Building capacity among Boards of Management: Towards effective governance in Kenyan schools

by

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I declare that the above dissertation is my work, and all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged using complete references.

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ABSTRACT

This thesis draws on mixed methods survey research conducted to examine how capacity among school boards of management can be built and maintained for effective governance of schools in Kenya. This approach allows for the explanatory sequential mixed methods design whereby the researcher gathered quantitative data in phase one of the study, analysed the findings, and then applied the findings to enhance the second qualitative phase. The intention of this approach was to bring forth a more detailed explanation of the preliminary quantitative results using the qualitative data. The study relies on related literature review along with primary data collected through questionnaires (quantitative data) and semi-structured interviews and focus groups (qualitative data). Reliability of the instruments was determined through a test-retest method and a Cronbach Alpha coefficient of at least 0.70 was computed which was considered sufficient for use of the questionnaires in the actual study. The findings of the study were presented in tables and figures. While quantitative data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22, qualitative data were analysed using verbatim transcripts. The target population incorporated board members of all 256 public primary schools and 53 public secondary schools in Wajir County, Kenya. Since each school is mandated to have a total of 14 board members, the objective populace for this study was 4326 people. A suitable sample size of 366 respondents was determined through the use of Yamane formula. Thus, the units of analysis were 366 School Boards of Management (SBoM) members for quantitative data as well 16 SBoM chairpersons and 32 headteachers for the qualitative data. These subjects were selected on the basis of inclusion criteria to make them eligible subjects. SBoM members were selected using probability sampling methods for the quantitative data while purposive sampling technique was utilized to select 16 board chairpersons and 32 headteachers as qualitative informants. The researcher undertook to assess whether boards of management in Kenya have the necessary capacity to govern schools and the impact of capacity building initiatives on effective school governance in Kenya. Consequently, the researcher found it necessary to develop a framework and make recommendations regarding the idea of building the capacity of school managers for effective school governance in Kenya. Data collected from respondents provided key insights into the roles, challenges, and capacity-building needs of SBoM in Kenya. The findings indicated that SBoM play a crucial role in school governance, overseeing various aspects such as budget approval, financial management, policy formulation, and community engagement. However, SBoM face numerous challenges, including limited financial resources, inadequate training, political interference, and unequal resource distribution among schools.

Both quantitative and qualitative data revealed that capacity building among SBoM is identified as a multifaceted process involving training workshops, mentorship, and networking opportunities. Key areas of capacity building include financial literacy, strategic planning, policy development, and conflict resolution. The study concludes that while several capacity-building initiatives are in place, there is a need for comprehensive orientation programs for new SBoM members and greater utilization of technology for training and communication. The study concludes that enhancing the skills and knowledge of SBoM members is essential for effective school governance. By addressing the challenges and implementing targeted capacity-building strategies, educational institutions can empower SBoM to govern schools effectively, ultimately contributing to improved educational outcomes for students and the broader school community.

KEY TERMS:

School Boards of Management (SBoM), Capacity Building, School Governance, Public Schools, Education Stakeholders, Training Programs, Policy Formulation, Strategic Planning, Community Engagement, Governance Challenges, School Effectiveness.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this thesis to all of the educators, parents, and members of the School Boards of Management (SBoM) who put in endless effort to make sure Kenyan schools are successful and getting better. Your efforts have a significant impact on the lives of children and the communities you serve, and your devotion to education is priceless. To my dear family members, who have been the pillar of my path with their constant love, support, and encouragement. My enthusiasm for learning and inquiry has been stoked by your understanding and selflessness.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS

ACDP	Analytical and Capacity Development Partnership
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
BOG	Board of Governors
CBI	Confederation of British Industry
CDE	County Director of Education
CDF	Constituency Development Fund
CEB	County Education Board
CIPD	Chartered Institute of Personnel Development
CoPs	Communities of Practice
CPD	Continuous Professional Development
DEBs	District Education Boards
DEO	District Education Office
DDI	Development Dimensions International
EPF	Education Policy Framework
FPE	Free Primary Education
GoP	Government of Pakistan
HC	Human capital
HCT	Human Capital Theory
HKEB	Hong Kong Education Bureau
HKED	Hong Kong Education Department
HRM	Human Resource Management
IC	Intellectual Capital
ICEM	Induction Course in Education Management
ICMCI	International Council of Management Consulting Institutes
ICT	Information Communications Technology
IMC	Incorporated Management Committee
IMC [USA]	Institute of Management Consultants of the United States of America

KBEs	Knowledge Based Economies
KEMI	Kenya Education Management Institute
KESI	Kenya Education Staff Institute
KESSHA	Kenya Secondary School Heads Association
KEPSHA	Kenya Primary Schools Heads Association
KMO	Kaiser Meyer Olkin
L&D	Learning and Development
MM	Mixed Methods
MMR	Mixed Methods Research
MoE	Ministry of Education
MoNE	Ministry of National Education
MSBA	Manitoba School Boards Association
MTMM	Multi-Trait Multi-Method
NACOSTI	National Commission for Science Technology and Innovation
NESP	National Education Sector Plan
NESSP	National Education Sector Strategic Plan
NGOs	Non-Governmental Organizations
NICIE	Northern Ireland Council for Integrated Education
NIE	National Institute of Education
NJSBA	New Jersey School Boards Association
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
OFSTED	Office for Standards in Education
OJT	On the Job Training
OPSBA	Ontario Public School Boards Association
PCST	Performance Contract Support Training
PICEM	Professional Certificate Course in Educational Management
PLCs	Professional Learning Communities
PFM	Public Finance Management

PTAs	Parents Teachers Associations
PWDs	People Living with Disabilities
PQH [NI]	Professional Qualification for Headship in Northern Ireland
QESBA	Quebec English School Boards Association
QSIP	Quality School Improvement Project
RCUK	Research Councils of United Kingdom
RoK	Republic of Kenya
RSA	Republic of South Africa
SAC	School Achievement Centre
SASA	South African Schools Act
SBG	School Board Governance
SBoMCB-Q	School Boards of Management Capacity Building Questionnaire
SBM	School Based Management
SC	School Committee
SGBs	School Governing Bodies
SBoM	School Boards of Management
SICEM	Senior Management Induction Course for Educational Personnel
SMCs	School Management Committees
SMT	School Management Team
SOAP	School Operational Assistance Program
RoG	Republic of Ghana
SPSS	Statistical Package of Social Sciences
SREB	Southern Regional Education Board
SMI	School Management Initiative
TSC	Teachers Service Commission
TOTEM	Training of Trainers in Educational Management
QDA	Qualitative Data Analysis
UNESCO	United Nations Education Scientific and Cultural Organization

UNISA	University of South Africa
USA	United States of America
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor
WCED	Wajir County Education Director

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CHAPTER ONE

ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

The Republic of Kenya has identified education and training as the essential means for achieving social progress, national unity, and economic transformation in its Sessional Paper No. 1 of 2019 (RoK, 2019), which outlines a new and updated policy framework for educational reform in Kenya. The Ministry of Education (RoK, 2012) has taken a more comprehensive approach in this regard by adopting an Education Policy Framework (EPF) to match training and education with the Kenya Vision 2030 (RoK, 2007) and the Republic of Kenya's Constitution (RoK, 2010). Consequently, this EPF states that attaining the national development agenda outlined in Kenya Vision 2030 (RoK, 2012) is of paramount importance.

According to Karlsson (2002), a shift in the global financial patterns in the middle of the 1980s led to a wide range of modifications in the instructional frameworks, which ultimately resulted in the adoption of new school governance and administration techniques in many countries. Community involvement in school governance is increasingly becoming crucial to these reform initiatives in emerging nations. In Kenya, community integration is anchored in school governance through Boards of Management, thanks to the Basic Education Act of 2013 (RoK, 2013). In light of this, professional management techniques in Kenyan educational institutions must be followed in conjunction with global best practices in order to achieve educational goals.

The execution of School-Based Management (SBM) has been broadly recognized in the global arena. Pepito and Acibar (2019) certify that in the Philippines, the Enhanced Basic Education Act of 2013 (RoP, 2013) underscores the decentralization of school governance and stakeholder participation to accomplish an improved and responsive basic primary training curriculum. In the same vein, Lavonen (2017) reports that a significant instruction strategy guideline in Finland is the devolution of decision-making and obligation at the local level.

Governance decentralization in education is anchored on the rule that persons directly involved and affected by school activities are better situated to oversee, plan and improve an educational enterprise. Ranson *et al.* (2005) affirmed that school governing bodies have been committed to learners' scholarly advancement, raising institutional standards and general school improvement.

School governing bodies are known in different countries as, among other things, school management teams, school committees or school management councils. These governing structures significantly contribute to a school's teaching and learning processes and constitute an integral interface between the school and the community (Onderi & Makori, 2013). In the United Kingdom, these bodies are referred to as School Governors (Okendu, 2012); In South Africa, they are known as School Governing Bodies (SGBs) (Van Wyk, 2007), while in Kenya they are generally referred to as School Boards of Management (SBoM) (RoK, 2012).

Even though they go by many names, school governing structures are becoming a global tool for changing publicly supported education systems. Complementing this view, Marishane, Botha and Du Plessis (2011) argue that decentralization aims to shift educational resources and delegate decision-making responsibility to school governing bodies for effective school governance. In a study on school-based management in basic education in Sub-Saharan Africa, Prew (2018) clarifies that decentralization tends to be more effectively executed in schools that are better organized and managed, in contrast to poorly governed ones.

For these bodies to function effectively, they must be oriented, trained and bolstered. The main focus of this study is capacity building for effective school governance, which in the Kenyan context is the legislated duty and responsibility of the Boards of Management.

1.2 BACKGROUND AND RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

Mulford (2003) confirms that schools are crucial institutions of learning by examining shifting roles and their effects on the efficacy of teachers and schools. As the primary decision-making body in the educational system, schools should

have the authority to recognize and address the needs of their students. The foundation for this type of change, according to Wohlstetter and Mohrman (1993) and Murphy and Beck (1995), is the idea that parents, students, and teachers—those who are most affected by decisions made at the school—should play a crucial role in the process of decision-making. Against this background, Baghdady and Zaki (2019) maintain that effective education governance relies on a solid institutional ability to develop and actualize proof-based education policies well incorporated in broader national development strategies. Thus, school governing structures and other stakeholders must have sufficient capacity to manage a broad scope of challenges confronting the education sector in general and schools in particular.

In many regions of the world, the transfer of power from the parent ministry to individual schools has been implemented. In agreement, Botha (2010) notes that, in an effort to increase school effectiveness, there have been a paradigm shift globally towards granting educational enterprises more autonomy and self-governance. Through Governing Boards made up of parents, teachers, and elected community members, The Taylor Report (Taylor, 1977) encourages stakeholder and community participation in England and Wales. These Governing Boards took over control over the school's financial resources, physical layout, and personnel administration. This was mostly motivated by the need to raise educational standards in Wales and England in order to confront the challenges of a technologically advanced, globalised, and information-driven age.

Wilkinson (2018) clarifies that in England, school governors provide strategic leadership and accountability by ensuring clarity regarding the educational enterprise's vision, mission and strategic direction. Comparative perspectives have additionally been expressed by Boyle (2003) that School Boards in Washington State set institutional goals and objectives, formulate policies and guarantee responsibility. Similarly, Amakyi (2021) indicated that the School Board of Management (SBoM) in Ghana is authentically and legitimately

expected to ensure responsibility, transparency and accountability for the best interest of all institutional stakeholders and the general performance of learning institutions as elucidated in The Republic of Ghana's (RoG) Education Service Act of 2008 (Act 778) (RoG, 2008).

For the school governing structures to function optimally, it is necessary to build their capacity. For instance, the School Management Initiative (SMI) in Hong Kong was changed by introducing SBM, giving more power and self-governance to parents, teachers, and school leaders as critical stakeholders (Pang, 2008). In El Salvador and Nicaragua (Indriyanto, 2003), it was observed that the decision-making power is vested in School Councils, thereby enhancing the voices of educational stakeholders. In the Kenyan context, the structure and duties of the School Board of Management (SBoM), previously known as the Board of Governors (BOG), were instituted via the Education Act of 1968 (RoK, 2008). According to this Act, SBoM play a critical role in the management and governance of schools including collaboration with the headteachers in upholding the school culture, discipline and management of school funds, advancing the criterion of education, guaranteeing proper management of the general welfare of staff and learners as well as maintaining school ethos, thereby acting in the institution's best interest (Baaru, 2019).

From the preceding discussion, there is no doubt that school governing structures are the fulcrum upon which effective school governance revolves. As a delegated function of the National Government, School Boards of Management (SBoM) in Kenya manage schools on behalf of the Education Secretary. Harris *et al.* (2013) are of the opinion that the accomplishment of school improvement is hinged on how it is directed and managed. This is in tandem with Field and Philpott (2000), who hold that a critical factor of any effective school is a manager who can think creatively, envision and predict changes within the organization (externally or internally driven) and assist others prepare for and exploit any changes. Against this foundation, SBoM should be empowered and accorded the

necessary support to discharge their legislative responsibilities effectively and efficiently.

The foundation of capacity building within SBoM is the understanding that other stakeholders, including parents, teachers, and students (in secondary schools), are essential to the state's ability to manage education. Nevertheless, in order to meet educational goals, school governance stakeholders should receive the necessary training and support to increase their ability to understand and implement educational policies and make wise decisions regarding issues that impact their schools. This is supported by Tsotetsi, Van Wyk, and Lemmer's (2008) assertion that parents' competence, knowledge, and experience with governance matters are prerequisites for their effective participation in school governance.

In summary, the ultimate objective of schools is to nurture and produce competent and skilled citizens who will play an indispensable role in the country's development. To attain this goal in the Kenyan context, it is the prerogative of School Boards of Management (SBoM) to set strategic objectives and plans and put proper management structures in place while encouraging prudent utilization of resources to realize long-term school objectives.

Consequently, striving to investigate the issues related to building SBoM capacity to enhance their effectiveness in school governance in Kenya is the raison d'etre [purpose] and focal point of this research with a firm conviction that it will significantly contribute to enhancing quality education.

1.3 STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Despite the existing legal and constitutional provisions for effective School Boards of Management (SBoM), schools in Kenya are generally experiencing problems of poor governance (Mutinda, 2015). This is manifested by records of minimal proficiency among learners in national examinations that are attributed to the appointment of unskilled, unqualified and inexperienced people to the school governing structures who are prone to manipulation by unscrupulous head

teachers (Onderi & Makori, 2013). In concert with this assertion, Orodho and Nzoka (2014) explain that most SBoM members lack managerial skills since some of them are primary school leavers raising the question as to whether such members possess requisite competencies to interpret policy documents in regard to school management. These challenges point to the lack of capacity on the part of SBoM – an issue that warrants an examination in this study if learners' performance in Kenyan schools is to be improved.

1.3.1 Main Research Question

The main question underpinning this research is: How can capacity among School Boards of Management (SBoM) be built and maintained to enhance school governance in Kenyan schools?

1.3.2 Sub–Questions

In addition to the main research question, this study offers a response to the following five sub-questions:

a) What are SBoM in the Kenyan context, and how do they function?
b) What are the existing challenges facing SBoM in governing schools in Kenya, and how do they deal with these challenges?
c) What does the concept of capacity building among SBoM entail in the school context?
d) Which capacity-building strategies are in place to assist SBoM in governing schools in Kenya?
e) What capacity-building model can be proposed to build and sustain effective school governance in Kenya?

1.4 AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

The primary purpose of this study is to examine how capacity among Boards of Management can be built and maintained to enhance school governance in Kenyan schools. This primary purpose gives rise to the following objectives of the study, namely to:

a) Describe SBoM in the Kenyan context and explain how they function;

b) Determine the existing challenges facing SBoM in governing schools in Kenya and how they deal with them;

c) Investigate what the concept of capacity building among SBoM entails in the school context;

d) Find out which capacity-building strategies are put in place to assist SBoM in governing schools in Kenya and

e) Present a capacity-building model from this study to build and sustain effective school governance in Kenya.

1.5 PRELIMINARY LITERATURE REVIEW

Building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance was reviewed in the context of developing countries, including Kenya. Capacity-building practices, Boards of Management challenges, strategies, investments, and actors that embed capacity-building efforts were established.

Capacity building has developed as a well thought out proposition and a key component of education that empowers individuals to address antecedents of quality and to ameliorate education outcomes in many developing nations (Zamfir, 2017). Capacity building enhances an entity's skills and capabilities to improve productivity. Analoui *et al.* (2017) describes capacity building as a long-term consistent procedure that includes hierarchical experts, community members and other specialists to improve an institution's ability to perform explicit role functions.

On the same grounds, The Economic United Nations (2011) characterizes capacity building as the ability to perform functions, solve problems, and attain individual, institutional, and societal objectives. In the school context, governing structures must be equipped with skills, understanding, knowledge and access to information to perform viably, productively and sustainably.

In dealing with the concept of capacity building, Akwegwu and Nwi-ue (2013) contend that the motivation behind capacity building is to create and reinforce capacities, processes and assets that people and affiliations need to endure and flourish in the quickly evolving world. Comparative opinions are reverberated by

Oladapo (2017), who clarifies that the core objective of capacity building is to tackle challenges related to policy formulation, execution and development methods while considering the potential, limits and needs of people in a particular organization. Capacity building, in this manner, centers on understanding the obstructions that repress individuals and organizations from understanding their formative objectives while improving the abilities that will enable them to accomplish quantifiable and feasible outcomes (Barret *et al.,* 2013).

Okenjom *et al.* (2017) maintains that school managers require capacity-building programs that will keep them abreast with dynamic educational challenges related to school management. Supplementing this point of view, Pont, Moorman and Nusche (2008) affirm that institutional managers can have a positive impact in their schools and students' academic performance once they acquire requisite competencies, skills, aptitudes, technical knowhow and more importantly, if they are granted autonomy to implement educational policies at the school level effectively. Wylie (2007) contends that it is challenging in schools with low socioeconomic status to find skilled board members who can develop and actualize school plans, thereby shifting responsibility to the school principal. To remedy such a situation, Pont *et al.* (2008) reported that in England, the National Governors Council asks for mandatory induction training for all school governors to equip them with competencies that match their responsibilities.

According to Uchendu (2015), capacity building comprises three dimensions: building awareness, analytical capacity, and decision-making capacity. In the school context, building awareness entails regularly updating SBoM about management issues and emerging trends in the education sector so that they can apply them in performing assigned tasks to address developmental challenges at the school level. Uchendu (2015) further affirms that building awareness can be accomplished by offering activities or demonstrating new methods through workshops, seminars and conferences.

In the same breadth, building analytical capacity among SBoM hinges on developing critical thinking about school programs and increasing their ability to

formulate and implement sound policies. This conforms with Buxton, Giffen and Moldosheva (2022) that an analytical skill training program seeks to demonstrate the value of critical analysis in the quest for improved policymaking and to provide support to empower associations to participate in policy dialogue.

According to Ahmed *et al.* (2014), decisions are at the heart of organizational success and at times, there are critical moments when they can be complex and confusing. Complementing this perspective, Elbanna and Younies (2008) contend that the process of making strategic decisions is complex as it involves many conflicting interests, is time-consuming and faces many interruptions, delays and disruptions. In terms of building decision-making capacity, it is critical to create favorable conditions for governing structure members to have decision-specific ability to make informed choices about particular situations arising in the school to improve education service delivery and ultimately achieve a functional education system.

Haruna and Edino (2014) posit that building human capital can be accomplished through education and training provided by schools, colleges, universities as well as professional training and management institutions. From the same perspective, Mestry (2017) reports that many developing nations have placed continuing professional development (CPD) for school leaders high on the education agenda. In Kenya, building capacity among SBoM can be achieved through various approaches that incorporate training, formal education, capacity-building projects and networking. Since SBoM oversees schools, it is vital to guarantee that they can carry out such statutory commitments.

1.6 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

1.6.1 Research Design

A research design is a master plan, procedure or blueprint of how an empirical study will be done. Akhtar (2016) contends that a research design is the 'glue' that holds all the segments in a scientific investigation together. In the same

context, Plano Clark (2017) sees a research design as an enquirer's strategy to attack an exploration issue coherently and logically. Consequently, a research configuration is the general arrangement for connecting the conceptual research problems to the appropriate and attainable empirical research. Kumar (2015) indicates that the objective of a feasible research design is to yield credible outcomes from a scientific inquiry. Fundamentally, every research design has two functions: To develop an operational plan to carry out various study steps and to ensure authenticity, enduring quality and legitimacy in each research step. As indicated by Pickton (2013), the motivation behind a research design is to delineate how the research questions will be answered and simultaneously give the impetus for achieving goals and objectives of the study.

This study examined the idea of SBoM capacity building to improve effective school governance in Kenya using an explanatory sequential mixed methods methodology. Explanatory sequential mixed methods design, according to Creswell and Creswell (2017), is a two-part project in which the investigator gathers quantitative data in phase one, analyses the findings, and then applies the findings to enhance the second qualitative phase. Creswell & Creswell (2017), further emphasize that the intention of this approach is to bring forth a more detailed explanation of the preliminary quantitative results using the qualitative data. The quantitative data and outcomes offer a general image of the phenomenon under investigation; more research, particularly through the acquisition of qualitative data, is required to improve, extend, or explain the basic picture (Subedi, 2016). This is the reasoning behind the explanatory sequential design. In this study, the researcher holds that the explanatory sequential mixed method design was appropriate for this inquiry since it enabled collecting in-depth qualitative and quantitative data from the current Kenyan situation in a natural setting.

1.6.2 Research Approach

Mohajan (2017) defines a research approach as a plan of action that directs research systematically and efficiently. A research approach is, therefore, a

procedure for a scientific inquiry that traverses the steps from extensive conjectures and hypotheses to exhausitive data collection, analysis and interpretation methods. The researcher concurs with Mohajan (2017) that scientific researchers should involve a disciplined, precise and structured approach to realize the most suitable results.

The research approach utilized in this study is a mixed method (MM). Creswell and Garrett (2008) clarify that the mixed method is a research approach in which the researcher gathers, analyses, blends and makes inferences from qualitative and quantitative data in a single study to comprehend a research problem. Mixed method research is an appropriate approach since it builds on the inherent strengths of both qualitative and quantitative approaches while compensating for the shortcomings of each strategy (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

In this study, some weaknesses associated with the quantitative approach, such as insensitivity to participants' emotions, insights, intents and views, were catered for by the qualitative research aspect of this study (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). Unlike the quantitative technique, which forces participants to select from predetermined responses, the qualitative approach allows people to react in their own terms. Similar to this, the quantitative technique eliminates both the constraints of the qualitative approach and researcher bias (Creswell, 2014; McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). By utilising the mixed methods research approach in this inquiry, the researcher believes and consequently agrees with the view advanced by Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) that any one approach (qualitative or quantitative) cannot authoritatively and adequately answer research questions. Thus, the justification for adopting a mixed methods approach in this inquiry is reinforced by the fact that qualitative and quantitative designs need to be more autonomously adequate to capture the patterns and details of the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenya.

1.6.3 Research Paradigm

In scientific research, paradigms are a general direction about the world and the nature of inquiry that an investigator holds. According to Hughes (2010), a research paradigm is a method of seeing the world that frames a research topic and impacts how researchers think about the subject. Paradigms are shaped by the discipline area, convictions of the researcher, and his/her past research encounters. The nature of a researcher's convictions will lead them to embrace either quantitative, qualitative or mixed methods approaches in their investigation (Tsegaye, 2018).

According to Kivunja and Kuyini (2017), a research paradigm serves as a rational channel through which the researcher analyses the procedural aspects of their study so as to select the research techniques that will be applied and the manner in which the results will be interpreted. Similar to this, Hussain, Elyas, and Nasseef (2013) contend that the term "paradigm" can be used in the human sciences to describe broad research approaches, organise scholarly action, and generalise particular methodologies and points of view for the study of any subject. In essence, a research paradigm is a set of convictions that directs a researcher in data collection, analysis, procedures, and scientific inquiry.

Rehman and Alharthi (2016) posit that a research paradigm comprises four components: ontology, epistemology, methodology and axiology. As Scotland (2012) indicated, ontology is a branch of philosophy that analyses the researcher's fundamental conviction about the nature of being and existence. On the other hand, Cooksey and McDonald (2019) clarify that Epistemology centers on the nature of human knowledge and comprehension that the researcher can gain to widen and intensify the understanding of their field of research. Similarly, Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) clarify that methodology articulates the rationale and flow of clear-cut procedures in conducting a research project to gain in-depth knowledge with regard to the phenomena under inquiry. As the fourth component of a research paradigm, axiology alludes to the ethical issues associated with planning a research project. Axiology is about considering the philosophical

approach to making the right decisions regarding the human values of every individual participating in the research.

Candy (1989) postulates that paradigms in educational research can be grouped into three fundamental scientific classifications: positivist, constructivist and Critical or Transformative paradigms. On the same ground, Tashakkori and Teddlie (2003) propose a fourth research paradigm known as the pragmatic paradigm that borrows components from these three paradigms.

1.6.3.1 Positivist Paradigm

The positivist paradigm characterizes a perspective on research grounded in the scientific method of investigation, which involves a procedure of experimentation to investigate perceptions to address research questions (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Supplementing this viewpoint, positivist theorists believe that the social world can be examined similarly to the natural world (Creswell, 2014). Comparative suppositions reverberate via Seale (2002), who contends that positivist social scientists are committed to value neutrality, authentic estimation, quantifiable components and detectable occasions to develop causal laws. According to Albon and Mukherji (2022), positivism mirrors that truth can be discovered because human conduct is undoubtedly predictable and relies upon internal pressures and external forces.

Accordingly, Denscombe (2017) contends that it is not commonly possible to have predictable and generalisable knowledge in the social world, and the belief that social events are predictable and orderly is profoundly problematic. In the same vein, Creswell (2009) maintains that knowledge is anti-foundational in that unadulterated truth cannot be found; hence, evidence established in research is blemished and questionable. While Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) hold that research situated within the positivist worldview relies on deductive logic, formulation and testing of hypotheses to derive conclusions, Tsegaye (2018) is of the conclusion that enquirers do not prove hypotheses but rather show an inability to dismiss the hypotheses.

In their Epistemology, positivist scientists hold that the inquirer and the inquired are autonomous of each other, enabling the former to study the latter without influencing each other (Schwandt, 2014). Therefore, the inquirer's role is to maintain a non-interactive stance, not to impede the research procedure (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2017). Regarding the research methodology, the positivist paradigm advocates using quantitative research methods as the bedrock for the researcher's capacity to describe specifications and coefficients in the gathered, analyzed and interpreted data to comprehend relationships embedded in the analyzed data (Mertens, 2023).

1.6.3.2 Constructivist Paradigm

The fundamental principle of the constructivist perspective is that reality is socially built by research participants (Bogdan & Biklen, 1998). Modifying this belief, Mertens (2023) contends that it is the intrinsic obligation of the researcher to comprehend the intricate experience from the research participants' frame of reference. For this reason, constructivists start with individual participants and try to comprehend their interpretations of their surroundings. Constructivist analysts further note that the world is built through the association of people. The natural and social worlds are not distinct and researchers are part of that social reality and consequently not detached from the subjects under scrutiny (Grix, 2004).

Contrary to the positivist paradigm, constructivist researchers believe that the researcher's involvement enables them to have a more profound comprehension of the situation under examination. Within this paradigm, emphasis is hinged on understanding the standpoint of the subjects under observation rather than the observer's. This approach is in tandem with Lincoln and Guba (1989), who posit that the central endeavor of the constructivist paradigm is to comprehend the subjective universe of human experience.

In contrast to positivists, who argue that the enquirer and the enquired entity are independent of each other (Schwandt, 2014), constructivist researchers point out that the investigator and the investigated person influence each other. This legitimizes why constructivists engage their subjects in instinctive procedures in

which they intermingle, dialogue, write and record research data. Regarding strategy, constructivist analysts utilize qualitative methods to measure participants' perceptions and organize data.

1.6.3.3 Critical Paradigm

Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) attest that the critical paradigm situates its research addressing social equity issues and is fundamentally concerned with empowering and eliminating obstructions and harsh structures around research subjects. On the same grounds, Lincoln and Guba (1985) state that the critical paradigm considers a researcher a transformative scholar who liberates people from their historical, mental, social, and emotional conditions. In educational research, the field of special education fits a critical paradigm whereby people living with disabilities (PWDs) are used as researchers or research assistants, considering the advancement of knowledge, skills and aptitudes about their conditions.

Concerning epistemology, Mertens (2023) states that critical theory researchers stress on the significance of the interactive bond between the researcher and respondents and the effect of social and verifiable variables that influence them. In research, such an interaction should be embedded within a climate of trust and understanding for fair representation of viewpoints from all research participants. Researchers within the critical paradigm contend that knowledge is socially built and human perception is preferential and value-laden. Despite the monstrous quality of the critical paradigm because of its goal of transforming the phenomena under inquiry, critical theorists have been rebuffed for being not objective because of a deliberate political agenda, hence rendering researchers' ideologues impartial and unbiased (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2017).

1.6.3.4 Pragmatic Paradigm

According to Kivunja and Kuyini (2017), pragmatism sprang among philosophers who believe that it is beyond the realm of imagination to expect to establish the truth about the real world through a single logical technique or mono method as upheld by the positivist paradigm, nor is it tenable to determine social reality as advanced by constructivist theorists.

Taking this argument, Yardley and Bishop (2017) point out that the pragmatic paradigm permits researchers to study areas of interest, grasp suitable research techniques and use findings positively in harmony with the value system held by the enquirer. In light of this affirmation, it can be argued that the pragmatic research paradigm can be embraced with the end goal of social and management endeavors as this is congruent with both quantitative and qualitative approaches taken within the inclination of professional–based investigation (Armitage & Keeble-Allen, 2007).

In this inquiry, the researcher holds that the research paradigm for this social reality (Ngulube, 2015) falls under pragmatism. Since pragmatism is not limited to a single philosophical system, the researcher thinks that the pragmatic paradigm will help to shape this investigation. This is consistent with the arguments made by Creswell (2014), who contends that pragmatism is a philosophical partner for mixed methods research. Similar views are expressed by Alise and Teddlie (2010), who state that the pragmatic paradigm is becoming more and more pluralistic and feasible since it allows for the integration of techniques that together may provide insight into the real behaviour of research participants. As an alternative in this setting, pragmatism encompasses constructivist and positivist perspectives as well as research questions that dictate the proportion of quantitative and qualitative approaches employed (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003).

The focus of this study was to investigate the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools. Thus, what was required in this examination was a worldview that is deemed most appropriate for studying the phenomenon under inquiry. Therefore, the researcher adopted the pragmatist paradigm because of its belief that social reality is embedded within multiple layers which need to be observed from different dimensions (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003). Based on this perspective, the pragmatist research philosophy helped the researcher to investigate the concept of building capacity among SBoM from multidimensional perspectives based on subjective and objective

views (Bass, 2000). It ultimately enabled a deeper and broader understanding of the underlying research issue (Stentz, Clark & Matkin, 2012).

Being mixed methods research, the fundamental component of this investigation incorporates the idea that the enquirer engages with research participants so that they can share their perspectives (Patton, 2002). In order to examine the actual behaviors and realities of respondents, this study utilized a mixed methods approach as a pragmatic way of understanding the views of SBoM members, head teachers and SBoM chairpersons concerning the governance of state-funded schools in Kenya. Morgan (2013) reaffirms that the underlying element of pragmatist researchers is an emphasis on the actual behaviors of research participants, the convictions behind those behaviors and the outcomes that will probably describe different behaviors. Considering this point of view, the researcher focused on various contexts that SBoM work in to understand capacity-building strategies that could be adopted to enhance their effectiveness in governing schools in Kenya.

1.6.4 Population and Sampling

1.6.4.1 Target Population

In academic research, the target population refers to individuals or occasions with typical perceptible characteristics in a particular study location. In this research, the target population incorporated all public primary and public secondary schools in Wajir County, Kenya. Wajir County had 256 primary and 53 secondary schools (CDE, Statistics section 2019). In terms of composition, there were 742 secondary school board members and 3584 board members in primary schools, respectively. Accordingly, the objective populace for this study was 4326 people.

Due to the large population of this study, sampling is required for each phase of the study. Gentles *et al.* (2015) describe sampling as selecting specific data sources from which data is collected and analyzed to address research objectives. In the same context, Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) define a sample

size as a representative proportion of the target populace that must be able to represent precisely the population characteristic under investigation.

1.6.4.2 Sample Size and Sampling Procedures for Phase 1: The Quantitative Phase

The researcher used the probability sampling approach to choose research participants in order to calculate the sample size for the quantitative portion of the investigation. The schools were grouped into eight Sub-Counties: Wajir North, Buna, Habaswein, Tarbaj, Wajir South, Wajir West, Eldas, and Wajir East using a stratified random selection technique. Then, each Sub-County was divided into three sorts and classifications of schools: mixed day, boys boarding, and girls boarding. Every stratum was presented by a sample of 50% of its population. The sample is, therefore, 2163 (n= 2163) for the quantitative phase.

1.6.4.3 Sample size and sampling procedures for phase 2: The qualitative phase

According to Patton (1990), purposive sampling is probably the most commonly described sampling technique in qualitative research. Patton (1990) further describes purposive sampling as the selection of respondents who are perceived to be information-rich and from whom an investigator can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research. Maree (2007) accentuates that purposeful sampling entails determining research participants and considering other facets, such as the activities, occurrences and settings for data collection.

In the qualitative phase of this research, the participants were purposively sampled. A sample size of 16 (n= 16) BoM chairpersons representing 5% of those who would be interviewed were selected because they were few and were believed to have adequate insight and in-depth understanding of the concept of capacity building among SBoM.

In addition, a focus group interview was conducted with heads of schools in the existing eight sub-counties: Wajir North, Buna, Habaswein, Tarbaj, Wajir South,

Wajir West, Eldas and Wajir East. The target group was secondary school principals and primary school headteachers. A sample size of 64 (n=64) school heads representing 20% of the target population had been selected for the interview. The final sample is, therefore, 80 (n= 16+64) for the qualitative phase.

1.6.5 Instrumentation and Data Collection Strategy

As far as the data collection strategy is concerned, both qualitative and quantitative data were gathered through a participatory approach.

1.6.5.1 Questionnaires

The researcher utilized Likert-scale questionnaires in this study as a quantitative information-gathering tool. Kabir (2016) indicates that a questionnaire is a research instrument comprising a series of questions to gather information from the respondents. Orodho (2004) contends that a questionnaire is an ideal instrument to accumulate data from a reasonably large sample within a shorter time frame. It can likewise be replied to at the convenience of respondents and be picked at a later date. The questionnaire format comprised open-ended, closed-ended and rating scale items. This configuration was considered essential to broaden responses and reduce 'question fatigue' as espoused by Watson and Coombes (2009).

The open-ended section offered the respondents a chance to make remarks or explain some information on their responses, empowering the researcher to capture their points of view on capacity building in relation to their roles. The questionnaires were divided into three segments: Section one managed statistical data on respondents, for example, age, gender, level of training and experience. Section two mirrored the existing challenges SBoM faced in their line of duty. Section three focused on capacity-building strategies that can assist SBoM in governing schools effectively. The data obtained framed the premise of the study conclusions on capacity building among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenya.

1.6.5.2 Interviews

Interview guides with open-ended questions were designed for use during interviews with SBoM members, board chairpersons and headteachers. Kabir (2016) suggests that when considered as a method of collecting data when conducting qualitative research, interviewing is a technique that is employed with the intent of understanding the experiences of others. Similar sentiments are echoed by Gill (2014), who argues that as a qualitative method, interviews are an ideal data collection instrument as they provide an in-depth understanding of social phenomena and offer a platform to obtain detailed insights from individual participants.

The researcher visited schools to interview board members on the challenges they face as they execute their functions and the capacity-building strategies that are put in place to assist them in governing schools effectively. Formal and informal interviews were held with participants as individuals and as groups. The responses given to the researcher by the respondents had to warrant further inquiry by way of interviews for clarity on issues under scrutiny. The researcher ensured that the interview duration was adequate to allow participants to explain the issues from their frame of reference.

1.6.5.3 Focus Group Interviews

Focus group interviews are applied in research as a qualitative approach to examine social issues. Krueger (2014) states that the focus group interview aims to obtain information from a randomly chosen group of respondents rather than a statistically representative sample of a more extensive populace. In the same breadth, Guba and Lincoln (1994) observed that focus group interviews are cost-effective and offer a stage for varying paradigms and world perspectives.

According to Creswell (2014), a focus group interview is an in-depth field technique that brings together a small, homogeneous group to discuss topics on a study agenda. In focus groups, the researcher guides, monitors and records the discussion. In this inquiry, data was collected through a semi–structured group interview process to yield qualitative and observational data from SBoM

members concerning the concept of building their capacity for effective school governance in Kenya.

1.6.6 Data Analysis and Interpretation

Accurate and proper analysis of study findings is crucial to maintaining data integrity. Data analysis is the process of methodically employing statistical and logical methodologies to describe, illustrate, aggregate, and assess data. In this investigation, mixed data analysis was used. According to Johnson and Christensen (2019), such analysis employs both qualitative and quantitative analysis techniques in a single study. This mixed methods study methodology involved the successive application of both qualitative and quantitative methodologies by the researcher.

1.6.6.1 Data Analysis in Phase 1: The Quantitative Phase

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to computer-code and process the data from the questionnaires for the quantitative portion of the study. Multiple sets of statistical analyses were then carried out. The components of this package, such as t-test for testing the mean differences of any two variables and the correlation for measuring the association between two or more groups, were computed. Accordingly, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to identify the interrelationship between capacity building among SBoM and effective school governance with respondents' background information. Chi-square analysis was also used to examine between-group differences on categorical variables such as age, gender, and academic level of respondents.

1.6.6.2 Data Analysis in Phase 2: The Qualitative Phase

Sixteen individuals were chosen for one-on-one semi-structured interviews with the researcher. These respondents were asked to elaborate on the quantitative data pertaining to the viewpoints and hypotheses surrounding the idea of SBoM capacity building for efficient school governance in Kenya. All participants were assigned alpha-numeric pseudonyms to guarantee anonymity, for instance,

SBoMC01, SBoMC05 and SBoMC16 (for SBoM chairpersons) and HT03, HT06, HT15 and HT60 (for head teachers).

The qualitative data derived was analyzed by adhering to the main steps in Qualitative Data Analysis (QDA) described by Chang (2010). These steps are as follows: Organizing the data into easily retrievable sections, identifying the framework, sorting data into the framework, using the framework for descriptive analysis and lastly, conducting second-order analysis. An audio-tape recorder was utilized during the individual interview sessions with research participants. This assisted the investigator in transcribing and coding data during data analysis. Data gathered through interviews and focus group interviews was analyzed by categorizing the data in the appropriate thematic areas, analyzing it using ATLAS software, and narrating it manually depending on the nature of the data collected.

1.6.7 Data presentation

Data presentation is all about effectively explaining research findings by providing contextual information in various forms. In and Lee (2017) argue that data is usually gathered in raw format, which needs to be outlined, sorted out and analyzed to derive information from them conveniently. In and Lee (2017) further point out that in scholarly exploration, data can be presented as a text in a tabular or graphical form. In this mixed methods study, both qualitative and quantitative data is presented.

1.6.7.1 Data presentation in phase 1: The quantitative phase

In the quantitative phase of this inquiry, the analyzed data was presented in tables, graphs and charts guided by the study's objectives. Tables were utilized to present information that would not be presented in a graph. On the other hand, bar graphs and histograms were used to indicate and compare values derived from research participants. Pie charts were used to present quantitative data classified into different categories. In conclusion, the researcher ensured that the data presentation format that best presents information had been chosen so that

readers and reviewers of this study can easily comprehend the derived information.

1.6.7.2 Data presentation in phase 2: The qualitative phase

Regarding the qualitative phase, qualitative data comprised of audio recordings, structured interview questionnaires, transcripts from in-depth or semi-structured interviews and field notes provided descriptive information on the perceptions and opinions of key informants. Regarding qualitative data presentation, key findings were presented using appropriate verbatim quotes from the data and categorized according to categories and themes to illustrate the research findings.

1.7 RELIABILITY AND VALIDITY OF QUANTITATIVE DATA, CREDIBILITY AND TRUSTWORTHINESS OF QUALITATIVE DATA WITH THE STUDY

1.7.1 Reliability and Validity of Quantitative Data

Reliability and validity are two closely linked concepts in social science research whose function is to explain the quality of research findings. Johnson and Christensen (2019) define validity as the extent to which the explanations of phenomena and the facts of reality are consistent, whereas reliability is the consistency or stability of test results. In academic research, a consistent instrument yields similar outcomes for people paying little heed to when it is controlled and who the scorer is. Mugenda and Mugenda (2003) certify this reality by affirming that the unwavering quality of the instrument is the proportion of how much an examination yields after repetitive preliminaries.

Therefore, the quality of the measurement technique determines reliability, implying that identical data will have been gathered each time in several observations of the same phenomena. The degree of producing the same results in this study when the same techniques are used elsewhere measured the degree of error, which shows the reliability of research findings. The coefficient of stability method was utilized to decide how much similar outcomes can be obtained with a repeated proportion of precision of a similar idea to decide

instruments' unwavering quality used to estimate the degree to which the same results can be obtained with a repeated measure of accuracy of the same concept, in order to determine the instruments' reliability.

Creswell and Miller (2000) posit that validity is the quality of a research instrument in terms of the degree to which the instrument is accurate, correct, meaningful and suitable. As such, for the validity of the questionnaire, the researcher ensured that the questions were directly related to the purpose and objectives of the study and that the right questions were phrased least ambiguously for correct interpretation by all respondents. This ensured that what was intended to be measured was being measured by the instrument. A questionnaire was pilot-tested before the commencement of the survey to ensure that any errors were identified and rectified.

Internal validity is reaching inferences about causal relationships from the information gathered. By making sure that changes in the dependent variables came solely from the independent variable and not from other competing factors, the investigator in this study tried to preserve internal validity. According to Flannelly and Jankowski's (2018), quantitative analysts should be cautious about potential risks to internal validity that may arise from statistical relapse and equipment. The researcher ensured that the questionnaire was carefully adapted for each each participant school and their demographics in order to prevent any threats to internal validity.

External validity, according to Findley, Kikuta and Denly (2021), refers to how well the outcome of a study can be expected to apply to other settings. The researcher carefully considered sampling techniques that were generally appropriate in order to create a sample that was truly representative of the study population. On the same ground, Garcia-Perez (2012) avers that statistical conclusion validity is how much our conclusions about relationships in our data are trustworthy or convincing. The researcher employed a recognized statistician's services to affirm that the data analysis process satisfies the guidelines set out for conclusion validity.

1.7.2 Credibility and Trustworthiness of Qualitative Data

Shenton (2004) affirms that credibility is how congruent the study's findings are with reality, while Baruth (2013) explains that trustworthiness is when reliability is ensured in qualitative research. To ensure the credibility of the study, Shenton (2004) argues that the adoption of research methods well established in the area, familiarization with the culture of participating organizations before the first data collection dialogues take place, random sampling of individuals to serve as respondents, and triangulation is to be observed. In qualitative research, trustworthiness is all about establishing that study findings are credible, transferable, confirmable and dependable. Mills, Durepos and Wiebe (2009), in the Encyclopedia of Case Study Research, define credibility as the extent to which research findings are believable and appropriate with particular reference to the level of agreement between participants and the enquirer, while transferability, a type of external validity, refers to how the qualitative researcher demonstrates that research findings apply to other contexts, circumstances and situations.

According to Speziale, Streubert and Carpenter (2011), dependability is the degree to which research processes are documented, enabling an external party to monitor, assess, and provide feedback on the research process, as well as the consistency of research findings. On the same grounds, Denzin and Lincoln (2011) describe confirmability as the degree to which others can confirm or corroborate research findings. The degree of objectivity in the study's conclusions has to be predicated on participant replies rather than any possible prejudice or the researcher's own objectives. The researcher supplied an audit trail that detailed each stage of the data analysis that was done to support the results reached in order to demonstrate confirmability.

The researcher depended on multiple data sources to guarantee trustworthiness in the qualitative phase of the investigation. Literature studies and interviews were performed to determine if sources produced comparative judgements on face validity. The researcher sent the transcripts to the respondents to double-

check for factual inaccuracies once the transcriptions were finished. This helped to ensure internal uniformity and legitimacy.

1.7.3 Triangulation of Data from The Two Phases

Clarke and Braun (2017) argue that triangulation captures multiple voices and truths about the research topic instead of just using the one "right" result. Similarly, Denscombe (2017) characterizes triangulation as a strategy of anticipating things from different dimensions, enabling researchers to better understand the underlying phenomenon by examining it from different positions. In this study, the researcher employed triangulation by using multiple methods and data sources to compare the findings from Phase 1(quantitative phase) and Phase 2 (qualitative phase), respectively, creating credibility in the data collection instruments used and ultimately generating trustworthiness of the study results.

Furthermore, the investigator employed the member-checking technique, which entails sharing data, interpretations, and conclusions with research participants to elucidate their goals, rectify errors, and furnish supplementary information as needed. According to Cohen Manion and Morrison, (2017), a member check is critical to ensure credibility in qualitative research. Checks relating to data accuracy may take place immediately, whereby the researcher will ask respondents to check whether the transcriptions were accurately recorded and whether the words used match what they intended to convey. Interactive questioning enabled the researcher to probe the respondents to generate detailed data regarding the phenomena under scrutiny.

Once the themes were recognized from the data, triangulation was utilized between the themes distinguished from the particular data sources. In practical terms, this implied that the themes derived from the quantitative investigation in Phase 1 were triangulated with themes drawn from the semi-structured interviews in Phase 2 (the qualitative phase). The primary purpose was to guarantee consistency and differentiations between the themes. The researcher holds that the choice of the explanatory sequential research design for this inquiry accomplished triangulation by utilising a pluralistic methodology in which,

as Gray (2021) upheld, one strategy complements and compensates for the shortcomings of the other through sequential processing.

1.8 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Ethics guarantees that study participants and responders are treated fairly and with the highest respect by abiding by the standards of recognised professional practice. According to Creswell (2009), ethical concerns are present at every stage of the research process, from formulating the study questions and problem definition to gathering and analysing data. Creswell and Garrett (2008) emphasise that as research involves gathering data from human subjects, ethical issues must be carefully considered when doing scientific study. In this study, the following five fundamental research ethical principles were utilized:

1.8.1 Protecting Anonymity and Confidentiality

All participants in this study remain anonymous. Permission was sought through a cover letter detailing the nature of the research. The research participants were assured that none of the information they provided would in any way identify them to the study. All key informants were given alpha-numeric pseudonyms to guarantee anonymity. Before administering questionnaires, respondents were guaranteed privacy in the treatment of their data and that the reactions gathered would be utilized uniquely with the end goal of scholastic research.

1.8.2 Voluntary informed consent

Informed consent is an ethical and legal requirement for research involving human participants (Nijhawan *et al.,* 2013). This elucidates why research participants ought to be furnished with sufficient information regarding the nature and purpose of the investigation for them to make an informed decision to participate or not to participate in the research. In this inquiry, the researcher sought informed consent from the respondents after explaining the purpose of the research to them (Kumar, 2015). The participants were provided a letter through a Likert–scale questionnaire cover page. This letter expounded on the role of participants and the expected duration of participation. Above all, the

willingness of each research participant to respond (or not to respond) according to the intent of the tools was given particular consideration.

1.8.3 Beneficence

According to Beauchamp and Childress (2001), beneficence is linked with the Hippocratic "be of benefit, not harm". In conformity with this concept, researchers are duty-bound to protect participants from physical harm, psychological discomfort, and social disadvantage and act in the best interest of participants' welfare. Additionally, it is the role of the researcher to explain to the participant the purpose of the study and the benefits which will accrue from it. The concept of beneficence is intertwined with the principle of minimizing risk and maximizing benefit, which, according to Manthous (2012), researchers ought to weigh the risks involved with the research against the potential benefits of the knowledge gained to achieve the risk-benefit balance. For the research to be ethical, the benefits must be greater than any potential risk involving participants (Manthous, 2012).

1.8.4 Liberty of Withdrawal from Research

Edwards (2005) maintains that research participants reserve unconditional liberty to opt out of the research at any time without necessarily giving any reason. McMillan and Schumacher (2010) corroborate this assertion by arguing that voluntary participation in any scientific inquiry implies that participants cannot be compelled or coerced to participate in the study. Throughout this inquiry, the researcher guaranteed participants their absolute right to withdraw from the study.

1.8.5 Avoiding Deceptive Practices

Upholding honesty throughout the research process is one of the fundamental tenets of research ethics. Akaranga and Makau (2016) corroborate this by emphasizing the need for participants to be told the truth when researching to avoid deception. According to Oliver (2010), data should not be fabricated, falsified or misrepresented. In this study, the researcher took all measures to honor copyrights, patents and other intellectual property rights by avoiding

plagiarism and academic fraud. The significant impress of this study was to augment research and knowledge (Oliver,2010).

1.8.6 Permission to Conduct Research

Prior to the data collection, ethical approval was sought in compliance with University of South Africa (UNISA) policy standards, which were duly followed. The researcher obtained written approval from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) to conduct study in Wajir County, Kenya, following ethical clearance. Before data collection, the researcher sought support letters from respective county education offices, sub-county offices, and respective schools. The researcher took every sensible measure offering thoughtfulness regarding every ethical issue related to research.

1.9 CONTRIBUTION OF THE STUDY TOWARDS THEORY AND PRACTICE

Creswell (2014) maintains that for a study to be significant, it ought to contribute to scholarly knowledge in a particular discipline and help improve practice and policies. The contribution of this study culminates in the presentation of a capacity-building model derived from this study to build and sustain effective school governance in Kenya. This model presents this study's unique contribution to the discipline of education management in Kenya. The outcome of this model will manifest in the development of SBoM members endowed with the capacity for critical analysis, strategic perspective, contextual awareness and decision-making capacity to provide quality management in schools to promote quality learning.

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010), other contributions of the study are delineated as follows:

The study can help improve practice – Through the findings of this study, Kenya Education Management Institute (KEMI), Kenya Education Staff Institute (KESI), educational interest groups like Kenya Secondary School Heads Association (KESSHA), Kenya Primary Schools Heads Association (KEPSHA) and other

education stakeholders, will better appreciate the concept of capacity building among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenya.

The study will help promote and add to knowledge that could contribute to the policy debate on managing schools in Kenya, as there have been no studies on increasing capacity within SBoM. The findings of this study could also spur future research in education management and open up views on how to handle the concept of capacity building among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenya.

The study can help improve existing policy. The data generated from this study can potentially improve existing practices and policies regarding building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools. Such insight can be helpful to all stakeholders in the education sector in terms of their responsiveness when dealing with the issue of capacity building among SBoM.

The Ministry of Education could use these findings as a succession management plan in a bid to build and sustain the capacity of School Boards of Management.

1.10 PLANNING OF THE STUDY

In terms of planning, this study has six chapters that give a detailed discussion of the research, the methodology employed, an in-depth discussion of the research findings and the contribution of the research to the body of knowledge in the education sector.

The chapter layout of this thesis is designated as follows:

Chapter 1 is the synopsis of the thesis, including the background, the introduction and orientation to the study, which establishes the framework and justification for the study. The chapter focuses on the statement of the problem and research questions, research design and methodology, limitations and delimitations, definition of critical concepts and ethical considerations.

Chapter 2 handles a discursive literature review that is broad-based and divided into two sections. The first section deals with building capacity among school

governing structures in general and with reference to other countries. The second section deals with the literature review on building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenya. Research in this area describes SBoM in the Kenyan context and its functions as espoused in The Basic Education Act No. 14 of 2013 (RoK, 2012). Challenges facing SBoM, the concept of capacity building among SBoM and capacity building strategies that can assist them in governing schools in Kenya were established.

Chapter 3 provides a theoretical framework for the study and all aspects concerning the chosen framework.

Chapter 4 discusses the research methodology as dictated by the research question. Aspects such as research design, development of the research instrument, population, sample and sampling procedure for both quantitative and qualitative phases are dealt with in this chapter. The research methodology adopted is a mixed methods design. A structured questionnaire with open-ended, closed-ended and rating scale items was given to board members and chairpersons who were research participants. The results of the quantitative phase were triangulated with the results of the qualitative phase of this study.

Chapter 5 deals with the presentation, analysis, discussion, and interpretation of the research data obtained from the questionnaires during the quantitative phase of the study and data obtained from the ATLAS software during the qualitative phase.

Chapter 6 comprises the summary of the study, the research findings, recommendations, and the presentation of a capacity-building model derived from this study to build and sustain effective school governance in Kenya. This model presents this study's unique contribution to the discipline of education management in Kenya.

1.11 LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Study limitations represent weaknesses within the study that may affect the end outcome and inferences that can be drawn from the scientific inquiry (Ross &

Bibler, 2019). In research, limitations occur at different stages, ranging from the study design, data collection procedures, data analysis and research findings. This study's limitations encompassed legal and ethical considerations (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). The researcher was ethically responsible for protecting research participants' rights, liberties and welfare.

For the qualitative part, the study limitation would be subject effects. In research, subject effects refer to changes in behavior brought about by respondents themselves in response to the research situation (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010; Flick, 2013). In this inquiry, respondents may have wanted to increase positive or desirable behavior by acting competent and emotionally stable, which may have an effect on research findings. Regarding the quantitative phase of this study, respondents could delay the data analysis process by not completing the questionnaires on time. To avert this situation, the researcher kindly emphasized the importance of the completion date to the respondents.

