order to reduce the turnaround gap between performing and underperforming schools.

5.11.0 Recommendations for further research

1. A study should be conducted to investigate the influence of the administrative context of public primary schools on inclusive education implementation and sustainability.

2. A similar study should be conducted within and across other counties in Kenya to provide comparative research-based information on the influence of headteacher leadership development on inclusive education implementation.

3. A research should be done to evaluate the cohesiveness of the leadership development system within and across different levels of the education system in Kenya and the influence on inclusive education implementation at the primary school level.

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APPENDIX A: PARTICIPANTS' LETTER OF CONSENT
Information to be presented, and consent to be obtained from the participants
prior to commencement of the questionnaire or interview

University of Nairobi
College of Education and External Studies
Department of Educational Administration and Planning
P. O. Box 92-00902, KIKUYU

Date: _____

Contact person: JOHN MAINA
Telephone: +254726450134/+17813086092

Dear Participant:

You are being asked to participate in a research study on influence of headteacher leadership development on implementation of inclusive education in public primary schools in Kiambu County, Kenya. You will be provided with the necessary information, which will assist you to understand the study and to explain what will be expected of you. The risks, benefits, and the rights of the participants will be explained to you. Please feel free to ask me, the researcher, any question(s) regarding anything that is not clear to you. You have the right to question anything regarding the study any time.

Participation in this research is completely voluntary. The participant is not obliged to take part in it. If s/he partakes, s/he has the right to withdraw from the study at any given time, during the course of the study, without penalty or loss of benefits. Should the participant withdraw from the study, s/he is kindly asked to return for a final discussion in order that we determine the research was conducted in an orderly and professional manner.

Although the participants' identity will remain confidential at all times the results of the research study may be presented at scientific conferences or in specific publications.

This informed consent statement has been prepared in compliance with current statutory guidelines specified by the New Constitution of Kenya (2010).

I will participate
Date: _____
Signature: _____

School code: _____

I decline to participate
Date: _____
Signature: _____
School code: _____

APPENDIX B: HEADTEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is being administered as part of a research focusing on the influence of headteacher leadership development on implementation of inclusive education in public primary schools. By filling in this questionnaire, you will greatly contribute to the achievement of the study's objectives. Please be assured that your identity as a participant in this study will be strictly held in confidence.

> *Inclusive Education:* Inclusive education is a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all learners through increasing participation in learning, cultures, and communities, and reducing exclusion within and from education

[INSTRUCTIONS: Please tick [√] or fill in information as appropriate]

Background information

1. Indicate [√] the type of school that you head:

    Boys Boarding ❑ Mixed Day ❑ Mixed Boarding ❑ Girls Boarding ❑ Girls Day ❑

2. What is your school's current pupil enrolment?

    Male_____ Female_____ Total _____

3. What is the current number of teachers in your school?

    Male_____ Female_____ Total _____

Personal data

4. (a) Indicate [√] your age bracket: 20-29 ❑ 30-39 ❑ 40-49 ❑ 50 and above ❑

    (b) Indicate [√] your gender: Female ❑   Male ❑

5. (a) What is your highest academic qualification?

    M.A. ❑   BA ❑   B.Sc. ❑   B.Ed. ❑   Diploma ❑   Other (specify) _____

    (b) What is current level of your professional qualification?

    M.Ed. ❑   B.Ed. ❑   ATS ❑   S1 ❑   P1 ❑   Other (specify) _____

Section A: Initial leadership development prior to becoming a headteacher

6. (a) How long have you served as a headteacher? _____ Years

(b) How long have you been a headteacher in the current station? _____ Years

7. (a) What responsibilities have you held prior your appointment as a

headteacher that were useful in developing your leadership skills in

inclusive education?