Another limitation of the study regarding data collection would be social desirability bias. Krumpal (2013) defines social desirability bias as a situation where participants may provide biased input by responding to the questions they believe are favorable to the researcher rather than their authentic responses. Such a situation leads to inaccurate data, consequently threatening the internal validity of research findings. To mitigate this limitation, the researcher individually administered questionnaires to reduce participants' discomfort when answering sensitive questions regarding building capacity among Boards of Management for effective governance in Kenyan schools.The area of research, namely Wajir County in Kenya, is expansive, covering 55,840.6 km2, with most schools in rural areas. As a result, the researcher encountered difficulties coordinating scheduled visits to schools to carry out interviews owing to the dispersed nature of schools. There was also limited accessibility of some participants due to poor road network and insecurity as a result of perennial attacks and kidnappings by the Somalia-based Al Shabab terror group due to the proximity of some study sites to the war-torn Somalia.

Regarding the delimitations of the study, the research was geographically confined to the Northeastern region, notably Wajir County. The study was delimited to investigate the concept of capacity building among SBoM for effective school governance in public primary and secondary schools in Wajir County, Kenya.

1.12 DEFINING OF KEY CONCEPTS

In this study, the following concepts are utilized as defined.

1.12.1 School Boards of Management: This refers to the school governing structure in the Kenyan context consisting of persons appointed by the Cabinet Secretary of Education to manage the affairs of a public school on behalf of the minister as described in the Basic Education Act of 2013 (RoK, 2013).

1.12.2 Capacity: Linnell *et al.* (2018) see capacity as an association's ability to viably accomplish its primary goals and support itself over the long term. At the individual level, capacity is the ability of individuals to set and achieve objectives using one's knowledge and skills (Jaradat, Keating & Bradley, 2017). In this regard, capacity is the total of individual capabilities that can positively influence attaining organizational goals and objectives.

1.12.3 Capacity building: Enemark (2006) describes capacity building as the advancement and fortifying of both human resources and institutional assets. Capacity building is, therefore, a continual process of strengthening human skills and enhancing institutional resources to improve individual and organizational productivity.

1.12.4 Governance: According to Shanahan (2019), governance is defined as the exercise of authority, direction and accountability to serve the purpose of public education. Similarly, Shipley and Kovacs (2007) see governance as a vibrant interaction involving structures, processes, functions and traditions that an organization utilises to accomplish its predetermined objectives. Therefore, governance encompasses leadership, authority, accountability, shared decision-making, and control exercised to manage educational institutions effectively.

1.12.5 School governance: Gordon (2012) describes school governance as basic leadership forms that reflect responsibility, obligation and a commitment to innovative school improvement. School governance is thus how a school is directed by strictly adhering to proper management structures to achieve its strategic objectives.

1.13 SUMMARY

This chapter presented an orientation of the study with an introduction to the topic of study, rationale and background to the research problem:

How can capacity among school boards of management be built and maintained to enhance school governance in Kenyan schools?

This research problem prods questions which demand scientific inquiry to provide satisfying answers and solutions to the problem. In order to provide a clear route for pursuing the answers, the proper study design, methodology, and technique were described. A preliminary evaluation of the literature, the problem statement, the goals and objectives of the research, restrictions and constraints, and the definition of important terms were also covered in this chapter. Other important factors covered in this chapter were the study's benefaction to the body of knowledge, both theoretically and practically, as well as research ethics.

Next, in Chapter 2, the researcher presents an in-depth literature review from the global as well as from the Kenyan perspective relating to building capacity among Boards of Management for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE STUDY

2.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews relevant literature on the main issues related to capacity building among School Boards of Management (SBoM). The chapter is divided into two sections. The first section handles the concept of capacity building among school governing structures in general and with reference to a few other countries. The second section deals with the literature review on building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools. A description of SBoM in the Kenyan context and its functions is explored. Challenges facing SBoM, the concept of capacity building among SBoM and capacity building strategies that can assist them in governing schools in Kenya are established.

2.2 THE CONCEPT OF CAPACITY BUILDING AMONG SCHOOL GOVERNING STRUCTURES: GLOBAL PERSPECTIVES

2.2.1 Introduction

Although the terms 'capacity building' and 'capacity development' are occasionally used interchangeably, their meanings are the same regardless of the context in which they are applied. According to Haruna and Edino (2014), capacity building is defined as the enhancement of human resources and management systems to foster a supportive environment in which such talents can be utilized to full advantage. Globally, capacity building has become an issue of public attention because a sufficiently educated and trained workforce is regarded as vital in the pursuit of economic growth and transformation to the 21st-century Knowledge – Based Economies (KBEs), according to research by Levy and Murnane (2004) as well as Dimmock and Goh (2011).

Building human and social capital is an integral competent factor in any organization's success because it emboldens the workforce by enhancing self-confidence. According to Malyan and Jindal (2014), the core function of institutional capacity building is to provide a pool of people with the fundamental knowledge and skills for strategic thinking and the ability to formulate policies and

programs that directly support development activities at the school level. This line of argument is consistent with Ezeanolue and Ezinwa (2022), whose empirical studies on human capital development found that the pace of a nation's economic and social development is determined by its human resources more than its capital or natural resources. This justifies why organizations invest much of their resources in building a viable and skilled workforce.

Building human capital has attracted considerable attention across the globe. The most critical aspect amplifying the need for capacity building as a veritable engine for sustained national development in any country today is acquiring expanded human capital in an increasingly knowledge-based global economy (Haruna & Edino, 2014). According to the Economic United Nations (2018), institutions should have employees with appropriate knowledge, resources and necessary tools to perform their functions efficiently and adequately deal with the mandates under their jurisdiction. Notably, the success of any organization is dependent upon experienced, knowledgeable, skilled and competent manpower who can support the achievement of predetermined organizational goals and objectives.

Capacity-building programs among school leaders are essential in improving students' academic achievement. Memon *et al.* (2006) assert that school leadership and capacity building are not mutually exclusive. As a result, to enhance educational quality, the education system should promote school leadership by offering the necessary exposure and professional development. In this regard, solid instructional management, clear learning standards and a conducive learning environment are urged upon school leaders and managers to launch a strategy that would foster the development of schools (Magulod, 2017).

The role of school governing structures in promoting quality education in developed and developing nations cannot be over-emphasized. According to Akinyi (2017), SBoM is critical in determining the school's goals and developing strategic plans to improve students' academic performance in Kenya. This implies that to improve the efficacy of school boards, there is a need to

strengthen their functional capacities. Razik and Swanson (1995) define functional capacities as managerial skills required to develop, implement and evaluate strategies, programs and projects to achieve organizational goals and objectives. In this regard, building school boards' capacity should be prioritized in educational policy initiatives to achieve effective school governance.

In the next section, the researcher provides an overview of capacity building among school governing structures, focusing on a few selected and diverse countries. Background information on the nature and functions of school governing structures in these countries is also briefly explored.

2.2.2 United States and Canada

Each educational institution in the United States of America (USA) has a school board of management as the primary policy-making body (Ojijo *et al.,* 2020). Local school boards, acting under state laws, are in charge of most public schools in the USA. The boards carry out all the managerial roles for the schools to achieve their goals (Delagardelle, 2006). These boards are organized so that citizens have a significant role in their children's education. Concerning their roles and responsibilities, school board members, among other things, approve the school budget, hire and review the work of the superintendent, ensure effective organizational planning, ensure legal and ethical integrity by maintaining accountability, provide support and orientation for new board members, ensure adequate financial, physical, human and time resources for effective functioning of schools. These boards also set their school's policy, vision, accountability requirements and advocacy (Gawley,2014).

In terms of strengthening the capacity of school leaders in the United States, Fitzpatrick (2007) reports that the Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) in Atlanta, Georgia, has developed a research-based, extensively tested leadership preparation and development framework aimed at improving leadership preparation, handling the needs of school leaders in particular situations and improving the school as a system. This framework covers competency areas that include monitoring the curriculum, creating a high-performance learning culture,

coaching, team-building, developing practical internships, professional development and mentoring for leaders. Similarly, Koop (2019) reveals that the New Jersey School Boards Association (NJSBA) oversees and offers professional development to school board members in New Jersey through online platforms and face-to-face presentations. This is designed to bolster board members' governance skills to match their immense responsibilities.

Education is a provincial and territorial responsibility in Canada and is not under the federal government's jurisdiction (Robinson, 2006). Consequently, elementary and secondary education is entirely administered at the provincial, school board and school levels (Lessard & Brassard, 2005). Research findings by Galway and Sheppard (2013) indicate that school boards in Canada reflect society's long-held notion that educational governance should represent community and regional values and goals. In light of this, Overgaard (2019) argues that locally elected school boards in Canada align with Canadian ideals and improve students' outcomes when they exercise effective governance.

In terms of functions, Plough (2014) confirms that school boards in Canada are responsible for hiring a board superintendent who serves as their chief executive officer with the express authority to manage the general supervision of the school system and the implementation of the board's policies. In addition, the school board can deliberate and make decisions. One of its fundamental obligations is to guarantee that all students in its jurisdiction receive the services to which they are entitled in conformity with the central authority's prescriptions.

Concerning capacity building among SGBs, Bradshaw and Osborne (2010) attests that provincial associations across Canada create professional development modules and materials to support their school board members and trustees. These associations include the Quebec English School Boards Association ((QESBA)), Manitoba School Boards Association (MSBA), Ontario Public School Boards Association (OPSBA) and Saskatchewan School Boards Association (SSBA). According to Campbell and Fullan (2019), the most compelling reason to sustain and establish effective school boards through

capacity development is the relationship between functional school boards and students' academic achievement. Campbell and Fullan's findings reflect Van Buskirk (2020) study conclusions, which state that the School Board Governance (SBG) and the Student Achievement Centre (SAC) were formed in Canada to assist school boards in improving students' achievement. SBG and SAC's top agenda is offering services to school boards to conduct surveys, analyse results and provide them with training on areas that may need strengthening.

Studies in the United States and Canada consistently reveal a link between a set of attributes of school boards and higher students' accomplishments (Cotton, 2003). This aligns with the research by Jayapragas (2016) which highlighted the empirical link between school leadership and improved student outcomes. Similarly, Overgaard's (2019) study on students' accomplishments showed that strengthening school boards' competence as critical partners is achievable and promising. Therefore, an examination of the literature reveals that it is imperative to enhance the capacity of school leaders to meet the challenges and changing trends of the school system in the 21st century.

The comparative analysis of these two countries concludes that local school boards have much discretion in managing schools under their jurisdiction. Based on the discussion above, empirical evidence shows that capacity building among SGBs in the United States and Canada directly affects students' academic outcomes. Concerning the role of SGBs in capacity building, it is clear from the existing literature that school board associations in both countries play a significant role in building the capacity of their members to broaden and deepen their skills for effective school governance. It is also imperative to note that the external actors equally play a significant role in assisting school boards to execute their functions, as illustrated by SBG and SAC in Canada and the SREB in Atlanta, Georgia. The situation regarding capacity building among SGBs in these two countries enhances the researcher's knowledge base. It will assist in integrating research findings in this study with the existing body of knowledge

concerning study objectives, namely school board functions, capacity-building strategies, investment and actors that embed capacity-building efforts.

2.2.3 Hong Kong

According to Wu (2015), all aided schools in Hong Kong are required to establish their own Incorporated Management Committee (IMC) to practice SBM in line with the Hong Kong Education Bureau (HKEB) under the Hong Kong Education (Amendment) Ordinance (HKEB, 2005). In Hong Kong, SBM entails decentralising decision-making from the Hong Kong Education Department (HKED) to schools in financial matters, personnel procedures, and curriculum design and delivery (HKEB, 2005). In order to decipher the meaning and context of self-management in Hong Kong schools, Cheung and Cheng (1996) indicated that a multi-level framework is crucial for practicing self-management in basic learning institutions to pursue education quality and effective school governance.

In order to support school improvement, the Advisory Committee on SBM (2000) proposed that the HKEB adopt a consistent set of measures to improve the quality of education in Hong Kong. According to HKEB (2005), some strategies include professional development for principals and teachers and training for school managers. To enhance their capacity, the Hong Kong Education Bureau (HKEB) established several training workshops and programs to provide more possibilities for middle managers as school leaders to be more professionally and internationally equipped with relevant skills and competencies (HKED, 2002).

In the same context, the Quality School Improvement Project (QSIP) of the period 2004-2011 was developed by the Hong Kong Institute of Education of the Chinese University of Hong Kong with the primary goal of creating an environment conducive to quality education and strengthening the professional capacity of principals, middle managers and frontline teachers (Wu, 2015). According to Wong and Liu (2018), the Hong Kong Government attempted to provide newly appointed principals with professional training through induction programs. However, Walker and Dimmock (2005) criticised these programs for

weak links with significant education reforms and leadership practices in real-life school settings.

Ng and Chan (2014) conducted a study on middle leaders' continuing professional development in Hong Kong primary schools. They discovered that middle leaders in primary schools lack training opportunities and that there is a high demand for administrative, financial, crisis, and human resource management skills, as well as interpersonal, legal knowledge regarding school governance, curriculum, and instructional leadership capacities. To mitigate the impact of reforms and globalisation on school development, Ng and Szeto (2016) point out that the HKEB has commissioned tertiary institutions to offer structured professional development courses. These courses are intended to meet the needs of middle managers, as well as newly appointed and serving principals, who require leadership development. Furthermore, recently appointed principals stated that their early principalship years were much aided by their experiences and mentorship from colleagues and mentors (Ng & Szeto, 2016).

Having provided an account of school governance in Hong Kong with respect to capacity building among school leaders, it is evident that the concept of capacity building is purpose-driven towards improvement and developing capacities of middle managers and school principals. Empirical studies have shown that the Hong Kong government, through the HKEB, tertiary institutions and higher institutions of learning, have played a critical role in building the capacity of school leaders by establishing training workshops and programs with the primary objective of guaranteeing quality education in Hong Kong. Regarding the role of SGBs in capacity building, school leaders and middle managers in Hong Kong have played a significant role in enhancing their skills through networking with peers and working with mentors as an internal capacity-building strategy.

Based on this discussion, available literature yields several insights concerning the concept of capacity building among school leaders. The first insight is on the strategies put in place, and the second is on the actors and investments that account for capacity-building efforts. This understanding gives the researcher

impetus to address research objectives in this study with particular attention to school leadership, governance challenges, and capacity-building strategies, which will be reflected in research findings. This will contribute to the existing body of knowledge by drawing illustrations from both countries through comparative analysis.

2.2.4 Indonesia

Local governments in Indonesia have the power and authority to administer their particular regions, including education, thanks to the principle of decentralisation of regional governance (Winardi, 2017). The decentralisation of governance in the education system in Indonesia was enforced by the Ministry of National Education (MoNE) via Laws No 22 and 25 of 1999 (MoNE, 2013). SBM was mandated by Ministerial Regulation No. 87 on school accreditation in 2004 with the express authority to accommodate the communities' aspirations on operational policies and sector education programs, to encourage more community roles and to facilitate the establishment of education service provision at the school level in a transparent and accountable manner (MoNE, 2016).

In an effort to raise student achievement, improve school quality, and promote improved teaching practices, Indonesian schools have reportedly been enforcing an obligatory SBM policy since 2001 (Bandur, Hamsal & Furinto, 2021). In the same vein, Bandur (2012) certifies that the Commission of National Education was founded by the Central Government of Indonesia in 2001 and that, in order to raise the standard of national education, it was suggested that school councils be formed. In order to improve the standard of national education, parent involvement in school governance, and the promotion of democratic principles in schools, these councils were considered essential.

Chen (2011) conducted a study on SBM, school decision-making, and education outcomes in Indonesian primary schools. The findings showed that SBM had aided schools in making wise choices regarding resource allocation, hiring more (non-civil servant) teachers, and fostering a supportive learning environment that included raising teacher attendance rates. Bjork (2003) explains that schools in

Indonesia are given autonomy and flexibility through SBM to strengthen the self-governance of their resources and operations, allowing them to foster an atmosphere promoting sustainable development. Similar views are advanced by Karam *et al.* (2012), who attests that SBM was designed to offer schools broad authority to plan, implement and manage their educational programs and classroom instruction in conformity with local social norms and culture in Indonesia.

According to the OECD (2015), educational leadership is especially vital in decentralised systems like Indonesia, where high-quality local leadership and oversight are required to improve teaching practice and student outcomes. However, Dawaon, Wibawa and Rimbatnaja (2013), in the Education Sector Analytical and Capacity Development Partnership (ACDP) report, found that following the implementation of the decentralisation policy, principals or supervisors' capacity to lead and manage their teachers had not increased. These findings are further supported by a review conducted by the International Institute for Educational Planning (2007) which identified many deficiencies in the knowledge and skills of school supervisors. These findings necessitate capacity-building initiatives to bolster school leaders' ability to manage their schools effectively.

Rini *et al.* (2019) conducted a study on SBM in Indonesia focusing on decision-making, problems, and problem–solving strategies. The study findings indicated that all principals need regular professional development regarding leadership training, management education, and strategic planning training to improve Indonesia's education quality. These findings are backed up by Karam *et al.* (2012), who found that school council members ought to undergo capacity building through training to upgrade their knowledge and skills with regard to the goals and purposes of SBM and School Council functions, which include developing a school vision, engaging in participatory planning, budgeting and monitoring school indicators to assess school activities.

According to Shaeffer (2013), many existing mechanisms need to be strengthened and better integrated to ensure further and continuous capacity building of all relevant actors with regard to the School Operational Assistance Program (SOAP) and SBM. These include District Education Office (DEO) support units, teacher and principal working groups, pre-service and in-service principal training programs, and civil society organizations. Complementing this assertion, Harris (2016) observes that capacity building for educational stakeholders in the Sikka district of Indonesia, for example, has resulted in several significant achievements, the most noteworthy of which is enhanced community involvement in academic management procedures. External actors have significantly contributed to capacity building among Indonesian school leaders. This is exemplified by the Australian Agency for International Development through its contribution to the Education Sector Strategic Plan via Australia's Education Partnership with Indonesia, which funded a training program for the period 2011-2012 targeting the principal, treasurer, and a school committee representative from every primary and junior secondary school in Indonesia (Sumintono, 2017).

In conclusion, it is apparent from the literature that capacity building among School Councils in Indonesia is at the heart of national policy initiatives aimed at increasing the quality of school leaders in terms of widening their experiences and updating their skills as far as effective school governance is concerned. In this context, empirical studies have provided concrete evidence that the government of Indonesia has put in place mechanisms designed to raise the standards of appointees in school leadership as well as honing the skills of senior administrators at District Education Offices in Indonesia. Additionally, the government of Indonesia, in collaboration with donor agencies and other stakeholders, have funded training programs for school leaders aimed at enhancing their capacity for effective school governance.

With reference to the role played by SGBs in capacity building, studies indicate that although School Councils do not have a clear policy on internal capacity-

building mechanisms, teacher and principal working groups are one of the strategies earmarked to be strengthened and better integrated to achieve effective school governance. The experiences drawn from Indonesia will be beneficial to the researcher in terms of addressing research objectives in the present study by way of making comparisons between school leadership in Indonesia and the Kenyan context with regard to the composition of SGBs, their functions, challenges, capacity building strategies and more importantly, the role of the national government in capacity building efforts. The understanding and insights gained from Indonesia, coupled with the Kenyan experiences dictated by the research findings, will help build on the knowledge concerning capacity building among school leaders.

2.2.5 Singapore

Singapore created a highly centralised educational system to ensure education was run to support economic development (Lo, 2010). However, the government recognised that decentralisation would improve educational leadership regarding efficiency and innovation. As a result, government-supported schools gained autonomy and freedom in different aspects (Lee, 2022). A study by Huang *et al.* (2019) concludes that the launch of the school excellence model in 2000 was the hallmark of decentralised centralism in education management in Singapore. According to Huang *et al.* (2019), this model serves as a quality assurance tool, a framework for school–based innovation and diversity and a strategy for maximising students' potential and contributions.

School leaders in Singapore are responsible for guiding their schools to educational success (Wong & Ng, 2021). In essence, Singapore school leaders are pivotal in ensuring positive learning outcomes in their schools. This assertion agrees with Busher and Harris (1999), who explain that middle leaders have been identified as the crucial 'linking pin' that influences school improvement and effectiveness and a key driving force to operationalise positive and meaningful education change in schools.

According to Hairon and Dimmock (2012), the following are some of the interconnected and complimentary leadership practices employed by school leaders to influence student learning outcomes positively: Planning, coordinating and evaluating teaching and the curriculum; formulating school goals and objectives; promoting and actively participating in teacher training and development, expanding the curriculum to secure broader student engagement, encouraging collaborative inquiry and school leaders and educators, allocation of resources including deployment of personnel and developing a learning-centred school culture.

According to Tan *et al.* (2017), it is vital that skilled leaders and educators analyse policies for implementation at the school level and then actualise the plans in tangible and practical ways in the respective schools' context. This means that skilled and competent personnel are critical factors concerning policy formulation and implementation, and therefore, strengthening their capacity should be given particular attention. In Singapore, building the capacity of school leaders and teachers is a multi–pronged strategy. According to Note (2019), these leaders are recruited from a pool of teachers. Those with leadership potential are promoted quickly and provided with mentoring and professional development through Professional Learning Communities (PLCs) to help them develop their capacity for long-term school improvement.

PLCs are seen as a strategy for enhancing the ability of educators and school administrators to implement curriculum modifications at the school level in Singapore, according to Dimmock and Hairon (2011). Senge (1990) laid the foundation for the concept of these communities when he claimed that "learning communities" are those settings in which members are continuously developing their ability to produce the outcomes they want, where novel and expansive thought patterns are fostered, where members explore collective aspirations, and where members continuously learn to see the "whole" together.

Koh (2018) mentions that the National Institute of Education is a critical prayer in preparing and strengthening leaders' and teachers' ICT skills for teaching and

learning. Several programs and avenues for professional development are available, including school-based workshops customised for schools and leadership development programs (Koh, 2018). In March 2001, the National Institute of Education in Singapore, in collaboration with the Ministry of Education, launched the Leaders in Education Program, a six–month milestone executive program for carefully selected vice principals and ministry officials (Jayapragas, 2016). All potential school leaders participate in the program, which focuses on leadership, critical self-reflection, and integrating experiences and principles that may be applied throughout their careers. Throughout the process, a network of peers and formal training opportunities provide support and capacity growth. (Wong, Hairon and Ng, 2019).

From the foregoing discussion, evidence suggests that capacity building through management and leadership training in Singapore constitutes the first step to releasing school leaders' potential to improve school quality. Educational leaders who participate in professional development programs update and extend their knowledge and enhance their performance on the job by applying new knowledge and skills to implement the best educational practices in schools. In this context, the government of Singapore, in partnership with the National Institute of Education, has played a critical role in the capacity-building of educational leaders. It is worth noting that SGBs in Singapore have a significant role in capacity building through PLCs and a network of peers as internal capacity-building strategies. In the context of the present research, the situation in Singapore is crucial in addressing study objectives by way of analysing the similarities or differences between SGBs in Kenya and Singapore with a specific focus on their functions, challenges and capacity-building strategies put in place to assist them in carrying out their duties. This will assist the researcher in facilitating the interpretation of research results.

2.2.6 Pakistan

Community participation in school management gained traction in Pakistan in 1994 when the Social Action Program was implemented (Ghulam Behlol *et al*., 2017). Since then, community involvement has been a feature of all national and

provincial education policy documents, albeit under various names and with changing compositions. The School Committee (SC), also known as the School Management Committees (SMCs), Parent Teacher Associations and School Councils, is one of the several committees, schemes, agencies and commissions that operate in the elementary school system and plays a critical role in achieving the goals of the 1998 -2010 National Education Policy (Kamran, Nasreen & Iftikhar 2020). In this regard, these committees are authorised to engage in elementary schools' financial and administrative management and participate in constructing the school's physical facilities.

A study by Habib (2010) revealed that SMCs in Pakistan could not accomplish their designated tasks because members were not sufficiently trained or dedicated enough to carry out their duties. Similar sentiments are echoed by Ismail (2020), who claims that SMC members are used as rubber stamps to ratify the decisions taken by the school administration, mainly regarding financial matters. Complementing this perspective, Hopkins (2001) revealed that many of Pakistan's school committees are ineffective, with head educators taking charge of the entire school operation. To facilitate the situation, the National Rural Support Program devised and implemented the School Council Capacity Building Project to help committees strengthen their ability to work effectively with the teaching community.

In Punjab, Pakistan's most populous province, school committees were founded in 1994 to strengthen public schools' governance and were made up of the headteacher, parents and a few prominent and literate community members (Asim *et al*., 2015). As a governing body in charge of primary and middle schools, SMCs in Punjab are tasked with obligations that necessitate skills, competence and technical knowhow to be practical. In terms of functions, the committee members are responsible for increasing student enrolment, managing the SC fund, monitoring teachers, staff and student attendance, employing temporary instructors and staff, and keeping records of all transactions according to the Government of Punjab (Grover, 2015).

However, in a study on analysis of the monitoring role of school councils in government secondary schools in Punjab, Iqbal, Mahmood, and Syed (2020) found that most members of the school council do not know their responsibilities, a fact that can be attributed to illiteracy among SC members, skewed appointment procedure and lack of training. Similarly, Shah *et al.* (2012) states that school committees in Pakistan lack the competence and autonomy to perform their duties effectively in terms of participation in overall school improvement due to a lack of understanding about their assigned tasks and responsibilities.

To boost the school committee members' confidence, Khan and Watson (2005) found that government–sponsored capacity building programs are frequently associated with off–the–job – training, which includes introducing new systems with or without corresponding procedures, manuals or equipment. These programs aim to disseminate information so that SC members will be better informed and skilled, allowing them to accomplish their responsibilities more effectively and contribute to overall school improvement. In the same breath, provincial governments established resource centres, according to the Pakistan Ministry of Education (GoP, 2004), where capacity building is a critical area in the post-devolution period, focused on the professional development of teachers, headteachers, field managers, planners and SMCs at the local level. Capacity building for SMCs is being done in several provinces through Public-Private Partnerships, with the government leasing this service to NGOs with effective community outreach, more organised resources and excellent communication skills.

In summary, the situation in Pakistan vis-à-vis the role played by SMCs in managing schools elucidates the need for capacity building to reinforce their ability to govern schools effectively. Available literature shows that most SMCs cannot execute their duties due to skills deficits engendered by insufficient training in school governance. In mitigation, the government of Pakistan engages the private sector and NGOs to offer capacity-building programs to SMCs to

bolster their potential for effective school governance. Given the preceding discussion, no empirical evidence suggests that SMCs play a significant role in building their capacity. Instead, they depend on the government-initiated programs achieved through public-private partnerships. The experiences drawn from Pakistan lay the foundation for the researcher to evaluate and synthesise relevant research and compare and contrast these experiences with the Kenyan situation regarding the functions, challenges faced by school boards, and capacity-building strategies, as will be dictated by research findings.

2.2.7 Northern Ireland

In Northern Ireland, school leadership is becoming more commonly recognised as essential to school improvement (Supovitz, 2014). In England, Wales and Northern Ireland, school governors are the overseers of schools, and they are assigned clearly defined responsibilities that include giving the school a clear vision, ethos and strategic direction; holding the headteacher accountable for the educational performance and ensuring prudent utilisation of financial resources at the school level (Wilkinson, 2019). Schools in Northern Ireland are managed by unpaid Boards of Governors who work with the principal to set the plans and policies of the school, appoint school staff, manage the spending of the school budget, and place and monitor standards within the school with the view of providing the best possible education and educational opportunities for all students (Gallagher, 2015).

Coopers (2007) researched school leadership in Northern Ireland and found that several essential tasks and responsibilities were bestowed upon them. Among the critical functions were human resource management, strategic direction and ethos, operations and accountability. Day *et al.* (2019) suggest that school leaders will require a wide range of abilities and attributes matching their tasks to accomplish these roles effectively. McCann and Delap (2015) claim that training, development, and mentorship initiatives are in place to support newly appointed school leaders in Northern Ireland and improve their effectiveness. Likewise, leaders are encouraged to develop professional partnerships/ critical friends and networks to help govern schools effectively.

According to Pont, Nusche and Moorman (2008), the Professional Qualification for Headship (PQH[NI]) was launched in Northern Ireland in 1999 as part of a school improvement program aimed at developing a pool of qualified leaders who met National Standards for Headteachers. Similarly, Dallat and Moran (1998) indicated that training has been developed to support a wide range of stakeholders within the school with courses developed for the whole staff, teachers, leaders, governors and parents with the primary goal of strengthening and deepening the school's integrated ethos as provided for by the Northern Ireland Council for Integrated Education (NICIE). Additionally, training can be used to develop managerial skills among the boards of governors, and the chairperson can advise the Education Authority, Council for Catholic Maintained Schools or the Northern Ireland Department of Education of any specific skills or experience which have a bearing on the recruitment of school governors (Gallagher, 2015).

The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development in Northern Ireland clearly shows the benefits of preparing individuals for leadership roles, investing in capacity to improve school performance, and shaping the school's overall quality (Fitzpatrick *et al.,* 2018). In essence, Continuous Professional Development is widely expected by school leaders as part of their terms and conditions, as this represents value for money, investment in human capital and, as impact is seen, investment in skills development, which is a significant driver of national productivity (Sahlin, 2023).

In conclusion, school governors are the epicentre of effective school governance in Northern Ireland. The Board of Governors has an essential strategic role in the school's management and corporate decisions concerning their statutory functions. Empirical research shows that various mechanisms have been initiated to bolster the ability of school governors in Northern Ireland. Capacity-building strategies that have been utilized include training, mentor support programs, professional learning communities and networking. With respect to the role played by SGBs in capacity building, school governors are encouraged to

develop professional partnerships and networks as an internal capacity-building strategy. At the same time, the government and other educational stakeholders invest in training programs. The situation in Northern Ireland concerning capacity building among SGBs will be of critical benefit to the researcher in addressing the research objectives of this study.

The knowledge gained from the literature will enable the researcher to establish the similarities and differences in SGB roles and responsibilities, challenges and capacity-building programs that characterise school governing structures in Kenya in relation to Northern Ireland, as may be established through the present study findings.

2.2.8 South Africa

Mahlangu (2008) avers that during the apartheid era, schools in South Africa were controlled by committees and boards, as supported by the National Department of Education, technically negating stakeholder participation. However, with the enactment of the South African Schools Act (SASA) No 84 of 1996 (RSA, 1996c), all state-funded schools in South Africa are required to have a democratically elected School Governing Body (SGB) comprised of the principal, teachers, non-teaching staff, learners' guardians, community leaders, parents and, in the case of secondary schools, learners (Mncube & Naidoo, 2014). SGBs have been given a prominent role in influencing the development and implementation of school policies, according to Kekana and Makura (2020). They are thus entrusted with steering fundamental concerns such as enforcing the language policy, budget, discipline, recruitment and promotion of teaching and non–teaching staff. According to Botha (2012) and Harber and Mncube (2013), SGBs are responsible for regulating the maintenance of school property, buildings, and financial management, as well as promoting principles such as transparency, accountability, fairness and providing equitable job opportunities to all.

Given the scope of the SGBs' powers, functions and responsibilities, members must possess sound knowledge, skills, expertise and capacity to execute their

mandate successfully (Nwosu & Chukwuere, 2017). Despite the enormous obligations bestowed upon SGBs, Litshani, Makhuvele and Mashau (2019) contend that most persons who become members of the SGB, particularly in rural areas and less affluent metropolitan regions, cannot interpret and implement governance policies at the school level. This can be attributed to high levels of illiteracy among SGB members and the irrelevant and inadequate training SGB members are subjected to during their term of office (Xaba, 2011).

Beckmann and Visser (1999) believe that the education authorities should train SGB members to avoid potentially significant difficulties that could jeopardise the whole purpose of public school SGBs as a democratic instrument for local administration. In this context, Van Wyk (2004) and Joubert (2008) concur that the amount of training received by members of SGBs is directly proportionate to their competency. Hence, capacity-building programs are of considerable practical relevance. In South Africa, Nyambi (2004) explains that the provincial education departments are responsible for building capacity for the SGBs at the provincial level.

Due to differences in the school governors' skill levels, the state supports capacity building through training for SGBs, balancing their empowerment with good accountability. In this regard, capacity building strengthens the ability of the SGB office bearers to fulfil their responsibilities, such as ensuring financial accountability (Mmako, 2018). Empirical studies corroborate this fact by indicating that most school governance functions prescribed by the South African Schools Act (RSA, 1996b) are specialist and complex and, therefore, require specialist skills, experience and competence to achieve predetermined school goals and objectives. (Chaka, 2008; Xaba & Ngubane, 2010; Xaba, 2011 & Duma, 2013).

In light of the preceding discussion, it is evident that SGBs in South Africa have been given particular attention due to the enormous responsibilities bestowed upon them. However, literature shows that most SGB members lack the experience and skills to perform their duties as school governors, thus prompting

the government of South Africa to initiate training programs meant to build their capacity. In the same vein, the provincial departments of education are required to provide capacity-building programs to the SGBs at the provincial level. Therefore, research indicates that SGBs do not have internal capacity-building strategies but depend on the government and provincial departments. In conclusion, the realities and the concerns about the functions and capacity building among SGBs in South Africa will assist the researcher in making comparisons with school governing structures in the Kenyan context in terms of composition, statutory functions, challenges, capacity-building strategies and actors that embed capacity building efforts as will be dictated by research findings emanating from the present study. This will help build on the existing body of knowledge as far as effective school governance is concerned.

2.2.9 Summary

This section dealt with the concept of capacity building among school governing structures from a global perspective, highlighting the experiences of a few diverse countries across the globe. The rationale for reviewing country-specific experiences is to gain insights regarding the concept of capacity building among SGBs for comparative analysis. While different countries record different experiences, one common ground underpinning the initiative in all the countries covered in this section stands out clearly: the need to enhance learners' outcomes. This is significant for this study because it will allow the expected research findings to be situated within the body of existing knowledge, thereby contributing to concept, theory and empirical research. Further, this section will be valuable in drawing the research instrument items of the constructs of capacity building.

Having discussed country-specific experiences for building capacity among SGBs, it is pertinent to note that capacity building in the education sector can be achieved through various strategies. This is the concern of the next section of this study.

2.3 SOME CAPACITY-BUILDING STRATEGIES IN EDUCATION GLOBALLY

2.3.1 Introduction

Training workshops, communities of practice, management consulting and mentoring programs are identified in this study from research literature as major pathways for strengthening SBoM members' capacity for effective school governance.

2.3.2 Training workshops

Training institutional personnel is an indispensable approach contributing to individual and institutional effectiveness. According to Nwabueze, Nwokedi and Edkpa (2018), training systematically develops employees' knowledge, abilities and attitudes to perform adequately and effectively on a specific assignment. According to Hashim *et al.* (2014), staff training and development is a work activity that can significantly impact an organization's overall performance and profitability. Onderi and Makori (2013) argue that the tasks and responsibilities of school governing bodies have become more complicated over time, necessitating the development of specific skills for effective school governance. In light of this, Samwel (2018) asserts that effective management is characterised by staff training. Conversely, building the capacity of SBoM can be accomplished through a one–off intensive training course or a modular training course.

It is commonly acknowledged that in order for school managers to succeed in their role, they must receive specialised training. According to Joel, Ogola and Malusu (2019), there is a rising understanding that optimal performance and outcomes are dependent on the calibre of school management. If public schools are to succeed, they must have highly qualified school administrators. In support of this claim, Foskett and Hemsely (2002) contend that management training is essential to the growth of an organisation because it increases employee motivation, which is necessary for success.

Training of school governors ranges from initial training to in-service and induction training. School Governing Bodies (SGBs), according to Van Wyk

(2007) suffer from a 'skills deficit' which affects their crucial role in school management. Similarly, Tsotesti, Van Wyk, and Lemmer (2008) affirm that educational goals cannot be actualised without the training of SGBs. Therefore, SBoM must possess the necessary traits, skills, and professional competence to pivot academic development effectively at the school level.

Hebriniak (2005) cites the lack of training of school managers as the obstacle that hinders the effective implementation of strategic plans in schools. Similarly, Maluleka (2008) underlines the need for SGB member training to gain the requisite competence and technical know-how to accomplish their roles and responsibilities effectively. In this study, the researcher is of the opinion that induction training and induction packs for SBoM can help them attain their full potential and improve school outcomes. This conforms with a study by Price Water House Coopers (2007), which found that induction greatly benefits newly appointed school managers by allowing them to understand better their roles and expectations in line with the basic tenets of effective school governance.

As explained by Pont *et al.* (2008), one of the biggest problems facing schools in the USA is the lack of training for school administrators inspite of the fact that head teachers and school administrators are responsible for the accomplishments or shortcomings of their institutions. In Pakistan, Ahmad and Ullah (2014) state that the government funds Parents Teachers Associations (PTAs) training to equip them with organizational and management skills in preparation for them to carry out their leadership and managerial responsibilities. In Myanmar, Bray (2001) observed that the training of PTAs was sponsored by community-based non-governmental organizations (NGOs), thereby empowering them in terms of diversifying school management roles. In Kenya, the Ministry of Education conducts annual in-service training for deputy headteachers and headteachers to enhance quality education. However, the training of SBoM members has not been given prominence.

2.3.3 Communities of Practice

The concept of Communities of Practice (CoPs) has received increased attention from school leaders looking for ways to foster school improvement (Blankenship & Ruona, 2007). CoPs, according to Mohajan (2017), is a group of people who share a passion, a concern or a collection of concerns about a specific topic and meet regularly to exchange their knowledge and skills and learn how to do things better. This line of inquiry contends that learning in CoPs is particularly effective since situated knowledge is shared among peers who engage in the same occupational practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991).

Sanchez-Cardona *et al.* (2012) asserted that CoPs have been recognised as social structures that help create explicit and implicit knowledge by allowing information sharing and collaboration among members of an institution. The focus of CoPs, according to Rimey (2021), is on the group members' collaborative work, which is shaped by their collective learning, with mutual involvement, joint effort and shared repertoire as elements of a CoPs relationship. Mohajan (2017) concurs by explaining that CoPs are characterised by inseparable membership, shared practice, and joint exploration of ideas.

Findings from a study by Beauchamp *et al.* (2014) echoed the results of the Duncan–Howell (2010) study, in that the most important professional development experiences for teachers entailed collaboration with peers. Beauchamp *et al.* (2014) noted that collaboration significantly impacted teacher participants' self- and collective efficacy. Similarly, Leithwood, Leonard and Sharratt (1998) offered empirical evidence of the advantages of collaborative approaches to professional development in autonomy, relevancy, authentic learning, group problem-solving, resource sharing and self–efficacy.

Professional knowledge exchange is widely recognised as vital to improving the efficiency and effectiveness of social development activities (Sethi, 2017). CoPs is one technique to capture and enable knowledge transfer. According to Saint-Onge and Wallace (2012), the primary purpose of CoPs is to extend the organization's learning potential rather than to design and manage training

programs. Community members can pool their knowledge, share their experiences, test new ideas, enhance prior processes and procedures, and develop solutions that result in increased capabilities and performance.

The concept of CoPs, according to Farnsworth, Kleanthous and Wenger (2016), refers to a social process of negotiating competence in a domain over time. Pyrko, Dorfler and Eden (2017) note that meaningful CoPs arise from the 'thinking together' process in which people mutually guide one another through their understandings of the same challenges in their area of mutual interest and thereby indirectly exchange tacit knowledge. Supplementing this perspective, Roberts (2006) explains that CoPs make a group more cohesive and prosperous in social capital, including shared tools and practices and a shared sense of identity. The empirical literature confirms that CoPs are an advantageous form of a learning perspective because the learning occurs on a peer-to-peer basis in the context of the problems being addressed and because the interactions among the members of the organization frequently lead to innovation and knowledge-building.

CoPs are social structures that facilitate the generation of explicit and tacit knowledge by encouraging information sharing and collaboration among their members, according to Gonzalez, Lugo, and Cardona (2012). Similar sentiments reverberate via Saint-Onge & Wallace (2012), who acknowledge that through CoPs, members of the community can pool their knowledge, share their experiences, try out new ideas, improve past processes and procedures, and come up with solutions that result in increased capabilities and enhanced performance. In the context of this study, the researcher is of the opinion that board members drawn from various schools can utilise CoPs to pool their skills, ideas and share their experiences with regard to school governance to embolden their effectiveness.

2.3.4 Management Consultancy

Building the capacity of school governing structures can undoubtedly be achieved by applying management consultancy. According to Hermel-Stanescu

and Svasta (2014), management consultancy entails providing objective advice and assistance relating to an organization's strategy, structure, systems, management and operations to achieve its long-term goals and objectives. This conforms to Hanisch (2012), who describes management consultancy as an advisory service contracted for and provided by experienced and competent professionals to analyse managerial challenges and support organizations, business enterprises, and the general public.

Kubr (2002) argues that management consultancy has long been recognised as a valuable professional service that helps managers analyse and solve practical problems confronting their organizations, improve organizational performance and learn from the experiences of other managers and organizations. According to Nuorkivi (2009), management consulting's fundamental goal is to develop management practices and achieve this goal; management consulting competes with academic institutions while simultaneously cooperating with them, creating a part of the knowledge management industry.

Acknowledging the value of consultancy in South African schools, Du Plessis (2019) proposes that the school consultants' function be seriously considered. Complementing this perspective, Hollinger (2017) maintains that external school consultation should receive more attention because of its precious aspect, which concerns significance and relevance in the advice that can be beneficial to the schools so that they can identify areas in need of improvement, determining best solutions and ensuring success. Hargreaves *et al.* (2010) hold similar views, claiming that many schools worldwide rely on external school-based consultants to implement innovation and transformation.

Consultants' expertise, skills and assets are used by the International Council of Management Consulting Institutes (ICMCI) to provide objective counsel and expert knowledge and skills to assist firms in solving challenges, generating value and maximising growth and improvement (Curnow & Reuvid, 2005). Given this understanding, external management consulting professionals help business owners better understand their mission to improve their capacity to implement

successful and relevant management processes. In this regard, functional consulting in human resources, financial management and productivity enhancement is available in addition to organizational consulting (Radovan *et al*., 2017). In the school context, it is vital to engage management consultants to assist school managers in addressing governance challenges that may hinder the effective functioning of schools.

In the United States, for instance, the federal government's competitive award program *Race to the Top* encourages collaborations (Mohammed, Welch & Hazel Bussey *et al*., 2015), and a growing number of institutions are emerging to provide consulting services to school leaders in the quest for comprehensive school reforms. Similar programs have been initiated across the globe. For example, the new Research Councils UK (RCUK, 2012) in the United Kingdom set out to create an organised and strategic structure for Higher Education institutions to work in conjunction with secondary schools to facilitate systematic improvements at the school level.

Similarly, in Germany, Dedering (2018) underscores that external consultancy goes hand in hand with the belief that external experts may favourably affect internal school development processes and outcomes. According to Sahlberg (2011), educational change literature is primarily technical discourse produced by academics or change consultants, emphasising that they should be active in education policy and reform. This implies that external consultants have a significant role to play in assisting schools to achieve their objectives. For example, Saint-Martin (2017) mentions that the Institute of Management Consultants (IMC) USA aims to give independent and objective counsel to diagnose and solve problems and opportunities and support the implementation of solutions to help firms define and accomplish their goals. A similar approach can be adopted to upscale managerial skills and competencies among school managers for effective school governance.

2.3.5 Mentoring programs

School managers should undergo mentoring processes to attain managerial potential at the school level. As argued by Smith (2013), mentoring originates in Homer's Odyssey. According to Greek mythology, Odysseus entrusted his only heir, Telemachus, to Mentor, his wise and trusted friend while he (Odysseus) prepared to fight in the Trojan War. In light of this context, Lunsford (2021) defines *mentoring* as the process by which an experienced and empathetic person knowledgeable in his or her content area (mentor) teaches and coaches another individual (mentee) in person and virtually, to ensure competent workplace performance and provide ongoing professional development.

According to Albinsson and Arnesson (2017), mentorship is a method that is used both in professional education and training and in working life to introduce new employees to their workplace. In the school context, experienced board members' knowledge, abilities and skills can be passed on to newly appointed novice members to develop their efficiency and effectiveness. Similar views are echoed by Allen *et al.* (2004), who argue, based on empirical research, which has demonstrated that mentored individuals advance more rapidly in the organization, are less likely to leave the organization and express more favourable work attitudes than those not mentored.

With regard to the concept of capacity building, Reyes (2003) avers that participation in effective mentoring programs is one avenue used to provide the support necessary for developing leaders. While it is widely believed that the mentor is mainly responsible for establishing a mentor-mentee relationship based on mutual trust and respect, Feyissa, Balabanova and Woldie (2019) posit that mentoring is a relationship involving a shared power model, mutually beneficial and a professional development activity aimed at improving professional skills of mentees based on their needs. In educational leadership, Klasen and Clutterbuck (2002) acknowledge that mentoring fosters a sense of teamwork and is vital in assisting new school principals in learning, growing and becoming more effective in their roles.

A study by Wells–Frazier (2016) concluded that mentoring is a method of supporting leadership development in which a less experienced employee learns from the experiences of a more experienced employee to realise managerial potential. Similarly, Taylor (2000) claims mentoring is an interactive, facilitative process based on educational and social learning theories that promote learning and development. On their part, Allen, Eby and Lentz (2006) explain that mentoring has been primarily examined in the context of large corporations where it is used for training and succession planning. Mentoring programs can build school managers' capacity to achieve predetermined school goals and objectives.

In contrast to their developing counterparts, developed countries have recognised the necessity of mentoring and embraced it for enhanced school management (Ongek, 2016). In Malaysia, for example, Tahir *et al.* (2016) investigated the benefits of headship mentoring among Malaysian schools and received positive feedback from principals. According to the latter, mentoring improved their professional value as leaders and broadened their knowledge base through sharing. In South Africa, structured mentoring is frequently utilized in organizations to assist employees at various stages of their careers, and it is often used to facilitate induction, career promotion, skill acquisition and problem-solving. In addition, structured mentoring aids in developing organizational capacity by offering chances for contextualised learning (Department of Education, RSA, 2008).

In the United States, Shaw (2016) indicates that the Kansas Educational Leadership Institute provides high-quality mentoring and induction for new superintendents and principals in Kansas. Mentoring and induction provided by veteran superintendents familiar with leadership difficulties are offered through on-site visits. In addition, through regional cohort networks, participation at professional organizations' state meetings, and professional learning seminars, new superintendents participate in activities to enhance their capacity. In Missouri, USA, Gettys, Martin and Bigby (2010) conducted a study to develop

instructional leadership skills as supported through mentoring. The study found that mentoring programs provide continual professional development for leaders to help them become more effective.

The findings of Gettys, Martin and Bigby (2010) confirm the findings of Gilles and Wilson (2004), who reported that mentoring is a form of professional growth that allows mentors to gain insights into their mentoring duties and the intricacies of the education system. In this regard, Fieldman *et al.* (2012) articulate that successful mentorship necessitates skilled mentors and rigorous mentorship training to navigate the mentor–mentee relationship and provide guidance on obtaining institutional support. Thus, it is evident from the preceding discussion that mentorship programs can potentially build the capacity of school leaders in developing and developed countries.

2.3.6 Summary
The above discussion has highlighted some capacity-building strategies from the global perspective that can be utilized to bolster the ability of school governing structures to carry out their statutory functions effectively. These strategies encompass training workshops, communities of practice, management consultancy, and mentoring programs. In the school context, these strategies have positively impacted the performance of managerial functions.

Literature suggests that training as a capacity-building strategy is designed to give school managers the knowledge and skills to enhance institutional performance. On the other hand, knowledge sharing among members of school governing structures can embolden their capability to perform their role functions through communities of practice as an internal capacity-building mechanism. Further to this discussion, it is discernible from the literature that management consultants can use their skills to provide objective advice and expertise and help school managers develop any specialist skills they may be lacking. In the same vein, mentorship programs not only foster a sense of teamwork and worthiness among school leaders but also have the potential to broaden their knowledge base through sharing, thereby augmenting effective school governance.

The researcher found a discussion of this section worthwhile as it provides scientific and empirical proof regarding the benefits of various capacity-building strategies in education from a global perspective. The insights gained will be of critical importance to the researcher with respect to the interpretation of research findings and enable the researcher to place this present study within the context of existing literature, making a case for why further study is needed.

In the next section, the researcher will examine the literature on capacity building among school governing structures within the Kenyan context. The researcher will draw particular attention to effective school governance and what it entails: an in-depth description of SBoM in the Kenyan context, their statutory functions, existing challenges facing these governing structures and capacity-building strategies devised to assist them in discharging their responsibilities effectively and efficiently.

2.4 BUILDING CAPACITY AMONG SCHOOL BOARDS OF MANAGEMENT FOR EFFECTIVE SCHOOL GOVERNANCE: THE KENYAN CONTEXT.

2.4.1 Introduction

According to Fukuyama (2013), effective governance happens when a state has the capacity, legitimacy and authority to deliver public services, control the economy, maintain order and the rule of law, collect and use revenue and act in the public interest. Kadir and Nimota (2019) explains that effective governance encompasses a set of responsibilities and procedures exercised by an institution to provide strategic direction to ensure educational objectives are achieved through effective and efficient use of resources, accountability and participation of all stakeholders in decision-making. This means that effective school governance is responsible for quality educational outcomes. As Hutton (2015) indicated, good governance, expressed by effective management and accountability, is the most crucial underpinning factor for improving schools' and students' performance, mainly when implemented within a decentralised framework.

According to Joynes *et al.* (2019), the current governance of the educational system entails a complicated and extensive set of interrelationships amongst inter-dependent groups and individuals, thus necessitating the hiring of qualified and highly skilled school managers. This, therefore, demands capacity-building among school leaders since they are generally acknowledged as fundamental building blocks of any educational enterprise. Taking this argument, Daresh (2004) and Jacobson (1998) maintain that building the capacity of new administrators is the key to providing leadership for improved student achievement based on the common understanding that capacity-making fosters a sense of ownership and empowerment among community partners.

The effectiveness of a school governing body will be evidenced by a wide range of parameters, such as the degree of school improvement, increased attainment and improved educational outcomes (House of Commons Education Committee, 2013). In this context, effective school governance hinged on recruiting governors with the correct skills, commitment, and willingness to undergo capacity-building programs such as training to strengthen their ability to govern their schools efficiently (Ofsted, 2002). Comparative suppositions are echoed by King and Newman (2001), who argue that boosted confidence, skills, resources and knowledge gained from capacity-building efforts can positively impact how schools are managed and controlled.

The capacity of the education sector in Kenya, according to the National Education Sector Plan (NESP) (MoE, 2014), to deliver on national development goals depends on the effectiveness of education staff with knowledge and skills in response to changing circumstances with the intent of improving the quality of education and training. This conforms with the World Bank report (2008), which indicated that retention and education quality depend primarily on how schools are managed more than the abundance of available resources. To attain educational objectives in the Kenyan context, capacity development programs should aim to improve managerial skills and staff competence, thereby stimulating their attitudes to improve the quality of education in Kenya.

The quality of leadership provided at the school level significantly impacts schools' ability to achieve their goals and objectives fully. Echoing similar sentiments, Orodho and Nzoka (2014) aver that a concerted effort to improve school leadership is one of the most promising points of intervention for increasing retention, quality and efficiency in basic education across Sub-Saharan Africa. The same argument is advanced by Derek (1999), who posits that school managers need vision, persistence, planning abilities, critical thinking, stress tolerance, leadership skills, positive self-image, interpersonal relationships and self-development capacity.

The focal point of building the capacity of school managers is to bolster them to discharge their duties effectively and efficiently. Joel, Ogola and Malusu, (2019) support this assertion by reiterating that a school manager must have interpersonal competency, the ability to get others involved in problem resolution, the ability to detect when a group requires direction and the ability to deal with a group effectively. With the changes in the educational sector, Kalai (2012) attests that school capacity-building initiatives are seen as a critical aspect in promoting transformative change in Kenyan public schools.

Orodho and Nzoka (2014) studied school management and academic achievement in Embu North District, focusing on school managers' preparedness level to undertake management responsibilities. The study found that most board members lacked managerial abilities, most likely due to their relatively low level of formal education or lack of exposure to such relevant training. The findings of this study provide empirical evidence supporting the necessity for the Kenyan government through the Ministry of Education (MoE) to prioritise capacity building among SBoM to enhance their effectiveness in school governance as supported by Ngalo, Ogohi and Ibrahim (2023), who emphasises that human capital investment, is positively correlated with institutional efficiency and effectiveness.

In Kenya, capacity building among educational managers is a prerogative of the Kenya Education Management Institute (KEMI), formerly the Kenya Education

Staff Institute (KESI). KEMI is a Ministry of Education capacity-building service provider that acts as a springboard for promoting best management practices in the education sector (KEMI, 2002). The Kenyan government mandates KEMI to provide training programs, seminars and workshops and produce publications to promote managerial competency and integrity in the education sector (Ongori,2021).

According to the Ministry of Education (2013), KEMI serves as a management advisory, consultancy and resource centre for personnel involved in educational work. It also conducts research in relation to training needs assessments, quality assurance processes, training impact assessments, policy as well as emerging issues to design appropriate management training programs for educational managers. Additionally, KEMI serves as *a* venue for effective collaboration between the public and private sectors and other interested parties for capacity building in the education sector (KEMI, 2012).

The Ministry of Education has tasked KEMI with organising and implementing staff training involved in monitoring and administrating educational programs, whereby the training has positively influenced principals' human resource management at the school level (Wekhuyi, 2014). The topics covered include Performance Contract Support Training (PCST) programs for teachers and learners, Monitoring and Evaluation for educational institution committees, Curriculum Development and Partnership, and Education Management, among other courses.