Class teacher ❑ Subject teacher ❑ Deputy Headteacher ❑ Other _____

(b) Please explain how any responsibility you have identified above developed

your inclusive education leadership skills: _____

_____

_____

8. (a) Was there any aspiring headteachers' programme that prepared you before

you assumed your headteacher's job? Yes ❑   No ❑

(b) Reflecting on your current job roles and responsibilities give reason(s) why

such a programme is beneficial to aspiring headteachers. _____

_____

_____

9. (a) Did you go through any induction upon your appointment as a

headteacher?   Yes ❑   No ❑

(b) If yes, explain how the induction process prepared you for inclusive education

leadership_____

_____

_____

Section B: In-service leadership development

10. (a) Tick [√] the types of leadership development programmes attended in the

last three years that you deemed beneficial in enhancing your inclusive

education leadership skills:

❑ Symposium

❑ Workshop

❑ Seminar

❑ Conference

❑ Modular based programme e.g. organized by Kenya Education

Management Institute (KEMI), etc.

❑ Coaching or mentoring programme

❑ Peer support initiative e.g. organized by the local, district headteachers'

association, etc.

❑ Personal initiative e.g. enrolled in a degree, diploma programme, etc.

❑ Others (Specify) _____

_____

(b) For each type identified in item 10 (a) above, please fill the table below for specific leadership development courses attended in the last three years.

Year	Type	Organizers	Venue	Duration	Content	Follow-up
E.g. 2009	*Conference*	*KEMI*	*Wida Motel, Kikuyu*	*1 day*	*Budgeting*	*Yes*

11. Indicate [√] the leadership development course content areas you have so far

   covered.

Topic in leadership	Content covered	
	Yes	No
a) The legal framework for inclusive education		
b) Policy provisions for inclusive education		
c) Behaviour management in inclusive contexts		
d) Quality assurance for inclusive education		
e) Instructional leadership for inclusive education		
f) Professional development for teachers on inclusive practices		
g) Use of technology in curriculum and instruction		
h) School improvement planning		
i) Procurement of materials for inclusive education		
j) Parent collaboration in inclusive settings		
k) Collaboration between special education and regular education teachers		
l) Infrastructure design and development for inclusive education		
m) Community and resource mobilization for inclusive education		
n) Data-based decision making for instructional improvement		
o) Implementing school reforms for inclusive education		
p) Effective models of inclusive education implementation e.g. Response to Intervention (RTI), Universal Design for Learning (UDL)		
q) Use of evidence-based practices to improve inclusive education		

12. Use a tick [√] to indicate the nature of leadership programmes on inclusive education leadership that you have attended:

The programmes' …..	SA	A	U	D	S D
i) Contents were sequentially organized and aligned to specific leadership standards.					
j) Involved problem-based projects related to a headteacher's job.					
k) Involved practical activities related to inclusive education leadership roles.					
l) Have been systematic and ongoing.					
m) Involved expert coaching and mentoring support.					
n) Involved formative and summative assessment.					
o) Involved follow up on evolving leadership knowledge, skills and dispositions.					
p) Were school based (job embedded) with the purpose of improving instruction.					
q) Usually involved the headteacher and a team of teachers in the school.					

Key. SA=Strongly Agree; A=Agree; U=Undecided; D=Disagree; SD=Strongly Disagree.

13. (a) Please tick [√] the categories of special needs as well as other marginalized or vulnerable learners represented in your school and the number of pupils in each category:

Special Need	No. of pupils	Special Need	No. of pupils
Hearing impairment		Speech and language disorder	
Visual impairments		Albinism	
Cerebral Palsy		Gifted and Talented	
Epilepsy		Deaf Blind	
Physical impairment		Multiple handicap	
Mental handicap		Orphaned	
Down's syndrome		Abused	
Autism		Living in the streets	
Emotional /behavioural disorder		Heading household	
Learning disabilities		Internally displaced	

(b) What are the other student characteristics or backgrounds that affect

education in your school? _____

_____

_____

Section C: Influence of headteachers' leadership development on

implementation of inclusive education

14. (a) Based on your leadership development, do you feel competent enough to

lead inclusive practices in your school? Yes ❏   No ❏

(b) Mention the inclusive education programmes you have implemented:

_____

_____

15. (a) Rate the influence of the leadership development you have received in

facilitating implementation of inclusive education in your school?

Highly effective ❏ Effective ❏ Somewhat Effective ❏ Not effective

b) Give reasons for your answer to item 13 (a) above_____

_____

_____

16. What specific support do you receive from the District Quality Assurance

officers to enhance your inclusive education leadership capacity?