In addition, KEMI provides an Induction Course in Education Management (ICEM), a Senior Management Induction Course for Educational Personnel (SICEM), a Professional Certificate Course in Educational Management (PICEM) and a Training of Trainers in Educational Management (TOTEM) (KEMI, 2008). Despite KEMI training of headteachers, studies point out a lack of capacity among many headteachers to oversee and account for the utilisation of human resources under them (RoK, 2012).

2.4.2 School Boards of Management in Kenya

According to the Education Act 2012 (RoK, 2012), School Boards of Management (SBoM) refers to a committee established by the state Department of Education to oversee education in government schools in collaboration with other education stakeholders such as the Parents Teacher's Associations, the County Education Boards and the local community. Kandie (2017) argues that this devolution of authority from the parent ministry is a form of School-Based Management that gives education stakeholders more say in the management of schools. The Teachers Service Commission (TSC) adopted this notion of decentralising school governance to the SBoM to incorporate community participation in the management of schools. Under the Basic Education Act, the SBoM members are appointed to run individual schools in accordance with section 53 of the Education Act Cap 211 (2012) (RoK,2012).

The promulgation of the Constitution of Kenya in 2010 (RoK, 2010) led to an array of reforms in the education sector. Key among these reforms was the enactment of the Basic Education Act (RoK, 2013), which resulted in School Boards of Management (SBoM) replacing School Management Committees in the management of public primary schools and Boards of Governors (BoG) in public secondary schools, effectively taking charge of Basic Educational Institutions in Kenya. Under the new constitutional dispensation, this Act empowers the County Education Board to appoint SBoM. One of the appointment requirements stipulates that school board members must have a minimum of a secondary school certificate, a requirement that academics and educational practitioners have widely challenged. Munyiri (2011) claims that these low-level qualifications pose several challenges, including role conflict, incompetency, bias, corruption and integrity.

Management of schools entails methods and policies planned and established by legislation to achieve specific goals and deliver effective services at the school level (World Bank, 2008). Research done by Mbii, Magoma and Waweru (2020) established that school management is vital since practices of effective boards

have been found to have a strong correlation with high student achievement, which is the reason behind the existence of schools. According to Ojera (2016), the academic performance in the County's secondary school national examinations was dismal, a problem ascribed to insufficient training and induction coupled with inexperienced SBoM members.

The following individuals comprise the SBoM, as per the Ministry of Education's (MOE) New Operational Guidelines (RoK, 2013): In the case of county secondary schools, there are six individuals elected to represent parents of students enrolled in the school or in the local community; one individual nominated by the County Education Board (CEB); one representative of the teaching staff chosen by the teachers; three representatives of the school's sponsors; one individual to represent community-based special interest groups; one individual to represent individuals with special needs; and one student council representative who will serve as an ex officio member of the board. In this context, the head teacher becomes the secretary to the board. To safeguard the institution's expansion and advance its best interests, the CEB selects these members (RoK, 2013).

The school board is responsible for managing the institution's affairs in compliance with the rules and regulations governing occupational safety and health, ensuring and guaranteeing the provision of proper and adequate physical facilities for the institution, and advising the CEB on the staffing needs of the institution. These are just a few of the functions of SBoM, as outlined in section 59 of the Basic Education Act No 14 of 2013 (RoK, 2013). In terms of financial and human resource management, SBoM is in charge of receiving, collecting and accounting for any funds accruing to the institution, recruiting, hiring and remunerating non-teaching staff as may be required by the institution in compliance with regulatory provisions.

The Basic Education Act No 14 of 2013 (RoK, 2013) requires school boards to establish various committees to take charge of multiple functions. These committees include the finance, procurement and general purposes committee;

academic standards; quality and environment committee; discipline, ethics and integrity committee; audit committee; and human rights and students' welfare committee. In the researcher's opinion, SBoM members should possess knowledge, skills, and technical knowhow to steer these committees' functions effectively. Therefore, the researcher holds that there is a need for capacity-building programs for school governing structures to achieve effective school governance in Kenya.

The education cabinet secretary is empowered under section 59 part 1 of the Basic Education Act No 14 of 2013 (RoK, 2013) to prescribe the qualifications for persons who may be appointed or co-opted into the Board of Management of a primary school, secondary school, adult continuing education centre, multipurpose development training institution or any basic training institution as prescribed in the Basic Education Act No 14 of 2013 (RoK,2013). In addition to these guidelines, section 59 part 2 of the Act stipulates that in appointing persons as members of a board of management, the nominating and establishing authority must consider and respect three key areas: the regional and ethnic diversity of the Kenyan people, impartiality, gender equity and in strict conformity to article 10 and chapter 6 of the Kenyan constitution (RoK, 2010).

2.4.3 Challenges facing School Boards of Management in Kenya

According to Kindiki (2009), boards of management in Kenya have not received adequate management training. Most of them lack the necessary supervisory competencies to manage available information effectively for management purposes. The inquiry of Koech report (RoK, 1999) pointed out that management of educational institutions in Kenya was weak because most of SBoM lacked quality management capabilities. According to the Taskforce on Student Indiscipline and Unrest (MoE, 2001), the appointment of SBoM members who were unqualified and incompetent negatively impacted the quality of school management.

In Kenya, the appointment of SBoM is occasionally coupled with political interference, contrary to the government policy requiring consideration of persons

with commitment, competence and experience that would improve school management and development (Kindiki, 2009). Mbii, Magoma and Waweru (2020) investigated the composition and practices of Kenyan secondary school management boards. The study findings indicated that SBoM members do not receive adequate training as required by the policy, which has hampered their competence and effectiveness as school managers.

The following challenges are identified in the research literature and they will consequently be discussed: Human resource management challenges, financial management challenges, challenges in implementing the procurement policy, strategic planning challenges and curriculum implementation challenges.

2.4.3.1 Human resource management challenges

The human resource component is undoubtedly a strong pillar in organizational structure and directly affects organizational success. According to Olasoji (2019), Human Resource Management (HRM) is a term used to describe formal processes designed to manage people within an organization. Sukawati *et al.* (2020) backs up this claim by stating that HRM is a management activity that encompasses human empowerment, growth, assessment and remuneration of organisation members. Studies conducted by Omebe (2014), Hashim (2014) and Mitaru (2015) agree that human resource management is at the heart of effective school governance.

According to Lawler and Boudreau (2015), organizations are productive by organising their people and managing their human resources. Yamoah (2014) asserts that human resources are the most valuable institutional assets, which explains why organizations invest significant resources in capacity-building efforts to improve employee performance. Human resource management is about matching the institutional staff to the organization's strategic needs and ensuring they are fully utilized to meet organizational goals.

Omebe (2014) investigated human resource management in Nigerian education. According to the study, poor working conditions, staffing issues, and constant teacher transfer were fundamental human resource management obstacles.

Similarly, Saleem (2010) recognised recruitment of employees, orientation and induction of newly hired workers, training and development of workers, motivational problems, remuneration and worker appraisal as significant managerial challenges in human resource management.

The Teachers Service Commission in Kenya decentralised teacher recruitment and selection to the local level to be executed by the District Education Boards for primary schools and Boards of Management for secondary schools, respectively. However, empirical investigations have revealed that most SBoM members are not competent to handle the recruitment process, necessitating their training and development, according to the studies conducted by Sota (2021). Moreover, Kipsoi and Sang (2008) state that the teacher recruitment process by school boards had been plagued by complaints and irregularities stemming from illiteracy, nepotism, and a lack of focus on the part of board members. To effectively discharge HRM functions, DEBs and SBoM must have the necessary abilities, technical knowledge and experience to select the right people for the right jobs.

2.4.3.2 Financial management challenges

In an educational context, financial management involves using allotted funds wisely in order to reach short- and long-term goals and to support the school's daily operations. According to Bischoff and Mestry (2009), financial management executes management actions related to school finances to achieve effective education. According to Clarke (2007), principals and SGBs should be aware of the fundamental processes involved in managing the school's accounts, budgeting processes, systems, and the essential controls to guarantee that the school's funds are managed efficiently.

The effectiveness of any school's educational teaching initiatives depends on proper financial management (Xaba & Ngubane 2010). This line of argument is consistent with Odide, Nduku and Ntabo (2022), who contends that the success of any school plan is mainly dependent on the effective management of financial resources, which improves the overall school performance. As a result, sound

financial management is a critical component for the success of any educational enterprise. According to Heystek (2006), parents who serve on school governing boards (SGBs) of many public schools in South Africa have poor financial knowledge and abilities and low levels of literacy. As a result, many financial functions are being transferred to principals, who employ the distributive management style to delegate some of the essential financial tasks to members of the School Management Team (SMT).

Like any other organization, educational institutions in African countries require proper financial resource management to survive (Okeze & Ngwakwe, 2018). Any educational institution's success or failure in providing high-quality education is frequently determined by the appropriate management of financial resources that lead to long-term development (Munge, Kimani & Ngugi, 2016). According to a study by Itegi (2016), education operations in Kenya are financed through public funds through taxes, payment of fees by parents or guardians, private enterprises or people and international donor organizations. This explains why sound financial management practices ought to be given serious attention.

The Kenyan government directs funds to schools through Free Primary Education grants, Free Day Secondary funds and the County Development Funds in devolved units. On the other hand, parents meet direct costs, including boarding fees, uniforms and transportation (Wanjala & Koriyow,2017). In order to ensure the proper utilisation of public funds to realise school objectives, school managers ought to undergo capacity-building programs to strengthen their ability with regard to financial management. According to the 2018-2022 National Education Sector Strategic Plan (NESSP) (MoE, 2018), ineffective school leadership hampers the performance and responsiveness of secondary education. This is because secondary school managers must effectively manage their budgets despite their inadequacies in applying the principles of Public Finance Management (PFM). Hence, secondary schools continue to have accountability-related challenges, such as staff absence and the inability of funds to reach the intended recipients.

In Kenya, the Taskforce on the Re-alignment of the Education Sector to the Constitution of Kenya (RoK, 2012) revealed several weaknesses reported in public schools, including financial management systems, accounting procedures, documentation, controls and unreliable reporting. According to the report, these weaknesses increase the risk of misappropriation of funds, insufficient instructional materials in schools and poor financial documentation. Ongeri (2012), Onderi and Makori (2013) attribute these challenges to a lack of skills, knowledge, and abilities among SBoM members to effectively discharge their financial management functions.

A study by Mobegi (2012) identified weak accounting control mechanisms as causal factors of financial management and impropriety. Similar sentiments have been echoed by Mumo and Kiboss (2015), who underlines lack of managerial skills, lack of experience and low levels of education as key challenges facing school boards, culminating in misappropriation, embezzlement and loss of public funds, thereby becoming a hindrance to the effective and efficient governance of schools in Kenya. In the opinion of the researcher, the capacity of board members to manage school finances should be enhanced through training so that they can be in a position to respond to the internal and external demands for transparency and accountability in relation to resource utilisation and learning outcomes.

Financial management training has been conducted for the Kenyan headteachers, and Financial Management manuals have been distributed to some schools, in accordance to the NESSP (2018-22) (MoE, 2018). However, most schools have not constituted committees, which are critical for providing oversight as required by The Basic Education Act of 2013 (RoK, 2013). Furthermore, there have been instances where SBoM has implemented ambitious development projects without appropriate planning and finances, resulting in incomplete or stalled projects. To remedy this situation, the education sector seeks, among other strategies, to build the capacity of headteachers and SBoM in public finance management.

2.4.3.3 Challenges in the Implementation of the Procurement Policy

Public procurement has attracted considerable attention and debate worldwide, hence subjected to reforms, rules and regulations (Ngugi & Njoroge,2016). Public procurement includes the acquisition of any kind of goods, works, and services by public institutions using public resources through purchase, tenancy, rental, hire, lease, or any other contractual means, as well as the disposal of public assets, according to the Kenya Anti-Corruption Commission and Public Procurement Oversight Authority (2009).

Hunja (2003) posits that public procurement is increasingly considered critical in-service delivery in developing nations and accounts for a significant share of total expenditure. Since public procurement is the main way the government uses public monies, it is essential to budgeting and the advancement of the country (Odundo, Nyagah & Kinuthia, 2018). In Ireland, public procurement is conducted within the framework of legally enforceable European Directives and national legislation, policies and guidelines to get the best possible value for money (Stennett, 2021).

In Kenya, it is a prerequisite for any public institution to adhere to the Public Procurement and Disposal Act 2005 (RoK, 2005). This Act outlines a transparent and long-term procurement process whose success can only be realised through the active participation of all institutional stakeholders. Public institutions must thus abide by procurement laws, which require them to use standard contract documents, work within predetermined budgets, make sure that technical specifications satisfy international standards, and treat all bidders equally regardless of their nationality, race, or religion (RoK, 2001).

Despite the existing legal provisions on public procurement, there are glaring procurement challenges facing private and public sector institutions. In a study on ethics and procurement performance in humanitarian organizations in Kisii County, Kenya, Obiko Duke Steve (2018) revealed that there were numerous challenges in procurement ethics, which led to widespread violation of bid-rigging

in the county and that employees were not trained adequately, posing many challenges in procurement ethics.

In the school context, a study by Kiprop, Rotich and Michael (2014) found that many schools in Kenya are still grappling with procurement challenges; hence operate against the existing legal framework on public procurement. This study supports the findings of Onsongo *et al.* (2012), who established that many secondary schools' procurement committees in Kisii County lack adequate knowledge of the legal framework, principles, procedures and procurement processes. This situation necessitates training and sensitisation.

According to Ewuntomah (2017), qualified and competent procurement professionals must carry out procurement activities efficiently and effectively to meet procurement goals. This argument is consistent with Tuo, Okyere and Etse (2014), who acknowledge that hiring qualified procurement personnel is critical in professionalising the procurement function. Embeli *et al.* (2014), Kalai, Kavula and Migosi (2014) observed in their empirical research that inadequate organisational practices, non-enforcement, and a lack of procurement skills impeded the adoption of procurement reforms in Kenyan public secondary schools. The results of these studies also pointed out that one of the main obstacles to the procurement process at the school level is the absence of in-service training for educational managers and induction courses to increase awareness and knowledge of procurement regulations.

School managers control public funds as outlined in the Basic Education Act 2013 (RoK, 2013), and this role calls for continuous capacity-building programs so that they can carry out procurement and tendering processes in a transparent manner and tandem with the Public Procurement and Disposal Act (2015) (RoK, 2015). This is because staff competencies impact procurement performance and increase output in procurement operations. It can be improved through advanced training and capacity building of procurement practitioners in Kenyan public institutions and consequent improvements in procurement operations (Njoroge & Ngugi, 2016).

2.4.3.4 Strategic Planning Challenges

As a critical component of strategic management, strategic planning is a fundamental process that establishes the direction of an organization and ultimately determines organizational success. According to Sauerhoff (2014), a strategic plan is a document that outlines an organization's long-term goals and objectives as well as the specific course of action and allocation of resources for carrying out these goals. Itegi (2016) explains that strategic planning assists management in predicting both internal and external future situations and realities that affect their projections. Ngetich, Kiprop and Tanui (2019) corroborate this by asserting that adopting a strategic plan aims to achieve school effectiveness. Given this, Itegi (2016) sees strategic planning as the tool for establishing an institutional framework to enhance involvement and cooperation among all relevant local, national and international players.

A strategic plan outlines various objectives a school undertakes to achieve within a specified time frame. Acknowledging the value of strategic planning, the Kenyan government issued a ministerial directive in 2005 to all educational institutions to develop strategic plans (MoE, 2005). This stemmed from a desire to address the rapidly deteriorating educational standards. It is thus a statutory requirement for all public institutions in Kenya, including schools, to develop and implement strategic plans. However, Mbugua and Rarieya (2014) affirmed that not all schools in Kenya fully embraced strategic planning despite a ministerial directive.

Despite the numerous benefits, research indicates that school strategic planning is still challenging (Wanjala & Rarieya, 2014). According to Conley (1993), school strategic planning faces challenges because many school leaders are unfamiliar with the strategic planning processes and how to convert strategic plans into action plans for effective implementation.

In Tanzania, Schlebusch and Mokhatle (2016) studied Strategic Planning as a Management Tool for School Principals in Rural Schools in the Motheo District. The study findings revealed that lack of strategic planning skills among SGBs,

inadequate principal–SGB collaboration and lack of resources for proper strategic plan implementation are critical factors that influence the drafting and implementation of strategic planning in schools.

In a study on the challenges of formulating and implementing school strategic plans in public secondary schools in Kakamega County, Kenya, Ruth (2013) found that considering the level of training of principals and respective SBoM, there was lack of knowledge concerning the contents of a school strategic plan, the formulation procedure, and the implementation strategy. In a similar context, Nyagah (2015) concluded that most school managers are unaware of the importance of strategic planning since these leaders are appointed to school boards due to political influence rather than their skills. Besides, the school expenditure budget has no vote for training board members on strategic planning, formulation and implementation.

According to Anyieni and Areri (2016), some public secondary schools Kenya had not developed strategic plans, while others had not implemented them, resulting in declining academic standards. Additionally, Ndegwah (2014) pointed out that a lack of managerial skills in strategic plan formulation and implementation and inadequate financial resources have negatively affected the strategic planning process in schools.

2.4.3.5 Curriculum implementation challenges

Globally, the importance of school governing structures in curriculum implementation at the school level cannot be gainsaid. In his conception of curriculum implementation, Mezieobi (1993) characterised curriculum execution as putting a curriculum proposition, strategy or thought into impact. According to Stenhouse (2005), a curriculum is not a package of materials or syllabus to be covered; instead, it is a way of translating any educational idea into a hypothesis testable in practice. Therefore, Curriculum implementation constitutes translating curriculum theory into practice, requiring skilled, knowledgeable and experienced educational stakeholders.

In a study on the challenges of implementing a top-down curriculum innovation in English language teaching in Kenya, Okoth (2016) indicates that fidelity of the curriculum implementation occurs when the implementers fully comprehend the curriculum requirements. If the implementing agent does not grasp the curriculum requirements, they will probably change them to suit their needs. In South Africa, Mandukwini (2016) observed that inadequate training regarding curriculum implementation, lack of guidelines for implementing curriculum changes and the complexity of managing both the new and the old curriculum simultaneously created a challenge for high school teachers.

Through the Ministry of Education, the Kenyan government tasks SBoM with interpreting and executing educational policies, including curriculum implementation. SBoM's primary responsibility in Kenyan schools, according to Ojijo, Ajowi and Aloka (2020), is to promote quality education, formulate institutional policies, provide adequate infrastructure and monitor curriculum development. For successful curriculum implementation, curriculum scholars have argued that the curriculum-making process right from the stage of development, design and execution requires the input of critical stakeholders who are equipped with skills and technical know-how in curriculum theory and practice (Warsi, 2018).

2.5 SUMMARY

This chapter presented a theoretical background for the study, reviewing relevant literature on building capacity among management boards for effective governance in Kenyan schools. Global, regional and local literature centering on the concept of capacity building among school governing structures, a description of school boards in Kenya and challenges facing these boards as they execute their functions were explored. Furthermore, this chapter examined strategies that can be utilized to build and encourage the capacity of school boards in Kenya for effective school governance.

The next chapter provides a theoretical framework for the study and all aspects with regard to the chosen framework.

CHAPTER THREE

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF THE STUDY

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the preceding chapter, the researcher investigated existing international and local literature sources significant for explaining the concept of building capacity among School Boards of Management (SBoM) for effective governance in Kenyan schools. This chapter describes Human Capital Theory (HCT), which forms the theoretical foundation to explain and justify the study (Akintoye, 2015). To locate the concepts of capacity building and effective school governance, the researcher employs Niamh Brennan's (2011) stakeholder model of school governance and the skills-based model of leadership advanced by Mumford and his colleagues (Mumford *et al.,* 2000; Yammarino, 2000). The researcher seeks to utilise Katz's (1955) Three-skills approach to explore the concept of capacity building among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenya.

Merriam and Tisdell (2016:85) describe a theoretical framework as "*the underlying structure, the scaffolding or frame of a study*". According to Anfara and Mertz (2015:15), a theoretical framework is "*any empirical or quasi-empirical explanation of social and psychological processes at a range of levels that can be applied to understand the phenomena under scrutiny*". Essentially, the theoretical framework is a compass for the literature review and, most importantly, the research methodologies and analysis. Furthermore, Kivunja (2018) explicitly asserts that a theoretical framework consists of the theories put forth by experts in the study area, which the researcher draws upon to provide a theoretical *coat-hanger* for data analysis and interpretation of study findings.

As underscored by Grant and Osanloo (2014), a theoretical framework serves as the structure and support with respect to the rationale for the study, the purpose, the problem statement, the significance of the study and the research questions, data collection and analysis techniques. The structure and support are determined in the narrative accompanying the delineation and illustrations of research frameworks (du Plessis & Van der Westhuizen, 2018).

Within such narratives, there is information about concepts, structures and propositions emphasized by illustrations, as well as detailed information about specific directions of the investigation (du Plessis & Van der Westhuizen, 2018). The researcher believes that human capital theory qualifies as the perfect correlation for the theoretical framework for this study, which explains the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

3.2 THE HUMAN CAPITAL THEORY

3.2.1 Introduction

The concept of human capital, as it is commonly applied in economics literature, originates from the works of T. Schultz (1972), G. Becker (1975, 1992) and J. Mincer (1958). Institutionally, human capital is associated with studies at the University of Chicago and later Columbia University (Teixeira, 2007). According to Marimuthu, Arokiasamy and Ismail (2009), human capital enhances employee knowledge, skills, talents, values, and social assets to improve job satisfaction and performance. Davenport (1998) argues that human capital encompasses people's intrinsic skills, behaviours, and individual strengths, which make up the human capital employees bring to the workplace. In the same context, Kwon (2009:27) defined human capital as *"the knowledge, skills, talents, capacities and other traits embodied in individuals that promote the creation of personal, social and economic wellbeing."*

Aghion and Howitt (1998) affirm that early ability (whether acquired or innate), qualifications and knowledge obtained through schooling, and skills, competencies, and expertise gained through on-the-job training are the three essential components of human capital. In light of the evidence in the research literature, Trofimov and Baawi (2020) claim that the human capital concept came to be acknowledged as a fundamental contribution to economic theory and permeated various sectors, including demography, management, manpower and educational policy. In the latter field, discussions on the purpose, rationale and instruments of education policy have progressively been framed in terms of

human capital development and the significance of this development in achieving economic objectives. According to human capital theory, *"individual actions are the source of all social phenomena, and people create human capital by acting in their interests"* (Blaug, 1976:830). In this regard, relevant theorists examine the relationship between education and other factors in developing knowledge and skills that can be used to boost labour productivity (Robeyns, 2006).

The concept of human capital as a whole date back to Adam Smith (1776-1937), who notably made the comparison between investing in employees' education and skills and the investment in machines and noted that both must yield a competitive rate of return to be economically beneficial (Kaufman, 2008). Similarly, institutional economist John Commons (1919) observed that education and training transform workers from an unskilled commodity to a valuable "human resource." Essentially, human capital theory emphasises how education enhances employees' cognitive skills, boosting their productivity and efficiency.

According to Britton and Vignoles (2017), the human capital theory is the dominant paradigm in education economics, implying that investing in education and training will increase one's level of productivity. Similarly, Jones (2003) contends that the fundamental tenet of the human capital theory is that people's capacity to learn is comparable in value to other resources employed in producing goods and services. This suggests that the information inherent in the organization's systems, structures, routines and procedures, as well as the intangible talents and abilities of the workforce, can all contribute to the organization's knowledge capital in a knowledge economy (Grant, 2013; Mahoney & Kor, 2015).

In a study on the impact of human capital on labour productivity, Anumudu (2010) intimate that human capital theorists have demonstrated that workers in low-skill occupations are more productive when they have basic literacy. Additionally, they claim that training that calls for logical or analytical thinking or imparts technical and specialised knowledge will boost the marginal productivity of employees in high-skill or professional positions. Furthermore, the availability

of education increases the society's stock of human capital, increasing national output. In their study, Han and Brass (2014) contend that human capital is essential for generating and disseminating new knowledge and ideas and facilitating social capital and knowledge sharing through internal relationships.

In this study, the researcher concurs that investment in human capital, which involves knowledge and skill acquisition by SBoM members through capacity-building initiatives, is the most distinctive aspect of the educational system at the school level. Building human capital among school managers is an essential strategic resource to help an institution achieve its long-term goals and objectives by spurring creativity and productivity. Similar arguments are advanced by Becker (2009), Schultz, 1961 & Mincer (1974), who believe that human capital, especially education and training, is crucial for employee and firm performance.

As intimated by Johnson (2005), the concept of human capital allows the distinction between two different strategies for increasing productivity. These can be attained through investing in physical capital to boost labour productivity or by spending money on the education or training of the workforce as an alternative means of reaching the same overarching goal of increased productivity. Empirical evidence corroborating these explanations shows that an exceptional commitment to human capital formation is one of the most commonly accepted causative variables responsible for the impressive performance of the economies of most industrialised countries. Human capital development, including institutional and human capacity building, is essential in attaining organizational goals and objectives. According to Khayinga and Muathe (2018), human capital development enhances a country's human resource capabilities by teaching the necessary general and technical knowledge, skills, and effectiveness to achieve set goals effectively and efficiently.

From the above list of conclusive features, the researcher attests that these factors account for a human capital powerhouse that provides the indispensable energy to explore the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools. As a prelude and especially given their

considerable impression in line with the focus of this study, the researcher undertakes to address four conceptualizations of human capital theory.

3.2.2 Conceptualisations of the Human Capital Theory

The concept of human capital has attracted considerable empirical scrutiny by contemporary economists. According to Trofimov and Baawi (2020), it is apparent to economists and policymakers that an individual's skills, abilities and educational attainment are essential for economic development and progress. However, in recent decades, social sciences have witnessed clear concepts of human capital, labour force and human resources. In this study, the researcher holds that it may be helpful to differentiate between corresponding or alternative ways of thinking about human capital.

With regard to fixed capital, for example, Adam Smith argues that fixed capital comprises the tools, buildings and knowledge embodied in employees and their skills. This understanding of human capital stems from the assumption that capital is constituted of the means of production produced using material resources (Tittenbrun, 2017). On his part, Becker (1962,) laid the foundation for human capital theory by distinguishing between general and specific skills (Acemoglu & Pischke, 1999). This differentiation effectively accounts for investments in human capital at individual and organizational levels. Becker (1962) further argues that general training enhances an individual's skills and competencies transferable to other organizations. In contrast, specific training is less transferable and can only improve individual productivity within a particular organization. Since in organizational practice, most skills include general and specific skills; the researcher believes that SBoM members require both skills to enhance their capacity for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

The mechanisms of how human capital affects productivity have been the subject of modesty research. Acemoglu and Autor (2009) postulate that the standard approach to labour economics sees human capital as a set of skills or traits that make workers more productive. Similarly, according to Sweetland (1996), human capital theory suggests that individuals and societies derive economic returns

from investments in people. From these arguments, two significant points are highlighted. Firstly, a positive correlation exists between investing in employees and attaining organizational objectives. Secondly, investing in people benefits not only themselves but the society as a whole.

As already specified, the scientific literature has definitions, explanations and information about human capital. Since human capital theory forms the theoretical framework of this study, which explains the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools, the researcher's resolve in this study is to explain and expound on the following significant human capital theory viewpoints:

a) Becker's view on Human Capital Theory
b) Schultz's standpoint on Human Capital Theory
c) Nelson-Phelps' perspective on Human Capital Theory
d) Mincer's viewpoint on Human Capital Theory

The researcher now discusses these four conceptualisations of human capital theory with particular reference to how they pivot this study, which focuses on explaining the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools. First, the researcher examines Becker's view on human capital.

3.2.2.1 Becker's view on Human Capital Theory

In his seminal work, *Investment in Human Capital: A Theoretical Analysis*, Becker (1962) stated that investment in people is the most valuable capital. In this context, Becker distinguishes organization-specific human capital from general-purpose human capital. Examples of organization-specific human capital, according to Becker (1962), include knowledge gained from formal education and training in accounting procedures, information management systems, and other areas relevant to a certain business or organisation. On the other hand, information gained from education and training in fields useful to a variety of organisations, including general skills in human resource development,

is referred to as general-purpose human capital. The researcher finds considerable interest in Becker's (1962) distinction of human capital, which aligns with the fundamental concept of this investigation. According to this study, the researcher makes the claim that developing SBoM's ability for efficient governance in Kenyan schools is directly impacted by both organization-specific and general-purpose human capitals.

Becker (1962) views education and training as the most critical investments in human capital. According to Becker (1962) and most researchers who adopted the human capital framework, education, skills, and human capital are all interchangeable concepts. With reference to the production function, Becker (1962) argues that human capital is directly helpful in the production process. More explicitly, human capital boosts a worker's productivity across all jobs in varied ways depending on the tasks, organizations and environments. According to this perspective, even though human capital's function in the production process may be quite complex, in some ways, it can be thought of as being represented (representable) by a unidimensional object, such as the stock of knowledge or skills and this stock is directly related to the production function. Based on Becker's view concerning investments in human capital, considerable agreement now exists that one way to build a positive corporate culture among SBoM and effectively enhance their capacity is to invest in them by providing opportunities for educational advancement and training in field-specific skills for them to govern schools effectively.

In his research on *Investment in Human Capital: Education and Development in Stockton, California and Gwembe, Zambia,* Ogbu (1984) concurs with Becker by stating that education and training increase people's general mental capabilities and technical skills, thereby increasing their productive potential in the labour force. According to Becker (1964), human capital is developed through the education process. It is a mixture of human characteristics, performance, possibilities, ability to learn and grow, motivation to train others and shared knowledge and expertise. Becker emphasises the importance of training to

increase labour productivity while implementing various organizational tasks (Krasniqi & Desai, 2016).

When applying this approach to human capital to the linchpin of this study, the researcher applauds Becker's view that a well-developed human capital base is a *sin-qua-non* to productivity. Consequently, the researcher affirms that the corpus of this empirical study unequivocally leans towards the understanding that building capacity among SBoM will bolster their ability to govern Kenyan schools effectively. The researcher acknowledges that the most successful organizations manage their human capital more effectively by investing in their employees, encouraging workers to invest in themselves and providing learning environments, including skills and training. According to Becker, formal education is not the only way to invest in human capital. Through learning and training outside the school setting, especially in places of work, SBoM members will augment their productivity by learning new skills while doing the job.

With regard to criticisms of Gary Becker's view on human capital, research does not support Becker's assumptions regarding general and specific training. Leuven *et al.* (2005) showed empirical evidence that it is profitable to invest in both general and specific training of employees; Loewenstein and Spletzer (1999) found that employers need to invest in both general and particular employee training. Kessler and Lulfesmann (2006) also found that employers invest in general and specific training. Besides general and specific training, the third possibility, not included in Becker's discussion of general and specific training, is that of transferable skills (Stevens, 2013). Even when skills are developed to meet organizational needs, the same skills can often be transferred to other organizations, especially within the same industry.

From a researcher's perspective, this discordant feature of Becker's view on human capital is the investigative power for this study, which seeks to examine the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance of Kenyan schools. The researcher will now consider Theodore Schultz's standpoint on human capital theory.

3.2.2.2 Schultz's standpoint on Human Capital Theory

According to White (2017), modern developments in human capital theory are often credited to Gary Becker, Theodore Schultz and Jacob Mincer. In his paper, *Investment in Human Capital,* Theodore W. Schultz (1961) defines human capital as the determinant of the qualitative characteristics of human resources, which encompasses the knowledge, skills and similar attributes that affect a particular human ability to perform a specific task.

Schultz's standpoint on human capital revolves around investments in people as the most important long-term factor explaining modern economic development and growth (Schultz, 1961). From his vantage point, Schultz postulated that human capital should be the key factor in improving organizational assets and employees to increase productivity and maintain a competitive advantage (Schultz, 1993). In his further argument, Schultz (1993) concludes that to maintain an organization's competitiveness, human capital becomes an instrument used to enhance productivity. Hence, human capital emerges as the total of the processes that relate to education, training, and other professional initiatives aimed at improving the levels of knowledge, values, skills, competencies, and social assets of an employee, which will lead to their satisfaction and performance, and ultimately lead to the firm's enhanced performance (Schultz, 1993).

Schultz's rational choice perspective advances the idea that achieving and sustaining a modern economy requires continued investment in human capital and other forms of capital and technology, particularly emphasising the impact of investment in nutrition, health and productivity (Schultz, 1961). For Schultz, human capital investments, namely expenditure in formal education and training, explain the superiority in producing technically advanced countries, thereby emphasising the need to improve the quality and progress in knowledge as a source of wealth and income (Schultz, 1961).

According to Schultz (1993), education is the most critical component of human capital in most human capital studies. Thus, Schultz believed that human capital

was like any other capital which could be invested in education, health, on-the-job training and study programs for adults, which would consequently increase the benefits that would bring about quality improvement and higher production levels (Schultz, 1993). In this connection, the researcher notes Schultz's emphasis on investment in human capital through education and training as a conduit for organizational success. The researcher views this as an essential point since the focus of this study involves examining the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

Schultz (1961) is upfront in admitting that endogenous growth theory's critical variables of the production function are the human capital, which includes education, training and other investments in the workforce. Indeed, human capital is now viewed as complementary to physical capital input in the production function. Analytically, the more the country invests in human capital, the faster the growth rate (Schultz, 1961). Based on this point, the researcher contends that it is vital to build the capacity of SBoM through education, training workshops and on-the-job training to bolster their ability to govern schools effectively and efficiently.

Schultz's redefinition of education as an investment in human capital and his hypotheses about the relationship between human capital accumulation and aggregate economic growth portends a noteworthy application that is directly proportional to the theme of this study, which explains the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools. Even at this early stage, the researcher envisages that Schultz's standpoint on human capital will be vividly apparent during the data collection phase of this study, which will be discussed in a later chapter.

For Schultz, the idea of educational capital (education) is predominantly part of the concept of human capital, which is primarily concerned with the investments made in education (Schultz, 1993). Investing in human capital, mainly education, is essential for sustainable economic development. Given this fact, the researcher muses on the noteworthy detail that if SBoM is to succeed in its

constitutional mandate as anchored in The Basic Education Act No. 14 of 2013 (RoK, 2013), its capacity to govern schools ought to be strengthened via capacity building. Initiatives that include but are not limited to training workshops, mentorship programs, management consultancies and professional learning communities. As far as this study is concerned, the researcher anticipates that the data collected from research participants in connection with capacity-building initiatives among SBoM may best be explained through the lens of Schultz's standpoint on human capital.

Often in the realm of teaching and learning, research on human capital theory is predicated on Becker (1962), Schultz (1961, 1993), Mincer (1981) or Nelson-Phelps (1966). In a comparative analysis, Becker emphasizes the importance of training to increase labor productivity in various organizational tasks. In contrast, Schultz emphasizes the need to improve the quality and progress of knowledge as a source of wealth and income. Thus, Schultz (1961) pointed out that unlike material capital, human capital is mainly characteristic of human knowledge, ability and skills.

Theodore Schultz and Gary Becker developed the idea of human capital in the 1950s and 60s to show how investing in oneself was comparable to a company investing in tangible assets. While Becker (1962) expanded on this idea to show how this return can be demonstrated econometrically, especially for on-the-job training and schooling, Schultz (1961) expanded the meaning of investment to include all activities that improved an individual's skills and productivity, including health expenditures, formal education, on-the-job training, adult study programmes, and migration. Once again, this warrants empirical investigation on building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

This significant exposition of Schultz's standpoint of human capital further heightens the researcher's curiosity as to how this will dovetail with the data collected from the quantitative and qualitative phases of this study, which seeks to explain the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

The researcher will now appraise Nelson-Phelps' perspective on human capital theory in the following discussion.

3.2.2.3 Nelson-Phelps' perspective on Human Capital Theory

In 1966, Richard R. Nelson and Edmund S. Phelps gave economic growth theorists an analytical framework for studying education's role in technological diffusion (Lopez-Pueyo et al., 2008). According to this theory, a more educated and skilled workforce eases a firm's capacity to adopt and implement new technologies, thereby increasing education and training returns. Nelson and Phelps (1966) state that education accelerates the process of technology diffusion because educated people are better innovators (Bartel & Lichtenberg, 1987). Additionally, Nelson and Phelps (1966) emphasise the role of receiving, deciphering and understanding information in performing specific tasks. In the context of this study, the researcher affirms that it is a prerequisite for SBoM to possess technology-based skills to perform duties effectively in this era of technology-driven culture.

Nelson and Phelps postulate that education enhances productivity by complementing other inputs (such as capital) and enabling workers to adapt to technological change (Nelson & Phelps, 1966). With this in mind, Nelson and Phelps (1966) proposed two specific models revolving around the central hypothesis: "education speeds the process of technological diffusion". The first model was postulated as a decreasing function of workers' education level that required significant adjustments to change. The second model formulated the growth rate of actual skill level as an increasing function of the education level of technology in practice as an increasing function of educational attainment and the skill gap (the difference between theoretical and actual skill level practice) (Lopez-Pueyo 2008).

The premise that a nation can profit from technology lag according to its absorption capacity, estimated by its stock of human capital, is incorporated in Nelson and Phelps's (1966) example of a formal model. Thus, total factor productivity development may be attributed to both technological advancements

and levels of human capital, according to Nelson and Phelps (1966). This is due to the expectation that a workforce with higher education will be better able to assimilate foreign technology, leading to growth. The model initiated by Nelson-Phelps (1966) attributes the accumulation of existing human capital to the generation of innovation, which leads to technological progress and sustained growth. Romer (1990) further developed this growth model to explain the causes of endogenous technological change, suggesting that economies with sizeable human capital stocks will experience faster growth. For this study, the researcher bookmarks this point as a remarkable detail explaining the concept of capacity building among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

For Nelson and Phelps, a higher level of education enhances the ability to distinguish between profitable and unprofitable innovations. It reduces uncertainty in investment decisions related to new processes and products. Education, therefore, increases the profitability of successful and early adoption of innovations (Nelson and Phelps, 1966). Similarly, Huggins and Izushi (2004) note that empirical studies support the combined effect of education and training. Hence, higher proportions of medium and high-skilled workers than low-skilled workers should lead to faster and more successful adoption of innovations and higher productivity (Nelson & Phelps, 1966).

Nelson and Phelps argue that the more educated a manager is, the faster he/or she will be to introduce new production techniques. In addition, a manager's remarkable ability to understand and evaluate information about new products and processes makes him/her more likely to adopt productive innovations faster. Moreover, such managers tend to introduce profitable new processes and products quickly, as innovations will likely have more significant expected benefits and lower risks. In other words, educated managers can better distinguish between promising and unpromising ideas and are less likely to make mistakes (Nelson & Phelps, 1966). Regarding school governance, it is indisputable that educational managers are expected to possess specific managerial skills that will enable them to adopt innovations and plan, organise,

supervise, and manage schools effectively and efficiently to attain educational goals and objectives. The researcher notes that if the objectives of an educational enterprise are to be achieved, this point should have primary application to this study since, as implementors of school policies, SBoM ought to have requisite skill sets, knowledge and abilities for effective governance of schools in Kenya.

Some researchers take a different view of the outcomes of HC theory. For instance, Schultz (1961) and Nelson and Phelps (1966) view HC as the ability to adapt to changing environments. Schultz, Nelson and Phelps argue that human capital is instrumental in dealing with situations in which a changing environment and workers need to adapt. For Schultz, Nelson and Phelps, employee HC is a critical factor that facilitates the adoption of new and more productive technologies (Schultz, 1961; Nelson & Phelps, 1966). McCracken *et al.* (2017) promulgated that in an era of sustainability; firms increasingly turn to their employees as a source of innovation and challenge them to find new ideas and routines to operate more sustainably. Hence, a firm's HC can be pivotal in firm adaptation in uncertain or changing environments. In this study, the researcher eagerly anticipates noting how the data collection process will highlight the role of education in technological diffusion (Nelson & Phelps, 1966) as it relates to explaining the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

Nevertheless, Nelson and Phelps (1966) recognised two significant flaws in their diffusion models: exogenous treatment of technical progress and the lack of a 'machine' for determining educational attainment and the usefulness of combining elements of both models into a single analytical framework (Nelson & Phelps, 1966). For the purposes of this study, if SBoM's capacity is strengthened in terms of the technological capability of board members, effective school governance would be achieved. This is because using technology in school governance would enable SBoM to carry out their duties in a manageable manner and ultimately attain job satisfaction.

Individuals can acquire information and augment their understanding of various concepts and fields through technology and the internet. It facilitates organizational learning and adaptation to the changing global environment through partnership, participation, information sharing and delegation. The overall victory achieved would be one which would highlight the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

Next, the researcher will consider Mincer's viewpoint on human capital theory.

3.2.2.4 Mincer's viewpoint on Human Capital Theory

Jacob Mincer (1922–2006), one of the most influential economists of the late 20th century, is recognised as the originator of contemporary labour economics. It is possible to regard Mincer's 1958 essay "Investment in Human Capital and Personal Income Distribution" in the Journal of Political Economy as the first methodical contribution to the development of human capital theory. In conclusion, Mincer proposed that the investment in education and training be a major explanatory element for the current income distribution (Teixeira, 2007).

Mincer (1981) found that the contribution of human resources as a factor of production to economic growth framework increases with the increase in the volume of physical capital and vice versa. According to Mincer, investing in human capital is an intertemporal decision. Hence, current working hours are weighed against the present value of future working hours, and the decision to continue studying is made to replace today's lost income and the costs of education with future (and possibly higher) earnings due to better education. Thus, investment in human capital occurs when the discounted value of the latter exceeds the actual and opportunity costs of education (Mincer 1996).

Similarly, Mincer (1958) points out that non-economic factors are essential in income distribution. Therefore, to test the effect of human characteristics on income, Mincer's model assumes that all agents have identical skills and that different jobs require different levels of training.

In his book *Schooling, Experience and Earnings*, Mincer (1974) argues that higher education increases the human capital stock and, at a constant rate of return, leads to higher annual incomes for those with higher education. Regarding on-the-job training (OJT), Mincer and Ofek (1982) explains that general education reflects relative differences among workers concerning the amount, duration and depreciation of human capital acquired through OJT. For this study, the researcher anticipates Mincer's viewpoint on human capital will present an engrossing collage in understanding the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

Mincer (1989) postulates that human capital plays a dual role in economic growth. On the one hand, human capital is a crucial production factor through the stock of skills that it creates through education and training activities. On the other hand, (and entirely in line with recent developments in growth theory), human capital as a reservoir of knowledge is a source of innovation and, therefore, an engine for economic growth.

For Mincer, therefore, human capital is both a cause and a consequence of economic growth due to the complementarity between physical capital and skilled labour. According to Mincer's view, the empirical evidence seems to support the claim that the acceleration of technological change increases the demand for more education and training activities (Mincer, 1989).

For this study, the researcher views this as a noteworthy point meriting empirical inquiry since the focus hinges on building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools. The researcher is eager to note how the data collection process will foreground Mincer's viewpoint on human capital about building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

According to Mincer (1974), the growth of physical capital would raise the marginal product of human capital, thereby increasing the demand for human capital (as opposed to unskilled labour). However, in the long run, an economy will reach steady-state growth, and any increase in the growth rate can only be driven by exogenous technical progress. Therefore, according to Mincer (1993),

a faster rate of technological advancement in a given industry creates a greater need for education and training of the sectoral workforce, as demonstrated by the higher percentage of highly educated workers and their use of training, the widening educational gaps within industries experiencing rapid productivity growth, the significant upward mobility of young, highly educated workers, the steeper wage profiles of progressive industries, and the short-term rise in separation rates.

Examining these concepts brings into the limelight the main research question and sub-questions for this study. The researcher will now survey three types of human capital in this study, which focuses on explaining the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

3.2.3 Types of Human Capital

Human capital has become a significant concern in economic studies (Ahmad, 2012). Plato (427-347 BC) was the first political thinker to consider human beings a worthwhile resource according to Lu (2019). In his exposition, "The Republic", Plato emphasised the responsibility of the state to educate its people according to their abilities and talents (Nicolae, 2022). Although Plato's ideas were purely political (Blackburn, 2006), they were not devoid of economic objectives. In this regard, Ahmad (2012) observes that human capital consists of manpower, skills and knowledge and is *sine-qua-non* for economic growth. To clarify this issue, researchers (Sveiby & Llyod) (1987), Lyda J. Hanifan (1916) and Nowotny (1981) describe three different types of human capital: knowledge, social and emotional capital. The researcher will now discuss each of these types of human capital with specific reference to the subject of this study, which aims to illustrate the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

3.2.3.1 Knowledge Capital

As conceived by Uzunidis and Laperche (2011), knowledge capital refers to the accumulated knowledge continuously enhanced by information flows and used in the production processes or, more globally, in the value-added processes.

Sveiby and Llyod (1987) were the first to define knowledge capital as a micro-level concept by categorising it into (a) human capital (employee education and experience), structural capital (organizational skills), and relationship capital (relationships with stakeholders).

According to Laperche (2017), knowledge capital is explored from two angles: stock and flow. Knowledge stock represents routine knowledge of employees, equipment, machines, processes (technical know-how) and organizational routines used in the production activities. On the other hand, knowledge flows represent scientific and technical information replenishing an organization's knowledge stock. Knowledge flow can be facilitated through research and development (R&D), training and acquisition of external knowledge or new machinery and information from external sources (Laperche, 2007). In the school context, there is need to strengthen the knowledge base stock and knowledge flow among SBoM to enhance their capacity for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

Knowledge capital, like physical capital, can be acquired and preserved through education and continuous training, generating dividends in the form of productivity (Bouchard, 2008). On the other hand, McKinsey and Company (2015) classify the main methods used to create knowledge capital: on-the-job training, one-off or series of internal courses or programs offered in a classroom setting, formal or informal coaching and individual or group-based online courses. In this study, the researcher views McKinsey and Company's classification of knowledge creation methods as a lens to view the various strategies of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

Recently, researchers have demonstrated a considerable difference between physical resources and knowledge capital. From a strategic management perspective, Rothaermel (2012) proclaims that physical resources provide little benefits to organizations because they can easily be bought and sold on the open market. In a knowledge economy, Grant (1996) and Mahoney and Kor

(2015) maintain that the workforce's intangible skills and competencies and the inherent knowledge of organizational structures, routines, systems and processes can contribute to an organization's knowledge capital. In this study, the researcher believes that this knowledge capital, an enterprise's intellectual capital, is an indispensable foundation that SBoM requires for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

The researcher believes that knowledge capital has a precise application in this study. Knowledge capital will help SBoM reduce the chances of having to start over every time a particular process is initiated in the school. The net effect will be value creation from combining tangible and intangible assets among SBoM, ultimately enhancing an educational enterprise's performance.

3.2.3.2 Social Capital

Smith-Morris (2007) states that Lyda J. Hanifan introduced the idea of "social capital" in 1916 to highlight the significance of community involvement in raising academic achievement. In academic discourse, the word was initially introduced and presented methodically by Pierre Bourdieu (1986) and James Coleman (1988). Many scholars have conceptualised social capital as social resources embedded in relationships (Tsai & Ghosal, 1998). As such, social capital can be defined as *"the sum of real and potential resources embedded in, made available through and derived from the networks of relationships of individuals or social units."* (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998: 243). Therefore, social capital encompasses many aspects of a social context, such as value systems and social ties, that contribute to developing human and intellectual capital through effective communication and trust.

Since Loury (1977) introduced it to contemporary social science research and Coleman (1988) put it at the forefront of research sociology in his seminal work, social capital has been used throughout the social sciences. It has generated a vast body of literature across all disciplines. However, despite enormous research, the definition of social capital remains elusive (Aghion & Durlauf, 2009). According to Ostrom (2000:176), social capital is *"the shared knowledge,*

understandings, norms, rules and expectations of patterns of interaction in which groups of individuals repeatedly engage in activities." While emphasising the significance of social capital to a wide-ranging set of socio-economic phenomena, Adam and Roncevic (2004: 177) stated that:

'Despite problems with its definition in addition to its operationalisation and its (almost) metaphorical character, social capital has facilitated a series of very crucial empirical investigations and theoretical debates that have stimulated reconsideration of the importance of human relations, of networks, of organizational forms for the quality of life and of developmental performance'.

In his research, Granovetter (2018) accentuated that most economic behaviours are embedded in social networks. This exposition emphasises that the economic well-being of people does not have its home base within individuals but in social platforms. According to Coleman (1990), Putman (1994), and Fukuyama (1995), social capital by definition contributes significantly to a number of outcomes, including improved civic engagement, social cohesion, access to more information, a decrease in opportunistic behaviour, increased political participation, government responsiveness and efficiency, and problem-solving related to collective actions. This understanding will help SBoM work together through trust and shared identity, norms, values and mutual relationships to achieve effective governance in Kenyan schools.

According to McCracken *et al.* (2017), human and social capital interaction is critical to developing firm-specific human capital, organizational knowledge routines, socially complex processes, and innovation and creativity outputs. On the other hand, empirical studies confirm that social capital positively impacts health, educational outcomes and social welfare (d'Hombres, Elia & Weber, 2013). Social capital influences organizational outcomes such as career success (Gabbay & Zuckerman, 1998), influences resource exchange and product innovation between units (Tshai & Ghoshal, 1998), motivates the combination and exchange of intellectual capital (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998), improve communication (Krackhardt & Hanson, 1993), enhance higher organizational

survival chances (Uzzi, 1993) and influences learning between organizations (Kraatz, 1998). In a nutshell, social capital contributes to individual well-being and development (Putman, 1994) and organizational advantage (Nahapiet & Ghoshal, 1998) and is, therefore, essential for the effective functioning of organizations. In this study, strengthening the social networks among SBoM is a worthwhile capacity-building strategy that will enhance effective governance in Kenyan schools.

The benefits of social capital notwithstanding, the corpus of empirical research points to criticisms against this concept. For example, Gannon and Roberts (2018) note that one of the reasons for the distaste of social capital in the economics literature is the theoretical scope of the concept and the limited experience of the vast majority of people examining various proxies for social capital. It is, therefore, acknowledged that this is a fundamental inconsistency between conventional research and the inputs and outputs of social and economic processes. This mismatch significantly undermines the usefulness of social capital as a tool for economic research. (Gannon & Roberts, 2018).

In line with the focus of this study, the social capital inherent in SBoM will foster a climate of trust between individual board members, promote a harmonious organizational culture, create new forms of information exchange about emerging issues in education and facilitate cooperation and innovation that is vital to their efficiency for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

3.2.3.3 Emotional Capital

As suggested by Gillies (2006) and Reay (2004), the term' emotional capital' is derived from Nowotny (1981), whose coinage is widely cited. Nowotny defines emotional capital as *"access to knowledge, contacts, relationships and emotionally valuable skills and assets"* (Nowotny, 1981:148). Emotional capital, according to Gendron (2017), is a collection of assets that support social cohesiveness, individual and professional growth, organisational development, personal integrity, and both social and economic success.

Cottingham (2015) notes that emotional capital is a cultural practice that includes emotion-specific, cross-situational resources that are activated and embodied by people in a variety of domains, building on Bourdieu's theory of social practice. In examining the role of emotional capital, Gendron (2017) indicates that beyond general knowledge and technical skills, emotional capital is crucial for maintaining human capital constitution in its broadest sense and people's development, well-being and performance.

According to Cottingham (2016), emotional capital is divided into three categories: emotional intelligence, managerial aptitude, and the capacity to perceive connections between one's own resources and social standing and membership in a group. According to Sfetcu (2020) emotional capital can be defined as an interpersonal resource that focuses on seeing emotions and their control as skills or habits that can lead to social advantage.

Individuals that possess more emotional capital and elevated levels of pleasant emotions tend to exhibit superior interpersonal interactions, job satisfaction, positive attitudes, and increased achievement (Gendron *et al*., 2016). Emotional capital is fundamental to adjusting to changes in the job and in society, in a sense. This study aims to clarify the idea of enhancing SBoM's capacity for effective school governance in Kenyan educational institutions. In order to do this, the researcher contends that in order to ensure effective school governance, school governing structures should be equipped with information based on emotions, managerial skills, and abilities that will promote their personal development and establish group membership.

According to Gendron *et al*. (2016), emotional capital is a learned skill which can be developed. In education, emotional capital is essential as it influences the learning process. Thomas, Smith and Diez (2013:3) describe human capital as *"people in an organization, their performance and their potential"*. This definition is consistent with that of Dess and Picken (1999:8), who state that human capital *"consists of the individual skills, knowledge, competencies and experience of managers and employees of an organization as they are relevant*

to the task at hand, as well as the capacity to add to the reservoir of knowledge, competencies and experience through individual learning."

Since human capital hinges on performance, competence and change, the researcher feels that it is essential to consider four pillars of human capital that directly relate to the focus of this study, which seeks to explain the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

3.2.3 The Pillars of Human Capital

Human capital is the fundamental level of human resource practice, including employee training and development related to other areas of Human Resource Development (Freund & Epstein, 1984). A study by Garavan *et al.* (2001) identified four dimensions of human capital: flexibility and adaptability, individual skill development, organizational skill development and individual employability. The researcher will briefly highlight these dimensions of the four essential pillars of human capital as postulated by Acs, Szerb and Autio (2017). According to Sanchez (1995), flexibility is an organization's ability to respond to the varying demands of its environment. As underlined by Snow *et al.* (1996); Wright and Boswell (2002), flexibility allows an organization to adapt to diverse and changing demands from its external environment.

According to Pearlman and Barney (2000), the ability to adapt is a crucial trait for handling stress and ambiguity, as well as for operating outside conventional temporal and spatial limits. Similarly, Nel (2016) suggested that the foundation of varied careers is adaptation as a career meta-competency. Fundamentally, it is about having the will and capacity to change (Hall & Chandler, 2005). In this regard, Lindsay (2009) defines employability as the possession by an individual of the qualities and competencies necessary to meet the changing needs of employers and clients, thereby enabling the job to be accomplished.

Employability is enhanced by networking and continually upgrading job skills and it encompasses both hard and soft skills, such as formal and actual abilities, interpersonal skills, and personal qualities as espoused by (Nilsson, 2010; Forret

& Sullivan, 2003). Today's workplace, therefore, demands employees with more energy and talent and those who are adaptable with specialised skills to succeed and survive in the face of global competition (Kumari & Pradhan, 2014). In the school context, SBoM must possess competencies that include skill upgrading, knowledge renewal, professional development, performance enhancement, performance management, and talent renewal to govern schools in Kenya effectively.

Human capital has four essential pillars, as theorised by Acs *et al*. (2017), which include competency management, performance management, change management and knowledge management. The researcher will now briefly discuss each of these pillars of human capital that have been applied to the focus of this study, which explains the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

3.2.3.1 Competency Management

The origins of competency management can be traced back over 3000 years to the outstanding work "*Arthshastra"* written by Chanakya, the Prime Minister of the great Indian emperor Chandragupta Maurya (Warier, 2008:1). Competencies refer to the essential skills, knowledge, and related best practices specific to a particular task that optimally achieves organizational goals and objectives or embellishes organizational performance (Gilbert, 2013). *Competency management* can be defined as the total of all activities aimed at ensuring and enhancing the operational and competitiveness of an organization through its knowledge base (Laakso-Manninen & Viitala, 2007). Competencies can be enhanced or acquired through appropriate interventions such as on-the-job training (OTJ) and Learning and Development (L&D) job-specific activities to improve organizational excellence.

As underscored by Warier (2008), competency management includes all the tools, techniques, methods and procedures an organization utilises to assess the available skill sets of its employees and map them according to current and future needs. Competency management involves analysis of organizational

needs and benefits, defining and assessing competencies, model building, evaluation and delivery. Its sole purpose is to use the Intellectual Capital (IC) to achieve sustainable competitive advantage and tangible benefits for the organization. Within its scope, competency management encompasses all targeted activities that promote, develop, regenerate and spawn the competencies required for corporate strategy (Laakso-Manninen & Viitala, 2007).

In this study, the researcher envisions that competency management in the school context will be achieved through strengthening SBoM's internal core competencies, such as strategic and results orientation, change leadership, stakeholder impact, and people and organizational development. Strengthening these core competencies will buttress SBoM's capacity for effective governance in Kenyan schools. The researcher anticipates another significant feature of this study: the interrelationship between competency and performance management as essential pillars of human capital.

3.2.3.2 Performance Management

Laakso-Manninen and Viitala (2007) maintain that any discussion about competency management must include a performance discussion because only performance makes competence tangible. In this regard, the development of competencies is an essential tool when performance management aims to improve organizational results by improving the performance of its members. Consequently, individual and group performance should be evaluated in relation to the vision and performance actions should either directly or indirectly support their accomplishments.

As demonstrated by Moynihan (2008), performance management is implemented to enhance the optimal use of facilities and resources to achieve institutional goals and objectives efficiently and effectively. On his part, Armstrong (2000:12) defines performance management as "*a strategic and integrated process that delivers sustained success to organizations by improving the performance of the people who work in them and by developing the capabilities of individual contributors and teams"*. In conformity with the focus of this study, the researcher

attests that strengthening SBoM's capacity holds the key to unlocking their potential for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

Performance management, according to Van Dooren, Bouckaert and Halligan (2015), is a communication process where managers and staff collaborate to plan, monitor, and evaluate each employee's work goals and overall contribution to the company. It is a continuing process of coaching, planning and appraising employee performance. In this study, the researcher concurs that in the school context, performance management will establish a high-performance culture among SBoM, hence, effective governance in Kenyan schools.

A study by Rioux and Bernthal (1999) established that performance management systems are indispensable mechanisms organizations utilise to translate business strategy into business outcomes. Specifically, performance management systems influence financial performance, quality service delivery and productivity, customer and employee job satisfaction (Broadbent & Laughlin, 2009).

Furthermore, 79% of the CEOs surveyed suggested that the performance management systems in their organizations drive the '*cultural strategies that maximise human assets'* (Aguinis, Gottfredson and Joo, 2013).

In this study, the researcher anticipates that as a pillar of human capital, performance management will augment the fabric of the empirical data as the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenyan schools unfolds. According to Aquinis *et al.* (2013:20), performance management *"refers to a continual process of identifying, computing and developing performance in organizations by combining each individual's performance and objectives to the organization's overall mission and goals".* Therefore, in this study, performance management will lay the basis for developing the performance of school managers by creating strategies to build the capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

3.2.3.3 Change Management

Mudanya (2018) characterises change management as an organizational arrangement designed to help stakeholders accept and embrace changes in their work environment. It involves applying tools, expertise, processes, and propositions to manage the 'people' side of change to realise an enterprise's desired outcomes. In simple terms, Dunne (2013) conceptualises change management as a systematic process of initiating change and making mutual concessions between environment and business practices.

Passenheim (2010) proclaims that complex structures such as organizations are driven by external and internal factors in their need for change. In this context, technology, economics, government laws, and regulations are some of the external forces that create the explicit need for change. Parallel to the external reasons, there are various internal forces for change, such as corporate strategy, employee attitudes, workforce, technology and equipment. In a nutshell, change is an amendment of a company's strategy, organization or culture due to changes in its environment, technology, structure or people (Passenheim, 2010).

In the researcher's view, SBoM should have competencies to manage change in the school environment concerning adjustments in the span of control, work processes, and employee insights and attitudes to govern schools effectively in Kenya.

Warrick (2006) hypothesised that the most critical skills leaders and employees need to develop in this era of dynamic change are organizational development, transformation capabilities, and leadership skills. According to Raina (2018), organizations incessantly introduce changes in response to internal and external stimuli. Therefore, change management aims to assist organizations in making changes effectively and ensures that individuals embrace and adopt change. These studies provide the researcher with rich empirical insights to address change management briefly from organizational and individual perspectives. This study focuses on the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

a) **Individual change management:** Hiatt and Creasy (2012) describe it as applying tools and processes to enable employees to manage their transitions through change. This includes training supervisors and managers to give them the tools to aid their employees through the change process. Kumar *et al.* (2015) contend that one's ability to respond to change in life is a powerful predictor of professional accomplishment. This implies that influential leaders actively seek to acquire and improve their competencies to adapt to changing environments and to learn and maximise the benefits of new technology. In essence, such leaders are firm believers in lifelong learning, regularly seek formal and informal feedback on their performance, and are aware of their weaknesses and strengths.

b) **Organizational change management:** In examining the process of implementing organizational change, Nanda (1996) attests that today's organizations face many challenges arising from economic shocks related to the development of new technologies, changing employee demographics, global economic competition and the unpredictability of both domestic and global financial markets. The ability to adapt quickly and appropriately to these environmental challenges has, therefore, become a critical factor in the success of an organization. According to Huber (1993), organizational change entails identifying and formulating flexible responses to the organisation's external environment's economic, technological, political and social dynamics. Moran & Brightman (2001:111) define organizational change management as introducing and managing a wide range of initiatives to "*renew an organization's direction, structure and aptitudes to serve the ever-changing needs of its external and internal customers*". Thus, change management involves communication, coaching, sponsorship, training and resistance management to warrant individual change. For successful change management, organizational and individual change management must be used together (Raina, 2018). In conformity with this view, O'Donovan, G

(2017) underline that organizations with successful change management masterplans are more likely to survive and, thus, more likely to provide sustainable employment for their workers. Nickols (2016) stresses that managing the types of change that organizations initiate and encounter requires a comprehensive and finely honed set of skills: Political, analytical, system and people skills. In this study, the researcher will briefly explicate these critical skills that have a bearing on the focus of this study, which seeks to illuminate the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

c) **Political skills:** Mintzberg (1985) and Wu and Albert (2019) reveal that organizations are social systems which are thus hot and intense political arenas. The research's necessity offers strong evidence that, absent political skills, most managers are likely to find it difficult to implement innovation and change (Buchanan & Badham, 2020). Political skill is characterised as a pattern of social skills that is comprehensive and has cognitive, affective, and behavioural manifestations that both directly influence results and moderate interactions between predictors and outcomes (Ferris *et al.* 2007). To capture the essential nature of the construct as discussed by Ferris *et al.* (1999), Ferris, Davidson and Perrewe (2005:127) define political skill as "*the ability to understand others at work effectively and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one's personal and organizational objectives*. In concordance with this view, the researcher feels that educational institutions require SBoM with high levels of political skills to apply organizational citizenship behaviour to enhance their effectiveness in governing schools in Kenya.

d) **Analytical skills:** As previously accentuated in this chapter, analytical skills are necessary for change management. To be an analytical thinker, one must always be an active observer and learner, not a passive consumer of information; be open-minded and willing to hear all arguments and perspectives; question ideas and information presented;

be critical of one's ideas, beliefs and actions to see if they can be improved and to try to determine if one's solutions are indeed the best or if they can be improved (Trivedi, 2018). Analytical thinking involves abilities to take apart a problem and understand its parts; explain the functioning of a system, the reasons why something happens, or the procedures of solving a problem; compare and contrast two or more things or evaluate and critique the characteristics of something (Sternberg & Rainbow Project Collaborators, 2006).

e) **People skills:** As Boudreau and Ramstad (2007:4) present: *"Whether it is called "people," "labour," "intellectual capital," "human capital," "human resources," "talent"* or some other term, the resource that lies within employees and how they are organised, is increasingly recognised as critical to strategic success and competitive advantage. Educational organizations are more people-oriented than other organizations, such as factories with production lines. Hence, dealing with people, including principals, teachers, parents, and students, is inevitable in all work-based activities. Thus, people skills are indispensable in daily communication and interactive behaviour in educational work. Consequently, in educational institutions, people skills can be thought of as "*the oil in the engine"* or as "*the cornerstone of organizational functioning*", which can focus on positive feelings such as confidence and congeniality as well as on the spirit of teamwork (Zhang, 2018:31).

f) **System skills:** In their classical book *The Social Psychology of Organizations*, Katz and Khan (1978) advocate for thinking about organizations as living, dynamic, organic, and complex social systems. Lipham and (1960) confirm that social systems have three essential characteristics: the interdependence of parts, their organization into some sort of whole and the essential existence of individuals and institutions. Correspondingly, Wright and Meadows (2008) defined a *system* as an organised collection of integrated subsystems to achieve an overall goal, whereby when a subsystem changes, the entire system can be affected

by the network of relationships between the subsystems. As a social system, the school structure exhibits the characteristics of a rational, natural, and open system, as it has a hierarchy of powers, goals, and role expectations similar to that of bureaucratic organizations (Bozkus, 2014).In tandem with the focus of this study which seeks to expound the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools, the researcher believes that change management is a worthwhile method that supports the transformation of the work performance and expands the competitive advantage to an educational enterprise.

3.2.3.4 Knowledge management

People's stock of knowledge is also referred to as intellectual assets. Knowledge management is about getting the proper knowledge at the right place and time, enabling the right person to make and implement the right decision and enhancing performance through an integrated set of initiatives, systems and behavioural interventions (RoK, 2020). According to Stankosky (2008), knowledge management is the deliberate and systematic coordination of an organization's people, technology, processes, and structure to add value through reuse and innovation. This is achieved by promoting, creating, sharing, and applying knowledge and feeding valuable lessons learned and best practices into corporate memory to foster continued organizational learning.

Rigby (2009) argues that knowledge management develops systems and processes to acquire and share intellectual assets. It increases the generation of practical, actionable and meaningful information and seeks to increase individual and team learning. In addition, it can maximise the value of an organization's intellectual base across diverse functions and disparate locations. Subsequently, knowledge management seeks to accumulate intellectual capital to create unique core competencies and produce superior results. Similarly, O'Dell and Grayson (1998) expressed that knowledge management systematically finds, understands and uses knowledge for value creation.

Acknowledging the importance of intellectual capital in organizations, Dalkir (2013) argues that knowledge management enables organizations to retain their essential technical expertise and prevent critical knowledge drawdown that is a cause of downsizing and layoffs. It also enables staff to understand their work better, propose creative solutions, and enable them to manage multitasking positions. Consequently, knowledge management is about harnessing, developing and exploiting organizational intellectual capital (Stahle & Gronroos, 2000).

In this study, the researcher acknowledges the gravity of knowledge management within school governing structures to enhance their competitiveness and innovation. This conforms to this study's focal point which seeks to elucidate the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools. After considering the four pillars of human capital that influence the focus of this study, the researcher will present some of the criticisms that have been levelled against the human capital theory.

3.2.4 Criticisms Levelled Against Human Capital Theory

Robeyns (2006) argues that human capital theory has come under fire mainly because it contains many flaws that have far-reaching implications in both emerging and post-industrialized economies. According to Marginson (2019), one of the main problems is that human capital theory lacks reality in at least four areas. First, human capital theory combines the two disparate domains of education and work as if they were a single domain. Second, it uses a closed-loop analysis system with independent variables but cannot exclude externalities and mutual independence from the problem it solves. Third, linear theory is used for spatially and temporary non-homogeneous materials. Finally, human capital theory excludes a variety of possible alternative explanations for the interaction between education and work.

It is further noted that the shortcomings of human capital theory stem from underlying meta-methods in the social sciences (Dow, 1993) that prevent a proper explanation. On his part, Becker (2009) contends that treating people as

wealth that can be augmented by investment seems to reduce them to purely material components akin to property. Moreover, even if it does not restrict human freedom, people viewing themselves as capital goods may appear to demean them. Other notable critics of human capital theory include Samuel Bowles and Herbert Gintis, John Stuart Mill and Alfred Marshall.

Bowles-Gintis' school of thought: Even though the concept of human capital has been auspicious to economic growth, namely, to countries such as Singapore and Hong Kong, and perceived as a form of capital, it has not been appreciated for its "*special character*'' as cited in Bowles and Gintis (1975). Labor is still seen as a form of capital, failing to recognize the value of people. As Bowles and Gintis (1975) pointed out, neoclassical economics treats labor as a commodity (consumption expenditure). It acknowledges labor as a form of capital expenditure, but human capital has failed to discern that labor is centered on human beings, rather than being an expense. Thus, a proper theory of human resources must include a theory of production and social reproduction (Bowles & Gintis, 1975). Under social reproduction, Bowles and Gintis revealed that education, vocational training, child rearing and health care serve dual economic and social functions, even if their contributions are not direct. They are also essential to the survival of the entire economic and social order. Suffice it to say that human capital theory fails to offer a theory of reproduction (Bowles & Gintis, 1975).

John Stuart Mill's criticism of Human Capital Theory: In his writing, "*Principles of Political Economy with Some of their Applications to Social Philosophy*", John Stuart Mill first criticised human capital. According to Mill's critique, the people of any given country should not be considered as wealthy of that country "because wealth existed only for the benefit of the people." Investments in research, education, and other improvements should be considered enormous spending made by families or the government, and this spending is not included in the production costs. (John Stuart Mill, 2022).

Alfred Marshall's criticism of Human Capital Theory: Another theorist who does not recognize human capital as a factor of production is a British economist, Alfred Marshall. He put forward many ideas that capital is "neither appropriate nor practical to apply" for people because it cannot be taken as a treatment in practical analyses. Moreover, Alfred Marshall did not confess the investment in human capital as the production cost. Marshall introduced the concept of "personal capital" referring to individuals with physical strength, skills and abilities contributing to increased labor productivity. In general, Marshall's economic views rejected the notion of human capital as the dominant fundamental concept in economic relations (Marshall, 2009).

Despite these virulent attacks, the human capital concept is recognized as a seminal contribution to economic theory. The concept still permeates the literature, and its application traverses many fields, including management, demography, manpower, and educational policy (Trofimov *et al*., 2020).

After considering these criticisms, the researcher will discuss the relevance of the Human Capital Theory for this study.

3.2.5 The relevance of the Human Capital Theory for this study

In their book *Doing Qualitative Research*, David Silvermann and Amir Marvasti emphasise the significance of a theory in research. They state: "*Any scientific finding is usually to be assessed concerning the theoretical perspective from which it derives and to which it may contribute.*" (Silverman & Marvasti 2008:129). With respect to this study, the researcher believes that human capital theory will enhance the rigour of research (Gilham, 2013) by providing direction and impetus to the study, thereby increasing the knowledge associated with research (Grant & Osanloo, 2014) regarding the concept of building capacity among boards of management for effective school governance in Kenya.

In choosing Human Capital Theory as the theoretical framework for this study, the researcher remained conscious of the imperative that all four constructs of this research, which encompasses the research problem, the purpose and

significance of the study and the main research question, are solidly marshalled and intricately intertwined (Ravitch & Carl, 2019). The researcher is convinced that the Human Capital Theory will help educational policymakers and researchers effectively assess the relationships between education and training as inputs and economic and social benefits as outputs regarding the concept of building capacity among boards of management for effective school governance in Kenya.

Human capital theory can be used to answer questions about the optimal level of individual/social investment in education, the types of investment that are most productive, and when the investment is most effective. It also helps answer questions about the costs and benefits of an individual's investment in education and the types of policy interventions that will reduce the individual's costs associated with investing in education. In the same context, human capital theory provides a valuable lens for understanding how policy can be developed to encourage individual board members to invest in their education to improve their ability to govern schools effectively in Kenya.

In this study, the relevance of human capital theory is rooted in the premise that to increase institutional performance, schools must rely on employees' skills, knowledge, and abilities as fundamental concepts of value creation. This is because knowledge, skills and abilities are viewed as an invisible asset and indispensable tool for organizational success.

After a thorough review of the literature, the researcher acknowledges that human capital theory's invaluable contribution to improving school leadership and management, mainly through capacity building, is an area that has not been thoroughly investigated. This means that empirical data is limited, and therefore, researching the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools is a complex venture.

Regarding this study, the researcher approached human capital theory by delving deep into the existing literature to understand its multifaceted nature. The researcher assessed various alternatives and selected a feasible approach. At all

costs, the researcher's aim was not to redefine or postulate another definition of human capital. Instead, the researcher considers his approach in this study similar to that of an investigator in numerous interdisciplinary human capital accounts. The researcher aimed to sift through the vast body of knowledge relating to human capital and apply the applicable features to the theme of this study, which explains the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

As highlighted in the title of this study, the researcher remains keenly interested in effective school governance. Burns *et al.* (2017) defined *school effectiveness* as the decisive effect of enhancing conditions at the school level. It encompasses all critical variables related to teaching, instruction, management, students' learning, and community participation. According to Magulod (2017), effective schools focus on the achievement of the students and the interplay of other factors such as learning motivation, classroom management, students' learning attitudes and participation.

The researcher believes that effective school governance is crucial if Kenya aims to improve the quality of schools and attain broader educational outcomes for Kenyan learners. Therefore, as a theoretical lens of this study currently focused on effective school governance, the researcher will feature a contextualised summary of Niamh Brennan's (2011) stakeholder model of school governance.

3.3 NIAMH BRENNAN'S STAKEHOLDER MODEL OF SCHOOL GOVERNANCE

Writing on the growth of management theories and models, Trompenaars and Coebergh (2014) disclose that while theories emerge to explain the world, models are verifiable summaries of theories functioning in social science as instruments to ameliorate organizations.

3.3.1 Introduction

The concept of stakeholder governance stems from the idea that there are *'groups of people without whose support the organization would cease to*

exist' (Lozano, 2009:60). Thus, Freeman and Reed (1983:30) refer to stakeholders as *'those groups vital to the corporation's survival.'* The basic premise of the stakeholder model is that public sector institutions ought to be managed by people interested in them. As such, the stakeholder model situates governance as strategic leadership of institutions by people who are representative of and from the groups interested in them (Goldwyn, 2008).

For Donaldson and Preston (1995), a stakeholder is an individual or group with a legitimate interest in procedural and material aspects of an organization's activities. Stakeholders are identified based on their interests in the organization and whether the same organization has any reciprocal and practical interest in them. In education, the term stakeholder is usually used to refer to anyone who has invested in the welfare and success of a school and its students, including principals, board members, teachers, funding bodies, parents, local communities, families, peer groups, citizens and politicians (Brennan, 2011). The researcher will now foreground critical stakeholders in school governance in line with the focus of this study, which seeks to elucidate the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.
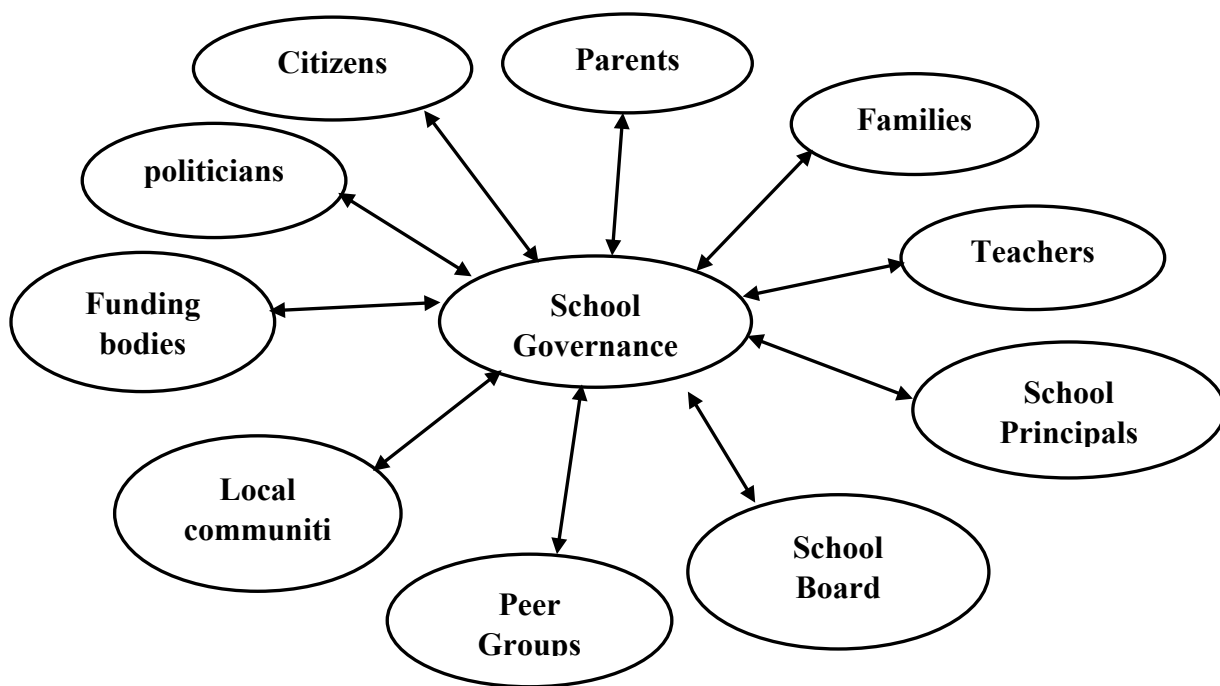
Figure 3.1: The Stakeholder Model

3.3.2 Parental involvement

For decades (Nil & Bogler, 2012), the issue of parental involvement has defied practitioners and researchers taking part in school reform. Parental involvement in school governance, according to Bastiani (1993) and Epstein (2005), is crucial for enhancing school effectiveness. Parents frequently challenge school decisions (Epstein *et al.,* 2018) and take a proactive approach to school governance, working to improve issues that teachers do not think warrant parental involvement, even though some degree of parental involvement in school governance is thought to be beneficial to school conduct and effectiveness. Teachers are starting to understand the need of involving parents in school operations, though (Grant & Ray, 2018).

According to research by Epstein (2005) and Greenwood & Hickman (1991), parental involvement in their children's education starts at home, where parents may foster a favourable attitude towards school, a safe and healthy environment, and suitable learning opportunities. Furthermore, a number of studies have demonstrated that students with interested parents do better academically and that parental participation works best when it is seen as collaboration between teachers and parents (Davis, 2001; Van der Wal, 2020 & Epstein, 2005).

According to Epstein (2005), parents gain confidence in their role as parent governors, exercise leadership in decision-making, communicate more effectively and productively with their children regarding school work and are more likely to interact with their fellow parents at the school effectively. In addition, they are more likely to muster support for the school and its programs and become more active community members. For educational accountability to stakeholders, Caldwell and Harris (2008) contend that parents play a noteworthy role in school governance. In this study, which seeks to explain the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools, the researcher takes cognisance of the role played by parents concerning school initiatives and activities, thereby making an educational system more self-governing.

3.3.3 Political Class

According to Heidenheimer and Johnson (2011), politics is the process by which some people attempt to formally or informally influence the actions of others. Hay (2002) defines politics as a process that a society accepts in order to affect the distribution of wealth, power, honour, and status among its members based on this description. According to Ramsey (2006:79), *"Whenever there is power to be exercised, resources to be shared, recognition to be gained, or influence to be negotiated, there is politics".*

In education, the success of quality control reforms is highly dependent on the will and commitment of the politics of a given country (Bigham & Ray, 2012; Kasuga, 2019). The claim that education reform is *"a highly charged and politicised process; what is implemented and its impact depends as much or more on the politics of the reform process as on the technical design of the reform"* was made by Bruns and Schneider (2016:5) to bolster this assertion. Therefore, government policies exist to control the education system and serve a function of politics. In this context, politics determines the type of education citizens need, and the type of education reflects the competency of politicians. As a result, educational policies are not free from politics (Bigham & Ray, 2012; Devi, 2017).

According to Lewin (2020), school systems in Sub-Saharan Africa have limited financial resources to meet their obligation—from designing school funding policies to directing resources where they can have the most significant impact. In Kenya, the role of politicians in funding school operations cannot be gainsaid. Apart from public funds in the form of taxes, fee payments by parents or guardians, private firms or individuals and international donor agencies, the Kenyan government directs funds to schools through Free Primary Education (FPE) grants, Constituency Development Funds (CDF), and the County Development Funds in devolved units (Itegi, 2016). As for the CDF, members of parliament directly influence the disbursement of these funds to schools within their constituencies, besides influencing the composition of school boards of

management. Thus, politicians are critical stakeholders in the governance of basic education institutions in Kenya.

3.3.4 Community Participation

Community participation in school-based governance is a formal change in administrative structures that singles out individual schools as essential units of progress and critical leadership professionals who can inspire and sustain school improvement (Gamage, 2001). To this end, formal decision-making authority in the school's mission, goals, priorities, and policies relating to financial, material, and human resources and budgets has been transferred to varying degrees at the school level (Brown, 2012). This line of argument is consistent with Dayaram (2011), who maintains that schools are focal social institutions that are inextricably linked to the well-being and growth of communities.

Coppola, Luczak and Stephenson (2003) underscored that firm and sustained community participation in school governance can improve the transparency and accountability of the education systems and foster a sense of ownership, agency and commitment to positive change. The greater the community's financial and kind involvement, the more likely they are to demand accountability from the staff. Contrary to the findings of Coppola *et al*. (2015), the study conducted by Watt (2001), Pryor (2005) and Rose (2003) concluded that in Africa and South Asia, greater community involvement is often associated with top-down impositions and not in response to community requests. Many communities in various national contexts see this kind of participation as an additional burden on top of the already significant demand for time and resources. In contrast, school and local government officials often attribute what they perceive to be poor or non-involvement by community members to lack of interest or formal education (PROBE, 1999; Vasavi, 2015).

Governing boards often represent a variety of interests, such as parents, politicians, and the local community, according to evidence from the literature analysed for this study. The researcher emphasises how important it is to include community members in school activities in the context of this study, which aims

to clarify the idea of developing capacity within SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools. They ought to be emboldened to discharge their duties effectively.

3.3.5 School Board Members

The school board of management is a structure that upholds the principles of representative democracy (Amakyi, 2022). Such governing structures allow school-level participants to be directly involved in school decision-making (Brown & Armstrong, 2022). A study by the Faubert (2009) established that effective boards contribute to school success by enhancing effective governance, promoting democratic participation and building relationships between schools and their communities.

The decentralisation of authority and the establishment of school governing structures for the participation of all stakeholders is envisioned to promote productivity, autonomy, accountability and flexibility (Diamond, 2015). On the same note, recent research, including research on school governance, has contributed to a better understanding of the role of school boards in improving students' achievement (Boeck, 2009). As stakeholders in school governance, board members can significantly influence the formulation and implementation of educational policies, setting the long-term future for the school and maintaining oversight of school operations. Fundamentally, the role of school board members is to provide additional expertise to help the school achieve the best student outcomes.

In conclusion, there has been a long history of theoretical and empirical investigation into stakeholding and stakeholders. Stakeholder theory is relevant, illustrative/empirical, and reasonable, according to Gomes, Liddle and Gomes (2010). In order to investigate the idea of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools, the researcher's primary focus in this study is to use empirical work to examine the instrumental and normative claims for the stakeholder model of school governance.

3.3.6 The relevance of the Stakeholder Model of Governance with reference to effective school governance in this study

A stakeholder model defines a *manager's duty* of care as including an explicit and substantial weight on stakeholder interests as perceived by the manager. In the school context, the active participation of all stakeholders, the pursuit of long-term institutional value, the trust relationship between the institution, and the interconnection among stakeholders are the main proposals in the stakeholder governance model.

In this study, the researcher will pay attention to all stakeholders, including parents, political class, teachers, board members and local communities that underpin Niamh Brennan's stakeholder model of school governance. The researcher anticipates that this model will guide the data collection phase of this study, which examines the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

The researcher is also aware of the challenges faced by SBoM and the impact these challenges pose on governance in Kenyan schools. Hence, as part of the title of this study, the researcher will now situate the "skills deficit" among SBoM in Kenya by using a skills-based model of governance advanced by Mumford *et al*. (2000).

3.4 THE SKILLS-BASED MODEL OF GOVERNANCE

3.4.1 Introduction

The idea behind the skills-based model of school board governance is that individuals with the necessary abilities are the best candidates to lead public sector organisations, as they are expected to be valuable assets in the day-to-day operations of the organisation. Stated differently, this model bases governance membership on an individual's expertise rather than their institutional interest (Connolly, Farrell & James, 2017). Similarly, Mumford *et al.* (2000) discuss how the skills model differs from the stakeholder approach in that it

places greater emphasis on board members who are appointed based on their abilities, which are typically derived from professional experience and qualifications.
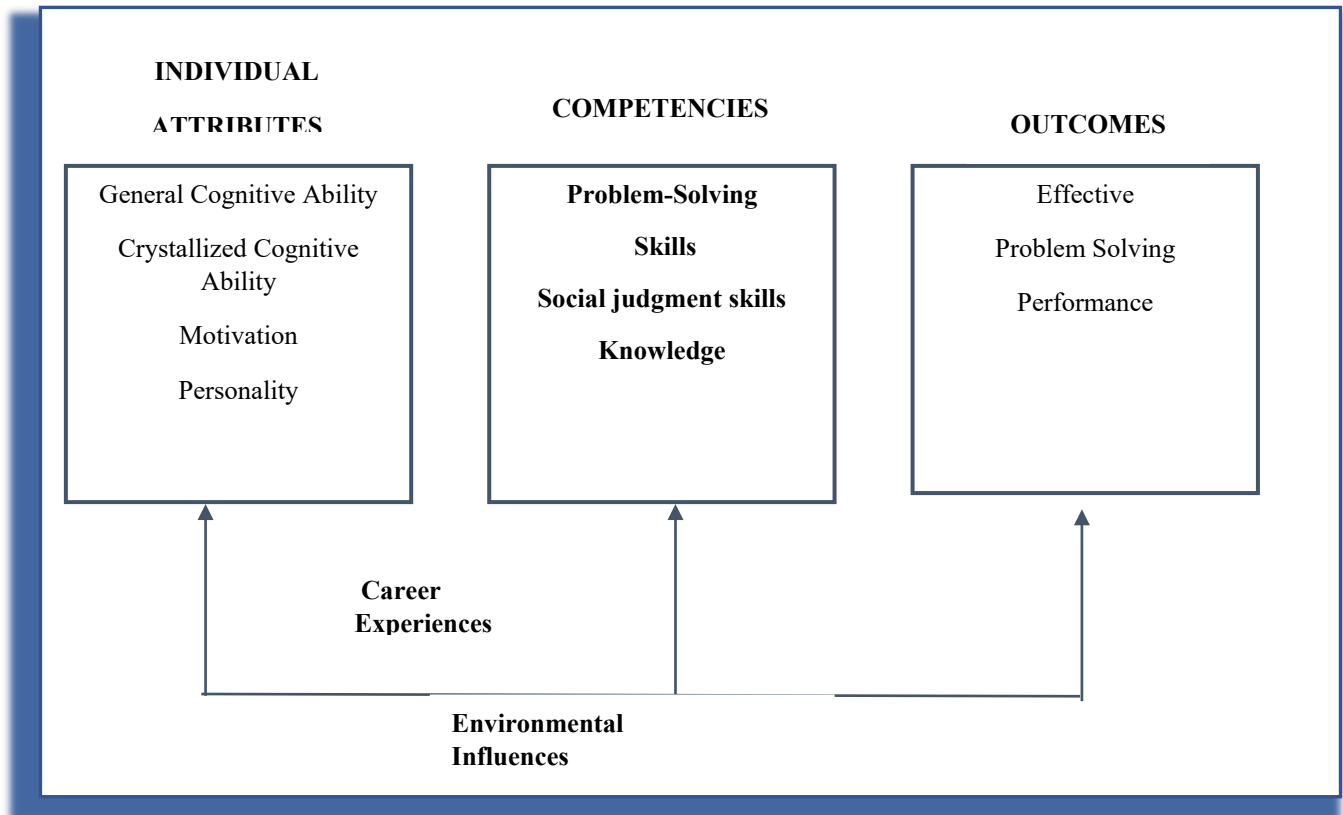
Figure 3.2 The Skills-Based Model. Adapted from "Leadership Skills for a Changing World: Solving Complex Social Problems,'' by Mumford *et al.* (2000).

As depicted in Figure 3.2, individual attributes incorporate general cognitive ability, crystallised cognitive ability, motivation and personality. These attributes give rise to competencies that include problem-solving skills, social judgement skills and knowledge, all influenced by career experiences. As a result, these attributes and competencies lead to practical problem-solving abilities and enhanced performance.

3.4.2 General cognitive ability

General cognitive ability is conceived by Jensen (1998) as the ability that consistently differentiates individuals on mental abilities regardless of the cognitive task or test. Schmidt (2002) states that there is enough evidence to draw the conclusion that there is a significant relationship between general cognitive ability and work performance based on study findings in differential psychology regarding the nature and correlates of general cognitive ability.

According to Kell and Lang (2020), there has been much discussion over the relative significance of general cognitive capacity vs particular abilities for work success. More specifically, according to Hunter (1986:341), *"job performance is predicted by general cognitive ability rather than specific cognitive aptitudes."*

These days, there is probably a lot more agreement that "general intelligence" and "general cognitive ability" are valid concepts, and that individual variations in thinking, problem-solving, and many other types of mental ability tests are largely due to variations in GCI (Vernon, 1960).

3.4.3 Crystallised cognitive ability

Crystallised intelligence is defined as the experience-based knowledge component of intelligence that is gained from contact with one's surroundings. It represents the body of information that has been gathered from experience, culture, and earlier education (Salthouse, 2004). This intelligence is frequently assessed in terms of knowledge and appears to be correlated with general cognitive ability, physical fitness, and education. It is dependent upon a number of factors, such as opportunity, motivation, and culture (Horn & Cattell, 1978).

Thus, the term "crystallised intelligence" refers to the information and expertise gained from a lifetime of practice with a variety of real-world tasks, scenarios, and obstacles (Glaser, 1985; Rowley & Slack, 2009). Scholars have contended that elements of wisdom, such as the capacity to acknowledge one's own shortcomings, taking into account many points of view, and accepting compromise, are connected to crystallised intelligence (Leeman, 2020).

3.4.4 Motivation

Motivation serves as a dynamic source of energy that prompts us to take action (Pinder, 2014). It encompasses both conscious and unconscious choices *'regarding the allocation of effort towards tasks or activities, including decisions about how, when, and why we engage in them'* (Mitchell, 1999:60). Mitchell further characterizes motivation as the psychological mechanisms governing the arousal, direction, intensity, and persistence of purposeful actions aimed at achieving goals. Thus, motivation involves not only the selection of goals and objectives (arousal and direction) but also the degree and steadfastness with which we pursue them (intensity and persistence).

As Manzoor (2012) suggested, a motivated employee has his/her goals aligned with the organization's and directs his/her efforts in that course. In addition, these organizations are more successful as their employees continuously look for ways to improve their work. According to Miner (1980), motivation influences performance; for example, when feedback is communicated to the employees or when recognition of the achievement of an individual's performance is realised, then the output of the individual is likely to increase.

At the school level, willingness and motivation to tackle complex organizational problems, willingness to express dominance and commitment to the social good of the organization are some of the aspects of motivation essential to developing leadership skills among school managers.

3.4.5 Personality

Personality has always been an exciting topic to discuss, and it is undeniable that one's success in work, study and other areas is influenced by personality (Jusuf, 2018). Literature teems with a plethora of definitions of the term personality. Goldberg (1993) and Mooradian and Swan (2006) define *personality* as enduring dispositions that cause characteristic patterns of interaction with one's environment. As per Allport (1961), personality constitutes a dynamic arrangement of psychophysical systems within an individual, giving rise to distinctive patterns of behavior, cognition, and emotions. Similarly, Child and

Iwao (1968) posit that relatively stable internal factors contribute to the consistency of an individual's behavior across time and differentiate it from the behavior that others might exhibit in similar circumstances. Both perspectives underscore that personality operates as an internal mechanism shaping behavior.

McAdams (2009:12) stated that '*personality is a unique variation on the general design of human nature whereby human nature itself is a product of our species' evolution. Whereas personality develops across the individual life cycle, human nature has 'developed' over millions of years of evolutionary history'*. Thus, it is evident from McAdams' definition that someone's personality develops throughout his/her life. A study by Smillie and Haslam (2022) found that personality standards have been used to select people for jobs in organizations and industries. The study further reported that personality factors (conscientiousness, agreeableness, extraversion, neuroticism and openness) are good predictors of organizational and industrial standards, including job satisfaction, efficiency, educational professionalism and many other conditions. Given the circumstances of this study and the researcher's perspective, any personality trait that aids SBoM members in managing intricate organisational circumstances is probably connected to leadership effectiveness.

3.5 THREE-SKILLS APPROACH

One of the most influential pieces of writing on skills was a classic piece written by Robert Katz and published in the Harvard Business Review in 1955 under the title "Skills of an Effective Administrator." Katz addressed leadership as a set of skills that can be developed, in an effort to go beyond the trait problem. According to Katz's (1955) skills model of leadership, in order for leaders to effectively manage their organisations, they must possess human, technical, and conceptual skills. *Leadership skills* are defined as the ability to use one's knowledge and competencies to accomplish a set of goals or objectives.

According to Katz (1955), these leadership skills can be acquired, and leaders can be trained to develop them.

3.5.1 Technical Skills

Technical skill includes expertise in and understanding of a particular field of work. It comprises analytical skills, specialised knowledge-based tool and technique application, and competency in a particular field (Katz, 1955).

3.5.2 Human Skills

According to Katz (1955), human talent includes knowledge of and aptitude for working with people, receptivity to the opinions of others, flexibility in responding to ideas based on feedback, and the capacity to foster an environment of trust. These are the skills that enable a leader to collaborate productively with peers, superiors, and subordinates to achieve the objectives of the company. A leader can help group members cooperate to accomplish shared objectives by using human abilities. Human-centered leaders foster a trusting environment in which staff members feel safe, comfortable, and inspired to participate in decisions that may impact them. A human-skilled leader is one who is perceptive to the needs and motives of people and who makes decisions with those needs in mind (Katz, 1955).

3.5.3 Conceptual Skills

As elucidated by Katz (1995), conceptual skills include working with ideas and concepts, strategic planning, setting direction, and cognitive, business and strategic skills. A conceptually skilled leader feels at ease discussing the complex concepts and ideas that form an organisation. He or she uses hypothetical concepts and abstractions with efficiency. Conceptual abilities are essential for developing an organization's vision and strategic strategy, claims Katz (1995). The mental labour involved in defining organisational or policy issues and comprehending the goals and direction of an organisation falls under the purview of conceptual skill.

In summary, leaders need to have all three skills, depending on where they are in the management structure, to achieve effective problem-solving, employee effectiveness and improved performance for organizational success.

Conceptual framework

Technical skills.	→	Effective problem solving.
Human skills.		Employee effectiveness.
Conceptual skills.		Improved performance.
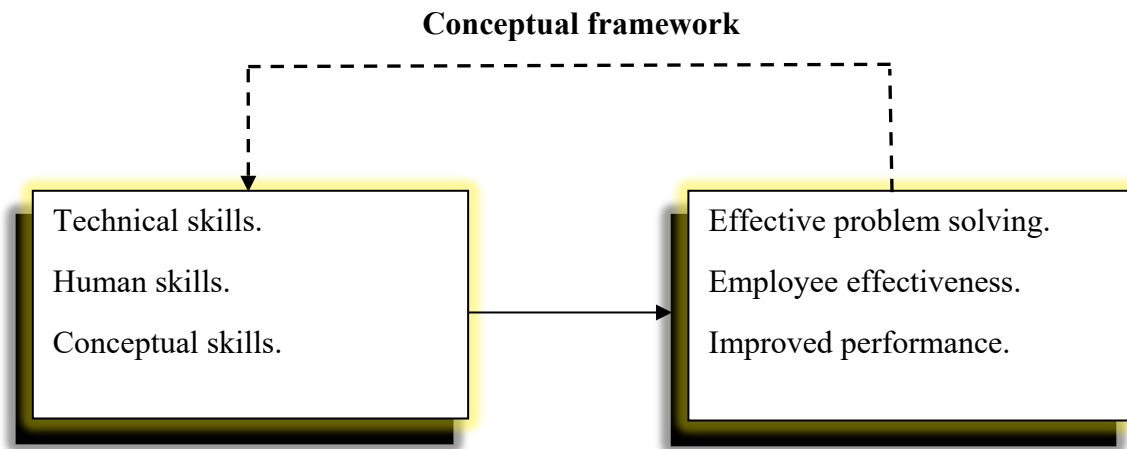
Figure 3.3 Three-Skill Approach Adapted from "Skills of an Effective Administrator," by R.L. Katz, 1955, Harvard Business Review*.*

Rather than being seen at opposite ends of the spectrum, the skills and the stakeholder models can combine to create governing bodies comprising various members (Connolly *et al.*, 2017). As pointed out by Bush and Gamage (2001), school governing bodies exhibit a lay/professional interface in the sense that they have both lay and professional members; therefore, one important task is to balance these interests in a way that meets the school's needs.

3.5.4 The relevance of the skills-based governance model regarding effective school governance in this study.

Recruiting managers with appropriate personal attributes, such as commitment and skills, is more critical for effective governance than the adopted governance model. The skills and knowledge needed for school governors to provide strategic challenges must be further developed and supported.

Effective school governance is crucial for any country to achieve its ambition to improve the quality of schools, attainment and broader educational outcomes for its people. Ultimately, the effectiveness of a school governing body will be evidenced by the outcomes it helps to secure, namely school improvement,

increased attainment and improved educational outcomes. Schools need influential leaders to communicate the school's mission and vision. Effective schools (Jansen, 1995) will create a generation that has proven their ability to attend class and proficiency in knowledge and skills essential for success.

3.6 SUMMARY

In this chapter, the researcher provided a lengthy theoretical framework discussion of human capital theory, the stakeholder and skills models of governance. Throughout this chapter, the researcher endeavours to synthesize, integrate, and utilize relevant and interrelated concepts to make sense of this study which examines the concept of building capacity among SBOM for effective school governance in Kenya.

In the next chapter, the researcher will focus on the research design and methodology for the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 3 provided a detailed exposition of the Human Capital Theory, Niamh Brennan's stakeholder model, the skill-based model of school leadership advanced by Mumford et al. and Katz's Three Skills approach as they relate to explaining the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenya. This empirical investigation adopts a mixed methods approach since the researcher believes that examining the variables related to the concept of capacity building among SBoM and the contribution of these variables to effective school governance in Kenya demands a dynamic research approach deeply ingrained in both quantitative and qualitative epistemologies. This is necessary to ensure that research participants (SBoM members, board chairpersons, principals and head teachers) in a study of this magnitude are not denied their subjective views on the phenomena under scrutiny. In contrast, the objectivity of the entire research enterprise is guaranteed.

As indicated in Chapter One, the key to this study's objectives is to develop a capacity-building model to build and sustain effective school governance in Kenya. Consequently, the researcher emphasizes that it is vital to analyze the existing knowledge as a backdrop to the current study. In this approach, the researcher strives to generate new knowledge that could contribute to the understanding of the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenya. In this chapter, the researcher recognizes that pragmatism is the research paradigm in which this study is situated, with MMR methodology employed using the explanatory sequential design as the research approach.

The researcher's resolve is to explicate the research methodology path by explaining the chosen research design, the study's population and the *modus operandi* concerning the sampling procedures during the data collection phase. The data collection and instrumentation strategies regarding the sequential

explanatory MMR approach, encompassing both the quantitative questionnaire and qualitative structured interviews, was explored. Eventually, validity and reliability was delineated, as well as measures to ensure trustworthiness. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the ethical procedures followed in this study. The researcher begins by presenting the study's research design and methodology, followed by the philosophical underpinning of this study.

4.2 THE RESEARCH DESIGN FOR THE STUDY

A research design has long been a focal point for researchers, with various scholars offering nuanced definitions and perspectives on its significance and implementation. Creswell (2014:233) characterizes it as *"the type of investigation executed through a specific research approach (qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods) to present clear direction for the research procedures in a specific study."* In the present study, the researcher opted for a survey design for the quantitative aspect within the explanatory sequential design of the MM approach, alongside focus group discussions and structured interviews for the qualitative phase.

"A well-thought-out framework for action that serves as a conduit between research questions and implementation of the research strategy" is how Durrheim (2004: 29) describes a research design. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2008:58), a research design comprises *"a flexible set of guiding principles that link theoretical paradigms first to strategies of investigation and then to procedures for gathering empirical material."* The researcher concurs with Creswell (2014) that a research design is a comprehensive plan that links conceptual research concerns to relevant and feasible empirical study.

Kerlinger (1986) views a research design as a structured master plan of investigation tailored to address research questions while optimizing control over variables. Akthar (2016) further underscores the importance of research design, highlighting its role in facilitating smooth research procedures and ensuring professionalism, efficiency, and resource optimization. According to Burkholder *et al.* (2019), the ideal research design minimizes experimental error and

maximizes data yielded across various aspects of the research problem, rendering it methodically sound and suitable for addressing diverse research inquiries.

Burns and Grove (2010:195) describe a research design *as "a framework for carrying out a study with maximum control over factors that may impede the validity of study findings".* In concert with this description, Jongbo (2014) emphasizes that if a researcher gathers data before considering the research design and the information required to answer research questions, the inferences drawn will likely be weak and implausible, hence failing to attain research objectives.

In light of the preceding discussion, the researcher agrees that the goal of a sound research design is to provide findings that are judged to be acceptable concerning the overall platform for the plan of action taken by the researcher for the data collection and analysis segments. Further, the researcher agrees with Creswell (2009:3) that *"a research design's rational development should not only assist in making the research enterprise manageable but also guarantee that research questions can be answered based on evidence."*

In connection with this study which explains the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenya, the researcher has considered all these perspectives when selecting a research design. The researcher will now delve into the philosophical lens that undergirds this study.

4.3 THE PHILOSOPHICAL UNDERPINNING OF THIS STUDY

The researcher outlines in detail the research design process and methodological decision made for this study in this chapter, which clarifies the idea of enhancing SBoM capacity for efficient school governance in Kenya. The methodological decision in this chapter is mostly guided by the research challenge and the philosophical perspective. Ryan (2018) suggests that a research philosophy incorporates the reality, truth and knowledge the researcher deduces. In harmony with this contention, Jackson (2013) aptly mentions that the

philosophical assumptions that the researcher holds about the research problem influence his disposition and choice of methodology.

As Creswell and Poth (2013) revealed, philosophies are consistently applied as the research foundation. This implies that the philosophical underpinning of research denotes the epistemological, ontological and axiological assumptions. Therefore, a researcher's methodological decision is dictated by their philosophical presumptions on ontology/human nature and epistemology. (Collins & Hussey, 2003). As expounded by Oates (2006:12), *"It is the research paradigms that delineate the fundamental philosophical perspectives of groups of people concerning the world they live in and the research they conduct."*

The term paradigm was first initiated by the American philosopher Thomas Kuhn (1962) in his seminal paper, *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions.* Kuhn (1962) defined a *paradigm* as a philosophical way of thinking. Even though various scholars and theorists have described the term paradigm from different perspectives, the term has its etiology in Greek, where it means *pattern* (Kivunja & Kuyini, 2017). Bardhan and Weaver (2011) define a *research paradigm* as a set of guiding values regarding scientific investigation comprising one's ontological allegiance, epistemological beliefs and methodological predispositions. Similarly, Guba and Lincoln (1994) conceived a paradigm as a cardinal system that guides the researcher in his investigation.

Okesina (2020), Perera (2018), and Mahoney *et al*. (2004) describe a paradigm as a set of common beliefs and agreements shared by scientists on how problems exist and how such problems can be probed and effectively addressed. Similarly, Hatch (2023) pronounced research paradigms as the convergence of ontology, epistemology, methodology (the philosophy and corresponding methods used to conduct a study) and report genre. Regarding their significance in social science research, Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) emphasize that paradigms are of great significance since they provide beliefs and guiding principles, which, for scholars in a particular discipline, determine what should be investigated and how it should be investigated.

Therefore, adopting a paradigm helps the researcher conceptualise their views on the nature of knowledge and choose the most effective approaches to answer their research questions. According to Khatri (2020), it is the researcher's line of thinking and beliefs about any issues investigated that would eventually guide their actions. It directs the researcher in the scientific inquiry process, including selecting the research problem, setting research questions, ascertaining the nature and types of reality, knowledge, methodology and the value of the research. This implies that the paradigm and the research questions determine data collection and analysis and methods most appropriate for research since every paradigm is based on ontological and epistemological suppositions (Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006).

Considering the preceding explication, the researcher now briefly describes the four primary philosophical groundings illuminating the theme of this study, which explains the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenya.

4.3.1 Dimensions of Research Paradigms

As previously stated, a research paradigm comprises the panoptic propositions and conceptions that shape how a researcher discerns the arena and interprets and acts within it (Pervin & Mokhtar, 2022). In line with this argument, the following dimensions of paradigms are widely viewed as the substratum of any social science research: ontology, epistemology, axiology and methodology.

4.3.1.1 Ontology

The main focus of ontology is the very nature of the social phenomenon that is being explored (Scotland, 2012), which Grix (2004) conceives as the launching pad of all research. Ontology is necessary for a paradigm since it provides an understanding of what embodies reality, whereas reality is what is there to investigate (Scott & Usher, 2004). This implies that the ontology of the scientific inquiry refers to the underlying concepts that comprise themes researchers examine in detail to characterize the meaning entrenched in the research data (Ugwu *et al*., 2021).

A researcher can take several ontological stances in a given study. The first is the realist ontological stance, which relates to the existence of a singular reality which can be investigated and understood independently of human experience (Scotland, 2012). The other ontological stance is the relativist ontology, which maintains that research problems have multiple realities and no actual single reality. The third position is non-singular reality ontology, which holds that there is no one way to explain reality and ascertain human behaviour. This ontological position is rooted in a pragmatic understanding of human behaviour (Makombe, 2017).

Alongside the third ontological position and as previously mentioned, this study takes a middle ground between objectivism and subjectivism, believing that there is a natural world that can be studied in some structured ways and that humans play a significant role as social actors who interpret and alter their environment. The theme of this study, which examines the idea of enhancing SBoM's capacity for efficient school governance in Kenya, is drawn from the reality that exists in the social realm using an objectivist and subjectivist perspective.

The study also recognises the crucial role that social actors—that is, those connected to this issue, such heads of schools and chairs of school governing bodies—play. Through their perception and interpretation of the connection between the idea of building capacity among SBoM and efficient school governance in Kenya, their contribution advances knowledge of the realities in the outside world.

4.3.1.2 Epistemology
Epistemology, the theory of knowledge (Selvan, 2017), describes 'how' the investigator knows how knowledge should be attained and ratified. Grix (2004:59) affirms that "*ontology and epistemology are to research what 'footings' are to a house: they form the foundations of the whole edifice*."

Since Grix (2004:58) confirmed that *"ontology and epistemology can be considered as the bedrock upon which research is established,"* the relationship between ontology and epistemology is crucial. The research approach and

methodologies are chosen based on the researcher's ontological and epistemological presumptions in order to explain the concept of building capacity within SBoM for successful school governance in Kenya.

This study's epistemological position stems from a hybrid ontological presupposition viewpoint. According to Johnson *et al.* (2007), the researcher acknowledges that knowledge is a construction that is ingrained in the world that people encounter and live in. Morgan and Smircich (1980) emphasised that knowledge is obtained by examining the relationships between the phenomena being studied and by comprehending the place of humans in social reality. Therefore, the positivist viewpoint seems pertinent in terms of validating knowledge through cause-and-effect links. The researcher in this study makes the assumption that some global realities might have an impact on efficient school governance.