_____

_____

17. What specific support do you receive from the Education Advisory and

Resource Centres to enhance your inclusive education leadership capacity?

_____

_____

_____

Section D: Challenges and leadership development needs of headteachers

18. What are the most challenging aspects of school leadership that you experience related to implementation of inclusive education? _____

_____

_____

_____

19. What barriers have you faced in accessing leadership development in inclusive education? _____

_____

_____

20. What suggestions would you give to improve leadership development for successful inclusive education implementation? _____

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX C: CLASS TEACHERS' QUESTIONNAIRE

This questionnaire is being administered as part of a broader research focusing on the influence of headteacher leadership development on implementation of inclusive education in public primary schools. By filling in this questionnaire, you will greatly contribute to the achievement of the study's objectives. Please be assured that your identity as a participant in this study will be strictly held in confidence.

> *Inclusive Education:* Inclusive education is a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all learners through increasing participation in learning, cultures, and communities, and reducing exclusion within and from education

[INSTRUCTIONS: Please tick [√] or fill in information as appropriate]

Section A: Background information

1. Please indicate your;

   a) Age bracket (in years): 20-29 ❑   30-39 ❑   40-49 ❑ 50 and above ❑

   b) Gender: Female ❑   Male ❑

   c) Class: Standard _____ Number of pupils in your class? _____Pupils

       d) Highest professional qualification: P1, 2 ❑   S1, 2 ❑ ATS ❑ B.

   Ed. ❑ M.Ed. ❑   Other ❑ (Specify) _____

e) Highest Academic qualification: Certificate ❑   Diploma ❑   B.Sc. ❑ M.A

❑   Other   ❑ (Specify) _____

Section B: Students' characteristics

2. Please tick **[√]** the categories of special needs as well as other vulnerable

   learners represented in your class and the number of students in each

   category:

Special need	No. of pupils	Special need	No. of pupils
Hearing impairment		Multiple handicap	
Visual impairments		Albinism	
Cerebral Palsy		Deaf Blind	
Epilepsy		Gifted and Talented	
Physical impairment		Speech and language disorder	
Mental handicap		Abused	
Down's syndrome		Living in the streets	
Autism		Heading household	
Emotional /behavioural disorder		Internally displaced	
Learning disabilities		Orphaned	

   ❑ Others (Specify) _____

Section C: Inclusive education practices

3. How do you address the different academic needs of the students in your

   class?

   ❑ Providing modified curricular goals e.g. adjusting instructional pacing,

      similar content with more examples

   ❑ Providing alternate ways for students to demonstrate learning

   ❑ Providing test modification e.g. reducing the length of an exam,

      changing the format between essays, multiple choice, etc.

   ❑ Providing assistive technology (❑ Low /❑ advanced technology)

❑ Providing instruction on functional skills in the context of the

typical routines in the regular classroom

❑ Varying the method of instruction e.g. direct instruction, interactive

instruction, experiential learning, etc.

❑ Using support teachers, special education teachers, support services

❑ Providing instructional adaptations e.g. pre-teaching and extra

teaching

❑ Others (specify)

_____

4. How do you address the different behavioural needs of the students in your

class?

❑ Individualized behaviour support plans

❑ Modification of rules and expectations

❑ Implementing anti bullying policy

❑ Cooperative learning strategies

❑ Others (specify) _____

5. How do you address the different social needs of the students in your class?

❑ Social skills instruction

❑ Counselling supports

❑ Culturally responsive instruction

❑ Peer supports (e.g., facilitating friendships)

❑ Others (specify) _____

6. Identify adaptations/ modifications to the physical environment in your classroom

    ❑ Furniture arrangement

    ❑ Specific seating arrangements

    ❑ Individualized furniture (e.g. chair, desk)

    ❑ Adaptive equipment

    ❑ Adjustments to sensory input (e.g., light, sound)

    ❑ Environmental Aids (e.g., sound ability, heating, ventilation)

    ❑ Structural Aids (e.g., wheelchair accessibility, grab bars)