This study mainly considers the link between capacity-building initiatives among SBoM and effective school governance to observe the relationship between these variables. As a result, the researcher contends that the explanatory design is the appropriate research design to handle the research and related questions of the main study.

4.3.1.3 Methodology

Crotty (1998) describes methodology as the study and critical assessment of data generation strategies. Aptly put, it is the master plan and processor design that informs the researcher's choice of research methods. Ladislav and Ellen (1984:9) define methodology as *"an articulated, theoretically informed approach to data production."* Walter and Andersen (2013:35) suggest that methodology is *"the frame of reference for the scientific inquiry which is influenced by the paradigm in which the researcher's theoretical perspective is placed."*

From the same perspective, Nguyen (2019:4) concludes that methodology is *"the general research approach interconnected to the paradigm, theoretical foundation, literature and ethical propositions."* From these authors, it is evident that there is a link between paradigm and methodology on the one hand and

methodology and method on the other. Methodology, therefore, guides the researcher in deciding what type of data is required for this study and which data collection tools will be most appropriate during this inquiry. Therefore, the methodological question leads the researcher to ask how the world should be studied (Rehman & Alharthi, 2016).

4.3.1.4 Axiology

According to Kelly *et al.* (2018), axiology reflects the values of a researcher concerning the research environment. In their studies, Kivunja and Kuyini (2017) mention that axiology encompasses the role of values and ethical considerations in research. Effingham (2013) characterises axiology as the area of philosophy that studies attitudes towards values, encompassing both ethics and aesthetics, in accordance with this viewpoint. Assessing, characterising, and deciding what constitutes proper and inappropriate behaviour in connection to the study are all part of axiology. It considers the weight that researchers should assign to different study components, such as participants, data, audience, and publishing research findings, as claimed by Kivunja and Kuyini (2017).

The researcher had to be as objective as possible for this study, which looks at the idea of enhancing SBoM's capacity for efficient school governance in Kenya, because his experiences as a board member and his administrative role could influence his thoughts. But it was also important to hear the responses from the respondents. For this reason, the researcher depended on the quantitative questionnaire to provide this objectivity. Thus, since the pragmatic researcher is known for taking both objective and subjective stances, the pragmatic position was firmly held.

The researcher agrees with Green *et al.* (2007) that the coherence of the paradigm and approach throughout the investigation determines the quality of the research process. The researcher now provides a succinct explanation of the various types of research paradigms that support social science research in the context of this investigation.

4.3.2 Types of Research Paradigms

A paradigm should guide any research inquiry (Makombe, 2017). As indicated in the literature, positivism, interpretivism, constructivism, critical theory, and pragmatism must be fundamental paradigms that reinforce an empirical investigation.

4.3.2.1 Positivism/Post-Positivism

Positivism, which holds that only knowledge confirmed by the senses is accepted as knowledge, is one of the most prevalent research paradigms (Suter, 2011). It adheres to the objective research methodology and supports the idea that knowledge is acquired by means of quantitative methods to collect objectively verifiable facts. Accordingly, positivism serves as the primary guiding principle for quantitative researchers, who use quantitative methods to obtain objective results (Suter, 2011).

On the other hand, according to Taylor and Medina (2011:3), post-positivism is *'a benignant form of positivism that follows the same doctrines but permits more interaction between the researcher and his research participants'.* Post-positivism allows for subjectivity, indicating that it makes use of both quantitative and qualitative data gathering and analysis techniques, in contrast to positivism, which emphasises the objectivity of the research process. As a result, in order to accomplish research goals, the positivist paradigm makes use of both experimental and non-experimental research designs.

4.3.2.2 Interpretivism

Contrary to positivism, interpretivism has a different epistemology and accepts a variety of realities (Dawadi *et al.,* 2021). The paradigm's social scientists recognise the individualised significance of social participation (Taylor & Medina, 2011). Qualitative researchers adhere to interpretivism as a research paradigm because they use focus groups, interviews, and participant observation to understand the situation and exhibit the reflective findings.

In this context, interpretive researchers assume that to access reality, one must utilize social constructions, including consciousness, language and shared meanings (Aliyu *et al.,* 2014). Complementing this perspective, Kumatongo and Muzata (2021) emphasize that it is through a complete description of a phenomenon with all its variables that are well identified, interpreted and described that the whole truth can be said or seen. Regarding research design, interpretivism employs phenomenology, ethnography, grounded theory, case study, and historical or narrative designs.

4.3.2.3 Constructivism

According to Schwandt (1994), interpretivism and constructivism consistently appear in the lexicon of social science philosophers and methodologists. Thus, proponents of these persuasions aim to understand the complex world of lived experience from the vantage point of those who live it. Consequently, constructivism, also referred to as *social constructivism*, is grounded on the premise that people seek to understand their world by advancing the subjective meaning of their experiences (Demiral, 2018). This paradigm is driven by the belief that human interaction with the real environment facilitates the active development of knowledge. It suggests that knowledge should be addressed from a variety of angles and refutes the idea that there is a single, effective process for creating knowledge (Dawadi *et al*., 2021). Constructivist and interpretivist scholars, in short, hold that interpretation is necessary in order to comprehend the meaning-filled reality. Stated differently, the investigator needs to explicate the meaning-construction process as well as the meanings that are embodied in the words and behaviours of social actors (Schwandt, 1994).

4.3.2.4 Critical Paradigm

Asghar (2013) states that the critical paradigm also referred to as critical theory in the literature, is historically associated with three leading critical theorists of the original Frankfurt school. Horkheimer, Adorno and Marcuse represented the first structured attempt to employ traditional empirical research strategies to advance and test propositions derived from the Marxist theory. Honneth (1982:244)

explains that *"critical theory seeks human redemption to emancipate human beings from the occurrences that oppress them."* Thus, the critical paradigm posits that scientific investigation ought to be carried out with a noble goal of social change whereby the principal objective of research is to identify and support resolving' *gross power imbalances in society'* (Taylor & Medina, 2011). In terms of research design, Hussain and Naseef (2013) observe that although critical researchers may use qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods, critical research is more inclined towards qualitative research designs.

4.3.2.5 Pragmatism

In social science research, pragmatism was propounded as a philosophical foundation for MMR (Morgan, 2007; Mertens, 2010; Creswell, 2014), buttressing a third option to qualitative and quantitative methods dichotomy. In the past, pragmatism emerged as a philosophical movement focused on the workable outcomes of social reality and its foundations in the late 19th and early 20th centuries. Its roots are in scholarly scepticism over the pursuit of ultimate knowledge via positivist scientific methodology (Ormerod, 2006).

As stated on page 27 of the academic literature, pragmatism aims to "alleviate and benefit the condition of man – to make mankind happier by empowering them to endure more successfully with the physical environment and each other" (Rorty, 1991). According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2011), pragmatism values both subject and objective knowledge in order to accomplish research objectives, even though it uses a variety of approaches that are always influenced by research problems. Therefore, a pragmatist's focus is on figuring out "what works" and what makes research challenges easier to solve (Creswell, 2003).

Pragmatists hold that issues about the theory of knowing (epistemology) and the laws of nature and reality (ontology) should be avoided (Mackenzie and Knipe, 2006; Creswell, 2003). Pragmatists, on the other hand, view the research question or research problem as the central component of the overall research endeavour. Both the ontological and epistemological positions of the research in this study, which explains the idea of building capacity among SBoM for effective

school governance, fall within the pragmatist paradigm. This suggests that the analyses, interpretations, and discussions of the findings as noted by Biesta and Burbules (2003) will be conducted within the extensive pragmatist paradigm.

4.3.2.6 Preferred paradigm for this study

Regarding the topic of developing SBoM capacity for efficient school governance in Kenya, the researcher defines pragmatism generally as a philosophical and epistemological framework for questioning and assessing ideas in terms of their practical functioning. Accordingly, the researcher maintains that opinions and "facts" collected from SBoM members are evaluated for their value and significance based on their applicability, which grants them a "warranted assertibility" (Dewey, 1938). Regarding this, the fundamental idea of pragmatic inquiry is that all research should be motivated by the desire to generate useful and applicable knowledge, resolve empirical issues, or reevaluate imprecise circumstances. This motivation is derived from an analysis of successful routines or behavioural patterns (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Feilzer, 2024).

Mertens (2010) mentions that in research, the pragmatic paradigm aspires to present itself as a practicable solution to the contradictions and tensions prevalent in the scientific community between quantitative and qualitative options. Supplementing this perspective, Feilzer (2024:13) explains that pragmatism *"disregards the quantitative/qualitative divide and concludes the paradigm war by intimating that the most important question is whether the research has helped to reveal what the researcher wants to know"*. Similarly, Tran (2017) underscores that pragmatism strengthens the transferability of the research by both the breadth and depth of the data provided by the connection of quantitative and qualitative epistemologies.

Morgan (2007:71) states that the pragmatic approach integrates theory and facts by *'relying on a version of abductive reasoning that moves back and forth between induction and deduction.'* This method can turn observations into theories, which may subsequently be tested empirically. This abductive procedure is also commonly used by researchers that combine qualitative and

quantitative approaches in a sequential manner, whereby the deductive outcomes of a quantitative approach inform the inductive objectives of a qualitative approach and vice versa (Morgan, 2007).

Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2005) discovered that pragmatic inquiry acknowledges that people in social settings (including organisations) can experience action and change in different ways, and this empowers them to be resilient in their investigative techniques. Their study focused on the significance of combining quantitative and qualitative research methodologies. To put it briefly, pragmatics use the best available research techniques to solve difficult societal problems that require interdisciplinary approaches. Regarding this study, which examines the idea of enhancing SBoM's capacity for efficient school governance in Kenya, the investigator concurs with Miller, Fins, and Bacchetta (1996) that pragmatism is a suitable paradigm for social science researchers because it incorporates democratic and social justice values with the application of the scientific method of inquiry.

A summary of the fundamental beliefs of research paradigms in social sciences is presented in **Table 4.1**

Table 4.1 Fundamental Beliefs of Research Paradigms in Social Sciences [Based on (Saunders et al., 2009); Guba and Lincoln (2005); Hallebone and Priest (2009)]

Fundamental beliefs	Positivism	Post positivism	Interpretivism	Pragmatism
Ontology	External, objective and independent of social actors	Objective. It exists independently of human thoughts and beliefs but is interpreted through social conditioning.	Socially constructed, subject, may change, multiple.	External, multiple. Chosen to achieve an answer to the research question.
Epistemology	Only observable phenomena can provide credible data. Focus on causality and law-like generalizations.	Only observable phenomena can provide credible data. Focus on explaining within a context or context.	Subjective meanings and social phenomena. Focus on the details of a situation, the reality behind the details.	Observable phenomena and subjective meanings can provide acceptable knowledge dependent on the research question.
Axiology	Research is value-free and etic. The researcher is independent of the data and maintains an objective stance.	Research is value-laden and etic. The researcher is biased by world views, cultural experiences and upbringing.	Research is value-bond and emic. The researcher is part of what is being researched and will be subjective.	Research is value-bond and etic-emic The researcher adopts both objective and subjective points of view.
Research Methodology	Quantitative	Quantitative or qualitative	Qualitative	Mixed or multi-method design

In this study, the researcher describes the innate connection between effective school governance and pragmatism, drawing on the core variables of building capacity among SBoM in Kenya. Indeed, as effective school governance continues to draw attention in education, the theoretical and epistemological alignment with pragmatism further supports its adoption as the guiding paradigm in social science research.

In light of the preceding discussion, the researcher now finds it imperative to explicate briefly the research approach of the study.

4.4 THE RESEARCH APPROACH

4.4.1 Introduction

Slesinger and Stephenson (1962) define research as the process of manipulating objects, concepts, or symbols in order to extend, correct, or verify information, regardless of whether the knowledge is used to support the development of theory or the practice of an artistic endeavour. This definition is included in the Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences. Research, as defined by the Oxford classical dictionary (Hornblower, Spawforth & Eidinow, 2012), is an extensive examination of a subject, particularly with the goal of learning "new" knowledge or coming to a "new" understanding. Creswell (2011) defines research as a methodical examination aimed at establishing the truth, encompassing the collection of data, information, and facts to promote understanding.

As previously stated, the researcher will employ a mixed method research (MMR) approach for this study. Roomaney and Coetzee (2018) argue that in the social and behavioural sciences, MMR (also known in the literature as mixed methodology, methodological triangulation and combined research) traces its lineage to the multi-trait/multi-method (MTMM) approach initially developed by Campbell and Fiske (1959). In their paper, Webb *et al.* (1966) referred to MM as *multiple operationalism*, meaning using multiple methods to validate one another and thus ensuring that research findings are a true reflection and explanation of a particular phenomenon and not an artefact of the methodology used.

According to Tashakkori and Creswell (2007:4), MMR is defined as *'research in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using quantitative and qualitative approaches in a single study'*. The MMR approach is defined as a research methodology in this study that focuses on research questions that require multidimensional convictions, real-life situational understandings, and cultural influences. It applies rigorous quantitative research, evaluating the magnitude and frequency of constructs, and it tackles difficult qualitative research that analyses the meaning and understanding of constructs through the use of various methods (such as in-depth interviews and intervention trials), combining these methods to capitalise on their respective strengths and guiding the investigation within theoretical and philosophical frameworks (Hesse-Biber, 2010).

In light of this, Creswell (2015) notes that mixed-methods research (MMR) is a technique used in the social, behavioural, and health sciences where researchers collect quantitative (closed-ended) and qualitative (open-ended) data, combine them, and then interpret the results based on the strengths of both data sets to comprehend research problems. According to Plano Clark (2019) MMR aims to produce nuanced and thorough findings by purposefully combining the viewpoints, methodologies, data types, and analyses associated with both quantitative and qualitative research.

The researcher agrees with Dawadi, Shrestha, and Giri (2021) that this study which explains the idea of developing SBoM's capacity for effective school governance in Kenya, elucidates several benefits of adopting MMR since it integrates both interpretivism and post-positivism research frameworks. This is because it explains the fundamental principles and central theoretical tenets of a mixed-methods approach, which involves both quantitative and qualitative data collection in response to research questions.

A diagrammatic schema of this study's paradigmatic assumptions and research design is presented in Table 4.2

Table 4.2: The paradigmatic assumptions and research design for this

Quantitative data collection techniques	Qualitative data collection techniques
Likert scale questionnaire	Focus groups and semi-structured interviews
Quantitative data documentation techniques	Qualitative data documentation techniques
Excel spreadsheet synopsis	• Audio recordings of interviews • Verbatim transcripts of answers derived from respondents during the interviews
Data Analysis and Interpretation	
Quantitative data analysis	Qualitative data analysis
• Statistical analysis of data derived from the online Likert scale questionnaire. • SmartPLS software	Constructivist thematic analysis of data derived from interviews, reflective journals and audio recordings
Meta-inference of quantitative and qualitative findings	
Integration of quantitative and qualitative results. Joint display of qualitative results explaining the quantitative results	
Quality Criteria of the Study	
Quantitative quality criteria	Qualitative quality criteria
Generalizability, external validity, reliability and objectivity	Validity, credibility, transferability, dependability, conformability and authenticity
Ethical Considerations	
Voluntary informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity and trust, cultural differences, sensitive information obtained, role of the researcher	

study.

Stake (1995:37) highlights three key distinctions between the emphasis of qualitative and quantitative research, namely *'a distinction between explanation and understanding as the purpose of the inquiry; the personal and impersonal role of the researcher; and knowledge discovered and knowledge constructed.'* The fact that qualitative research is inductive and quantitative research is deductive is another important distinction. Qualitative research does not require a hypothesis in order to commence; instead, it utilises inductive data analysis to

clarify the interacting realities and experiences of both the researcher and the participant, as well as to better comprehend the interaction of *'mutually shaping influences'* (Lincoln & Guba, 1985: 76).

About this study, the researcher believed that by integrating both considerable quantitative and abundant qualitative evidence from the participants about their experiences, perceptions and interpretations in reference to the concept of building capacity among SBoM, it would be possible to conduct an in-depth analysis and to permit verification from one source to augment or challenge evidence from another source (Day *et al*., 2009). As a result of this constraining rationality, the researcher remains persuaded that the MMR approach is best – suited to explain the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenya.

According to Creswell & Plano Clark (2017), MM researchers employ a variety of MMR designs based on the motivation for the mixing techniques, when the quantitative and qualitative strands are scheduled, how much weight is assigned to each strand, and the degree of integration (dependency and independence). According to Plano Clark (2019:108), integration in this case refers to the process in MM research when the qualitative and quantitative strands of a study *'come into conversation with each other.'* As a result of the study's integration of quantitative and qualitative methods within an MMR continuum, **Table 4.3** provides a brief overview of the key distinctions in approach between the two methodologies.

Table 4.3 Differences between quantitative and qualitative approaches to research in terms of orientation (Adapted from Stake, 1995).

Orientation	Quantitative	Qualitative
Assumptions about the world	A single reality, i.e., can be measured by an instrument.	Multiple realities.
Research purpose	Establish relationships between measured variables.	Understanding a social situation from participants' perspectives.
Research methods and processes	- procedures are established before the study begins; - a hypothesis is formulated before research can begin; - deductive	- flexible, changing strategies; - design emerges as data are collected; - a hypothesis is not needed to begin research; - inductive
Researcher's role	The researcher is an ideally objective observer who neither participates in nor influences what is being studied.	The researcher participates and becomes immersed in the research/social setting.
Generalisability	Universal context-free generalizations.	Detailed context-based generalizations.

As explained by Johnson *et al.* (2007) as well as Onwuegbuzie and Johnson (2006), one of the proffered strengths of the MMR approach is that it can repress the disadvantages ingrained when adopting mono-method research. Accordingly, the researcher is in agreement with Teddlie and Tashakkori (2009) that integrating questionnaires and interviews into a single study combines the benefits of both methodologies' breadth and depth. Integrating the results of these two methods is the prospect of yielding a veritable picture of a research topic that can address a range of research questions, thereby providing

comprehensive knowledge that can reinforce theory formulation and execution (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

According to Sale, Lohfeld, and Brazil (2002), the complementary qualities of the MMR approach are its second advantage. This means that one research method's strengths can be used to support and strengthen another. According to MM researchers, there are numerous research challenges for which using only quantitative or qualitative research is limited and inadequate. Additionally, Morina-Azorin (2016) argues that triangulation—which aims to support and validate research findings by employing various techniques for data collection and analysis to examine the same phenomenon—is a key component of the MMR approach, as it allows for a comprehensive understanding of the phenomenon being studied. Each approach has advantages and disadvantages, thus it should be combined to increase the quality of the research by avoiding overlapping issues and gaining core advantages (Johnson & Christensen, 2017). In concert with Creswell (2015), the researcher resolved to use an MMR design hinged on the following considerations:

a) It is appropriate to use MM when using quantitative or qualitative research alone, which is insufficient for understanding the phenomenon under scrutiny.
b) Using only one method may be insufficient because of the inherent weaknesses of each approach.
c) Quantitative research does not adequately investigate personal stories and meanings or deeply probe the perspectives of individuals.
d) Qualitative research does not enable us to generalise from a small group to a large population. It does not precisely measure what people, in general, feel.

In short, all research methods have strengths and weaknesses, and combining both provides a good rationale for using mixed methods (quantitative research provides an opportunity for generalisation and precision; qualitative research offers an in-depth experience of individual perspectives).

4.4.2 Potential limitations associated with Mixed Methods Research

Strenghts notwithstanding, MMR may not always achieve its goal because mixing quantitative and qualitative methods can produce several threats (Dawadi *et al.,* 2021). For instance, data collection and analysis might be a very lengthy process hence more expensive in terms of cost and time since the process of data collection is demanding and labor intensive (David *et al*., 2018; Linnander *et al*., 2019).

The second limitation associated with MMR approach is that of selecting a proper research design and ensuring quality in data intergration. In some instances, there may be a situation where one method may influence collection and integration of data of another method (Leal *et al*., 2018). As Creswell and Plano Clark (2011) indicate, mixing data from multiple sources may at times lead a scientific investigator nowhere. In addition, Creswell (2003) points out that triangulated inquiry can run the risk of handling many oblivious questions all at once.

The third challenge of employing MMR approach is hinged on the fact that quantitative and qualitative methods are guided by different theoretical and ontological frameworks. Therefore, the concerns in integrating them "*include whether the assumptions in each paradigm yield the same value or attention in the inquiry and whether the data derived from the two techniques are viewed as distinct*" (Salehi & Golafshani, 2010:189). However, in their critique, Lincoln and Guba (2003:254) posit that:

> *Various paradigms are beginning to 'interbreed' such that two theories hitherto believed to be mutually exclusive may now appear under a different conceptual normality [multifarious in this case], to be informing one another's arguments.*

According to Wisdom & Creswell (2013), combining quantitative and qualitative data is usually challenging for many researchers. For instance, Dawadi (2019) and Casey *et al.* (2016) indicate that the existing literature provides scanty

guidance on how to amalgamate data from diverse sources. Even though researchers give equal weight and value to both methods by taking into account that they complement each other, a challenge may emerge when the study findings drawn from one method, refute those from the other method, questioning the reliability and validity of one method (Salehi & Golafshani, 2010).

Similarly, Yu (2012:375) posits *"the challenge incumbent in MMR is that quantitative measures ought to be compatible with the qualitative findings, which requires definite and precise themes to be found in the qualitative data."*

The most significant challenge for MM researchers is deciding which MMR design is suitable for a particular study (Hammersley, 2014). This is because the relevance of a particular design will entirely depend on the purpose of the study and perceived precedence given to the quantitative and qualitative strands. As a result, earlier career-researchers may not have confidence to choose one from many designs especially when each one of them has its own pitfalls and potential challenges (Dawadi, Shrestha & Giri, 2021).

Having discussed the drawbacks of MMR, Wilkinson and Staley (2019:76-77) add that "*in many cases, the data collected and the analyses carried out are not adequate to justify conclusions about the research questions.*" Hence, inexperienced researchers need to develop sufficient skills both on quantitative and qualitative methods to subsist with the demands of utilizing MMR design (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2011).

Despite the inherent challenges of MMR as discussed in the literature, Bryman (2012) argues that an empirical investigation should avoid epistemological division between quantitative and qualitative methods because one type of method will generally be fundamental, but all research is reinforced by the addition of other methods.

4.4.3 Mixed Methods Notation/Legend

The MM approach utilizes special notations through symbols and shorthand to quickly emphasise specific aspects of the approach (Creswell, 2014).

In a commonly used mixed methods notation system (Morse, 2003), the components are indicated as *qual* and *quan* (or QUAL and QUAN to emphasize primacy). The symbolization includes plus signs (**+**), arrows in one (⟶) or two opposite (⇄) directions and brackets [ ]. The following table below illustrates the concepts:

Table 4.4 Mixed methods notation (Adapted from Creswell 2014:280)

Notation	Signifies	Example
Capitalized words	One method is more emphasized than the other	**QUAL, QUAN**
Lower case words	One method is less emphasised than the other	**qual, quan**
Plus sign **+**	Convergent methods	**QUAL + QUAN**
One direction arrow ⟶	Sequential methods	**QUAL ⟶quan** **QUAN ⟶qual**
Opposite direction arrows ⟶ ⟵	Recursive	**QUAL ⟶ ⟵ QUAN**
Rounded brackets **()**	Embedded within a design	**QUAN (qual)**
Squared brackets **[ ]**	Study within a series	**QUAL [QUAN + qual]**

The application of mixed methods research (MM research) in education management studies may be crucial to the growth of the education sector since the results from many approaches might enhance our comprehension of the managerial issues facing educational institutions. Accordingly, MM research might be beneficial and help advance "new" information in the realm of education.

The MM research strategy has gained recognition as the third methodological movement over the last 20 years (Biddle & Schafft, 2015; Molina-Azorin, 2016). The distinction between qualitative and quantitative methods is no longer considered as clear-cut. As opposed to this, they stand for opposite extremes of

a continuum, where a study may be viewed as more qualitative than quantitative or vice versa. In the midst of this continuum is the mixed research strategy (Creswell, 2014; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Thus, MM research was chosen as the design for this research to enable an in-depth exploration of how capacity-building initiatives among SBoM can enhance effective school governance in Kenya.

In sum, the analysis of the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenya and the practical relevance of this study require methodological diversity. Mixed methods research may play a vital role because this methodological approach promotes applying diverse methods, combining quantitative and qualitative approaches and using information from several stakeholders (Pertusa-Ortega & Morina-Azorin, 2018).

The two primary obstacles to MMR's deployment are its strengths. First, because the mixed research approach consists of two phases, it requires more time, money, and effort (Morina-Azorin, 2016). In order to be qualified to perform both quantitative and qualitative research, the researcher must, second, broaden his research abilities, talents, and experiences by learning about new research methodologies and procedures (Fetters & Morina-Azorin, 2017).

This final hurdle, in particular, could be viewed as a chance, though, as many researchers have a tendency to stick to their tried-and-true approaches and avoid learning about new ones, which reduces their ability to tackle a variety of research issues (Morina-Azorin, 2016).

As mentioned, this study is anchored on the MMR approach to address the main research question, sub-questions and objectives. Given this, the researcher presents the steps to conduct a Mixed Methods study in **Figure 4.**
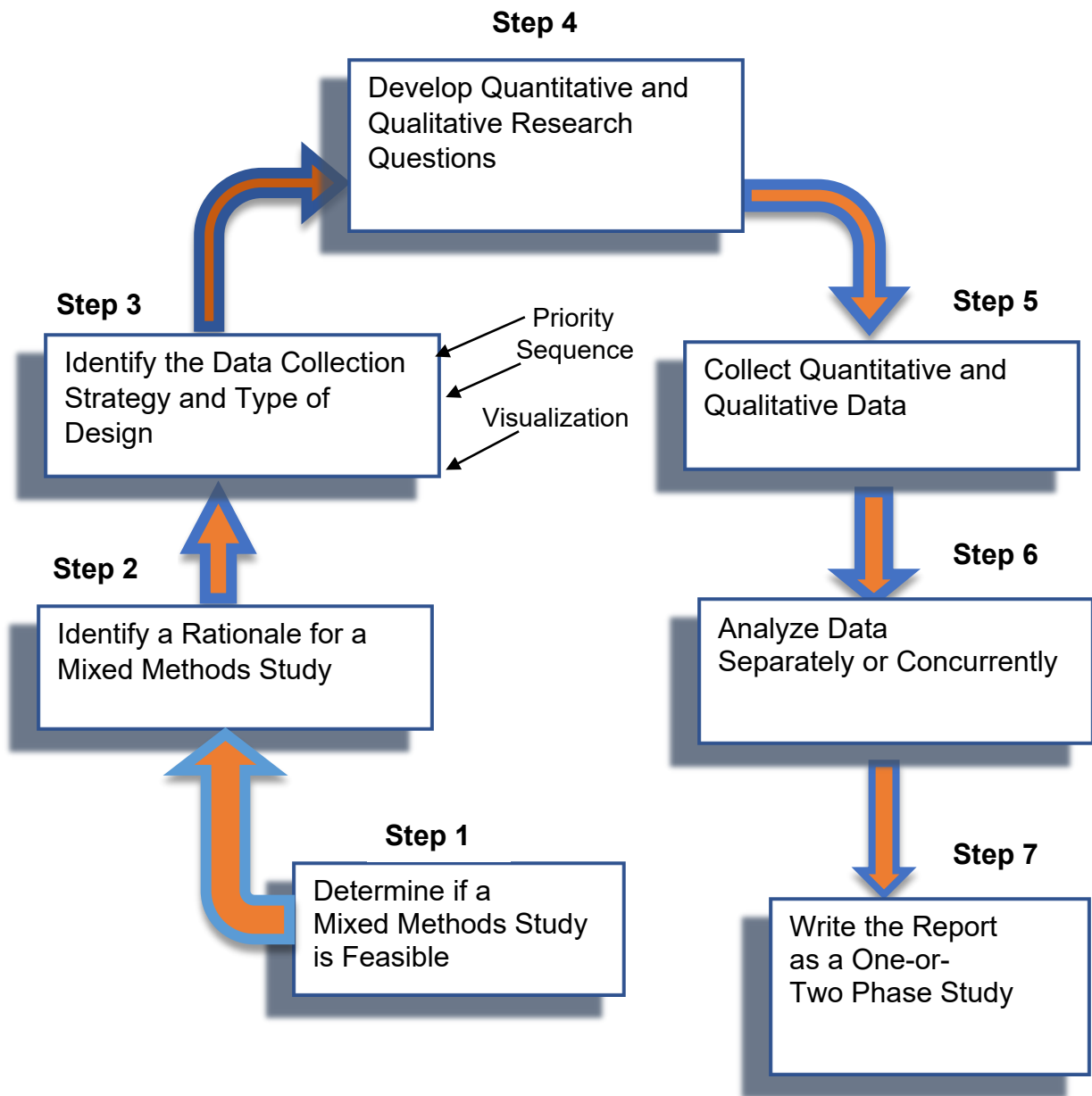
Figure 4.1 Steps in the process of conducting a Mixed Methods Study (Adapted from Cannon, 2004)

The seven processes described above were observed from the design stage of this study through to the data analysis stage. This figure highlights the fact that the researcher has approached the different research methods as complementary modes of investigation, leading to a deeper understanding of the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance in

Kenya, rather than viewing them as parts of an incompatible quantitative/qualitative dichotomy (Egri & Herman, 2003).

The following section discusses the MMR designs, particularly emphasising sequential explanatory MMR design. According to Creswell and Plano Clark (2018), MMR designs include convergent, exploratory, embedded, and explanatory sequential designs. The researcher will briefly highlight these designs.

4.4.4 Convergent (parallel or concurrent) Mixed-Methods Design

To obtain the triangulated results in this design, two distinct methodologies—quantitative and qualitative designs—are combined. First, two sets of data are collected simultaneously, and each set is examined separately using both quantitative and qualitative methods (Schoonenboom & Johnson, 2017). An effective and well-liked method for using the MMR approach is the convergent parallel design, which takes pragmatism as its theoretical foundation. In this strategy, merging the two data sets will help the researcher gain a comprehensive grasp of the one that is supported by the results, either qualitative or quantitative (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

4.4.5 Exploratory Sequential Design Mixed Methods Design

Gavoni *et al.* (2017) defined the exploratory sequential design as a progressive action plan employed when qualitative data augment quantitative results. Correspondingly, quantitative data analyses and explains the qualitative research findings consecutively. The exploratory sequential design is a three-phase investigation in which a researcher works from the constructivist proposition, as Dawadi *et al.* (2021) noted. Hence, the investigator thoroughly investigates a problem in the first phase. In order to identify and assess the variable and statistical trend as they go into the second phase, they use the post-positivist notion (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018).

4.4.6 Embedded (or nested) Mixed Method Design

The embedded design, first delineated by Caracelli and Greene (1997), is distinguished by having one dominant method while the other data set renders a supportive or secondary function. Yu and Khazanchi (2017) described an embedded MM design as a master plan where the researcher blends quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis within the traditional qualitative or quantitative research procedure. In this case, secondary data collection and analysis occurs before, during, and after the primary methods.

The embedded experimental model, formerly the concurrent nested mixed methods design (Terrell, 2012), is the conventional variant of the embedded design. The preference is given to the quantitative methodology and the qualitative data set is deferential (Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). The last variation of the embedded design is the corresponding model, where the qualitative data are embedded within a quantitative design to help explain the outcomes of the corresponding model. Within the embedded designs, the methods may be conducted concurrently or sequentially, as explained by Doyle, Brady and Byrne (2009).

4.4.7 The Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods Design

The MMR's explanatory sequential design is a two-phase mixed methodologies design in which the researcher need qualitative information to interpret results from the quantitative phase that are significant, non-significant, or outliers (Morse, 2003). As was indicated in the previous chapter, the primary goal of the study is to investigate the connection between the notion of SBoM capacity building and efficient school governance.

To achieve this objective, the researcher employs an explanatory sequential design by collecting and analysing quantitative data, followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data in a second phase as a follow-up to the quantitative results (Creswell, 2016) as depicted in Figure 4.2 adapted and modified from Ivankova, Creswell and Stick (2006).
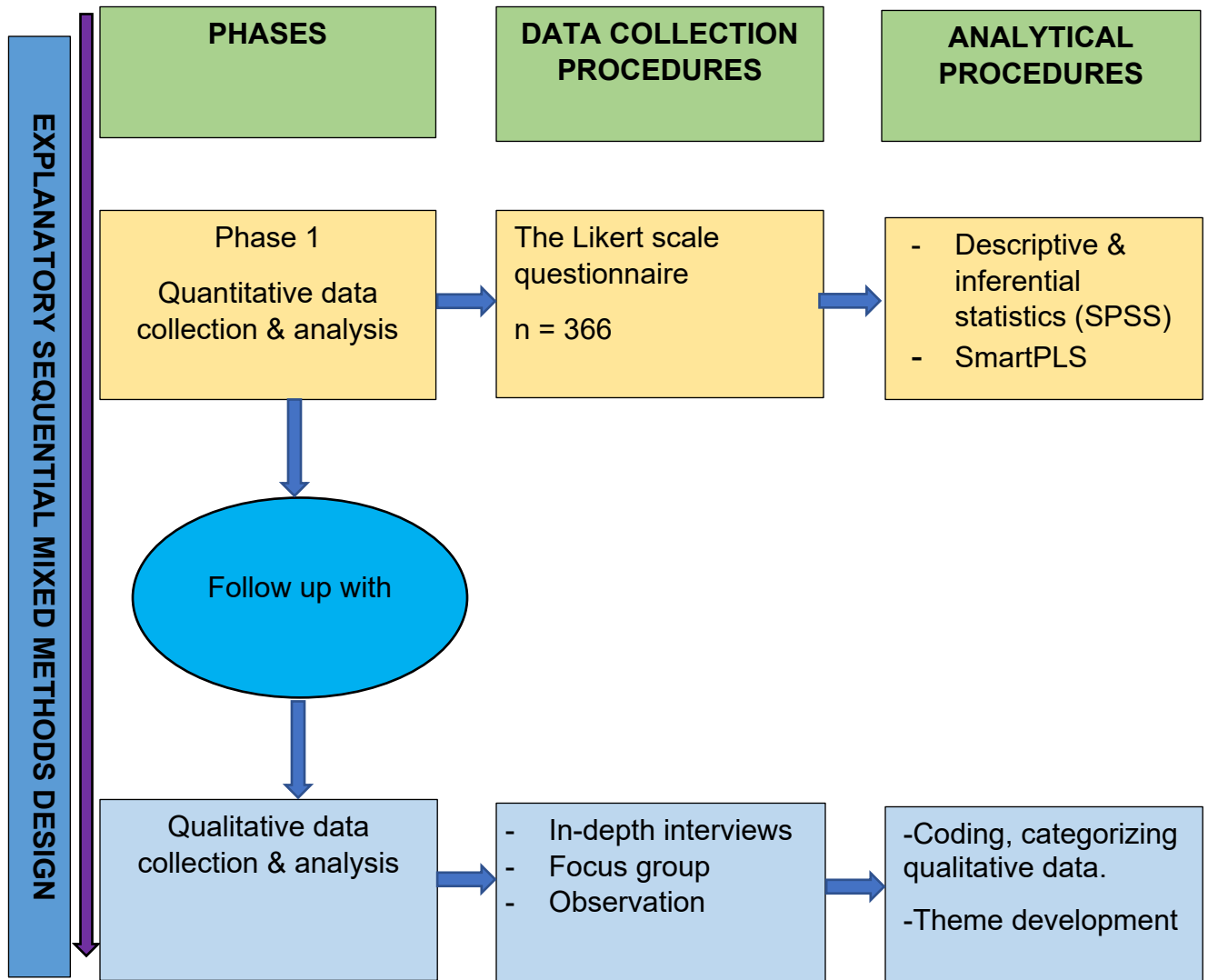
Figure 4.2 Procedures of explanatory sequential mixed methods design.
(Adapted and modified from Ivankova, Creswell and Stick, 2006)

Quantitative and qualitative data were collected, analysed, and then integrated for this study. Triangulation was employed to integrate the two phases, enabling the interpretation of the combined findings. Study findings from the qualitative phase helped explain and provided a more comprehensive contextualization of findings and interpretations drawn from the quantitative phase (Kroll & Neri, 2009).

4.4.8 Reasons for Selecting Explanatory Sequential Design

The explanatory sequential design of the MMR approach was deemed worthwhile for this study because the researcher wanted first to examine (using the quantitative design) the phenomenon under scrutiny. Thereafter, the qualitative design builds on the data gathered in the quantitative phase to illuminate the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenya.

In this study, explanatory sequential design is aimed at using qualitative data to help explain quantitative results that need further exploration (Othman, Steen & Fleet, 2019) and using quantitative results to select the best participants for the qualitative study purposefully. Using explanatory sequential design in mixed methods helps the researcher draw inferences about how the qualitative results help explain the quantitative results (Zheng, 2015).

According to Molina-Azorin (2016), when quantitative data come before qualitative data, the goal is to assess variables on a big sample size before delving deeper into a small number of instances during the qualitative phase. This suggests that the individuals involved in the qualitative stage have to have taken part in the quantitative stage beforehand. The first phase of the study determines whether participants are included in the second phase because the qualitative sample is substantially less than the quantitative sample.

This study's data collection process begins with developing instruments to obtain raw data from research participants. In this regard, the researcher developed a questionnaire incorporating structured questions and open-ended enquiries for the quantitative phase of the study. For the qualitative phase, organised interviews were utilized to gather data from Headteachers and board chairpersons of public schools in Wajir County, Kenya.

Ivankova, Creswell, and Stick (2006) reiterate that in-depth interviews, focus group discussions, and observation are just a few methods utilized to gather qualitative data during this phase. Similarly, Toyon (2023) mentions that qualitative data analysis can be carried out in several ways, including coding and

thematic analysis. *Coding* is defined by Linneberg and Korsgaard (2019) as the process of interpreting, differentiating, understanding and classifying data. Similarly, Guest, MacQueen and Namey (2012) explain that the thematic analysis procedure requires a certain degree of qualitative coding.

4.4.9 Challenges encountered when employing an explanatory sequential design for this study

The researcher is conscious that myriad challenges in this inquiry may have undoubtedly marred explanatory sequential MMR design. In highlighting the challenges associated with explanatory sequential design, Toyon (2021) clarifies that when addressing the intricacies associated with this design, it is crucial to understand that explanatory sequential design incorporates both quantitative and qualitative research traditions, and thus, it is confronted with similar challenges associated with the two research designs. Similarly, Creswell & Clark (2017) aptly state that due to the many phases involved in the explanatory sequential design, it presents various challenges, including convolution in the inquiry, sampling issues and a longer time frame (Doyle *et al.*, 2016). Since the data collection process was sequential, the researcher envisaged that the explanatory sequential MMR would be costly.

4.4.10 Overcoming the Challenges Incumbent with Employing the Explanatory Sequential Design for this study

In order to address the challenges encountered in employing the explanatory sequential design of the MMR approach in this study, the researcher instituted a range of effective strategies. First and foremost, the data collection and analysis for both phases took considerable time. As a remedy, the researcher created a timetable for distributing the Likert-scale questionnaire. This assisted the researcher to reach a considerable number of participants within a shorter time frame. As a matter of critical importance, all ethical consideration issues were strictly observed and adhered to during this time. By enlisting the services of a seasoned statistician for data analysis and working closely with her, the researcher sharpened his expertise in MMR. Concerning financial costs and other research-related expenses, the researcher was able to offset such

overheads courtesy of the bursary funds provided by the University of South Africa.

4.5 THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AS APPLIED TO THIS STUDY

4.5.1 Introduction

As underscored by Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2002:44), methodology in research refers to '*a structured way of collecting data from a given population in order to appreciate a phenomenon and to extrapolate facts acquired from a larger population.'* Similarly, Kothari (2004) defined *research methodology* as the science of studying how research is conducted scientifically. This study's methodology entails the research design, target population, data collection instruments, ethical considerations, data analysis and interpretation.

Given this perspective, Loru (2020) categorise research methodology as a methodical theoretical analysis of the techniques applied to any field of study. Methodology, therefore, assists the researcher and the reader in acknowledging the research process, thus bequeathing its scientific merit (Cohen *et al*., 2002).

In distinguishing research methodology from research methods, Goundar (2012) explains that research methods are the various strategies, plans of action and algorithms employed when carrying out any scientific inquiry. These procedures are essentially planned, value-neutral and scientific. Similarly, Creswell (2014) considers research methods as the entire data collection process, which may include the master plan through which a distinct result is to be achieved.

In this inquiry, the empirical investigation kicked off with the quantitative phase, followed by the qualitative phase of the study. Before the researcher elaborates on each of these phases, a precis of the methodological process for this study is provided. The following research methodology precis for this study (**Figure 4.3**) was adapted and modified from Ngulube (2015) to accommodate the focus of this study, which explains the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenya.
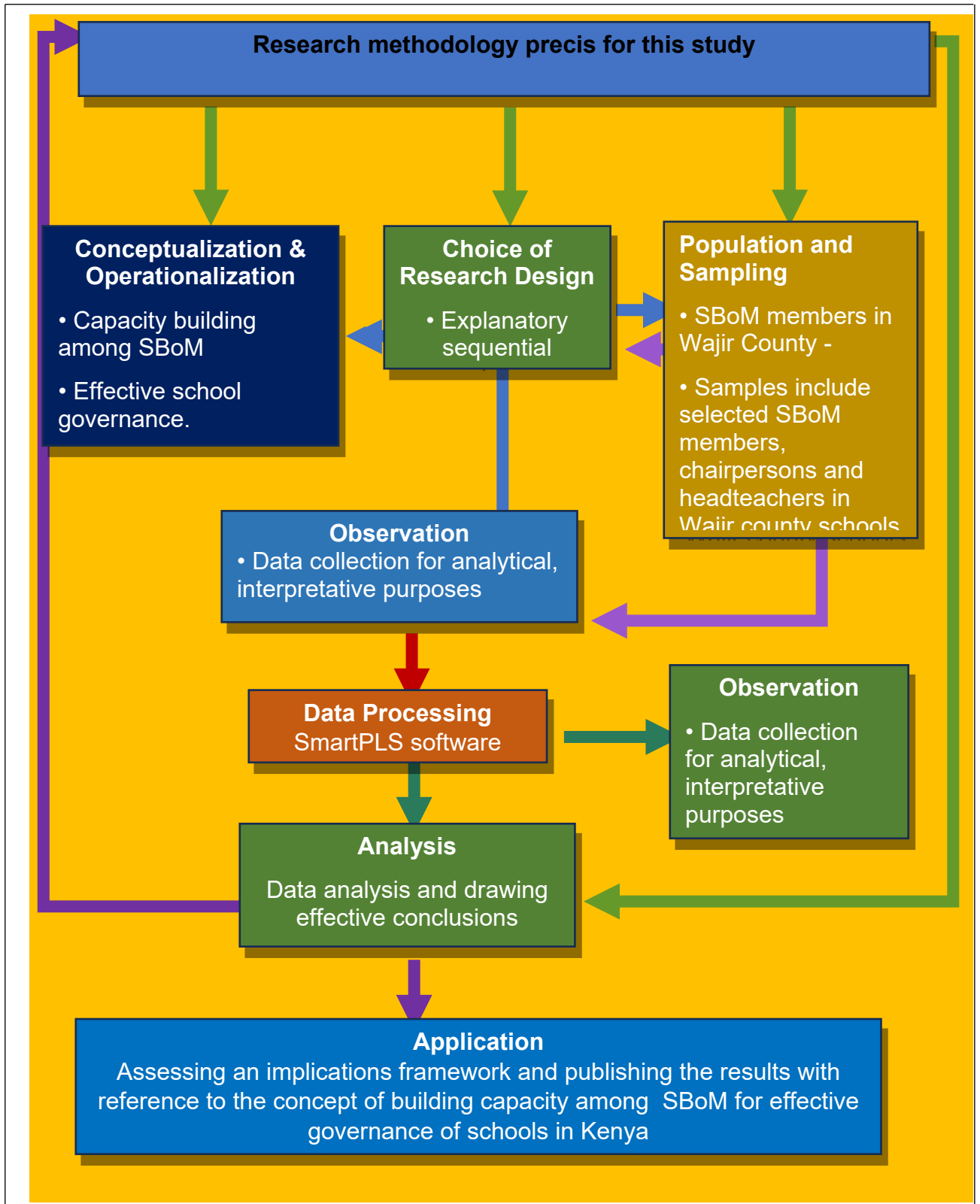
FIGURE 4.3: Research methodology precis for this study [modified from Ngulube,

4.5.2 Empirical research (quantitative - phase 1)

4.5.2.1 Population and sampling

A territorial portrait of the eight sub-counties whose schools operate under the oversight of the Wajir County Education Director (MoE, 2022) is shown in **Figure 4.4**
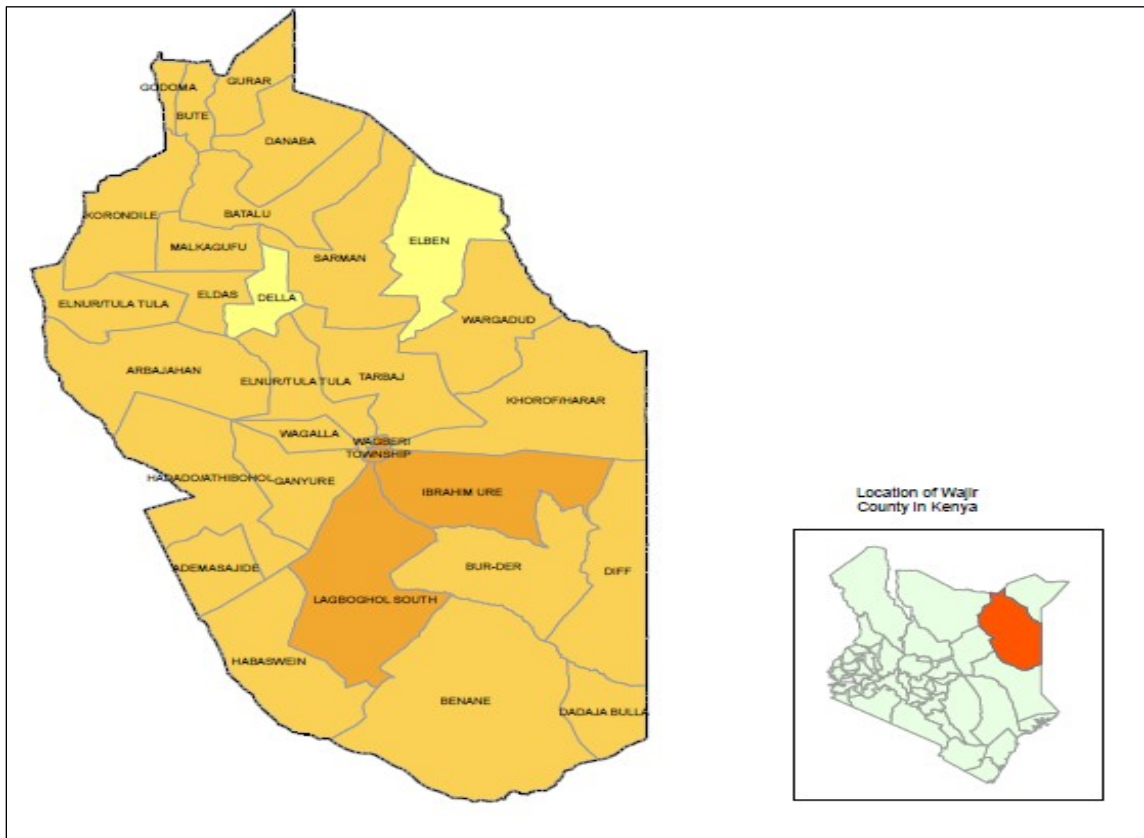
Figure 4.1: The Eight Sub Counties whose Schools operate under the Wajir County Education Director.

For this study, the researcher incorporated all public primary and secondary schools in Wajir County, Kenya. Wajir County had 256 primary and 53 secondary schools (CDE Statistics section 2022). In terms of composition, there were 742 secondary school board members and 3584 in primary schools, respectively. Accordingly, the objective populace for this study is 4326 research participants.

Martinez–Mesa *et al.* (2014) define a population as a group of individuals in a particular geographical region or institution with at least one characteristic or

feature in common. The population of interest for the study comprises individuals, organizations, groups, dyads, or other entities one seeks to understand and to whom or to which the study findings may be generalized and is the principal group about which the research is all about (Casteel & Bridier, 2021). Conversely, Majid (2018) categorizes a population as an outright set of events, people or things on which the focus of the empirical investigation falls and in which the empiricist has an interest and about which the empiricist wants to establish some characteristics.

Alvi (2016:4) states that a target population '*refers to all the members who meet the criteria specified for a scientific inquiry.*' A target population comprises a total number of units from or about whom the survey information is gathered. These units are usually individual persons (Zhao *et al*., 2013). To draw a sample, Whitley and Ball (2002) suggest that one needs to select a specific population and identify its parameters to have a benchmark population.

The schematic diagram in **Figure 4.5** below clearly distinguishes between the population of interest, the sampling frame, the target population and the sample size. Suppose this distinction is not made at the beginning of the study. In that case, there are inherent risks that the sample derived from the target population might not be representative of the population, thus affecting the applicability of the study. This could further impact the interpretation of the findings and the study's practical and conceptual recommendations (Willie, 2022). In this study, the researcher used sampling to conclusively choose a subset from a predetermined population to act as research participants for observation or experimentation in conformity with the objectives of this study (Sharma, 2017).
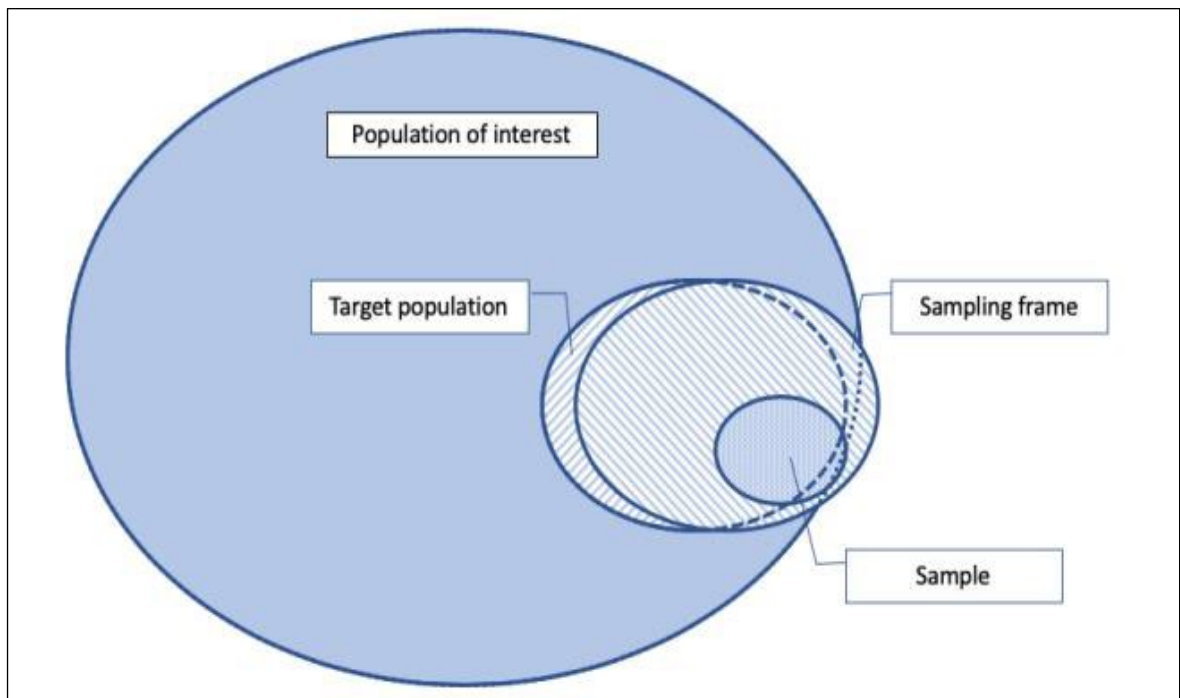
Figure 4.5: Schematic diagram describing populations and samples of doctoral student researchers (Adapted from Casteel and Bridier, 2021).

As illustrated by Cast eel and Bridier (2021), the target population must be a complete subset of the population of interest whereby the boundaries of the population of interest must also outline members of the target population.

Kaur (2017) describes a sample as delineating a given population, which is valuable if it represents the population. Samples are drawn since it would be impractical to investigate all target population members. As Singh and Masuku (2014) explain, the sample size should be carefully fixed to be adequate to draw logical and epitomized conclusions, whereby the fixation of the adequate sample size requires definite data concerning the problems under investigation in the population under study.

Streiner (2003) advises researchers to consider three factors when deciding on the size of the sampling frame: the degree of precision, the degree of confidence or risk the study is willing to take, and the degree of variability in the characteristic features being measured. This is because selecting a sample from which to extract sufficient data for statistical analysis can be a daunting task.

The level of precision, sometimes called sampling error, is the scope in which the actual value of the population is estimated (Glenn, 1992). This range is frequently expressed in percentage points, and the precision desired may be made by giving the number of errors that are willing to be tolerated in the sample approximation (Israel, 1992). Conversely, confidence or risk level is the comprehensive capture rate if the *modus operandi* is employed repeatedly and is based on ideas encompassed under the Central Limit Theorem (Moore et al., 2013).

The Central Limit Theorem's principal hypothesis is that, in a population that is sampled frequently, the average value of the attribute obtained from those samples will coincide with the population's actual value (Kwak & Kim, 2017). The population's distribution of attributes is referred to as the third guiding principle, which is the degree of variability in the attributes being measured (Gupta & Kapoor, 2020). This suggests that a greater sample size is needed to achieve a given degree of precision in a population that is more varied. The lower the sample size, the more homogeneous (less variable) the population (Gupta & Kapoor, 2020).

According to Kalton (2009), there are two main factors to consider when determining an appropriate sample size: first, the sample needs to be as representative of the community being studied as feasible; second, a minimum number of cases must be included in order to properly analyse sub-group relationships and draw inferential inferences. Consequently, for the initial phase of this MMR study, the sample was selected from the entire study population for inferential and conclusive outcomes.

For the quantitative phase of this study, the seminal work of Yamane (1967) centring on sample size determination was set as a basis for determining a sample representative of SBoM members in Wajir County. Hence, with reference to Yamane (1967:886), the study was modelled by the following formula:

$$n = \frac{N}{1 + N(e)^2}$$

The variables in this formulaic relation are defined as follows:

n = Sample size to be studied; N = Population size and e = level of precision

Hence, using the total population N (consisting of 4326 SBoM members) at the confidence interval of 95% with a significance level of 5%, the estimated minimum sample size (n) is calculated as follows:

$$n= \frac{4326}{1+4326(0.05)^2} - \frac{4326}{1+(4326*0.002)} - \frac{4326}{11.815} = 366.14474$$

By truncating the magnitude of n to three significant figures, the researcher decided that for phase 1 of the study, the sample was 366 (n=366) respondents.

After the researcher received permission to conduct research from the UNISA Ethical Clearance Committee, the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI), the County Commissioner, and the County Director of Education, phase 1 of the study incorporated completing an online Likert-scale questionnaire. The link to the questionnaire was dispatched to 366 SBoM members in Wajir County public schools. For this quantitative phase, the response rate was significant for analytical purposes. According to Babbie (2010), a review of published work on social literature indicates that a 50% return rate is suitable for analysis, while 60% and 70% are viewed as commendable return rates.

During the quantitative phase, probability sampling (also known as simple random sampling) was applied in the selection process of participating schools and SBoM members. In this phase of the study, the sampling of SBoM required a two-pronged strategy whereby a sample of schools was drawn first, followed by a sample of SBoM members. Singh (2003:71) proclaims that simple random sampling is the *"simplest and most common method of selecting a sample in which the sample is selected unit by unit, with equal probability of selection for each unit at each draw."* In this study which explores the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenya, the sample

selected largely depended on the individual SBoM members' roles and functions, academic qualifications, and professional status.

4.5.2.2 Variables

In his study on *Contemporary field research*, Emerson (2001) defined a variable as an attribute, property or characteristic of a person, thing or situation that changes or varies. In the same context, Kaur (2013) opines that those variables can be expounded on measurable factors through implementation, thereby converting strenuous concepts into easily understandable hypotheses, which can then be measured empirically.

Variables are classified based on their nature, action, and effects on the variables. An independent variable or stimulus variable is defined by Abiodun-Oyebanji (2017) as a stimulus that affects a response or a factor which may be manipulated to influence an outcome. On the other hand, the outcome variable measured in each subject, whom the independent variable's manipulation may influence, is termed the dependent variable (Emerson, 2001). In this regard, the independent variable is the antecedent, while the dependent variable is the consequent (Kaur, 2013).

In this study, which explores the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenyan schools, the independent variables are SBoM-relevant variables, namely, the SBoM member's biographical information (age, occupation, gender identity and years of experience as a board member). These are all found in the background information of the questionnaire. The dependent variables comprise various strategies for building capacity among SBoM, including training workshops, mentoring programs, communities of practice and management consultancy. In practice, the independent variables are manipulated while the dependent variables are measured. The researcher will now focus on the measuring instruments used in this study.

4.5.2.3 Measuring Instruments

A questionnaire is a research instrument comprising a series of questions and other prompts to gather information from participants. Heo, Kim and Faith (2015) explain that a questionnaire serves four basic purposes: Collect the appropriate data, make data comparable and amenable to analysis, minimize bias in formulating and asking questions, and make questions engaging and varied. As explained by McMillan and Schumacher (2010), the researcher's objective in using the online Likert-scale questionnaire was to ascertain the relationship between the independent and the dependent variables in this study.

The online Likert-scale questionnaire that has 36 questions will take the individual respondents approximately 15 minutes to complete. The respondent's answer to each question will involve a choice of one of the following options:

Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Not sure	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

The online Likert-scale questionnaire had three sections (A, B and C). Each section comprised of 12 questions. Section A captured the demographics of respondents. The questions incorporated the respondents' age, gender identity, highest academic qualification, occupational status and years of experience as a board member. The researcher believes that the provision of detailed information about participant characteristics allows him to move away from "absolutism" towards a position of "universalism", which recognizes that "there *may be universal psychological processes that manifest differently depending on individual participant background information"* (Beins, 2008: 356).

Section B of the online questionnaire involved questions about capacity-building strategies explored in the Literature Review in Chapter 2 of this study. These questions examined training workshops, mentorship programs, communities of practice and management consultancy. Using the lens of the theoretical

framework in Chapter 3, Section C of the questionnaire dealt with various aspects touching on building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenya.

4.5.2.4 Pilot Study

To refine the Likert-scale questionnaire before it is dispatched to the sample of 366 respondents, the researcher conducted a pilot study to improve its face and content validity. With regard to this study, twelve SBoM members from two schools (six SBoM members from two schools that were not selected for the study) were randomly selected for the piloting questionnaire. The motive behind the pilot study was to determine possible errors in the questionnaire, thereby allowing respondents who took part in the pilot study to evaluate the questionnaire.

This implies that the pilot-study participants were offered an opportunity to give suggestions and recommendations regarding unclear questions, enabling the researcher to implement possible changes to mitigate the online questionnaire. After completing the pilot study, the researcher dispatched the online Likert–scale questionnaire to the 366 respondents who participated in the quantitative phase of the study. After that, the researcher utilized the information derived from the questionnaire to develop questions for the structured interviews. This procedure is explained in detail in the section dealing with the qualitative phase of the study.

4.5.2.5 Data Collection Procedures

For the quantitative phase of this study, a structured questionnaire forms the backbone of the data collection strategy. Roopa and Rani (2012:273) mention that *"a structured questionnaire enables quantitative data to be gathered in a systematized manner so that the data are internally logical and systematic for analysis."* In addition, the structured questionnaire promotes the liberty of the participants to answer questions in the order of their choice (Cheung, 2021), thereby alleviating the apprehension often associated with impulsive feedback.

Upon receiving permission to conduct research at the selected schools, the researcher E-mailed the link containing the Likert-scale questionnaire to the six SBoM members selected by the headteachers. Three of the six SBoM members were drawn from one secondary school and three others from one primary school respectively. The Likert-scale questionnaire was accompanied by a cover letter briefly outlining the purpose of this study and a letter from the Wajir County Education Director (WCED) that granted the researcher permission to conduct research in Wajir County.

4.5.2.6 Statistical analysis and presentation of data

After the data collection process using a structured questionnaire, the researcher used SmartPLS software to capture, analyze, and interpret the data. Before analyzing the data, the researcher cleaned, coded and organized it. Used mainly when dealing with data stored in a database, the terms data cleaning, data validation or data scrubbing refer to disclosing, rectifying, and changing, altering or eliminating convoluted data from a record set, table or database (Garrib *et al*., 2008). Pietersen and Maree (2016) maintain that data cleaning before analysis is a time-saving venture in any scientific investigation. Similarly, Chapman (2005) underscores that the need for data cleaning is centred around ameliorating the quality of data to make them "fit for use "by users by reducing errors in the data and enhancing their documentation and presentation.

To ensure error-free data in this study, which revolves around the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenya, the researcher followed the four steps of data cleaning as illustrated by Van den Broeck *et al*. (2005). These steps are Screening, which entails consistently looking for suspect attributes in the questionnaire, databases or analysis datasets; the diagnosis (pointing out the nature of flawed data); and treatment (removing, modifying or leaving the data the way it is). The last step involves documenting changes, which entails leaving an audit trail of errors detected, variations, additions and error examination, which would consequently allow a

return to the original merit if required (Van den Broeck *et al*., 2005). The four steps of the schematic diagram are now illustrated in **Figure 4.6**
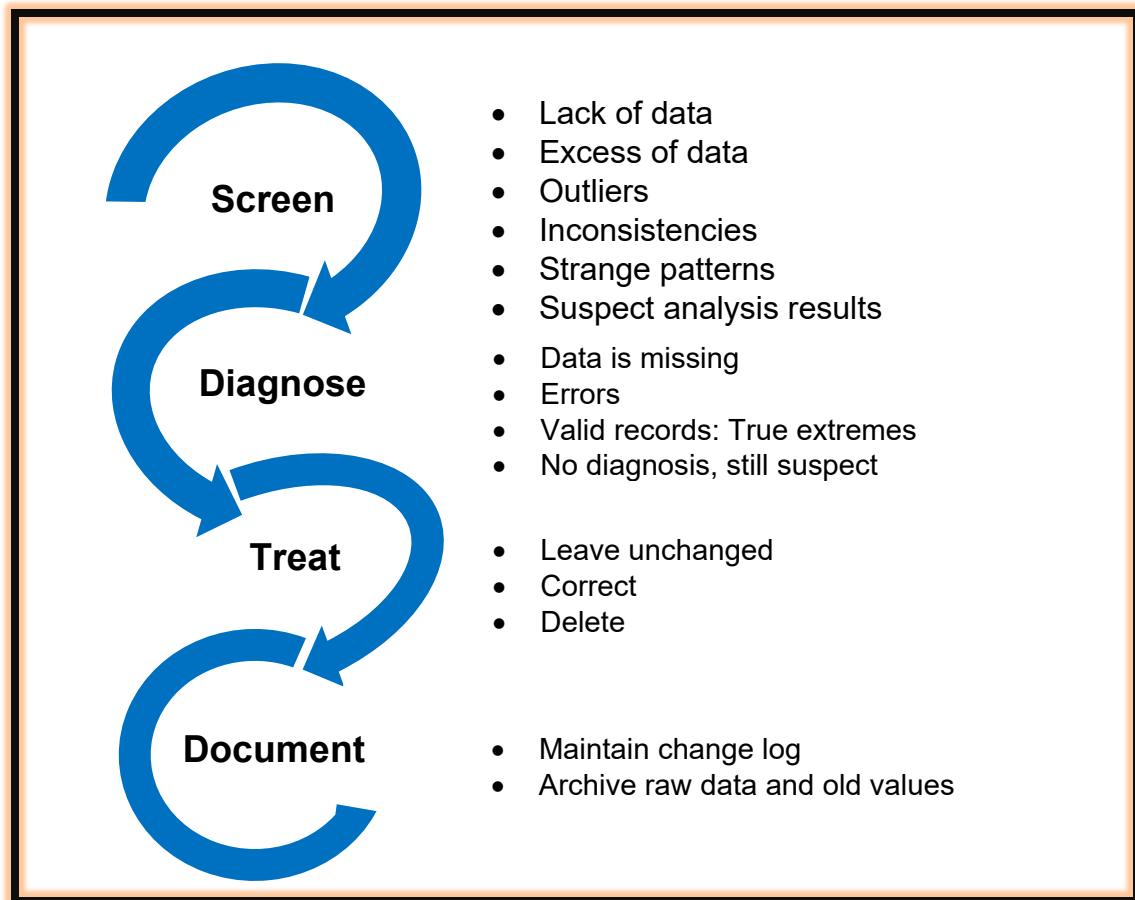
Figure 4.2: The four steps of data cleaning (Adapted from Van den Broeck et al. 2005).

Neuman and Kreuger (2003) state that in case of a few inconsistencies in the respondents' answers, they may need to be amended. They will be filtered and rectified in the data set coding in the software. This foregrounds the need for the researcher to utilize the Smart PLS software and engage a professional statistician's services to codify the raw data in a predetermined format for easy computation (Stuckey, 2015). While the researcher corroborated coding to avoid negatively impacting the soundness of the analytical results (Pietersen & Maree, 2016), the closed-ended questions were attributable to numbers according to the Likert scale. They were used to engender descriptive and inferential statistics.

In this study, the frequency and central tendency measures were used to categorize data drawn from the questionnaire; for inferential statistics, conclusions were gleaned from correlation and analysis of variance (ANOVA). Consequently, the researcher affirms that these processes are indeed the fulcrum upon which the quantitative phase of the MMR approach revolves. Next is a brief exposition of the empirical research of the qualitative phase of the study.

4.5.3 Empirical Research (qualitative – phase 2)

During the qualitative phase of this study, the researcher explored diverse perspectives to lay bare relationships between the intricate layers of the multi-faceted research questions in this study (Shorten & Smith, 2017). In addition, the qualitative phase provided research participants with opportunities to share their experiences across the research process, and they facilitated different avenues of exploration that augmented the evidence that consequently enabled the research questions to be answered more profoundly (Wisdom & Creswell, 2013). The qualitative methodology used for phase 2 will now be addressed by discussing the research site, participant selection, data collection strategy and data analysis.

4.5.3.1 Research Site

For the qualitative phase of this study, the selected sites were eight Wajir County public schools. Two SBoM members were participants from each school, totalling 16 respondents. In addition, thirty-two school heads representing 10% of the target population also took part. This means that a total of forty-eight participants took part in phase two of this study. These participants who would have been respondents during the quantitative phase represent over 10% of the 366 respondents in phase one of the study.

4.5.3.2 Participant Selection

Owing to the geographically expansive nature of Wajir County, the researcher endeavored to employ convenience non-probability sampling to select the eight

schools for the qualitative phase of this study. Etikan, Musa and Alkassim (2016) define convenience sampling as a situation whereby a researcher chooses respondents based on accessibility, ease of availability, and cost implications. Furthermore, Palinkas *et al.* (2015) indicate that purposeful sampling is widely utilized in qualitative research to identify and select information-rich participants related to the phenomenon under investigation.

In the context of this study, the researcher is under obligation to display an impassioned understanding of the study's population and its distinctive characteristics. As Campbell *et al.* (2020) explain, purposive sampling not only considers the selection of respondents but also entails the settings, occurrences, undertakings and events for data collection. For this study, the researcher chose two SBoM participants (from each of the eight selected schools) and 32 school heads whose attributes, experience and professional profiles shed light on the theme of this study, which explores the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

4.5.3.3 Data Collection Strategy

For the qualitative phase of this study, the researcher relied on structured interviews as a data collection strategy. The interview questions were developed from the results of the Likert-scale questionnaire that had been used during the quantitative phase. The researcher formulated the structured interview questions so the participants could engage with and attempt to answer the main research question and the sub-questions that reinforce this study. After receiving their written consent to participate in this study, the researcher E-mailed the interview questions to each participant two weeks before the individual interviews took place. This allowed participants to devise their answers to the questions advanced during the qualitative phase of the study.

The individual interviews lasted only 20 minutes and were conducted using either the Zoom or Microsoft Teams platforms. For each of the selected SBoM participants, interview questions were be video-recorded in the same order. To maintain and retain anonymity, each 48 SBoM member participants were

designated an alpha-numeric code, for example, SBoMm1, SBoMm2, SBoMm3, etc. Similarly, the various video recordings of the participants had these alpha-numeric codes displayed on the screen so that the researcher could keep track of each participant for data presentation purposes. These recordings are kept secure on the researcher's password-protected computer and they will remain there for not less than five years.

4.5.3.4 Data Analysis and Presentation

The analysis for this study was conducted in two independent stages. The researcher scheduled the follow-up qualitative phase based on the findings of the quantitative data. The quantitative phase results gave the required push for creating a suitable interview schedule. Open-ended questions were used in the semi-structured interview schedules and focus groups to elucidate and validate certain aspects of the quantitative questionnaire. An overview of data analysis is given in the part that follows, and a thorough explanation of both quantitative and qualitative data analyses is given in chapter five.

a) *Quantitative Data Analysis*

For the quantitative phase of this study, the data obtained from the questionnaires was computer-coded and analysed using SPSS version 22, and several sets of statistical analyses were performed. The components of this package, such as t-test for testing the mean differences of any two variables and the correlation for measuring the association between two or more groups, were computed. Accordingly, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to identify the interrelationship between the concept of building capacity among SBoM and effective school governance with respondents' background information. Chi-square analysis was also used to examine between-group differences on categorical variables such as age, gender, and academic level of respondents.

b) Qualitative Data Analysis

The researcher conducted one-on-one semi-structured interviews with 16 selected participants. These respondents were called upon to expound on the quantitative data on the perspectives and suppositions regarding the concept of capacity building among SBoM for effective governance of schools in Kenya. An audio-tape recorder was utilised during the individual interview sessions with research participants. This assisted the investigator in transcribing and coding data during data analysis. Data gathered through interviews and focus groups was analysed by categorizing the data in the appropriate thematic areas analysed using ATLAS software and narrating manually depending on the nature of the data collected. The researcher remains convinced that these details will break new grounds for understanding the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance. In the final section of this study, the researcher will now discuss trustworthiness, validity, and reliability, emphasising their relevance during the data collection phase.

4.6 TRUSTWORTHINESS, VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY OF RESEARCH

This section's focus of attention is to reassure the reader of the enduring quality of the research. To achieve this objective, methods that were utilized to promote the trustworthiness of both empirical phases were established. Quantitative research (Jordan, 2005) confirms that trustworthiness can be achieved through internal validity, external validity, objectivity and reliability of the research. With regard to the qualitative phase, credibility, dependability, transferability, conformability, and authenticity are discussed as the criteria that constitute trustworthiness.

4.6.1 Quantitative Phase

As previously stated, a Likert-scale questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data from research participants. The Likert-scale method served as a benchmark in connection with the degree of the participant's agreement with specific

questions in the questionnaire. In this case, the participants selected a response from the various options given on the five-point rating scale.

4.6.1.1 Validity

Bond (2004:179) posits that *'validity is first and foremost in the mind of those developing measures and that genuine scientific measurement is foremost in the minds of those who seek valid outcomes from assessments.'* According to Maul (2017), validity is a basic idea in social science research. At the broadest level, it is defined as the degree to which a claim, inference or argument is well founded. In the social sciences, validity is often (but not exclusively) applied in reference to educational and psychological measurement and assessment, where it is repeatedly referred to as the most indispensable thought in developing and evaluating tests (Maul, 2017). Messick (1989:6) points out that validity *'is the degree to which empirical evidence and theoretical rationales support the acceptability and applicability of interpretations and actions founded on test scores.'*

In this study, content validity, face validity and construct validity were utilized to ensure the validity of the Likert-scale questionnaire. The researcher will now review each of these measures of validity:

Content validity

As indicated by Yaghmale (2003), content validity, also referred to as intrinsic validity, content-related validity, representative validity, relevance validity, and logical or sampling validity, is used to estimate the variables of interest and the relevant sampling of the content domain of items in a questionnaire. Thus, Obilor and Miwari (2022) mention that content validity appraises whether a test is representative of all facets of the construct. In this study, the Likert-scale questionnaire appropriately measured capacity building concepts among SBoM and effective school governance in Kenya.

Face validity

According to Taherdoost (2016), face validity is an intuitive judgment on the execution of a construct. In other words, face validity refers to researchers' subjective assessments of the presentation and the applicability of the measuring instrument as to whether the items in the instrument appear clear, unambiguous and reasonable (Oluwatayo, 2012). With regard to this study which explains the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools, face validity was judged by the extent to which an instrument looked valid (Pietersen & Maree, 2016).

Construct validity

A construct, or psychological construct, as it is also referred to in the literature, is a trait, aptitude, expertise or skill that happens in the human brain and is defined by established hypotheses (Brown, Trevino & Harrison, 2005). As stated by Talib and Harmeni (2022), construct validity is an indispensable feature of developing an instrument that entails the collection of evidence to rationalize decisions. Thus, construct validation is involved whenever a test is explained as a measure of some attribute not "*operationally defined*". This implies that construct validity is a *sine qua non* in the validation not only of test exposition but also of test application, in the sense that the applicability and viability as well as the suitability of test use depend, or should be based on score meaning (Talib & Harmeni, 2022).

Taherdoost (2016) explains that construct validity has two constituents: convergent and discriminant validity. While convergent validity refers to the extent to which two measures of constructs that apparently should be correlated are, in fact, correlated, discriminant validity suggests that a latent variable is capable of accounting for more variance in the observed variables affiliated with it than a) measurement error or similar external, unmeasured influences; or b) other constructs within the conceptual framework (Taherdoost, 2016).

Validity may be internal or external, and either type of validity is appropriate at different times in a study (Baumgarten, 2012). Internal validity guarantees that

the causal relationship between variables is exclusively responsible for the results, whereas external validity centres on the generalisability of the findings in other populations (McCaig & Dahlberg, 2010). To ensure internal validity, in this study which explores the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools, the researcher conducted the following validity procedures:

Triangulating

Research triangulation refers to the process that helps to heighten the validity and credibility of an empirical investigation (Noble & Heale, 2019). For this study, the researcher obtained the respondents' views in the two phases. This involved distributing online Likert-scale questionnaires to SBoM members and holding focus groups. The researcher also interviewed a few SBoM chairpersons and headteachers.

Member checking

According to Creswell (2014), member checking is a process through which research participants must check the themes and descriptions for precision. In this study, the researcher conducted follow-up discussions with participants, offering them an opportunity to recapitulate the transcriptions.

Clarifying researcher bias

Creswell (2009) describes clarification of researcher bias as a procedure whereby the researcher does some self-reflection and examines the role his own experiences and background have played in shaping his interpretations of the data collected. In this research, the quantitative phase helped reduce the investigator's bias in the study.

Debriefing by peers

Lincoln and Guba (1985:308) describe peer debriefing as a *'procedure of revealing oneself to an impartial peer like an analytic session and to explore aspects of the research that might otherwise remain only implicit within the researcher's mind.'* In concert with this definition and before concluding, the

researcher requested two of his peers to review this study while paying thoughtful attention to its qualitative aspect.

In order to ensure external validity in this study, the entire population of SBoM members were purposefully sampled. By so doing, they were all given a fair chance of selection in conformity with the recommendations by Crowther and Lancaster (2012). To further ensure external validity, the researcher clearly defined the population of interest and chose a representative sample whose full description was provided without compromising their anonymity.

4.6.1.2 Reliability

Fox and Alldred (2015:3) explain that *'reliability refers to the magnitude to which a specific procedure embellishes similar results over several repeated trials.'* Embodied in this definition is the idea of replicability of results or observations (Golafshani, 2003). Throughout this study, the researcher remained intuitive, alert and curious, considering all research participants and events from various perspectives (Neuman & Kreuger, 2003, as cited in Hesse-Biber and Leavy, 2011).

To ensure reliability in this study, the researcher carried out the following procedures as recommended by Gibbs (2007) cited in Creswell (2014) with respect to handling qualitative data:

a) Data cross-checking – The researcher cross-checked the data gleaned from phase two of the study to ensure that all entries were made correctly.
b) Transcript checking – The transcripts were cross-checked frequently by listening to the recording at least two times while reading through the transcription, thereby preventing mistakes.
c) Code comparison – Data was compared with the codes and memos written about the codes and their definitions. This comparison guaranteed that the definition of the codes remained consistent during the coding process, thereby keeping the definitions intact.

4.6.1.3 Objectivity

The word objectivity is derived from the Latin adverbial or adjectival form obiectivus/obiective, introduced by the 14th-century Scholastic philosophers such as Duns Scotus and William of Ockham (Daston & Galison, 2008). According to Akpan (2020), objectivity is one of the most cherished ideals of the educational research community, and objective research is unbiased or impartial. In this study, the researcher undertook to carry out value-neutral, reliable, trustworthy and authentic research that produces a conscientious solution (Roger *et al.,* 2018).

As explained by Akyildiz and Ahmed (2021), objectivity expresses that the methods, claims and empirical findings are not, or should not be, influenced by value commitments, particular perspectives, personal interests or community bias. In order to avoid influencing this study in any manner, the researcher endeavored to maintain an impartial and objective perspective to ensure the trustworthiness of the research findings.

4.6.2 Qualitative Phase

According to Amankwaa (2016), researchers must establish the necessary protocols and mechanisms in every study before readers will consider it worthy of consideration. Although most experts agree that trustworthiness is essential, debates have been waged in the literature about what constitutes trustworthiness (Leung, 2015). Many qualitative researchers accept the following criteria outlined by Guba and Lincoln (1994) as constituents of trustworthiness: credibility, dependability, confirmability, transferability and authenticity. Bearing this in mind, the researcher will now briefly elucidate on each of these criteria as they relate to the theme of this study which explores the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance in Kenya.

4.6.2.1 Credibility

The concept of credibility is comparable to internal validity in quantitative research. In this context, confidence in the truth of the study and, therefore, the

findings are the most dominant point of reference (Cope, 2014). Elmusharaf (2013) explains that credibility implores the investigator to link the study's findings with reality to highlight the findings' authenticity.

In the qualitative phase of this study, the researcher employed the following techniques espoused by Guba (1981) and Brewer and Hunter (2006) to establish credibility: prolonged engagement with participants, persistent observation, peer debriefing, member-checking, and reflective journaling. The net effect resulted in verifying credible and trustworthy study findings (Scott &Kumar, 2014) from the study participants' frame of reference.

4.6.2.2 Dependability

Polit and Beck (2020) define dependability as the data's stability over time and the study's conditions. It is similar to reliability in quantitative research but with the understanding that the stability of conditions depends on the nature of the phenomena under scrutiny (Merriam, 1998).

Concerning qualitative research, Lincoln and Guba (1985) accentuate the close affinity between credibility and dependability (described in the literature as trust in trustworthiness), arguing that, in practical terms, a demonstration of the former goes some distance in ensuring the latter. Consequently, Stahl and King (2020) mention that in qualitative studies whereby investigators actively build their trust in the events that unfold, peer scrutiny is one of the few concrete research practices that enhance trustworthiness when executed effectively. For this study, which explains the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance of schools in Kenya, the researcher achieved dependability by maintaining an audit trail of process logs, peer debriefings with colleagues and using "overlapping methods" such as focus groups and interviews.

4.6.2.3 Transferability

According to Tobin and Begley (2004), transferability refers to how well the conclusions drawn from qualitative research can be applied to different situations or contexts. Although transferability is symmetrical to generalization in

quantitative research, it differs from statistical generalization since researchers must provide a vivid picture that will inform and resonate well with readers (Amankwaa, 2016). In this study, the researcher enhanced transferability by precisely presenting the research context and the assumptions determining the main research question (Johnson & Rasulova, 2017). Hence, for this study, the researcher remained conscious of the fact that, as with quantitative research, qualitative inquiry seeks to expand the knowledge gained by transferring study findings from one context to another, and this must be imputed by those who wish to compare the research findings with their contexts (Stahl & King, 2020).

4.6.2.4 Confirmability

Corresponding to objectivity in quantitative research, confirmability is defined by Yin (2009) as the neutrality or the degree to which study findings are consistent. For this study, the researcher enhanced confirmability by maintaining an audit trail of analysis and methodological memos of the log as a guarantor of integrity and trustworthiness (Elmusharaf, 2013). As a result, as the study went on, the researcher was able to keep thorough records of all the decisions and analyses he made. Consequently, these notes were reviewed by a colleague and discussed in peer-debriefing sessions (Cheng *et al.,* 2017) with a seasoned qualitative researcher. The researcher believes these discussions prevented biases from only one person's perspective on the research.

Rather than constructing a reality in findings, and since the researcher strongly believes in and pursues objectivity, he relied on constructs like precision and accuracy in his research practice and with the involvement of other researchers. As such, the researcher agrees that confirmability is a confined objective in qualitative research; particularly concerning emerging positivist design (Stahl & King, 2020). In a nutshell, these features of the qualitative phase characterized the restrictive constraints of the MMR and the explanatory sequential design selected for this study which explains the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance of schools in Kenya.

4.6.2.5 Authenticity

According to Lehman, Kovacs, O' Connor and Carroll (2019), the first meaning of authenticity is rooted in foundational philosophical works ranging from the Ancient Greeks (Aristotle and Socrates) to the Existentialists (Heidegger, 1962; Sartre, 1943), as well as classic mid-century scholarship on self-presentation (Goffman, 1959). With regards to this school of thought, authenticity is conceived as the stability between an entity's inner values and its external appearance, whereby research themes within this frame of reference include work on self-consciousness (Kernis & Goldman, 2003), self-presentation, institutional and brand identity (Beverland, 2005). In this study, the researcher utilized member checking to inquire about unmistakable authenticity with research participants. In addition, the researcher ensured that the study represented a fair range of varying perspectives regarding the topic of research (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011) and that the study findings would have transformative potential in the education sector.

4.7 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

Cooper and Schindler (2014) insist that research must be designed in a manner that participants do not suffer physical harm, embarrassment pain, discomfort or loss of privacy. In tandem with this study, the researcher concurs with Emekako (2017) that an enquirer needs to remain cognizant of the ethical issues raised by the research since these issues can *"enhance the quality and credibility"* (Creswell, 2009: 89) of the study. In addition to understanding the discourse of academic research, being aware of what constitutes ethical research is an essential part of planning for a research project (Cacciattolo, 2015). In addition, the researcher is conscious that unethical behavior can compromise the validity and trustworthiness of data. To avoid unwanted research dilemmas, the researcher ensured that careful planning and ethical standards were adhered to (Bouma & Ling, 2004). In the context of this study, ethical requirements were fully met in conformity with the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.

The researcher will now outline this study's various ethical research processes.

4.7.1 Ethical Consideration 1: Permission to Conduct Research

The researcher's first step regarding ethical considerations is to obtain an ethical clearance certificate from the University of South Africa to conduct research under the guidance of a research supervisor appointed by the University of South Africa. Before the data collection phase commenced, the researcher underwent thorough scrutiny by the UNISA Ethics Committee and was subsequently issued a Certificate of Ethical Approval. After obtaining ethical clearance to conduct research, the researcher acquired written consent from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation (NACOSTI) to conduct research in Wajir County, Kenya.

4.7.2 Ethical Consideration 2: Voluntary Informed Consent

The researcher made sure that participation in the study was entirely voluntary and the context of the research was explained in order to prevent any negative impacts on any subjects. In this situation, research participants were not compelled to engage in the study, and their consent was requested for the researcher to use the material gathered throughout the study. The goal of the instrument was made apparent in the online Likert-scale questionnaire for the quantitative phase, along with an invitation for individuals to participate at will. Research participants were required to sign consent forms before taking part in focus groups and semi-structured interviews during the qualitative phase.

4.7.3 Ethical Consideration 3: Confidentiality and Anonymity

Since the research involved human beings and respondents had privacy rights, a number of ethical and legal considerations were taken into account before the study got underway. As a result, the researcher gave participants the assurances that their information would remain private, anonymous, and unrelated to the study (Creswell, 2014). As a result, a password-protected computer and a locked safe in the researcher's home were used to store the data collected from respondents. In order to guarantee anonymity and confidentiality of participants,

their names were not used. Instead, alpha-numeric pseudonyms were assigned to all individuals and schools participating in the study.

4.7.4 Ethical Consideration 4: Reporting and Sharing of Research Data

The researcher provided interested parties in education, including SBoM, PTAs, school administrators, and teachers' unions, with specifics of the study and its design. The researcher believes that the study's conclusions will help these stakeholders better understand the notion of developing SBoM capacity for efficient school governance in Kenya, hence increasing the study's credibility and application. As the study comes to an end, the researcher filled out a plagiarism acknowledgement form, stating that no texts had been duplicated and that all texts utilised were properly cited and reported on in the thesis' reference list part.

4.8 LIMITATIONS AND DELIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

As previously stated, MMR design needs more time, effort and money as it includes two phases. To overcome this challenge, the researcher developed a fieldwork timetable corresponding to the availability of SBoM members and headteachers. The researcher also enlisted the services of a certified, seasoned statistician and worked with her in data collection and analysis.

In an endeavor to explain the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance of schools in Kenya, the study was limited to Wajir County public schools. Due to the large number of public schools in Wajir County, the researcher selected a representative sample for both phases of the MMR process. Consequently, a sample of 366 SBoM participants for the quantitative phase and 48 SBoM respondents for the qualitative phase were selected. The researcher remained confident that the selected sample of research participants (representative of the entire study population) would provide worthwhile insights concerning their experiences with respect to the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance of schools in Kenya.

4.9 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

Information from the reviewed literature sources indicates that no studies have directly addressed the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance of schools in Kenya. The researcher envisions that the findings of this study can help promote and enhance new knowledge that could contribute to the policy debate on the management of schools in Kenya. The researcher also anticipates that the study findings would be significant in providing key insights and underpinning elements concerning the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance.

Suggestions for future research in the area of study were proposed. After this study, the researcher provided a link summarizing the key issues that will have emerged in explaining the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance of schools in Kenya. Additionally, the researcher ensured that feasible recommendations emanating from best practices concerning capacity building among SBoM and effective governance of schools were highlighted for future implementation.

4.10 SUMMARY

A thorough description of the research technique used in this study was provided in this chapter. A synopsis of the research paradigms and study's philosophical foundation was provided. It was made clear how the Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods technique supported the empirical inquiry. Subtopics on population and sampling, variables, measurement tools, data collection processes, data analysis, and statistical techniques were covered in the study's quantitative phase. The subtopics of the research site, participant selection, data collection procedure, and data analysis are explored during the qualitative phase. The aspects of trustworthiness, validity, reliability, objectivity, confirmability, and authenticity are described before highlighting ethical considerations after the chapter.

The next chapter provides a detailed report of the data collection results from the two phases of the empirical investigation.

CHAPTER FIVE
DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION
5.1 INTRODUCTION

The researcher gave a thorough explanation of the methodology and research design in Chapter 4, which served as a basis for the data analysis and presentation as well as a guidance in choosing the pragmatic research paradigm for this study. In accordance with the pragmatic research paradigm, the explanatory sequential design and the mixed methods (MM) research strategy were chosen and implemented.

The presentation and analysis of the research data from the study's quantitative and qualitative stages are the main topics of this chapter. While interviews were used to get qualitative data, a Likert scale questionnaire was used to collect quantitative data. The study's questionnaire underwent a thorough analysis to make sure the information collected was presented as simply as feasible, including tables, percentages, and graphs when appropriate. To discuss the study's findings, descriptive and inferential statistics have been employed.

The data analysis sections are arranged starting with the quantitative phase before the qualitative phase, interwoven in the discussion. For the quantitative phase, the first section presents the research participants' general information, including respondents' profiles. The second section involves an analysis of SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function, challenges facing SBoM in governing schools in Kenya and how they deal with them, the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context and the capacity building strategies that can be put in place to embolden school governing structures. The third section focuses on effective governance in Kenyan schools, particularly emphasising SBoM's preparedness and ability to govern schools effectively.

The qualitative phase of the study is illustrated by using verbatim quotes from respondents when deemed relevant to the study. As explained in Chapter Four,

alphanumeric pseudonyms are assigned to the quotes to guarantee respondents' anonymity.

This section covers the participants' biographies. The analysis of the information gathered from the closed-ended questions comes next. Frequency tables, pie charts, histograms, and bar graphs were used to assess and arrange the replies from the participants. The researcher made considerable use of measures of central tendency in addition to frequency distribution to ascertain the distribution of scores. The mean is the primary tendency measure that the researcher uses.

The study targeted a sample size of 366 respondents, from which 316 (n=316) filled in and returned the questionnaires, making a response rate of 86.33 per cent, as illustrated in Table 5.1 below:

Table 5.1 Response Rate (Source: Survey data, 2023)

	Questionnaires Administered	Questionnaires filled & returned	Percentage
Respondents	366	316	86.33

For the study, this response was quite satisfactory. The respondents' response rate was satisfactory and in line with Mugenda and Mugenda's (2012) recommendation that fifty percent of responses are sufficient, sixty percent are of good quality, and seventy percent or more are great for mathematical reporting and research analysis. This impressive response rate was the result of the researcher making several visits, polite reminders and personal calls to the respondents to remind them to complete the questionnaire.

5.2. THE PILOT STUDY

5.2.1 Reliability results

In this research, the reliability levels of the investigation tools were subjected to Cronbach's alpha test. Cronbach alpha score is used to ascertain the reliability and quality of the investigation tools. Results are presented in Table 5.2

Table 5.2 Test Reliability Results (Source: Survey data, 2023)

Variable	Cronbach Alpha coefficient score	No of Items	Comment
SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function	.911	8	Reliable
Challenges facing SBoM	.860	5	Reliable
The concept of building capacity among SBoM in the school context	.741	7	Reliable
Capacity Building Strategies	.872	6	Reliable

The study results pertaining to the reliability analysis are shown in Table 5.2. Piloted questionnaires were used in this investigation to assess reliability, and a sample of ten exclusive individuals who were not included in the final study were used for this purpose. The ten board members were chosen from Wajir County's nearby schools. The notion of creating capacity among SBoM in the school environment, difficulties affecting SBoM, and capacity building solutions were all found to have Cronbach Alpha coefficients of 0.911, 0.860, 0.741, and 0.872, respectively. The fact that these Cronbach Alpha coefficients were higher than 0.70 suggested that the tool was dependable. This supports the finding of Gleim and Gleim (2003) that a 0.7 Cronbach Alpha threshold is a reliable cutoff point for the investigation. As a result, Cronbach's alpha was determined for each goal, creating a scale.

5.2.2 Levene's Test of Equality of Variances

Levene's test (Lavene, 1960) determines if the variances of k samples are equivalent. Homoscedasticity, also known as homogeneity of variances, refers to equal variance between samples. According to Yang *et al.* (2019), homoscedasticity is the assumption that "dependent variable(s) portray an equivalent variance level across the variety of predictor variables." Thus, homoscedasticity is a fundamental premise required for multivariate analysis. The researcher concurs with Tabachnick and Fidell (2007) that homoscedasticity has no effect on ungrouped data, despite the possibility that ignoring it could reduce the study's level of accuracy. Some statistical tests, for example, the analysis of variance, assume that variances are equal across groups or samples. In this regard, the Lavene test can be used to verify such an assumption.

The Levene assessment test was utilised in this study to ascertain whether there is equality of variance between the study variables (the notion of building capacity among SBoM in the school context, challenges facing SBoM, and how they function in the Kenyan context). Regression test studies, as explained by Chang and Song (2006), make the assumption that variances from specific populations, from which dissimilar portions are selected, are identical. Table 5.3's results demonstrate that the P-score of variances in Levene's test is less than the traditional 0.05. This suggests that based on indiscriminate sampling taken from the population with equal variances, the difference in the sampled variances is unlikely to have occurred. As a result, the population variances derived from the degree of freedom (Df) for the number of variables under investigation fluctuate significantly. The results of the test of Homogeneity of Variances are presented in table 5.3 below.

Table 5.3: Test of Homogeneity of Variances (Source: Survey data, 2023)

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.626	4	**316**	.017

5.2.3 Normality test

It is expected that the populations from which samples are taken are normally distributed, as Das and Imon (2016) clarify. Because of this, it is necessary to verify the normalcy assumption when using inferential statistics methods. In accordance with Garren and Osborne (2021), the normality of the variables was assessed in this study using skewness and kurtosis. There are numerous tests available since normalcy is crucial to statistical analysis. Kolmogorov-Smirnov (KS) and Shapiro-Wilk (SW) are two of the most widely used techniques for testing normality (Razali & Wah, 2011). Kline (2013) states that if the kurtosis statistic lies in the interval (-10.0, 10.0) and the skewness value is within the interval (-3.0, 3.0), then the univariate normality of the variables can be assumed. The normality test results are presented in Table 5.4 below.

Table 5.4: Tests of Normality (Source: Survey data, 2023)

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	Df	Sig.
SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function	0.127	**316**	0.031	0.787	**316**	0.011
Challenges Facing SBoM	0.113	**316**	0.027	0.824	**316**	0.010
The concept of building capacity among SBoM in the school context	0.148	**316**	0.019	0.763	**316**	0.036
Capacity Building Strategies	0.106	**316**	0.013	0.914	**316**	0.024

Lilliefors Significance Correction

The null hypothesis—which states that the data on the study variables is not normally distributed—was rejected based on the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk tests, which evaluate normality levels. This indicates that the data related to the variables is normally distributed.

5.2.4 Sampling adequacy and the strength of the relationship among variables

In research, the adequacy of the sample is measured by Kaiser Meyer Olkin (KMO) in the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) (Hill, 2011), while the strength of the relationship among variables is assessed through Bartlett's test of sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) This strength is a measure of a multivariate normality of a set of distribution. This test also checks the null hypothesis that the original correlation matrix is an identity matrix (Pallant, 2020; Field, 2022). A sampling adequacy test was conducted to detect the validity of independent variables in this study. This helped the researcher to establish if the variables were applicable for factor analysis.

The results presented in Table 5.5 depict that the gauges derived from KMO had scores greater than the prescribed minimum threshold of 0.7 (Onsman *et al*. (2010): SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function (0.806), Challenges facing SBoM (0.722), capacity building strategies for SBoM (0.816), the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context (0.804). Onsman *et al*. (2010) explained that a KMO of 0.50 is standard for sample adequacy, while scores above 0.5 are even better.

If the produced p-values are less than 0.05 (p <.001), Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) attempts to determine whether the research samples are taken from populations with similar variance. Pallant (2020) states that if a significant value is less than 0.05, it means that the data are essentially multivariate normal and suitable for additional analysis since they do not generate an identity matrix. The fact that the study's Bartlett's test significances were less than 0.05 suggests that the sampling satisfactoriness was acceptable (factorable sample). SBoM in the Kenyan context and their functions had a chi-square value of 351.056 (p <

.001), concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context (302.714 p < 0.022), challenges facing SBoM (152.832 p < 0.001), capacity building strategies for SBoM (584.611, p < 0.001),

Determinant values are more than 0: SBoM in the Kenyan context and their functions (0.057), challenges facing SBoM (0.82) and capacity building strategies for SBoM (0.033), the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context (0.074).

Values nearer zero (0), in contrast to the study's conclusions, indicate computational issues with the factor analysis: a singularity problem, which suggests multicollinearity in the data (Frank, 2001). Therefore, moving further with factor analysis is appropriate. Kim and Park (2019) state that the null hypothesis should be rejected and it should be concluded that some groups do not have the same variance if the p-value for the test statistic is less than a certain significance level (such as α = 0.05). The Bartlett's test of sphericity and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) evaluation of sampling suitability are shown in the Table below.

Table 5.1: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Test (Source: Survey data, 2023)

Factors	KMO Test	Bartlett's test of sphericity Approx. Chi-Square	Df	Sig.	Determinant
SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function	.806	351.056	4	.001	0.057
Challenges Facing SBoM	.722	152.832	4	.030	0.082
The concept of building capacity among SBoM in the school context	.804	302.714	4	.022	0.074
Capacity Building Strategies	.816	584.611	21	.002	0.033

5.2.5 Multicollinearity Test

Frank (2001) describes multicollinearity as great inter-correlations among the factors in a multiple regression model. Multicollinearity can prompt skewed results when a researcher decides how well every factor can be utilized most viably to foresee or comprehend the response variable in a statistical model (Frank, 2001). A challenge may arise when two or more variables are interrelated. One way to detect multicollinearity is to calculate the variance inflation factor (VIF). The VIF measures how much the variance of a coefficient is increased due to multicollinearity (Klein & Gerhard, 2016).

When two or more predictors are highly correlated, the relationship between the independent and dependent variables is distorted by the strong relationship between the independent variables, leading to the likelihood that the researcher's interpretation will be incorrect (Daoud, 2017). According to Shrestha (2020), multicollinearity can also be detected by examining the tolerance for each independent variable. *Tolerance* is defined as the degree of variability in a singular independent variable not expounded by the other independent variables. In the event that tolerance values are less than 0.10, that is an indication of collinearity (Daoud, 2017).

Furthermore, Perreault and Mason (2018) show that even small variations in the data or model could cause the coefficient score to fluctuate. However, the decision to eliminate an item rests only on a later stage that utilises the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) (Baum, 2006). The VIF computes the degree of inflated variance in order to detect multicollinearity. As suggested by Baum (2006), a VIF greater than 10 is regarded as a dangerous multicollinearity signal. The summary of collinearity statistics in the context of this study is presented in Table 5.6.

Table 5.2: Summary of collinearity statistics (Source: Survey data, 2023)

Model	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function	0.914	2.928
Challenges facing SBoM	0.766	1.623
The concept of building capacity among SBoM	0.824	1.857
Capacity Building Strategies	0.694	1.252

Baum (2006) states that all of the examples had the VIF evaluated and the error margins for the different remarks are assumed to be uncorrelated based on the computational results.

5.3 BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION OF PARTICIPANTS

This section presents the respondent's background information. The information presented in this section includes the participants' gender, distribution of participants by age, level of education achieved, capacity under which the participant served on the board, and the duration served as an SBoM member.

Figure 5.1 presents the stratification of the study population by gender category. This information was critical in shedding light on matters of gender engagement in the overall management of Kenyan schools.
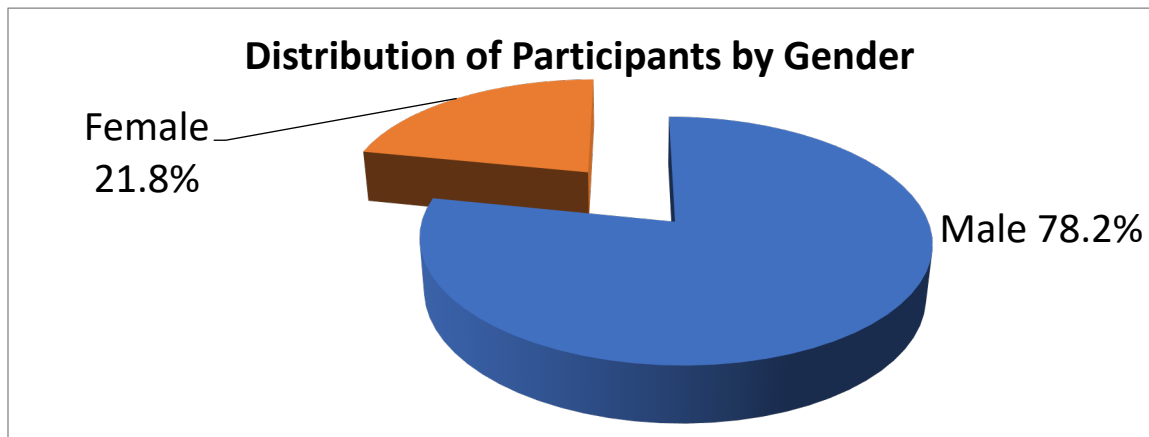
Figure 5.3: Distribution of participants by gender **(Survey data, 2023)**

Descriptive results show that the majority (78.2%) of participants who served in School Boards of Management (SBoM) in Wajir County public schools were males, whereas 21.8% were females. The findings portray an unequal representation of females in the management of schools in Wajir County. This indicates that males dominate leadership positions in school governance in Wajir. These research findings call for a fresh investigation into factors contributing to the mismatch in the representation of both genders in school management.

5.3.2 Distribution of Respondents by Age

Humans' interpretation of subjects correlates with age among other demographics. In view of capturing these assorted opinions from each group, participants were asked to indicate their age. The results are presented in Figure 5.2 below.
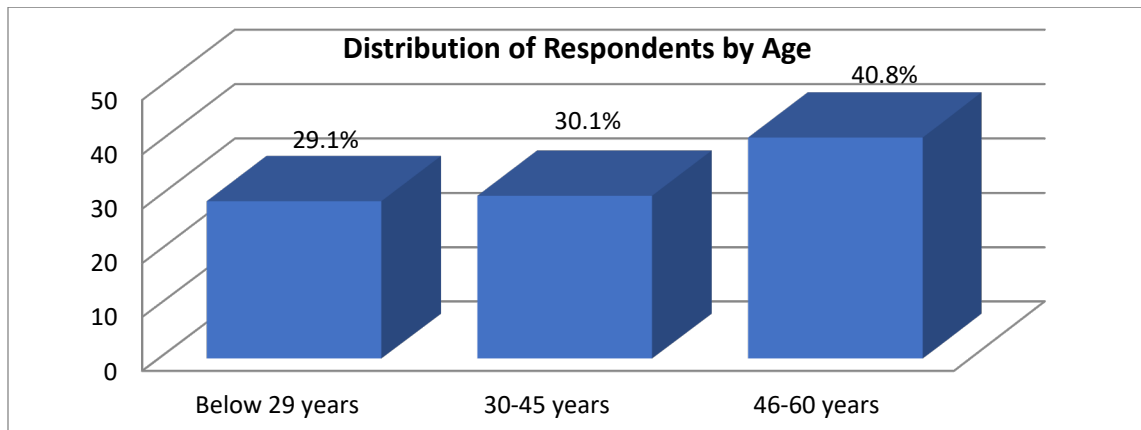
Figure 5.4: Distribution of Respondents by age (Survey data, 2023).

It was established that most respondents (40.8%) were aged between 46 and 60, 30.1% were between 30 and 45, and 29.1% were below 29 years. The findings show that most of the members serving in SBoM in Wajir County were above 45 years old; however, the findings still show fair engagement of participants across various age groups. The findings imply a high likelihood of encompassing views from assorted age groups.

5.3.3 Education level

According to Stoffberg (2023), the stages of education are established based on the abilities obtained, the goals to be accomplished, and the developmental stage of each individual learner. In effect, the researcher concurs that the individual level of education determines the personal uptake or understanding ability of different issues. In view of establishing the respondent's ability to respond to research questions and their ability to manage schools, respondents

were requested to indicate their educational qualifications. Results are shown in Figure 5.3 below.
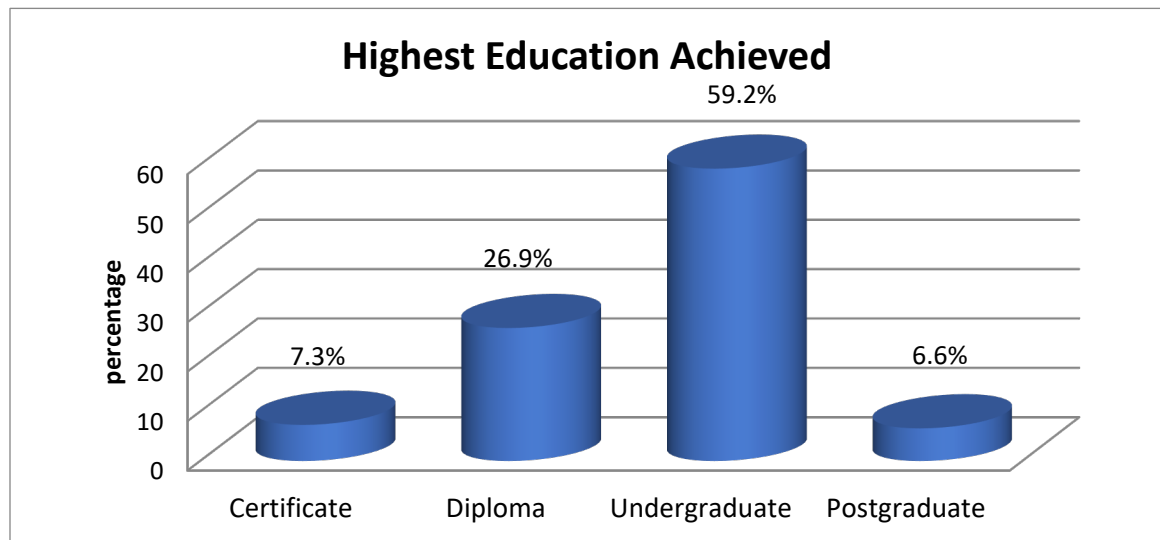
Figure 5.5: Highest education achieved. (Survey data, 2023)

The research findings noted that most respondents (59.2%) held a university education, 26.9% held a college diploma, 7.3% held certificates, and 6.6% held postgraduate education. This implies that most of the respondents were in a position to respond to research questions effectively. Notably, it can be concluded that most respondents are qualified to manage schools.

5.3.4 Representation Capacity within SBoM

Respondents were asked to clarify the capacity under which they served within SBoM. Results are presented in Table 5.7 below.

Table 5.3: Representation Capacity within SBoM (**Source:** Survey data, 2023)

	Frequency	Per cent
Representative of Parents or Local community	20	6.3
County Education Board Representative CEB	69	21.8
The teaching staff in the school Representative	7	2.2
Representatives of the sponsor of the school	31	9.8
Representative of particular groups in the community	39	12.3
Representative of persons with special needs.	22	7.0
A representative of the student's council	47	14.9
General Member	81	25.6
Total	**316**	**100.0**

Results show that 25.6% of the respondents served as a general member of SBoM, 21.8% of the respondents served as County Education Board Representative (CEB), 14.9% of the respondents served as a representative of the student's council, 12.3% of the respondents served as a representative of special groups in the community, 7.0% of the respondents served as a representative of persons with special needs, 6.3% of the respondents served as a representative of parents or local community, 2.2% of the respondents served as the teaching staff representative.