    ❑ Others (Specify) _____

Section D: Barriers to participation

7. What barriers do you feel currently interfere with the teaching of your students?

    (i) Physical_____

    _____

    (ii) Sociocultural_____

    _____

    (iii) Economic _____

    _____

    (iv) Others (specify) _____

    _____

Section E: Teaching and learning resources

8. What types of resources would you need to include more students with special needs as well as other marginalized and vulnerable learners in your classroom? _____

    _____

    _____

9. What specific support do you receive from the District Quality Assurance and Standards officers to improve teaching and learning of diverse learners in your class? _____

    _____

    _____

10. What specific support do you receive from the Educational Assessment and Resource Centres (EARCs) to improve teaching and learning of diverse learners in your class?_____

    _____

    _____

Section F: Leadership development needs, teacher support and headteacher challenges

11. What types of information or training would be helpful in order to include more students with special needs as well as other marginalized and vulnerable learners in you classroom?_____

    _____

    _____

    _____

12. What types of support do you receive from your headteacher in promoting and sustaining inclusion of diverse learners in your classroom? _____

_____

_____

_____

13. What challenges do you feel your headteacher encounters in promoting and sustaining inclusion of diverse leaners in the school? _____

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX D: DISTRICT QUALITY ASSUARANCE AND STANDARDS OFFICERS' INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Explain briefly your role in enhancing public primary school leadership.

   _____

   _____

2. Comment on the leadership development programmes aimed at enhancing headteachers' leadership competencies.

   _____

   _____

   _____

3. What is your view of inclusive education?

   _____

   _____

   _____

4. Comment on the performance of public primary headteachers in inclusive education leadership

   _____

   _____

   _____

5. Evaluate the role of the district quality assurance department in promoting effective inclusive education leadership

   _____

   _____

   _____

6. What challenges do headteachers face in implementing inclusive education in their schools?

_____

_____

_____

_____

7. Evaluate the role of EARCs in facilitating inclusive learning

_____

_____

_____

8. What challenges do you face in enhancing school leadership, including those

   related to inclusive education?

_____

_____

_____

9. What is your vision on the future directions of public primary headteachers'

   leadership professional development in inclusive education?

_____

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX E: KENYA EDUCATION MANAGEMENT IINSTITUTE (KEMI) TRAINERS' INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Explain briefly KEMI's role in enhancing public primary school leadership.

   _____

   _____

   _____

2. Comment on KEMI's leadership development programmes aimed at

   enhancing headteachers' leadership competencies.

   _____

   _____

   _____

3. (a) What is your view of inclusive education in Kenya's public primary

   schools?

   _____

   _____

   (b) Do you keep data on the number of headteachers managing inclusive

   schools?

   _____

   _____

4. Comment on the specific components of public primary headteachers'

   leadership development programmes in inclusive education.

   _____

   _____

   _____

5. (a) Evaluate the role of KEMI in promoting effective inclusive education

   leadership

   _____

   _____

(b) What organizations does KEMI collaborate with to promote effective

inclusive education leadership practices?

6. What challenges do headteachers face in implementing inclusive education in

their schools?

7. What challenges does KEMI face in enhancing primary school headteachers'

leadership capacity in inclusive education implementation?

8. What is your vision on the future directions of public primary headteachers'

leadership development in inclusive education?

APPENDIX F: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION
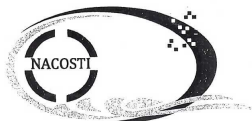
**NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE,
TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION**

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Ref: No.

Date:

24th July, 2014

NACOSTI/P/14/1892/2473

John Irungu Maina
University of Nairobi
P.O.Box 30197-00100
NAIROBI.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on *"Influence of headteacher leadership development on implementation of inclusive education in public primary schools in Kiambu County, Kenya,"* I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Kiambu County** for a period ending **31st December, 2014.**

You are advised to report to **the County Commissioner and the County Director of Education, Kiambu County** before embarking on the research project.

On completion of the research, you are expected to submit **two hard copies and one soft copy in pdf** of the research report/thesis to our office.

DR. S. K. LANGAT, OGW
FOR: SECRETARY/CEO

Copy to:

The County Commissioner
The County Director of Education
Kiambu County.