5.3.5 Duration of service as SBoM member

The last section on demographic data represents the duration of service of respondents as SBoM members. It is widely acknowledged that individuals' service period (experience) is highly associated with members' knowledge of organizational processes. Therefore, participants were requested to indicate the period they served in SBoM. Results are shown in Figure 5.4 below.
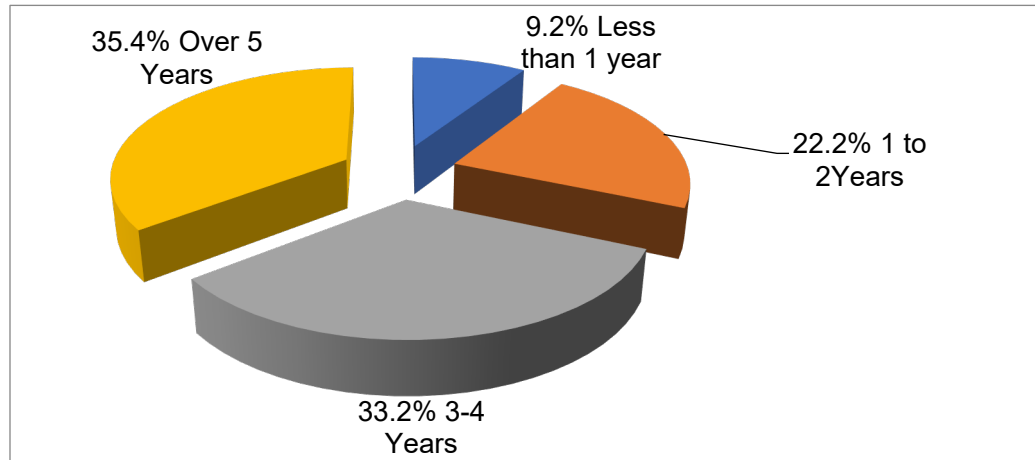
Figure 5.4: Duration of service as SBoM member **(Source:** Survey data, 2023)

From the research findings, the study revealed that most of the Board members (35.4%) had served for a period of more than five years, 33.2% of the respondents 3-4 years, 22.2 % of the respondents 1 to 2 years, whereas 9.2% of the respondents had served less than one year. This implies that a substantial number of respondents had served as board members for a considerable time, implying that they were in a position to give credible information relating to this research.

5.4 PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF QUANTITATIVE DATA

5.4.1 Introduction

Quantitative data was analysed based on the four objectives of the study stated in Chapter 1. The first objective focused on describing SBoM in the Kenyan context and their functions. The second objective centred on determining the existing challenges facing SBoM and how these challenges are dealt with. The third objective investigates the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context. The fourth objective focuses on the capacity-building strategies implemented to assist SBoM in governing schools in Kenya. The fifth objective

requires the researcher to present a capacity-building model derived from this study to build and sustain effective school governance in Kenya.

The above objectives were used to group all of the items in the quantitative questionnaire, and participant responses were arranged in Excel as cleaned data in tables. Excel spreadsheets were used to create the graphs, and frequency tables, pie charts, graphs, and bar graphs were used to assess and arrange the responses of the participants. The researcher made considerable use of measures of central tendency in addition to frequency distribution to ascertain the distribution of scores. The mean and standard deviation are the central tendency metrics that the researcher employs.

5.4.2 First objective: To describe SBoM in the Kenyan context and explain how they function.

This section presents statistical findings on SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function.

5.4.2.1 Descriptive Statistics

To understand SBoM in the Kenyan context, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the following statements that relate to SBoM and how they function. (The following scale was adopted: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=not sure; 4 = agree; 5=strongly agree).

Table 5.4: SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function (Survey data, 2023)

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
The board comprises representatives from the school, local government and the wider community.	316	2.00	5.00	4.06	0.69
School Boards of Management in Kenya are responsible for the management of schools and for providing direction to school principals, headteachers and other school staff.	316	3.00	5.00	4.28	0.59
The board oversees the school's running, sets school policies and procedures, and ensures that the school complies with relevant regulations.	316	4.00	5.00	4.22	0.41
The board is responsible for developing and approving the school's annual budget, managing any funds allocated, and ensuring that the school's resources are used effectively and efficiently.	316	4.00	5.00	4.23	0.42
The board also works with the principal to ensure that the school provides a safe and healthy student environment and complies with relevant safety regulations.	316	3.00	5.00	4.27	0.51
The board ensures that the school provides quality education to students; this involves setting school standards, monitoring and evaluating the school's performance and providing feedback to the principal and other staff.	316	3.00	5.00	4.09	0.56
The board is responsible for developing plans for the future of the school, including curriculum development, staff development, and any other initiatives that are necessary to ensure the school's success	316	3.00	5.00	4.22	0.48
The board also ensures that the school engages with the broader community.	316	3.00	5.00	4.09	0.64
Aggregated Mean				**4.18**	**0.54**

Based on the weighted mean, most respondents agreed that SBoMs in Kenya are responsible for the management of schools and for providing direction to school principals, headteachers and other school staff (Mean = 4.28 Std Dev = 0.59). Descriptive results established that SBoM are responsible for developing and implementing school policies related to curriculum implementation,

discipline, student welfare, and other areas. These policies provide a framework for the school's operation and guide decision-making. Further, the study established that SBoM ensures that the school complies with relevant laws, regulations, and policies, including those related to education standards, safety, and student welfare.

With regard to these findings, it can be concluded that SBoM is entrusted with the responsibility of developing strategic plans and setting goals for the school's improvement to enhance the quality of education provided statistical results show that the board also works with school principals and headteachers to ensure that the school provides a safe and conducive environment for students and complies with relevant safety regulations (Mean = 4.27 Std Dev = 0.51).

From this data, it can be deduced that creating a safe and healthy school environment is essential not only for the physical well-being of students but also for their emotional and academic development. With the help of SBoM, principals and headteachers promote a school culture that prevents bullying, harassment, and discrimination. They implement mechanisms in place for reporting and addressing such incidents promptly.

Also, quantitative data revealed that the school board is responsible for developing and approving the school's annual budget, managing any funds allocated, and ensuring that the school's resources are used effectively and efficiently (Mean = 4.23 Std Dev = 0.42). Therefore, this financial responsibility is crucial for the school's effective operation and ensuring that resources are allocated efficiently to support educational goals.

The quantitative data obtained from participants revealed that in Kenya, SBoM are responsible for overseeing the school's running, setting school policies and procedures, and ensuring that the school complies with relevant regulations (Mean = 4.22 Std Dev = 0.41). With regard to strategic planning and curriculum implementation, the study revealed that the board is responsible for developing plans for the future of the school, including curriculum development, staff

development, and any other initiatives that are necessary to ensure the school's success (Mean = 4.22 Std Dev = 0.48).

Descriptive statistics revealed that the board ensures the school engages with the broader community (Mean = 4.09 Std Dev = 0.67). These findings affirm that community and stakeholder engagement is essential for building strong relationships, fostering support for the school, and enriching the educational experience for students.

Participants further agreed that SBoM's responsibility is to ensure that the school provides quality education to students through setting standards, monitoring and evaluating the school's performance and providing feedback to the school principal, headteacher and other staff (Mean = 4.09 Std Dev = 0.56). In terms of representation, results of the analysis show that most participants concur that SBoM comprises representatives from the school, national government and the wider community (Mean = 4.06 Std Dev = 0.69).

5.4.2.2 Correlation Results
This section investigates the correlation between SBoM in Kenya, how they function, and effective governance in Kenyan schools.

Table 5.9 displays the results of the correlation test analysis between the dependent variable (SBoM in the Kenyan context and their functions) and the independent variable (effective governance in Kenyan schools).

Table 5.5: Correlation between SBoM in the Kenyan context, how they function, and effective governance in Kenyan schools (Survey data, 2023).

Variable		Effective governance in Kenyan schools	SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function
Effective governance in Kenyan schools	Pearson Correlation	1	.299**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	316	316
SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function	Pearson Correlation	.299**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	316	316

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The study found a positive correlation coefficient between SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function and effectively govern Kenyan schools, as shown by a correlation value of 0.299. The significant value was 0.000, which is less than 0.05.

5.4.2.3 Regression Test

The essence of the first regression test was to establish the relationship between SBoM in the Kenyan context, how they function, and effective governance in Kenyan schools. To test the 1st regression, the index of effective governance in Kenyan schools as the index of the dependent variable was regressed upon SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function as a composite of the independent variable. The results of the test are presented in Table 5.10 below.

Table 5.6: Regression Test **(Survey data, 2023)**

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.299[a]	.089	.086	.60815

a. Predictors: (Constant), X1_ SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	11.374	1	11.374	30.753	.000[b]
	Residual	116.131	314	.370		
	Total	127.505	315			

a. Dependent Variable: Y_ Effective governance in Kenyan schools
a. Predictors: (Constant), X_1_ SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function

Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
1	(Constant)	4.404	.192		22.881	.000
	SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function (X1)	.509	.092	.299	5.546	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Y_ Effective governance in Kenyan schools

The regression equation obtained from this output was:

Effective governance in Kenyan schools = 4.404 + 0.509 SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function + error margin………………………..equation (1)

Test regression results in the table above show that the adjusted R square value for the regression of the description of SBoM in the Kenyan context and effective governance in Kenyan schools is 0.086, which means that SBoM in the Kenyan context and their functions explain 8.6% of variation with regard to effective governance in Kenyan schools.

From the ANOVA results, the f calculated (30.753) is more significant than the critical F (2.49). Similarly, the P-value 0.000 < is less than 0.05, which indicates that the model significantly predicts the outcome with respect to SBoM in the

Kenyan context in terms of their functions and effective governance in Kenyan schools.

The Beta unstandardized coefficient for SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function is 0.509. It is significant at P value < 0.000, which implies that when SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function changes by one unit in the assessment scale, effective governance in Kenyan schools will also change by 0.509 units. The constant term value is 4.404, implying that when the value of SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function is zero, effective governance in Kenyan schools has a default value of 4.404.

5.4.3 Second objective: To determine the existing challenges facing SBoM in governing schools in Kenya and how they deal with them.

This section presents statistical findings on the existing challenges facing SBoM in governing schools in Kenya and how they deal with them.

5.4.3.1 Descriptive Statistics

In an attempt to identify the existing challenges facing SBoM in governing schools in Kenya and how they deal with them, participants were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the following statements regarding the existing challenges facing SBoM in Kenya. (The following scale was adopted: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=not sure; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree). The data analysis of participants' responses provides a quantitative framework to comprehend the gravity of each identified challenge. For instance, if a substantial number of respondents strongly agree or agree with a particular statement, it indicates a consensus on the severity of the associated challenge. Conversely, disagreements or uncertainties may signal areas where perceptions diverge or require further exploration. The findings in Table 5.11 act as a roadmap for policymakers, educators, and stakeholders, offering a comprehensive overview of the hurdles SBoMs face in the governance of schools in Kenya. From financial constraints to bureaucratic impediments, the data allows for a prioritization of challenges based on the perceived impact.

Table 5.7: Challenges facing SBoM in governing schools in Kenya

(Survey data, 2023)

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
There is a lack of resources, which makes the board unable to implement its plans effectively, resulting in a lack of progress	316	3.00	5.00	4.20	0.59
There is a lack of transparency and accountability	316	3.00	5.00	4.12	0.59
There is inadequate basic infrastructure, such as classrooms, toilets, libraries, and laboratories, which prevents the board of management from making the most of their resources and providing quality education to students	316	3.00	5.00	4.24	0.67
There is a lack of access to proper technology and the internet, which can significantly limit the board of management's ability to use innovative teaching and learning methods.	316	4.00	5.00	4.30	0.46
Political interference influences the board's decisions, making it difficult for the board to make decisions that are in the school's best interests.	316	3.00	5.00	4.18	0.51
Valid N (listwise)	316				

Based on the weighted mean, most respondents agreed that there is a lack of access to proper technology and the internet, which can significantly limit SBoM members' ability to use innovative teaching and learning methods (Mean = 4.30 Std Dev = 0.46). Since SBoM relies on accurate and up-to-date data for decision-making, access to technology can hinder data collection, analysis, and reporting, making it challenging to assess school performance and plan effectively.

Respondents agreed that most schools lack basic infrastructure such as classrooms, toilets, libraries, and laboratories, which prevents the management board from making the most of their resources and providing quality education to students (Mean = 4.24 Std Dev =0.67). Regarding land acquisition, reports show that acquiring suitable land for school construction or expansion, on some occasions, is a complex and costly process. In effect, SBoM usually encounter challenges related to land ownership, disputes, or land availability.

Also, respondents indicated a lack of enough resources, which makes the board unable to implement its plans effectively, resulting in a lack of progress (Mean = 4.20 Std Dev =0.59). Most participants agreed that school boards struggle implementing curriculum enhancements due to limited funds. As a result of budget constraints, SBoM's ability to train qualified teachers is limited, resulting in larger class sizes and lower teacher-student ratios. It was further established that inadequate resources lead to deferred maintenance and repair of school facilities, leading to dilapidated infrastructure.

As illustrated in Table 5.11, quantitative data gathered via questionnaires reveal that political interference influences the board's decisions, making it difficult for the board to make decisions that are in the school's best interests (Mean =4.18 Std Dev =0.51). In addition, results from the questionnaires show that there is a lack of transparency and accountability (Mean = 4.12 Std Dev = 0.59) in the management of public schools, and this leads to a range of problems, including mismanagement of resources, corruption, and a decline in the quality of education. Without transparency in financial management, there is a risk that school funds may be misappropriated or embezzled. This can result in a lack of resources for essential educational purposes, such as hiring qualified teachers, purchasing learning materials, and maintaining school infrastructure. These findings correspond with research findings by Clarke (2007) that transparency and accountability are essential for ensuring that public funds are used efficiently to provide quality education for students.

5.4.3.2 Correlation Results

This section investigates the correlation between SBoM challenges and effective governance in Kenyan schools. **Table 5.16** displays the results of the correlation test analysis between the dependent variable (challenges facing SBoM) and the independent variable (effective governance in Kenyan schools).

Table 5.8: Correlation between challenges facing SBoM and effective governance in Kenyan schools (Survey data, 2023)

Variable		Effective governance in Kenyan schools	Challenges facing SBoM
Effective governance in Kenyan schools	Pearson Correlation	1	-.197[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	316	316
Challenges facing SBoM	Pearson Correlation	-.197[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	316	316

[**]. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The study found a negative correlation coefficient between challenges facing SBoM and effective governance in Kenyan schools, as shown by a correlation value of - 0.197, whereby the significant value was 0.000, which is less than 0.05.

5.4.3.3 Regression Test

The essence of the second regression test was to establish the relationship between challenges facing SBoM and effective governance in Kenyan schools. To test the second regression, the index of effective governance in Kenyan schools as the index of the dependent variable was regressed upon challenges facing SBoM as a composite of independent variables.

Table 5.9: Regression Test (Survey data, 2023)

Model Summary

Model	R	R square	Adjusted R square	Std. error of the estimate
1	.197[a]	.039	.036	.62475

A. Predictors: (Constant), X2_ Challenges facing SBoM

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of squares	Df	Mean square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	4.945	1	4.945	12.670	.000[b]
	Residual	122.559	314	.390		
	Total	127.505	315			

a. Dependent variable: Y_ Effective governance in Kenyan schools
a. Predictors: (Constant), X2_ Challenges facing SBoM

Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized coefficients		Standardized coefficients		
	B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
1 (Constant)	4.788	.191		25.128	.000
Challenges facing SBoM (X2)	-.325	.091	-.197	-3.560	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Y_ Effective governance in Kenyan schools

The regression equation obtained from this output was:

Effective governance in Kenyan schools = 4.788 + - 0.325 challenges facing SBoM + error margin……………………….equation (2)

Test regression results in the table above show that the adjusted R square value for the regression of challenges facing SBoM and effective governance in Kenyan schools is 0.036, which means that challenges facing SBoM explain 3.6% of the variation in effective governance of Kenyan schools.

From the ANOVA results, the f calculated (12.670) is greater than the F critical (2.49). Similarly, the P-value 0.000 < is less than 0.05, which indicates that the model significantly predicts the outcome of challenges facing SBoM and effective governance in Kenyan schools.

The Beta un-standardized coefficient for challenges facing SBoM is -0.325, significant at P value < 0.000, which implies that when challenges facing SBoM

change by one unit in the assessment scale, effective governance in Kenyan schools will also negatively change by - 0.325 units. The constant term value is 4.788, implying that when challenges facing SBoM are zero, effective governance in Kenyan schools has a default value of 4.788.

These findings echo the research findings by Onderi and Makori (2013) that lack of managerial skills, lack of experience and low levels of education are some of the key challenges facing school boards, culminating in misappropriation, embezzlement and loss of public funds, thereby becoming a hindrance to the effective and efficient governance of schools in Kenya.

5.4.4 Third objective: To investigate the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context.

This section presents statistical findings on the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context. According to Barret, Kincaid, and March (2013), capacity building can be described as a process aimed at strengthening the governance and management of an organization so that it can effectively achieve its objectives, thereby fulfilling its mission. It is against this background that Meyer-Looze and Vandermolen (2021) postulate that building the capacity of school leaders requires collaboration with peers, leadership coaching and learning activities embedded through onsite coaching.

5.4.4.1 Descriptive Statistics

To understand the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context, respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement with the following statements that relate to what capacity building among SBoM in the school context entails. (The following scale was adopted: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=not sure; 4 = agree; 5=strongly agree).

Table 5.10: The concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context (Survey data, 2023)

	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
Alignment of school policies with educational goals and curriculum standards.	316	3.00	5.00	4.23	0.52
Adapting to changes in educational policies	316	3.00	5.00	3.99	0.69
Monitoring and evaluation by establishing mechanisms that measure and assess the school's performance.	316	3.00	5.00	3.96	0.67
Legal and regulatory compliance entails knowledge of education laws and regulations that ensure the school complies with statutory requirements and safety standards.	316	3.00	5.00	4.20	0.64
Promoting inclusivity and diversity in school policies and practices by ensuring equitable access to education for all students.	316	3.00	5.00	4.08	0.74
Risk Management practices to enable SBoM members to identify, assess and mitigate risks.	316	3.00	5.00	4.15	0.62
Capacity building includes training in research and strategy development, Networking and Collaboration	316	3.00	5.00	4.32	0.54
Capacity-building initiatives focus on helping in technology adoption	316	3.00	5.00	4.17	0.73

It is clear from the data provided in **Table 5.14** that capacity building among SBoM in the school context included training in research and strategy development and inter-SBoM member networking and collaboration (mean = 4.32 std Dev = 0.54). These findings concur with study conclusions by Leuven, Oosterbeek, Sloof and Klaveren (2005) that research skills among members of school governing structures enhance their ability to make informed decisions,

assess school performance, adapt to changing educational landscapes, and effectively serve the best interests of students and the school community.

The data gathered through the questionnaires also revealed that capacity building among SBoM in the school context incorporates aligning school policies with educational goals and curriculum standards (mean = 4.23 std Dev =0.52). The underpinning element in this parameter was to ensure that school policies are in harmony with educational objectives and that curriculum standards are fundamental to providing quality education and achieving desired learning outcomes. These findings conform with research deduction by Dimmock (2011) that capacity building is an ongoing process that equips school board members and administrators with the knowledge, skills, and tools necessary to ensure that school policies are aligned with educational goals and curriculum standards.

Another critical area identified via the quantitative questionnaires included legal and regulatory compliance, which entails knowledge of education laws and regulations that ensure the school complies with statutory requirements and safety standards (mean = 4.20 std Dev =0.64). Similarly, the study established that capacity-building initiatives focus on helping in technology adoption (mean = 4.17 std Dev =0.73). Most respondents agreed that incorporating technology into educational institutions is no longer optional; it is essential for providing a modern, effective, and competitive education. Thus, the government and other educational stakeholders should recognize that technology is a fundamental part of education, and integrating it into the educational environment can support school governing structures to initiate school management best practices.

The study established that risk management practices were another area emphasized during capacity building. Skills in these managerial areas would enable SBoM members to Identify, assess and mitigate risks (mean = 4.15 std Dev =0.62). These findings are in tandem with Hiatt and Creasey (2012) that since risk management practices extend to curriculum, teaching methods, and student support services, it is paramount for SBoM members to have these skills

to help them identify potential risks and align the school's strategic goals with risk mitigation efforts.

Regarding promoting inclusivity and diversity in school policies and practices by ensuring equitable access to education for all students, majority of participants (mean = 4.08 std Dev =0.74), concurred that exposure to diverse cultures and perspectives enriches the educational experience, broadening students' horizons and promoting cultural understanding and that promoting inclusivity and diversity in school policies and practices is an ongoing effort that requires the commitment of all stakeholders, including school managers, administrators, teachers, students, parents, and the broader community.

The study revealed that capacity building encompasses monitoring and evaluation. This entails establishing mechanisms that measure and assess the school's performance (mean = 3.96 std Dev = 0.67). These findings imply that most participants agreed that regular monitoring and evaluation help identify areas that require improvement, whether in student outcomes, staff performance, or resource allocation.

Quantitative data further revealed that capacity building in the school context involves adapting to changes in educational policies (mean = 3.99 std Dev = 0.69). In this regard, many respondents agreed that adapting to changes in educational policies is crucial for SBoM members to ensure that the school remains compliant, relevant and capable of providing quality education.

5.4.4.2 Correlation Results

This section investigates the correlation between the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context and effective governance in Kenyan schools.

Table 4.15 below displays the results of the correlation test analysis between the dependent variable (concept of capacity building among SBoM) and the independent variable (effective governance in Kenyan schools).

Table 5.11: Correlation between the concept of capacity building among SBoM and effective governance in Kenyan schools (Survey data, 2023)

Variable		Effective Governance in Kenyan schools	Concept of capacity building among SBoM
Effective Governance in Kenyan Sec Schools	Pearson Correlation	1	.202**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	316	316
Concept of capacity building among SBoM	Pearson Correlation	.202**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	316	316

The study found a positive correlation coefficient between the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context and effective governance in Kenyan schools, as shown by a correlation value of 0.202; the significant value was 0.000, which is less than 0.05.

5.4.4.3 Regression Test

The essence of the first regression test was to establish the relationship between the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context and effective governance in Kenyan schools. To test the 3rd regression, the index of effective governance in Kenyan schools as the index of the dependent variable was regressed upon the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context as a composite of the independent variables.

Table 5.12: Regression test (Survey data, 2023)

The regression equation obtained from this output was:

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.202[a]	.041	.038	.40605

a. Predictors: (Constant), X3_ concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context

ANOVA[a]

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2.198	1	2.198	13.329	.000[b]
	Residual	51.770	314	.165		
	Total	53.968	315			

a. Dependent Variable: Y_ Effective governance in Kenyan schools

a. Predictors: (Constant), X3_ concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context

Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.
	B	Std. Error	Beta		
1 (Constant)	4.233	.094		45.012	.000
Concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context (X3)	.269	.074	.202	3.651	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Y_ Effective governance in Kenyan schools

Effective governance in Kenyan schools = 4.233+ 0.269 concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context + error margin………………….....equation (3)

Test regression results in Table 5.16 above show that the adjusted R square value for the regression of the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context and effective governance in Kenyan schools is 0.038, which means that the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context explains 3.8% of the variation in effective governance in Kenyan schools.

From the ANOVA results, the f calculated (13.329) is greater than the F critical (2.49). Similarly, P-valuable 0.000 < is less than 0.05, indicating that the model significantly predicts the outcome of capacity building in the school context and effective governance in Kenyan schools. The Beta un-standardized coefficient for the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context is 0.269, which is significant at P value < 0.000, which implies that when the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context changes by one unit in the assessment scale, effective governance in Kenyan schools will also change by 0.269 units.

The constant term value is 4.404, implying that when the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context is zero, effective governance in Kenyan schools has a default value of 4.233. Therefore, these findings conform to the research by Patti *et al*. (2015) that schools need competent and effective leaders who can actualize the school's mission and vision.

5.4.5 Fourth objective: To determine which capacity-building strategies are in place to assist SBoM in governing schools in Kenya.

5.4.5.1 Descriptive Statistics

To choose the best strategies that can assist SBoM in governing schools in Kenya, participants were asked to indicate their measure of agreement with the following statements regarding capacity building strategies implemented to assist SBoM in governing schools in Kenya. (The following scale was adopted:

1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=not sure; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree). The results are presented in Table 5.18 below.

Table 5.137: Capacity Building strategies (Survey data, 2023)

Statement	N	Min	Max	Mean	Std. Dev
Our school strengthen the capacity of school boards through training and professional development	316	1.00	3.00	1.92	0.68
The school provides training and development programs that focus on the essential aspects of school governance, such as school finance, policy formulation and implementation and school improvement.	316	2.00	5.00	3.92	0.77
There is provision of accessibility to resources and technical assistance to school boards to ensure they can effectively manage and lead their schools.	316	1.00	4.00	2.23	0.92
There is a promotion of collaboration and networking to develop opportunities for school boards to collaborate and network.	316	3.00	5.00	4.11	0.45
School management strives to develop an effective communication strategy to ensure school board members are informed about relevant issues and decisions.	316	3.00	5.00	4.28	0.56
There is increased involvement of local communities by establishing advisory boards and committees comprised of local stakeholders and allowing them to have a say in decision-making.	316	2.00	5.00	4.17	0.83
Establishing a support network, including mentoring and coaching opportunities, professional development programs, and resource access.	316	2.00	5.00	4.05	0.98
Developing a unified data collection and analysis system to track school performance, evaluate school policies' impact, and identify improvement areas.	316	3.00	5.00	4.10	0.66
Valid N (listwise)	316				

The school management strives to develop an effective communication strategy to ensure school board members are informed about relevant issues and decisions (Mean = 4.28 Std Dev =0.56).

It emerged from analysing data from questionnaires that there is provision of accessibility to resources and technical assistance to school boards to ensure that they can manage their schools effectively (Mean = 4.23 Std Dev =0.92). By providing accessibility to resources and technical assistance, school boards can enhance their effectiveness, make informed decisions, and contribute to improving educational outcomes for students; this support is crucial for ensuring that school boards can fulfil their governance roles with competence and confidence. These findings echo the need to establish technical assistance programs that offer guidance, training, and mentoring to school board members.

As illustrated in Table 5.19, respondents agreed that local communities have increased involvement by establishing advisory boards and committees comprised of local stakeholders and allowing them to have a say in decision-making (Mean = 4.17 Std Dev = 0.83). From these findings, it is evident that most participants affirmed that increased involvement of local communities through establishing advisory boards and committees comprised of local stakeholders is an excellent way to promote community engagement and collaboration in school governance. In the same spirit, participants agreed that there is a promotion of collaboration and networking to develop opportunities for school boards to collaborate and network with each other (Mean = 4.11 Std Dev = 0.45). These findings corroborate the study findings by Slater (2004) that the ability to work collaboratively with others is becoming an essential component of contemporary school reform.

It emerged that schools under the steering of SBoM were developing a unified system of data collection and analysis to track school performance, evaluate the impact of school policies, and identify areas for improvement (Mean = 4.10 Std Dev =0.66). Respondents reported that school boards should implement data analysis tools and software to effectively process and analyse the collected data.

Participants revealed a need to establish a support network, including mentoring and coaching opportunities, professional development programs, and resource

access (Mean = 4.05 Std Dev =0.98). School boards and education leaders can strengthen their knowledge, skills, and effectiveness in governance and leadership roles by establishing a comprehensive support network, which, in turn, enhances the overall quality of education and students' success. Data obtained from participants indicated that some schools provide training and development programs that focus on the essential aspects of school governance, such as school finance, policy formulation and implementation and school improvement. (Mean = 3.92 Std Dev = 0.77). However, the study noted the provision of accessibility to resources and technical assistance to school boards to ensure that they can effectively manage and lead their schools (Mean = 2.23 Std Dev = 0.92).

Further, the study established that schools took no measures to strengthen the capacity of school boards through training and professional development (Mean = 1.92 Std Dev = 0.68). In their view, the government, through the Ministry of Education, should consistently offer leadership development programs that focus on effective governance, decision-making, and leadership skills. Such training should also include training on education policy development and implementation. This is because when SBoM members clearly understand how policies impact schools and students, this can ultimately lead to improved educational outcomes.

5.4.5.2 Correlation Results

This section investigates the correlation between capacity building strategies and effective governance in Kenyan schools.

Table 5.19 displays the results of the correlation test analysis between the dependent variable (capacity-building strategies) and the independent variable (effective governance in Kenyan schools).

Table 5.148: Correlation between capacity building strategies and effective governance in Kenyan schools (Survey data, 2003).

Variable		Effective governance in Kenyan schools	Capacity building strategies
Effective governance in Kenyan schools	Pearson Correlation	1	.235**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	316	316
Capacity building strategies	Pearson Correlation	.235**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	316	316

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

A correlation value of 0.235 indicates that the study's findings about capacity-building techniques and effective governance in Kenyan schools are favourable; the significant value was 0.000, or less than 0.05.

5.4.5.3 Regression Test

Finding a link between good governance in Kenyan schools and initiatives for capacity building was the main goal of the fourth regression test. The final regression test involved regressing capacity development techniques as a composite of independent factors onto the index of effective governance in Kenyan schools, which served as the dependent variable.

Model Summary

Table 5.1915: Regression Test (Survey data, 2023).

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.235a	.055	.052	.61936

A. Predictors: (Constant), X_4_ Capacity building strategies

ANOVAa

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	7.051	1	7.051	18.381	.000b
	Residual	120.454	314	.384		
	Total	127.505	315			

a. Dependent Variable: Y_ Effective governance in Kenyan schools

a. Predictors: (Constant), X_4_ Capacity building strategies

Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
1	(Constant)	4.251	.283		15.031	.000
	Capacity Building Strategies (X_4)	.557	.130	.235	4.287	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Y_ Effective governance in Kenyan schools

The regression equation obtained from this output was:

Effective governance in Kenyan schools = 4.251+ 0.557 capacity building strategies + error margin………………………..equation (4)

Test regression results in the table above show that the adjusted R square value for the regression of capacity-building strategies and effective governance in Kenyan schools is 0.036, which means that capacity-building strategies explain 5.2 % of the variation in effective governance in Kenyan schools.

From the ANOVA results, the f calculated (18.381) is greater than the F critical (2.49). Similarly, the P Value 0.000 < is less than 0.05, which indicates that the model significantly predicts the outcome of capacity building strategies and effective governance in Kenyan schools.

The Beta unstandardized coefficient for capacity-building strategies is -0.557, significant at P value < 0.000, which implies that when capacity-building strategies change by one unit in the assessment scale, effective governance in Kenyan schools will also positively change by 0.557 units. The constant term value is 4.251, implying that effective governance in Kenyan schools has a default value of 4.251 when capacity-building strategies are zero. Therefore, the null hypothesis that no significant relationship exists between capacity-building strategies and effective governance in Kenyan schools is rejected. The alternative hypothesis states that a significant positive relationship exists between capacity capacity-building and effective governance in Kenyan schooling to data collected via questionnaires; SBoM are legal entities established by the state Department of Education to oversee education programs in public schools in Kenya on behalf of the Education cabinet secretary. These governing structures collaborate with other education stakeholders such as the Parents Teachers Associations, the County Education Boards and the local community. In terms of functions, SBoM develops strategic plans and sets goals for the school's improvement. With the help of SBoM, principals and headteachers promote a school culture that prevents bullying, harassment, and discrimination. Furthermore, SBoM in collaboration with school administrators, are responsible for developing the school's annual budget, reviewing and assessing the curriculum and instructional practices to ensure that they align with educational standards, promote student engagement, and lead to positive learning outcomes. By so doing, they assess whether students meet established academic benchmarks and make necessary adjustments to instructional strategies or resources.

The study revealed that SBoM experiences a wide range of challenges in governing schools, compromising the quality of education. The significant challenges that this study has identified to be hindering SBoM in executing their functions in public schools in Wajir county include inadequate resources, political interference in the management of schools, lack of transparency and accountability, lack of access to proper technology and the internet, lack of basic infrastructure and lack of managerial experience among some members of the board.

A deeper analysis of the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context established that it entails training in research and strategy development and inter-SBoM member networking and collaboration. Aligning school policies with educational goals and curriculum standards, legal and regulatory compliance and technology adoption were also identified as the critical parameters of the concept of capacity building among SBoM. Risk management practices, promoting inclusivity and diversity in school policies and practices, monitoring and evaluation, and adaptation to changes in educational policies were other critical areas emphasized during capacity building.

The development of an effective communication strategy, provision of accessibility to resources, and technical assistance to school boards were identified as some of the capacity-building strategies that embolden SBoM's capacity to govern schools effectively. Further explored, increased involvement of local communities through the establishment of advisory boards, development of a unified system of data collection and analysis, promotion of collaboration and networking, establishment of a network of support including mentoring and coaching opportunities, professional development programs, and access to resources for SBoM were also identified as other capacity building strategies put in place to enhance the ability of SBoM to govern schools effectively.

However, the study noted that no provision of accessibility to resources and technical assistance to most school boards. Additionally, the study established

that some schools took no measures to strengthen the capacity of SBoM through training and professional development. According to the data provided in this study, SBoM play a crucial role in managing schools and despite a myriad of challenges that they face in governing schools, training and development, networking and collaboration, provision of resources and technical support, mentoring and coaching opportunities and development of an effective communication strategy are the leading capacity building strategies that can yield effective school governance thereby improving the quality of education.

In order to get more details on how the capacity among SBoM can be built and maintained to enhance school governance in Kenyan schools, the researcher conducted interviews with SBoM chairpersons, SBoM members, secondary school principals and primary school headteachers from sixteen selected schools. The following section now focuses on data analysis gathered via interviews.

5.5 QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION

5.5.1 Introduction

The research findings and the interpretation of the qualitative information obtained from field observations and interviews are covered in this part. This study starts with a quantitative phase and moves into a qualitative phase in an explanatory sequential version, as discussed in Chapter Four. Consequently, in order to improve the study's internal validity and provide a clearer and more comprehensive image of the quantitative results, qualitative data were gathered and examined. In order to ascertain whether or if participants' opinions, perceptions, and beliefs supplement the study findings discovered during the quantitative phase of data analysis, the qualitative data gathered through focus group and interviews were examined. The contestants' biographies are shown in the first section of this section. A thorough explanation of the analysis done on the qualitative data comes next. The analysis of the qualitative data is covered in the final section.

5.5.2 Presentation of Biographical Data of Participants

48 people (n=48) participated in the qualitative phase of the study as interview subjects. As shown in Table 1 below, interviews were conducted with four groups of subjects: eight (n = 8) SBoM chairpersons, eight (n = 8) SBoM members, sixteen (n = 16) secondary school principals, and sixteen (n = 16) head teachers of primary schools. All SBoM chairpersons are male; three are between 48 and 55, while the other five are aged above 55 years. Two of them hold a master's degree, whereas six of them hold an undergraduate degree. Three of the chairpersons have leadership experience of between 8 and 12 years, while the other five have leadership experience of between 15 - 20 years' experience.

The researcher also interviewed five male and three female SBoM members. The male SBoM are between 50 and 60, while the female SBoM members are between 40 and 50. Two SBoM members hold an undergraduate degree, three of them have a college diploma, and three others have a high school certificate. Their experience as board members ranges between 5 and 8 years, 9 and 12 years and 13 and 15 years.

Thirteen secondary school principals are male, while three are female. Nine principals fall between 41 and 50 years. Four are between 51 and 55 years old, while three are aged between 56 and 60. Three secondary school principals hold a college diploma, ten are holders of an undergraduate degree, and three hold a master's degree. Their leadership experience ranges from below five years (two), between 6 and 10 years (eight), and between 11 and 20 years (six).

In primary school leadership, a gender disparity is evident among head teachers, with ten males and six females. The age distribution of these educational leaders is diverse, with four falling between the ages of 35 and 40, eight between 41 and 50, and the remaining four aged from 51 to 60. Educational qualifications vary; seven head teachers possess a college certificate, six hold an undergraduate degree, and three have a master's degree. The spectrum of leadership experience among primary school head teachers is equally broad. Four have

less than seven years of experience; six have served for 10 to 15 years, while another three fall within the 16 to 20-year bracket. Notably, an experienced cadre of three head teachers boasts more than two decades of leadership expertise, as outlined in the comprehensive insights presented in **Table 5.22.**

Table 5.20: Biographical data of participants (Survey data, 2023).

Category	Gender	F	%	Age group	f	%	Education	f	%	Leadership experience	f	%
SBoM Chairpersons, Eight (N=8)	Male	8	100	48 And 55 Years	3	37.5	Master's	2	25	8 And 12 Years	3	37.5
	Female	0	0	Above 55 Years	5	62.5	Undergraduate	6	75	15 - 20 Years'	5	62.5
	Total	**8**	**100**		**8**	**100**		**8**	**100**		**8**	**100**
SBoM Members (N=8)	Male	5	37.5	50 and 60 years	5	37.5	Undergraduate	2	25	5 and 8 years,	2	25
	Female	3	62.5	40 and 50 years	3	62.5	College Diploma	3	37.5	9 and 12 years	3	37.5
		0	0	0	0	0	High School Certificate	3	37.5	13 and 15 years.	3	37.5
	Total	**8**	**100**		**8**	**100**		**8**	**100**		**8**	**100**
Secondary School Principals (N=16)	Male	13	81.3	41 and 50 years	9	56.3	College Diploma	3	18.8	Five years	2	12.5
	Female	3	18.8	51 and 55	4	25.0	Undergraduate	10	62.5	between 6 and 10 years	8	50.0
				56 and 60 years	3	18.75	Master's	3	18.75	between 11 and 20	6	37.5
	Total	16	**100**		16	**100**		16	**100**		16	**100**
Primary School Headteachers (N=16)	Male	10	62.5	35 and 40	4	25.0	College Certificate	7	43.8	less than seven years	4	25.0
				41 and 50	8	50.0	Undergraduate	6	37.5	between 10 and 15 years	6	37.5
										16 and 20	3	18.75
	Female	6	37.5	51 and 60	4	25	Master's	3	18.75	more than 20 years	3	18.75
Total		16	**100**					16	**100**		16	**100**

5.5.3 Reporting on how Qualitative Data was analyzed

The McMillan *et al*. (2010) data analysis approach was utilised to examine qualitative data that was gathered through interviews and field observations. This method was used by the researcher to divide and combine non-numerical data into sections, codes, groups, and themes. To aid in data analysis, interview data was transcribed using a word processor. After transcribing the audio-taped material into Word format, the researcher used the primary categories and themes that surfaced from the data analysis to break the material into manageable chunks.

Subsequently, fragments of the individual data were identified and assembled to form segments from the transcribed data. These data chunks depict thoughts, episodes, and information that is understandable. To create codes, the word, phrase, sentence, and paragraph fragments were further examined. Afterwards, based on their representation, similar codes were grouped to create categories that were further divided into primary, minor, and outlier groups.

By looking at linkages between different categories, the researcher created categories and looked for trends. By attempting to make sense of the intricate connections between the various facets of the participants' perspectives on the phenomenon under investigation, patterns were identified from categories.

The responses of the participants were coded and tagged to ensure anonymity and privacy. The labels listed below were utilised to identify the participants:

PARTICIPANTS	LABEL
School Board of Management Chairperson, one	SBoMC1
School Board of Management Chairperson two	SBoMC2
School Board of Management Chairperson three	SBoMC3
School Board of Management Member one	SBoMM1
School Board of Management Member two	SBoMM2
School Board of Management Member three	SBoMM3
Secondary school principal one	SSP1
Secondary school principals two	SSP2
Secondary school principals three	SSP3
Primary school teacher one	PSH1
Primary school headteacher two	PSH2
Primary school headteacher three	PSH3

5.3.4 Analysis and Presentation of Qualitative Data

The qualitative data obtained from interviewing SBoM members, chairpersons, secondary school principals, and head teachers was analysed and presented in accordance with major categories and topics. After the interview data was analysed, four main themes surfaced, each of which is briefly covered here.

5.3.4.1 Theme 1: Conceptualizing SBoM in the Kenyan context and their functions

One of the objectives of this study is to describe SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function. During the structured interviews, participants were asked about SBoM in Kenya and their functions, whereby most underlined overall school management as the core function of SBoM. One of the SBoM members said categorically, *"As a board member, I have a responsibility to oversee education programs at the school level in collaboration with other education stakeholders"* (SBoMM1). Similarly, one of the headteachers who took part in the study affirmed that *"In terms of financial and human resource management, I take part in accounting for any funds accruing to the institution, recruiting and remunerating non-teaching staff as required by the institution and in strict adherence with regulatory provisions as outlined by the ministry of education."* (PSH1)

The data obtained from interviewing board chairpersons, board members, secondary school principals and primary school headteachers revealed that SBoM often have a significant role in developing and approving the school's annual budget and managing any funds allocated to the school. This financial responsibility is crucial for the effective operation of the school and ensuring that resources are allocated efficiently to support educational goals. The SBoM chairperson stated that "*we play a crucial role in approving the final school budget, reviewing budget proposals, making any necessary adjustments or revisions, and formally voting to approve it* (SBoMM 2).

Further, this study established that SBoM, in collaboration with school administrators, are responsible for developing the school's annual budget. This process typically involves projecting the school's income and expenses for the upcoming academic year and it includes considerations for salaries, instructional materials, infrastructure maintenance, utilities, and other operational costs.

Qualitative information from interviewing the participants uncovered that SBoM are often responsible for developing plans for the school's future, encompassing a wide range of areas, including curriculum development and staff development. These plans are instrumental in shaping the school's direction and quality of education; in some cases, school boards may be involved in curriculum development or approval processes. In this regard, the principal participant mentioned that "…*we ensure that the curriculum aligns with educational standards, is relevant to the needs of students, and promotes academic excellence* (SSP1).

It emerged from interviewing one of the headteachers that school boards are responsible for ensuring the school actively engages with the broader community. One of the headteachers said, '*Community/stakeholder engagement is essential for building strong relationships, fostering support for the school, and enriching the educational experience for students'* (PSH2). The study revealed that school boards explored partnerships with local businesses, nonprofit

organizations, and community groups to support educational initiatives, offer resources, and provide student opportunities. One of the principals cited that '*school boards encourage parents to participate in parent-teacher associations (PTAs), attend school events, and be actively involved in their children's education* (SSP3).

Data collected from interviewing one of the SBoM chairpersons established that school boards in Kenya play a significant role in monitoring and evaluating a school's performance. Their oversight responsibilities include ensuring that the school meets its educational objectives, maintains high standards of academic excellence, and operates efficiently.

One of the board members pointed out that '*as members of the board's academic committee, we review and assess the curriculum and instructional practices to ensure that they align with educational standards… promote student engagement, and lead to positive learning outcomes and assess whether students are meeting established academic benchmarks hence, make adjustments to instructional strategies or resources* (SBoMM3). These findings affirm that the core objective of establishing clear educational goals for the school is to enhance its success and effectiveness in fulfilling its mission and meeting the community's needs.

According to data collected via interview, SBoM ensures that all financial activities and decisions comply with stipulated national laws and regulations related to educational finance and governance. One of the board member participants stated, '*As board members, we prioritize spending based on the school's educational objectives and the needs of the students* (SBoMM4). In this context, maintaining fiscal responsibility involves making informed decisions to avoid deficits and financial mismanagement while also planning for long-term financial stability at the school.

5.5.4.2 Theme 2: Existing challenges facing SBoM in governing schools in Kenya and how they deal with them

Data collected during interviews showed that SBoM face many challenges executing their managerial roles and responsibilities. The significant challenges faced by SBoM are related to human resource management, financial management, and curriculum implementation.

It was revealed from the data collected that political interference in the management of schools in Kenya has been a concern and challenge for many years. This interference manifests in various ways and can have positive and negative consequences, depending on the motivations and actions of the political actors involved. The principal participant observed that '… *politicians may attempt to influence the appointment of school principals and head teachers'* (SSP5). This can lead to appointing individuals who may not be the most qualified for the position but are politically connected.

As noted by the headteacher participant, *'politicians can influence the allocation of resources, including funds and infrastructure development projects, to schools in their constituencies or regions, resulting in an uneven distribution of resources, with some schools receiving more than their fair share* (PSH5). Narrative reports from data collected via interviews indicate that the impact of political interference on schools in Kenya can be detrimental. It can lead to inefficiencies, favoritism, and a lack of accountability in the education system.

Descriptive results established that technology and the internet facilitate communication among SBoM members, school staff, parents, and other stakeholders; however, without access to email, messaging apps, or online collaboration tools, communication becomes slower and less efficient, potentially affecting decision-making and coordination. In the same vein, descriptive results revealed that insufficient classrooms result in overcrowding and inadequate space for teaching and learning activities, negatively affecting instruction quality and student concentration. Additionally, the study revealed that obtaining permits, approvals, and funding from government agencies in Kenya is slow and

bureaucratic. SBoM face delays in getting necessary clearances and support for infrastructure projects.

Unequal distribution of resources among schools, high turnover of committee members, and resistance to change within the school community are additional challenges that SBoM encounter. As noted by a SBoM member participant, "*Distribution of resources to most of our schools in arid and semi-arid areas like Wajir County cannot match other parts of the country… in my school classrooms are in a deplorable condition…*" (SBoMM5).

In the same vein, a secondary school principal participant decried unequal distribution of physical facilities in Wajir County, noting that: "fair and equitable distribution of resources would go a long way in achieving equity and access to education, *thereby lessening the pressure exerted on school managers*" (SSP4). It was further revealed from the interviews that bureaucratic hurdles in accessing government funds and addressing the diverse needs of schools further contribute to the complexities faced by SBoM. A primary school headteacher participant said that "*the delay by the government to release Free Primary Education (FPE) funds in time at the beginning of each term greatly affects the operations of the school…*" (PSH3). Thus, the researcher concludes that overcoming these challenges requires proactive measures such as continuous training, community engagement, advocacy for financial support, and effective communication channels.

5.5.4.3 Theme 3: Conceptualizing capacity building among SBoM in the school context

One of the objectives of this study is to describe what the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context entails. When asked about the concept of capacity building, most participants underlined the process of strengthening individual board members' abilities, skills and aptitudes to govern schools effectively. The board member participant stated, "*As board members, we need to embolden our skills through capacity-building initiatives to enable us to cope with the changing trends in school governance*" (SBoM10).

Also, the principal participant confirmed that *"With the ongoing radical changes in the education sector as recommended by the Presidential Working Party on Education Reform, school managers have no option but to undergo training and retooling…"* (SSP9).

This study established that capacity building in the school context entails training in research and strategy development and inter-SBoM member networking and collaboration. The headteacher participant said, *"With research skills, we can be empowered to rely on data and evidence when formulating school policies and interventions"* (PSH10). Complementing this perspective, the school board member had this to say: *"Training in research and strategy development can enable SBoM members to gather and analyse information before making crucial decisions…they also enable board members to identify learning barriers or challenges that students may face"* (SBoMM8).

Their descriptive reports from focus groups, school board chairpersons, principals and head teachers expressed a deep understanding of the curriculum standards and content that support effective implementation. However, some participants highlighted adaptation to changes in educational policies as an area that should be closely examined. The principal participant said, *"… lack of focus on the implementation processes when defining policies at the system level…it is therefore crucial to understand it, clarify its determinants and explore ways in which it can be more effective."* (SSP10).

Monitoring and evaluation through establishing mechanisms that measure and assess the school's performance is another critical component among SBoM to achieve effective school governance. When asked what the concept of capacity building entails in the school context, an SBoM chairperson participant mentioned that *"…basic skills on monitoring and evaluation will enable us as school managers to assess how educational interventions evolve and how effective school programs are implemented and to establish whether there are gaps between educational plans and achieved results in the school context."* (SBoMM13)

Legal and regulatory compliance, which encompass knowledge of education laws and regulations and risk management practices to enable SBoM members to identify, assess and mitigate risks, was found to have a direct bearing on effective school governance. A primary school head teacher participant stated, "*Understanding the legal and regulatory framework governing education is critical in ensuring that our schools adapt or remain aligned with changing educational standards and goals*" (PSH12). Concerning risk management practices, one SBoM chairperson reiterated that "*by emphasizing risk management during capacity building, we, as board members, are better equipped to protect the institution, ensure its long-term success, and fulfil our duty to students, staff, and the community at large.*" (SBoMC8).

5.5.4.4 Theme 4: Capacity building strategies to assist SBoM in governing schools in Kenya.

Qualitative data established that school board members are well-informed about relevant issues and decisions by developing an effective communication strategy. By implementing these strategies and fostering a culture of open and effective communication, school boards can ensure that their members are well-informed, engaged, and able to make informed decisions that benefit the school and its students.

According to data collected during interviews, some school board members and education leaders are encouraged to participate in peer learning networks, which can be formal or informal groups, to share experiences, challenges, and solutions about aspects of school governance. One of the principals stated, "…*interactions with other school board members can expose us to innovative solutions to common challenges*" (SSP7). This was confirmed by the school board member participant, "*participating in professional learning communities with board members from other schools can lead to the adoption of new approaches that can improve the performance of our boards and schools*" (SBoMM8).

Interviews with school board chairpersons established that exposure to different governance practices and approaches from other boards could encourage school boards to adopt more effective and efficient governance practices. In their views, participants reiterated that collaboration and networking provide opportunities for school boards to share knowledge, experiences, and best practices. One chairperson stated that, … "*sharing challenges and successes with peer boards can create a sense of camaraderie and mutual support and knowing that others face similar issues can be reassuring and help us feel more connected to a larger educational community*" (SBoMC5). Complementing this perspective, a primary school headteacher mentioned that, "*collaboration and networking efforts can demonstrate that as school board members we are actively seeking to improve educational outcomes through collaboration*" (PSH6).

Quantitative and qualitative findings conclude that when SBoM members learn from each other, they can implement successful strategies in their schools, leading to more effective school governance. By establishing advisory boards and committees comprised of local stakeholders, schools can harness the community's collective expertise, perspectives, and energy to enhance educational quality, foster community engagement, and create a more inclusive and responsive educational system. As one of the SBoM chairperson participants emphasised, "*networking opportunities, mentorship programs, and continuous professional development initiatives significantly contribute to a culture of ongoing learning amongst us as school managers (SBoMC6).*

5.5.6 Summary

Concerning effective school governance, qualitative results show that the quality of education provided by schools under School Boards of Management (SBoM) in Kenya can vary widely and may range from poor to excellent, with many schools falling somewhere in between. Several factors, including resources, teacher quality, infrastructure, community involvement, and the effectiveness of SBoM, influence the assessment of the quality of education in these schools.

5.6. TRIANGULATION OF QUANTITATIVE AND QUALITATIVE DATA

5.6.1 Introduction

The triangulation of quantitative and qualitative datasets is the main topic of this section. Structured interviews, focus groups, and field observations provide qualitative information that is combined with the quantitative data obtained from the questionnaire. As a result, the researcher followed the goals of the investigation that were stated in Chapter 1. In order to identify trends and variances in the perspectives of participants about the development and maintenance of school boards of management's capacity for efficient school governance, qualitative and quantitative data will be juxtaposed.

5.6.2 First objective: To describe SBoM in the Kenyan context and explain how they function

As previously stated in the literature review in Chapter 2, School Boards of Management (SBoM) refers to a committee established by the state Department of Education to oversee education in public schools in conjunction with other education stakeholders such as the Parents Teacher's Associations, the County Education Boards (CEBs) and the local community. Data from this study's quantitative and qualitative phases conform to this definition.

Regarding their roles, SBoM's duties include advocating for high-quality education for all students, making sure the school has suitable and sufficient physical facilities, running the institution's operations with strict adherence to the laws governing occupational safety and health, and advising the CEBs on the institution's staffing requirements. When it comes to financial and human resource management, SBoM is in responsible of accepting, gathering, and accounting for any money that comes into the institution. They are also in responsibility of finding, employing, and compensating non-teaching staff members as needed by the institution in accordance with legal requirements.

Similarly, data collected during the qualitative phase revealed that SBoM often play a significant role in developing and approving the school's annual budget

and managing allocated funds. This process typically involves projecting the school's income and expenses for the upcoming academic year. It includes considerations for salaries, instructional materials, infrastructure maintenance, utilities, and other operational costs. While qualitative research regarding SBoM's role in strategic planning is in harmony with quantitative findings, qualitative data further uncovered that SBoM are often responsible for developing plans for the school's future, which encompass a wide range of areas, including curriculum implementation and staff development. In this context, SBoM ensure that the curriculum aligns with educational standards, is relevant to students' needs and promotes academic excellence.

Therefore, qualitative and quantitative data revealed that SBoMs are statutory entities responsible for overseeing all government-funded basic education institutions on behalf of the Education cabinet secretary. Among other roles, SBoM oversees infrastructural development, human resource management (teaching and non-teaching staff), financial management, curriculum implementation, maintaining discipline among students and staff and also overseeing the development and implementation of unique educational programs, initiatives, or extracurricular activities that enhance the overall educational experience for students.

5.6.3 Second objective: To determine the existing challenges facing SBoM in governing schools in Kenya and how they deal with them

Qualitative data obtained from interviews indicated that working conditions, staffing issues and the constant transfer of teachers were identified as some of the fundamental obstacles to human resource management. Similarly, the lack of technical knowledge and experience to select the right people for the right jobs is yet another challenge facing SBoM.

In the same context, quantitative data revealed that many schools, especially in economically disadvantaged areas like Wajir County, experience inadequate financial resources. This limitation hampers the implementation of necessary

projects in their schools, including providing essential services. According to qualitative data gathered via interviews, SBoM encourages fundraising initiatives, community partnerships, and effective utilization of available funds as a remedy to help address financial constraints. In addition, SBoM also advocated for increased government funding and seeking exports.

Quantitative and qualitative data revealed that in remote areas in Kenya, SBoMs lack the necessary training and capacity to perform their roles effectively. This includes a basic understanding of financial management skills, strategic planning, policy formulation and implementation. As a remedy, SBoM in Wajir County encouraged continuous training programs, workshops, and mentorship initiatives that can enhance the skills of SBoM members. Collaboration with educational institutions or non-governmental organizations (NGOs) can facilitate access to relevant training. Furthermore, qualitative data revealed that in some instances, parents and the local community may lack active involvement in school governance. This can lead to a disconnect between the school and the local community. To ameliorate the situation, SBoM encouraged the creation of awareness about the importance of parental and community involvement, organizing community engagement forums, outreach programs, sensitization campaigns and establishing effective communication channels to help bridge this gap.

The findings in qualitative research concerning political interference in the management of schools in Kenya align with the findings of the quantitative data. However, qualitative data went on to augment the fact that schools experience political interference whereby external forces influence decision-making processes, hindering the autonomy of SBoM. As a remedy, SBoM encouraged the establishment of clear guidelines on the autonomy of SBoM while advocating for non-interference in school affairs to help mitigate political pressures. In addition, SBoM also worked collaboratively to address any external influences on their decision-making.

With regard to resource distribution, qualitative research revealed that unequal distribution of resources among schools, leading to disparities in facilities, teaching materials, and infrastructure was one of the challenges hindering SBoM from effectively governing schools in Wajir County. To address this challenge, participants encouraged collaboration with local authorities, exploration of community-driven initiatives and engagement with relevant education stakeholders to help address resource disparities.

Data collected from questionnaires and interviews showed that poor communication systems hinder adequate information flow between SBoM, school administration, and the community. To ameliorate the situation, SBoM encouraged the Implementation of reliable communication channels such as regular meetings, newsletters, and digital platforms to enhance information sharing. Consequently, training in communication strategies and community relations enhances SBoM's ability to engage and build partnerships.

According to data collected during interviews, in some rural areas in Wajir County, the school staff or the community witnessed resistance to changes proposed by SBoM. In mitigation, SBoM encouraged open dialogue, consultation, and effective communication to help overcome resistance to change. The researcher concurs with participants that SBoM may engage in community sensitization programs to explain the benefits of their proposed changes to the members of staff and the local community in a manner that can foster a sense of understanding among these critical stakeholders.

5.6.4 Third objective: To investigate what the concept of capacity building among SBoM entails in the school context

Both quantitative and qualitative data revealed that capacity building among SBoM members entails intentional and systematic efforts to enhance their skills, knowledge, aptitudes and capabilities in the execution of their managerial responsibilities. According to the quantitative data, capacity building involves training SBoM members in policy development, implementation, adherence to

legal frameworks governing education and ensuring compliance with national education standards.

Qualitative data gathered via interviews further showed that capacity building encompasses training of SBoM members in strategic planning processes at the school level. While quantitative data revealed that capacity building among SBoM involves developing a shared vision for the school, setting goals and creating plans for continuous improvement, qualitative data revealed that strategic planning helps SBoM members align their efforts with the school's mission and objectives. Consequently, quantitative and qualitative data affirmed that SBoM members must be familiar with educational policies and regulations.

Quantitative and qualitative data disclosed that financial literacy was another managerial area that respondents emphasized. In this regard, quantitative results showed that building capacity in financial literacy is crucial for SBoM members to effectively oversee budgeting, financial management, and resource allocation within the school. This included understanding financial statements, budgeting processes, and fiscal responsibility. Qualitative data added that building capacity among SBoM entails training SBoM members on monitoring and evaluation processes, including assessing the school's performance, tracking progress toward goals, and using data to inform decision-making for continuous improvement.

Quantitative and qualitative data concur that capacity building aims to empower SBoM members with the tools they need to effectively fulfil their roles and responsibilities in contributing to the success and improvement of the school. In this context, SBoM members should clearly understand their legal obligations in educational governance. Further, the findings in qualitative research concerning capacity building through training augmented the quantitative data that such trainings help SBoM members understand governance principles, regulations, and the broader educational landscape. Further, qualitative data revealed that capacity building in the modern educational setting includes training SBoM

members on utilizing technology for efficient communication, data analysis, and decision-making. This ensures that board members are well-equipped to navigate the digital aspects of school governance.

5.6.5 Fourth objective: To find out which capacity building strategies are put in place to assist SBoM in governing schools in Kenya

According to data collected during interviews SBoM in Wajir County ought to be empowered to enhance their effectiveness in school governance. Both quantitative and qualitative data revealed that capacity-building strategies instituted to assist SBoM include the development of an effective communication strategy, participation in peer learning networks where they can share experiences, challenges, and solutions on various aspects of school governance, provision of accessibility to resources and technical assistance, establishing advisory boards and committees, establishing a network of support including mentoring and coaching opportunities as well professional development programs.

Quantitative and qualitative data also divulged that key capacity-building strategies were implemented to assist SBoM in governing schools in Wajir County, and among the strategies indicated included regular training sessions and workshops for SBoM members. With respect to orientation, qualitative findings revealed that there were no comprehensive orientation programs for new SBoM members to ensure a smooth transition into their roles. According to the qualitative data, this orientation should provide an overview of the school's policies, vision, and mission and an understanding of the local educational context.

It emerged from data collected during interviews and questionnaires that another strategy utilized to build SBoM capacity included policy workshops focused on policy formulation and implementation where SBoM in Wajir County were well-versed in educational policies at the national and local levels. Qualitative data also affirmed that strategic planning retreats were another measure

encompassed by the framework, whereby these retreats helped set a shared vision, establish priorities, and create actionable plans for achieving school goals and objectives.

Quantitative and qualitative data uncovered that SBoM in Wajir County were encouraged to participate in educational conferences, seminars, and networking events. Exposure to broader educational perspectives and practices can enrich their understanding and contribute to effective governance. According to data gathered via interviews, technology integration programs were not adequately utilized to familiarize SBoM members with digital tools for communication, data analysis, and decision-making despite technological proficiency ensuring that SBoM stays current with modern governance practices. Qualitative data further disclosed that SBoM members were encouraged to engage in continuous professional development opportunities, including online courses and seminars, to stay informed about emerging trends and issues in educational governance.

5.6.6 Summary

Data collected via interviews and questionnaires revealed that in the Kenyan context, SBoMs are vital entities responsible for the governance and management of public primary and secondary schools. Comprising elected and appointed representatives, including parents, teachers, and community members, SBoM functions as a collaborative decision-making body. SBoMs in Kenya operate within the framework provided by the Ministry of Education, adhering to national policies while addressing the unique needs of their respective schools.

Consequently, the functions of SBoM are guided by principles of transparency, accountability, and inclusivity to enhance the quality of education and overall school improvement. SBoM members were cited as crucial in school administration, overseeing financial matters, approving budgets, and ensuring resource allocation aligned with educational priorities. SBoM was also cited to be involved in policy formulation and implementation, addressing issues related to

curriculum, infrastructure, and the general welfare of students and staff. In this regard, SBoM was cited as actively hiring and evaluating teachers, fostering community engagement and contributing to a conducive learning environment.

Through its diverse membership, SBoM serves as a representative body, fostering collaboration between stakeholders and contributing to the overall improvement and success of the school. Concerning the existing challenges facing SBoM in Wajir County, limited financial resources were cited as a factor that often constrains their ability to implement necessary projects and address infrastructural needs. Inadequate training and capacity-building opportunities were also cited as significant challenges hindering SBoM members from effectively executing their roles and responsibilities, including financial management, human resource management curriculum implementation, and policy formulation. Political interference in school affairs, thereby posing challenges to the autonomy of SBoM and impacting decision-making processes, was adversely cited as a potential challenge facing SBoM, thereby hindering them from fulfilling their governance roles effectively.

With regard to what the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context entails, the provision of training programs, workshops, and resources to empower SBoM members with the necessary tools for financial management, policy development, strategic planning, and community engagement were cited as the key areas. It was further cited that capacity building aims to strengthen the board's ability to make informed decisions, navigate challenges, and contribute to the school's overall improvement. It emphasizes continuous learning, skill development, and the creation of a well-informed and proficient governance body that can address an educational enterprise's diverse and evolving needs.

Capacity-building strategies for SBoM involved a multifaceted approach to enhance board members' knowledge, skills, and effectiveness. This includes the development of an effective communication strategy, participation in peer learning networks, and leadership development programs to foster teamwork,

communication, and decision-making skills. Financial literacy training was cited as a significant capacity-building strategy to ensure proficiency in budgeting and resource allocation and utilizing external expertise, such as educational consultants, to support specialized training. In addition, research participants also cited regular review and feedback mechanisms to assess the effectiveness of capacity-building initiatives and tailor future programs to the specific needs of the SBoM.

5.7 SUMMARY

In this chapter, quantitative and qualitative data were analyed and interpreted to identify how capacity among SBoM can be built and maintained for effective governance in Kenyan schools. In order to do this, the four study sub-questions that were previously discussed underwent two phases of quantitative and qualitative analysis. The findings from the two phases were then combined to create an interpretation. With the use of statistical software (SPSS), the quantitative data obtained from the surveys was analysed. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyse data during the study's initial quantitative phase. The qualitative information obtained from focus groups and interviews was transcribed, described, and used to significantly improve the quantitative information using explanatory sequential mixed methods designs. In general, the findings from the two phases of the analysis were integrated and interpreted to align with the research questions of the study.

A thorough explanation of the study's noteworthy findings, together with pertinent suggestions and conclusions, will be provided in chapter six. The next chapter will also include the study's contributions to practice, policy, and understanding.

CHAPTER SIX

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, RECOMMENDATIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

6.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter explained the research process for the quantitative phase (Phase 1) and qualitative phase (Phase 2), and the procedure followed was described. After that, the data analysis was presented in four subsections outlining the main themes of the data collected as presented in the questionnaire. The interpretation of the study followed the analysis of the data. The study's empirical findings, quantitative (Phase 1) and qualitative (Phase 2), were compared to the literature review conducted in Chapter Two and related to the Theoretical Framework presented in Chapter Three.

This chapter summarises the significant findings from the study and the conclusions, recommendations, and directions for further research. The chapter presents the implications of the findings for policy formulation concerning the concept of building capacity among school boards of management (SBoM) for effective governance in Kenyan schools. It also outlines the significant lessons from the study for bolstering the capacity of SBoM to enhance their effectiveness.

6.2 SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

An overview of the study's six chapters is provided in this section. The idea of enhancing SBoM's capacity for efficient governance in Kenyan schools was investigated in this study. It investigated the potential influence of SBoM capacity-building programmes on efficient school administration in Kenya. In order to assist explain outlier results from the quantitative phase, an explanatory sequential mixed methods design was used, with quantitative data (Phase 1) analysed first and qualitative data (Phase 2) analysed after. The researcher reviewed a number of publications' literature in order to achieve this goal.

The following aims and objectives provided the guidelines for formulating and developing the research. The aims and objectives of the study were to:

a) Describe SBoM in the Kenyan context and explain how they function;

b) Determine the existing challenges facing SBoM in governing schools in Kenya and how they deal with them;

c) Investigate what the concept of capacity building among SBoM entails in the school context;

d) Find out which capacity-building strategies are put in place to assist SBoM in governing schools in Kenya

e) Present a capacity-building model from this study to build and sustain effective school governance in Kenya.

The researcher determined and chose a suitable study approach using these goals and objectives as well as the results of the literature review. The data was gathered through closed- and open-ended questions using the explanatory sequential mixed methods methodology in order to gain an ontological viewpoint of the current circumstances at the chosen schools in Wajir County, Kenya. For the quantitative phase (Phase 1), the researcher collected data by adapting the SBoM Capacity Building Questionnaire (SBoMCB-Q). For the qualitative phase (Phase 2), the researcher conducted one-on-one semi-structured interviews with participants to elaborate on the quantitative data by sharing their views and thoughts regarding building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

The study population was all SBoM members in public primary and public secondary schools in Wajir County, Kenya. The sample size for respondents was determined using the Yamane formula (cf.par.4.5.2.1), and 366 questionnaires were distributed. There was a return response of 316 respondents. The researcher selected SBoM chairpersons, secondary school principals and primary school head teachers for the semi-structured interviews because they were deemed knowledgeable and experienced in matters dealing with school governance. Hence, the sample was purposive and convenient.

This research study consists of six chapters.

Chapter 1 - Focuses on the introduction of the research study and includes background and rationale for the study (cf. par. 1.2), statement of the problem and research questions (cf. par.1.3), aims and objectives of the study (cf. par. 1.4) as well as the preliminary literature review (cf. par. 1.5). Briefly discussed within Chapter 1 was the research methodology and design (cf. par. 1.6) which included the research design (cf. par. 1.6.1), research approach (cf. par.1.6.2) and the research paradigm (cf. par. 1.6.3). The population and sampling (cf. par.1.6.4), instrumentation and data collection strategy (cf. par.1.6.5), data analysis and interpretation (cf. par. 1.6.6) and data presentation (cf. par.1.6.7) were also discussed. The chapter discussed how reliability and validity in the quantitative phase would be achieved (cf. par. 1.7.1) and how credibility and trustworthiness in the qualitative phase would be achieved (cf. par.1.7.2). The chapter also incorporated a brief discussion of ethical considerations in research (cf. par. 1.8), the contribution of the study towards theory and practice (cf. par.1.9), a chapter layout of the thesis (cf. par.1.10) as well as limitations and delimitations of the study (cf. par. 1.11). Finally, the definition of the key concepts (cf. par. 1.12) and the summary (cf.par.1.13) are concluded in chapter 1 of the thesis.

Chapter 2 - Presented a review of relevant literature on the main issues related to the concept of capacity building among SBoM for effective school governance. The chapter examined the concept of capacity building among school governing structures from the global perspectives (cf.par.2.2) with a focus on a few selected and diverse countries including United States and Canada (cf.par.2.2.2), Hong Kong (cf.par.2.2.3), Indonesia (cf.par.2.2.4), Singapore (cf.par.2.2.5), Pakistan (cf.par.2.2.6), Northern Ireland (cf.par.2.2.7) and South Africa (cf.par.2.2.8). The chapter continued by examining some capacity building strategies in education globally (cf.par.2.3),

Moreover, this encompassed training workshops (cf.par.2.3.2), communities of practice (cf.par.2.3.3), management consultancy (cf.par.2.3.4) and mentoring

programs (cf.par.2.3.5). The introduction to the literature study concluded with building capacity among school boards of management for effective school governance with specific attention on the Kenyan context (cf.par.2.4). Next, the chapter explored school boards of management in Kenya (cf.par.2.4.2), challenges facing school boards of management in Kenya (cf.par.2.4.3), notably, human resource management challenges (cf.par.2.4.3.1), financial management challenges (cf.par.2.4.3.2), challenges in the implementation of the procurement policy (cf.par.2.4.3.3), strategic planning challenges (cf.par.2.4.3.4) and curriculum implementation challenges (cf.par.2.4.3.5).

Chapter 3 - Focused on the theoretical framework for the study. The human capital theory (cf.par.3.2), which forms the theoretical foundation for this study, was presented. Conceptualisations of the human capital theory (cf.par.3.2.2), which encompassed Becker's view on human capital theory (cf.par.3.2.2.1), Schultz's standpoint on human capital theory (cf.par.3.2.2.2), Nelson-Phelps' perspective on human capital theory (cf.par.3.2.2.3) and Mincer's viewpoint on human capital theory were presented. The chapter went on to explore different types of human capital (cf.par.3.2.3), encompassing knowledge capital (cf.par.3.2.31), social capital (cf.par.3.2.3.2) and emotional capital (cf.par.3.2.3.3). The pillars of human capital (cf.par.3.2.3) incorporating competency management (cf.par.3.2.3.1), performance management (cf.par.3.2.3.2), change management (cf.par.3.2.3.3) and knowledge management (cf.par.3.2.3.4) were examined. Furthermore, criticisms levelled against human capital theory (cf.par.3.2.4) and the relevance of human capital theory for this study (cf.par.3.2.5) were explored. A contextualized summary of Niamh Brennan's stakeholder model (cf.par.3.3) featuring parental involvement in school governance (cf.par.3.3.2), involvement of political class (cf.par.3.3.3), community participation in school governance (cf.par.3.3.4) and school board members as key stakeholders as well as the relevance of the stakeholder model of governance with reference to effective governance in this study was presented. The chapter proceeded to situate the "skills deficit" among SBoM in Kenya by utilizing the skills-based model of governance (cf.par.3.4) with

emphasis on general cognitive ability (cf.par.3.4.2), crystallized cognitive ability (cf.par.3.4.2), motivation (cf.par.3.4.3) and personality (cf.par.3.4.4). In order to augment the discussion on the skills-based model of school governance, the chapter concluded with the presentation of the three skills approach (cf.par.3.5) with a specific focus on technical skills (cf.par.3.5.2), human skills (cf.par.3.5.3), conceptual skills (cf.par.3.5.4) as well as the relevance of the skills-based model of governance concerning effective school governance in this study.

Chapter 4 - Focused on the research design and methodology. The researcher presented a detailed description of the research design for the study (cf.par.4.2). The chapter continued with an explication of the philosophical underpinning of the study (cf.par.4.3) which encompassed the critical dimensions of research paradigms (cf.par.4.3.1), types of research paradigms (cf.par.4.3.2) including the preferred paradigm for this study (cf.par.4.3.2.6). The chapter presented the research approach (cf.par.4.4) with a detailed explication of MMR approach encompassing various MMR designs including Convergent Mixed Methods design (cf.par.4.4.3), Exploratory Sequential Mixed Methods design (cf.par.4.4.4), Embedded Mixed Methods design (cf.par.4.4.5) and the Explanatory Sequential Mixed Methods design (cf.par.4.4.6). In addition, reasons for selecting Explanatory Sequential design (cf.par.4.4.7), challenges encountered when employing an explanatory sequential design for this study (cf.par.4.4.8) and strategies of overcoming the challenges incumbent when employing the explanatory sequential design for this study (cf.par.4.4.9) were specified. The research methodology as applied to this study (cf.par.4.5) was examined, and this incorporated the empirical research for the quantitative phase (cf.par.4.5.2), which included population and sampling (cf.par.4.5.2.1) and examination of variables (cf.par.4.5.2.2), measuring instruments (cf.par.4.5.2.3), pilot study (cf.par.4.5.2.4), data collection procedures (cf.par.4.5.2.5) as well as statistical analysis and presentation of quantitative data (cf.par.4.5.2.6). Similarly, the empirical research for the qualitative phase (cf.par.4.5.3) encompassing the research site (cf.par.4.5.3.1), participant selection (cf.par.4.5.3.2), data collection strategy (cf.par.4.5.3.3), data analysis and presentation (cf.par.4.5.3.4) was

presented. The chapter discussion covered trustworthiness, validity and reliability of research (cf.par.4.6). Finally, details of the ethical considerations related to the study (cf.par.4.7) as mandated by the University of South Africa (UNISA) where the researcher is enrolled and the provisions of the National Commission for Science and Technology (NACOSTI) (Kenya) which was the research site were considered. This included permission to conduct research (cf.par.4.7.1), voluntary informed consent (cf.par.4.7.2), confidentiality and anonymity (cf.par.4.7.3) reporting and sharing of research data (cf.par.4.7.4). Supporting annexures were included in the chapter.

Chapter 5 - Reported on analyzing and presenting empirical data from the quantitative and qualitative phases. The chapter presented the pilot study (cf.par.5.2) with reliability levels of the investigation tools being subjected to Cronbach's alpha test (cf.par.5.2.1), Levene's Test of Equality of variances (cf.par.5.2.2), Normality test (cf.par.5.2.3), sampling adequacy and the strength of the relationship among variables (cf.par.5.2.4), multicollinearity test (cf.par.5.2.5) and their corresponding results were presented. In addition, the chapter presented the biographical information of participants (cf.par.5.3) encompassing the distribution of participants by gender (cf.par.5.3.1), distribution of respondents by age (cf.par.5.3.2), education level of participants (cf.par.5.3.3), representation capacity of participants within SBoM (5.3.4) and duration of service of participants as SBoM members (cf.par.5.3.5). Furthermore, presentation and analysis of quantitative data (cf.par.5.4) by examining respondents' level of agreement with the statements that relate to SBoM in the Kenyan context and how they function (Research objective 1) (cf.par.5.4.2) was presented. In addition, the chapter presented respondents' level of agreement with the statements regarding the existing challenges facing SBoM in governing schools in Kenya and how they deal with them (Research objective 2) (cf.par.5.4.3). Consequently, agreement with statements that relate to what capacity building among SBoM in the school context entails (Research objective 3) (cf.par.5.4.4) were examined. Lastly, the chapter presented measuring respondents' level of agreement with the statements regarding capacity-building

strategies that are put in place to assist SBoM in governing schools in Kenya (Research objective 4) (cf.par.5.4.5). Finally, the analytical findings of the quantitative phase (Phase 1) were merged with the qualitative phase (Phase 2) thereby establishing the reliability of the study.

Chapter 6 - This is the concluding chapter that discloses the summary, findings, recommendations and conclusions of all the previous chapters with regard to the concept of building capacity among school boards of management for effective governance in Kenyan schools. The researcher's contribution to education theory and practice is the formulation of these recommendations. Lastly, the chapter compared and connected the theoretical framework, the literature review, and the research findings.

6.3 FINDINGS FROM THE STUDY

The study was designed around the following research question stated in Chapter One, Section 1.3: **How can capacity among School Boards of Management (SBoM) be built and maintained to enhance school governance in Kenyan schools?** Five sub-questions were derived from this research question. This section summarises the key findings that emerged from each sub-question. Each sub-question had a corresponding sub-aim (cf.par.1.3 and 1.4). This section compelled the researcher to look back at the literature reviewed in Chapter 2 and the theoretical framework in Chapter 3, make comparisons with the data analyzed in Chapter 5, and subsequently draw conclusions. The findings of each sub-question and sub-aims are therefore discussed as presented below.

6.3.1. Findings with regard to sub-question one: What are SBoM in the Kenyan context, and how do they function? (cf. par.1.3)

Based on the first sub-question, the purpose of the first sub-aim of the study was to describe SBoM in the Kenyan context and explain how they function. Different researchers define SBoM using different terminology, which is not standardized. The literature study in Chapter Two guided this part of the study.

The following key findings emerged (cf.par.2.4):

a) SBoM is a legal entity established by the state education department to oversee education programs in public schools in conjunction with other education stakeholders such as Parents Teachers Associations, the County Education Boards and the local community (cf.par.2.4).

b) With regard to functions, SBoM operates as a decision-making body overseeing various aspects of school governance. Its functions include approving budgets, ensuring financial accountability and participating in formulating and implementing school policies (cf.par.2.4).

c) SBoM were actively hiring and evaluating teachers, addressing the welfare of students and staff and fostering community involvement (cf.par.2.4).

d) The board operated within the framework set by the Ministry of Education, adhering to national policies while also considering the unique needs of their respective schools (cf.par.2.4).

e) Its collaborative and representative nature aims to enhance transparency, accountability and community participation in the governance of schools (cf.par.2.4).

6.3.2 Findings for sub-question two and sub-aim two:

Sub-question two – What are the existing challenges facing SBoM in governing schools in Kenya? (cf. par.1.3)

Based on sub-question two, sub-aim two aimed to determine the existing challenges facing SBoM in governing schools in Kenya and how they deal with them.

The following significant findings emerged:

a) SBoM in Kenya face several challenges in governing schools, negatively impacting their ability to fulfil their roles effectively. Limited financial resources often constrain their capacity to implement essential projects

and address infrastructure needs, hindering the overall development of schools (cf.par.5.6.3).

b) Inadequate training and capacity-building opportunities often result in SBoM members lacking the necessary skills to make informed decisions on financial matters, policy development and strategic planning (cf.par.5.6.3).

c) Political interference in school affairs can compromise the autonomy of SBoM, influencing decision-making processes (cf.par.5.6.3).

d) Unequal distribution of resources among schools exacerbates disparities in facilities, teaching materials and infrastructure (cf.par.5.6.3).

e) Bureaucratic challenges, such as difficulties accessing government funds, add complexity to SBoM's governance responsibilities (cf.par.5.6.3).

6.3.3 Findings for sub-question three and sub-aim three:

Sub-question three – What does the concept of capacity building among SBoM entail in the school context? (cf. par.1.3)

Based on the third sub-question, the third sub-aim aimed to investigate the concept of capacity building among SBoM in the school context.

The key findings are as follows:

a) The concept of capacity building among SBoM is an ongoing process that recognizes the dynamic nature of education and the need for continuous improvement (cf.par.5.6.4).

b) The key areas focused on financial literacy, strategic planning, policy development and compliance, networking opportunities and conflict resolution (cf.par.5.6.4).

c) By enhancing the skills and knowledge of SBoM members, schools can ensure effective governance that positively impacts the overall education experience for students and the school community (cf.par.5.6.4).

d) Capacity-building strategies included online resources and e-learning, utilization of external experts such as education consultants with vast experience in governance, specialized training sessions, the establishment of mentorship programs, decision-making skills, policy training and inclusive governance workshops (cf.par.5.6.4).

6.3.4 Findings with regard to sub-question four and sub-aim four:

Sub-question four – Which capacity-building strategies are implemented to assist SBoM in governing schools in Kenya? (cf. par.1.3)

Based on the fourth sub-question, the fourth sub-aim aimed to determine which capacity-building strategies are implemented to assist SBoM in governing schools in Kenya.

The key findings are as follows:

a) Capacity-building initiatives aim to empower SBoM members with the necessary skills, knowledge, and tools to oversee educational institutions effectively. Training programs foster a deep understanding of educational policies, financial management and leadership principles (cf.par.5.6.5).

b) Workshops and seminars facilitate the development of communication and decision-making skills, ensuring that SBoM members can navigate the complex landscape of school governance with competence (cf.par.5.6.5).

c) Collaborative platforms and mentorship programs are established to encourage knowledge-sharing among SBoM members, fostering a sense of community and a collective commitment to educational excellence (cf.5.6.5).

d) Continuous evaluation and feedback mechanisms are integrated into these capacity-building strategies, allowing for adaptive improvements and ensuring the sustained growth and efficacy of SBoM in fulfilling their crucial role in the governance of schools (cf.par.5.6.5).

6.4 RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

Based on the literature review, empirical data from the field survey together with the above mentioned study findings, four major recommendations followed by important suggestions are pointed out. Such recommendations incorporate those that are related to the understanding and knowledge of the field of education, implications for practice and improving the existing policy documents that enhance the capacity of SBoM for effective governance of schools in Kenya. These major recommendations are specifically associated with education policy-makers, community stakeholders, practitioners and school governing structures' preparation programmes.

First, the study underscores the need for the development of training programs and continuous capacity-building workshops for SBoM members (cf.par.2.3.2), regular evaluations of governance effectiveness and emphasis on effective communication strategies (cf.par.5.4.5.1). Continuous professional development opportunities for SBoM members, clear guidelines for infrastructural development oversight, integration of conflict resolution training, and recognition of unique educational programs are also highlighted as crucial components of the proposed policy framework (cf.par.5.4.5.1).

In order to ameliorate the existing challenges incumbent upon SBoM in governing schools in Kenya, the study emphasizes the significance of strategic planning (cf.par.2.4.3.4), highlighting that SBoM members ought to be trained in developing a shared vision, goal-setting, and continuous improvement to ensure alignment with the school's mission, vision, strategic intentions and sustained progress (cf.par.2.3.2). Additionally, the study underscores the importance of understanding educational policies and regulations, emphasizing that capacity building should cover policy formulation, implementation, and compliance with educational standards. Effective communication and community relations are identified as vital, emphasizing the necessity for SBoM to engage and build partnerships with stakeholders (cf.par.2.4.1). Ultimately, financial literacy among SBoM is recognized as crucial for overseeing budgeting and resource allocation,

while training in monitoring and evaluation is emphasized for data-driven decision-making and continuous improvement in school performance (cf.5.4.3.1).

Emphasis is also placed upon technological proficiency training to empower SBoM members to align efforts with the school's mission and navigate digital educational governance (cf.par.2.3.1). Additionally, the study underscores the importance of ethical decision-making, confidentiality, and stakeholder collaboration, contributing to a governance framework rooted in ethics and community engagement (cf.par.5.4.4.1).

The study further recommends participation in peer learning networks, and provision of resources to empower SBoM members (cf.par.5.4.5.1). Similarly, SBoM members should also be encouraged to participate in educational conferences, technology integration programs, and conflict resolution training, further enhancing their understanding and skills and contributing to more effective school governance (cf.par.5.4.5.1).

In this regard, the Ministry of Education can utilize the study's findings and initiate professional development programs for SBoM members. This may include, but not limited to the development of training manuals for use by SBoM. Such manuals should cover topics on strategic planning, policy formulation, conflict resolution, monitoring and evaluation, ethical decision-making, effective communication strategies, financial and human resource management. Similary, the County Education Board (CEB) in liason with the County government may come up with a framework where SBoM members can participate in peer learning networks within the county and in the wider national landscape. In a nutshell, the researcher holds that the implementation of these recommendations will create a well-equipped cadre of SBoM members capable of steering schools towards success and improvement in the evolving educational landscape.

6.5 CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE STUDY

The study's contributions to knowledge, policy, and practice are listed below, categorised by respective areas of contribution. The researcher has made an effort to match the sub-questions to the contribution within each sub-section, with the exception of the policy section, where there is some overlap, as shown in Figure 6.1 below.
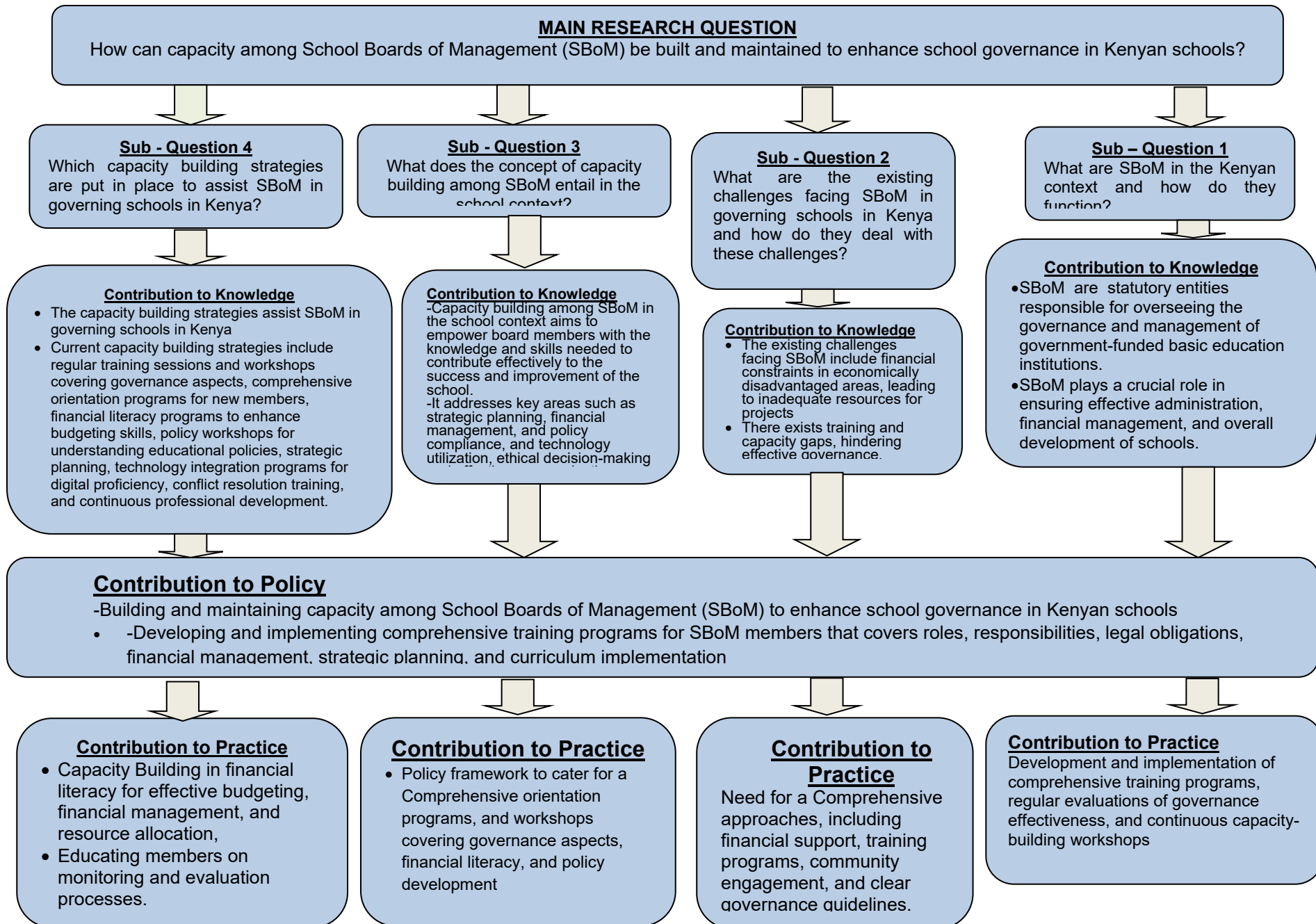
MAIN RESEARCH QUESTION

How can capacity among School Boards of Management (SBoM) be built and maintained to enhance school governance in Kenyan schools?

Sub - Question 4
Which capacity building strategies are put in place to assist SBoM in governing schools in Kenya?

Sub - Question 3
What does the concept of capacity building among SBoM entail in the school context?

Sub - Question 2
What are the existing challenges facing SBoM in governing schools in Kenya and how do they deal with these challenges?

Sub – Question 1
What are SBoM in the Kenyan context and how do they function?

Contribution to Knowledge
- The capacity building strategies assist SBoM in governing schools in Kenya
- Current capacity building strategies include regular training sessions and workshops covering governance aspects, comprehensive orientation programs for new members, financial literacy programs to enhance budgeting skills, policy workshops for understanding educational policies, strategic planning, technology integration programs for digital proficiency, conflict resolution training, and continuous professional development.

Contribution to Knowledge
-Capacity building among SBoM in the school context aims to empower board members with the knowledge and skills needed to contribute effectively to the success and improvement of the school.
-It addresses key areas such as strategic planning, financial management, and policy compliance, and technology utilization, ethical decision-making

Contribution to Knowledge
- The existing challenges facing SBoM include financial constraints in economically disadvantaged areas, leading to inadequate resources for projects
- There exists training and capacity gaps, hindering effective governance.

Contribution to Knowledge
- SBoM are statutory entities responsible for overseeing the governance and management of government-funded basic education institutions.
- SBoM plays a crucial role in ensuring effective administration, financial management, and overall development of schools.

Contribution to Policy

-Building and maintaining capacity among School Boards of Management (SBoM) to enhance school governance in Kenyan schools
- -Developing and implementing comprehensive training programs for SBoM members that covers roles, responsibilities, legal obligations, financial management, strategic planning, and curriculum implementation

Contribution to Practice
- Capacity Building in financial literacy for effective budgeting, financial management, and resource allocation,
- Educating members on monitoring and evaluation processes.

Contribution to Practice
- Policy framework to cater for a Comprehensive orientation programs, and workshops covering governance aspects, financial literacy, and policy development

Contribution to Practice
Need for a Comprehensive approaches, including financial support, training programs, community engagement, and clear governance guidelines.

Contribution to Practice
Development and implementation of comprehensive training programs, regular evaluations of governance effectiveness, and continuous capacity-building workshops

Figure 6. 6: Summarized illustration of the study's contributions

6.5.1 Contributions to knowledge

As outlined in the following subsections, the study advances knowledge in a number of ways that will assist school boards of administration in Wajir County public schools. The literature showed that no other researchers in Wajir County, Kenya, or anywhere else had studied the idea of developing SBoM capacity for successful governance. Also, very little has been researched about the concept of building capacity among SBoM in private primary and secondary schools in Kenya (cf.par.2.4.1). Thus, the findings of this study would be beneficial to the primary and secondary schools' governance structures – SBoM chairpersons, members, secondary school principals and primary school head teachers. Through this study, capacity building among SBoM may be enriched by the information presented to the Ministry of Education. Furthermore, this study can provide a small contribution to the conversation given that there doesn't seem to be much material available in Kenya on the subject (cf.par.2.4.1).

With regard to SBoM in the Kenyan context and their functions, the data emphasized that they play a crucial role in overseeing various aspects of educational institutions, including infrastructural development, human resource management, financial management, curriculum implementation, and special programs (cf.par.5.4.2.1). This contributes to the understanding that SBoM has a multifaceted responsibility, providing a holistic oversight of the entire educational environment beyond just administrative or financial aspects. Involvement of SBoM in financial management (cf.par.5.4.2.1), contributes to the understanding that SBoM's role extends to fiscal responsibilities as they actively contribute to the financial planning and management of educational institutions.

Similarly, the data underscores the responsibility of SBoM in developing plans for the future of the school, including curriculum implementation to ensure alignment with educational standards and the promotion of academic excellence (cf.par.5.4.2.1). This contributes to recognizing the strategic role of SBoM in shaping the educational content and ensuring that it meets quality standards, is relevant to student's needs, and fosters academic excellence.

Also, the data explicitly states that SBoM are statutory entities charged with overseeing all government-funded primary education institutions on behalf of the Education cabinet secretary (cf.par.5.4.2.1). This contribution provides a clear understanding of the legal and regulatory framework within which SBoM operate, emphasizing their role as formal entities mandated by the government for educational oversight. As far as their roles are concerned, data indicates that SBoM are responsible for overseeing the development and implementation of unique educational programs, initiatives, or extracurricular activities that enhance the overall educational experience for students (cf.par.5.4.2.1). This contributes to the recognition that SBoM actively contribute to the enrichment of students' educational experiences beyond traditional academic curriculum, fostering a well-rounded education. In the the same context, the idea that SBoM oversees maintenance of discipline among students and staff (cf.par.5.4.2.1), contributes to the understanding of the role of SBoM in ensuring a conducive learning environment by maintaining discipline, creating a positive school culture and fostering a safe and orderly atmosphere.

Roles and responsibilities of SBoM notwithstanding, inadequate financial resources for many schools, especially in economically disadvantaged areas (cf.par.5.4.3.1) underscores the importance of understanding and addressing financial constraints for effective school governance. The contribution lies in recognizing the need for alternative funding sources, community partnerships, and efficient financial management strategies to overcome financial challenges in school governance. Lack of training and capacity among SBoM members, particularly in remote areas (cf.par.5.4.3.1), further contributes to the understanding that investing in the capacity development of SBoM members including financial management, strategic planning, and policy development, is essential for effective governance.

The data highlights the challenge of insufficient involvement from parents and the community in school governance, leading to a disconnect between the committee and the broader school community (cf.par.5.4.3.1). This underscores the importance of creating awareness about the significance of parental and

community involvement, organizing engagement forums, and establishing effective communication channels to foster collaboration and bridge the gap. In addition, the challenge of political interference, impacting the autonomy of SBoM (cf.par.5.4.3.1), contributes to the understanding that a clear delineation of the autonomy of SBoM, along with advocacy efforts, is crucial to maintaining effective school governance without undue external pressures. Further, unequal distribution of resources among schools, leading to disparities in facilities, teaching materials, and infrastructure (cf.par.5.4.3.1), contributes to the recognition that collaboration with local authorities, engagement with relevant education bodies, and community-driven initiatives are essential to address resource disparities and promote equitable access to educational resources.

Poor communication systems are identified as a hindrance to adequate information flow between SBoM committees, school administration, and the community (cf.par.5.4.3.1). This contributes to the understanding that implementing reliable communication channels, such as regular meetings, newsletters, and digital platforms, is crucial for enhancing information sharing and promoting transparency in school governance. Resistance to changes proposed by SBoM committees from school staff or the community in some rural areas (cf.par.5.4.3.1), contributes to the recognition that open dialogue, consultation, effective communication, and community sensitization programs are necessary to overcome resistance to change and foster a collaborative approach to school governance.

The data highlights the importance of capacity building in training SBoM members in strategic planning processes, including developing a shared vision, setting goals, and creating plans for continuous improvement (cf.par.5.4.4.1). This contributes to the understanding that strategic planning is a crucial aspect of effective school governance, ensuring alignment with the school's mission and objectives for sustained improvement.

The fact that capacity building involves training SBoM members in understanding educational policies and regulations (cf.5.4.4.1), contributes to recognizing the

need for SBoM members to be well-versed in the legal and policy landscape of education, enabling them to make informed decisions and ensure adherence to standards. Thus, training in communication strategies and community relations, enhancing SBoM members' ability to engage and build partnerships with various stakeholders (cf.par.5.4.4.1), contributes to the understanding that effective communication and community engagement are essential components of successful educational governance, fostering collaboration among stakeholders.

Building capacity in financial literacy is identified as crucial for SBoM members to effectively oversee budgeting, financial management, and resource allocation within the school (cf.par.5.4.4.1). This contributes to the acknowledgement that financial literacy is essential for responsible and effective governance, enabling SBoM members to make informed financial decisions and allocate resources efficiently. As far as the concept of capacity building in the school context is concerned, educating SBoM members on monitoring and evaluation processes, (cf.par.5.4.4.1), training them on how to utilize technology for efficient communication, data analysis, and decision-making in the modern educational landscape (cf.par.5.4.4.1), contributes to the acknowledgement of the evolving nature of educational governance, emphasizing the importance of technology literacy for effective communication and decision-making in contemporary educational settings.

Capacity building includes sessions on ethical decision-making, confidentiality, and adherence to legal frameworks governing education. This contributes to recognizing the importance of ethical conduct and legal compliance in educational governance, ensuring that SBoM members operate within established ethical and legal boundaries. The emphasis on developing an effective communication strategy contributes to recognizing the importance of keeping SBoM members informed about relevant issues and decisions (cf.par.5.4.5.1), thus contributing to the understanding that clear and efficient communication is a fundamental element in the success of educational governance, fostering transparency and informed decision-making.

Participation in peer learning networks and acknowledging the value of shared experiences, challenges, and solutions among governance peers (cf.par.5.4.5.1), contributes to the understanding that collaborative networks provide opportunities for mutual learning and can enhance the collective effectiveness of SBoM members. Whereas providing accessibility to resources and technical assistance to SBoM (cf.par.5.4.5.1) highlights the importance of resource availability and technical assistance in overcoming challenges and implementing effective governance practices, establishment of advisory boards and committees (cf.par.5.4.5.1) suggests that collaborative decision-making involving various stakeholders can contribute to well-informed and strategic governance.

The establishment of a network of support, including mentoring, coaching, and professional development (cf.par.5.4.5.1), highlights the significance of mentorship, coaching, and continuous professional development in enhancing the knowledge and skills of SBoM members for effective governance. Similarly, the focus on policy workshops and strategic planning retreats contributes to acknowledging the importance of policy understanding and collaborative strategic planning (cf.par.5.4.5.1).

With regard to encouraging SBoM members to participate in educational conferences, seminars, and networking events (cf.par.5.4.5.1), suggests that exposure to diverse educational practices and ideas can enrich the understanding of SBoM members thus contributing to effective governance of schools. This also applies to the provision of conflict resolution training (cf.par.5.4.5.1), emphasizing the significance of equipping SBoM members with skills for constructive conflict resolution, thereby ensuring a harmonious working relationship within the governance structure. Ultimately, encouraging continuous professional development (cf.par.5.4.5.1), suggests that ongoing learning opportunities are vital for SBoM members to adapt to evolving educational challenges and contribute effectively to governance.

6.5.2 Contributions to Policy

This study can contribute to policy when the Ministry of Education realizes that the ability of school governing structures ought to be bolstered in order to govern schools effectively (cf.par.5.4.3.1). It is possible to alter current policies to make them more sensitive and accommodating to the idea of developing capacity within Kenya's school governance systems. Furthermore, the Ministry of Education and other stakeholders must recognize the critical role played by SBoM in managing schools in Kenya (cf.par.2.4.2), hence the need to support them through capacity-building initiatives.The advice made in this chapter should directly lead to new policies. The management of public elementary and secondary schools in Kenya's Wajir County may benefit from the study in this way as well. Since the policies include every aspect of the study, this section is not organised in accordance with certain sub-questions. There should be national, regional, county, and school policies on embedding the capacity of SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools. Figure 6.2 is a visual framework for SBoM capacity-building policy implementation for effective governance of schools.
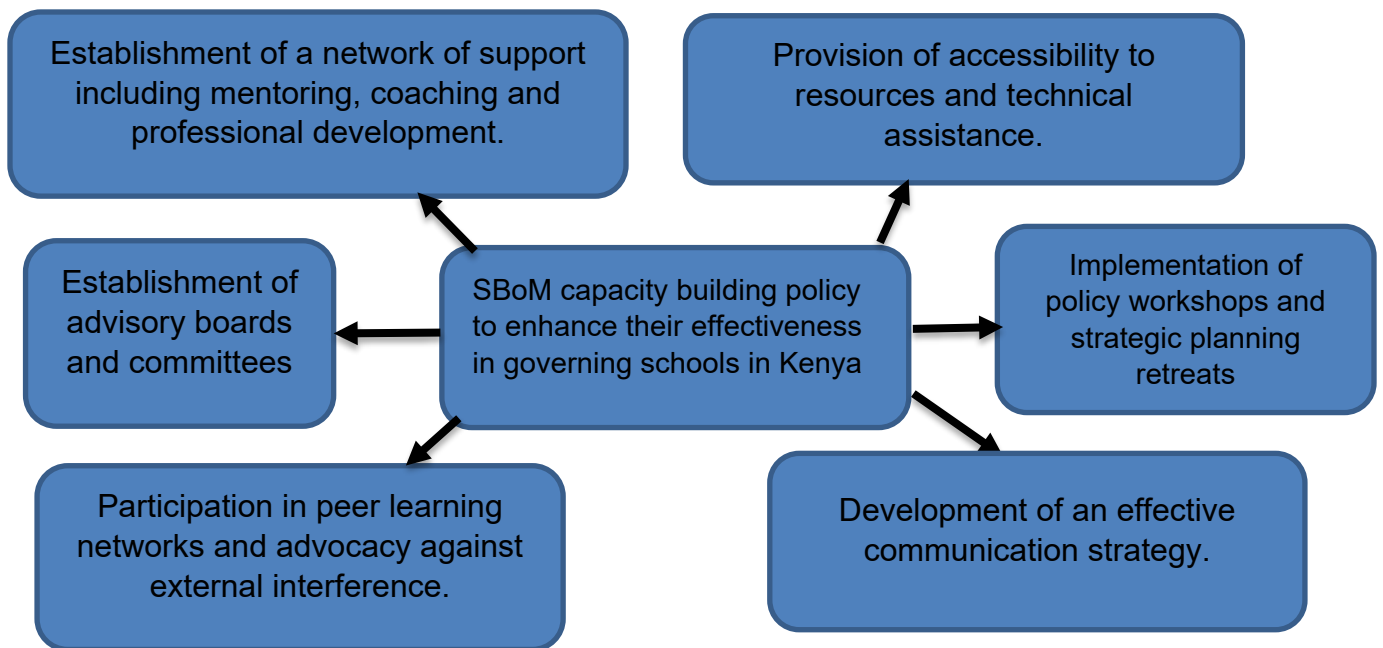
Figure 6. 2: Capacity-building policy implementation for effective governance of schools (Survey data, 2023)

6.5.3 Contributions to Practice

This study makes multiple practical contributions that will help Wajir County's school governing bodies as well as Kenya's education system overall. Policy for SBoM capacity building can be created based on the study's conclusions and suggestions. The creation of a national school boards of management capacity building policy is the last phase in the pilot action plan for its execution, which consists of the subsequent components. This can culminate in a capacity-building handbook distributed to SBoM chairpersons, board members, secondary school principals, primary school head teachers, and other educational stakeholders. There is no national standard approach or guidelines in Wajir County for building the capacity of school governing structures to enhance their effectiveness in school governance. The existing national policy on capacity building of school managers is inadequate as there is no specific mention of building capacity of school boards of management and effective governance in Kenyan schools (cf.par.2.4.1). Thus, there is the need for a coordinated and coherent capacity building policy for school governing structures to enhance their effectiveness in school governance thereby improving the quality of education. The implementation of these policies will be discussed and developed during a series of Coordination Forums with all stakeholders present.

The first step in implementing the SBoM capacity-building policy in Wajir County is setting up a Coordination Forum. A Coordination Forum would ensure a strategy for building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance. The forum will help the various stakeholders in the education sector to work together. Relevant information from the various stakeholders that could affect school governing structures would be shared during this forum. Thus, other stakeholders such as the County Education Board, Secondary Schools Heads Associations, Primary School Heads Associations, the county education office, school boards of management and trade unions would be able to give their inputs and recommendations with regard to the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective school governance (cf.par.2.4.1).

This study can potentially improve the existing practices and policies regarding building capacity among SBoM. Such insight can be helpful to all education stakeholders regarding their responsiveness when dealing with the issue of capacity building among SBoM for effective school governance. Thus, during the forum, all stakeholders would be equipped with the needed sensitivity to empathetically view the concept of building capacity among SBoM as a critical ingredient in achieving effective governance in Kenyan schools (cf.par.2.4.1). Additionally, all stakeholders must view capacity building among SBoM in a positive light to enable a positive impact on school governance.

To achieve effective school governance, schools should have SBoM members who not only have the requisite skills, knowledge and aptitudes but who are also capable of steering their schools towards success and improvement in the evolving educational landscape (cf.par.6.3.1.3). As the literature and qualitative phase indicated, capacity building initiatives have some bearing on effective school governance thereby improving the quality of education (cf.par.2.3.1). SBoM members will be encouraged to participate in educational conferences, technology integration programs, and conflict resolution training to further enhance their understanding and skills thereby contributing to more effective school governance (cf.par.6.3.1.4). Additionally, there should be a focus on regular training sessions, workshops, and comprehensive orientation programs covering governance aspects, financial literacy, and policy development for effective capacity building (cf.par.6.3.1.4). Figure 6.3 shows the factors influencing effective school governance in Kenya.
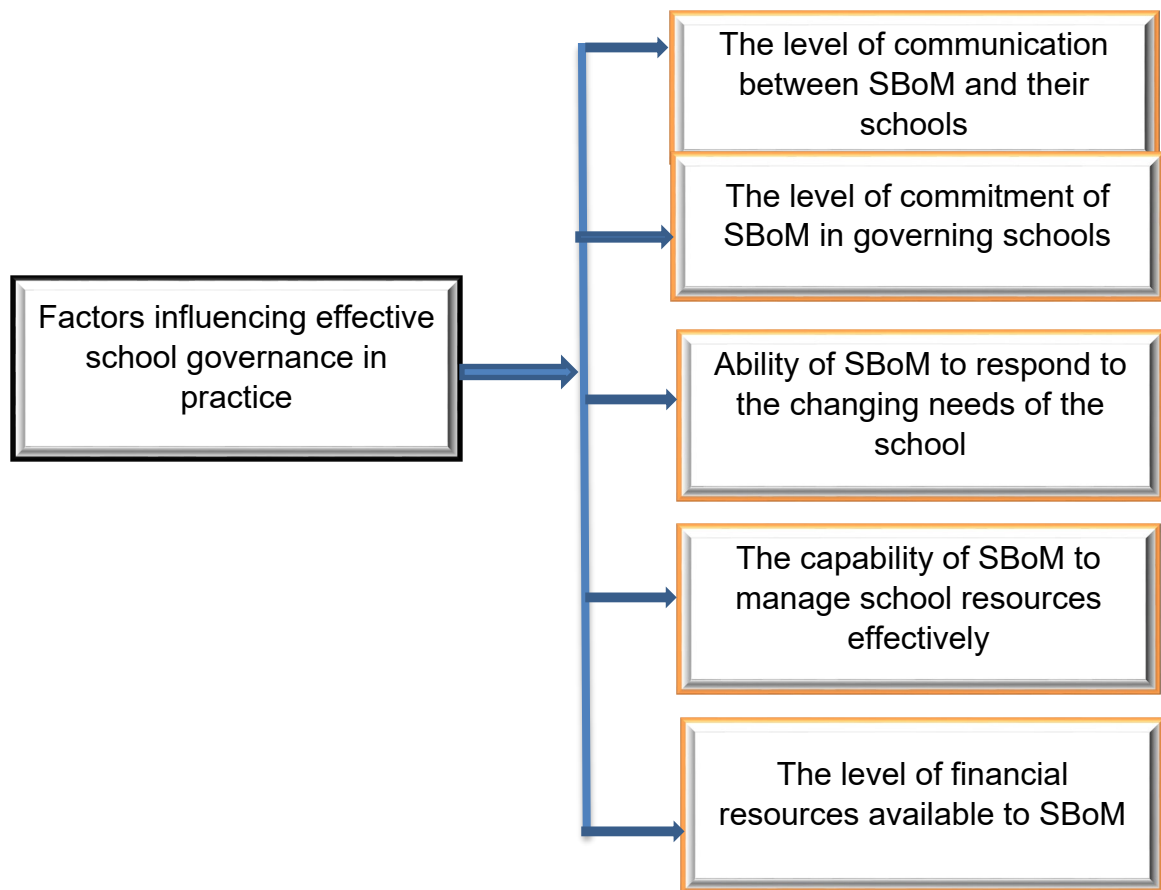
Figure 6. 3: Factors influencing effective school governance in Kenya (Survey data, 2023)

6.6 AVENUES FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This research was designed to examine how the capacity of School Boards of Management (SBoM) can be built and maintained for effective governance of schools in Kenya. Despite the fact that each of the 4 sub-aims was achieved, clearly acknowledging the limitations of the study and using the research findings as a basis, there are 2 suggestions for further studies on the topic.

First, following the insufficient capacity among SBOM in public primary and secondary schools in Wajir County to govern schools effectively, it is imperative that further research is conducted with other schools in other counties, both nationally and internationally among other school governing structures to examine their capacity for effective school governance. Additionally, it would be

interesting to see the responses of SBoM members of private schools too. This approach could make the results more generalizable to the study location.

Second, due to the level of capacity among SBoM to govern schools effectively, there are implications for students' learning outcomes as a result of the inability of SBoM to overcome governance challenges. A further study should therefore be conducted to examine the impact of ineffective school governance on students' learning outcomes in Wajir County, associated causes and remedies.

6.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

6.7.1 Geographical Specificity

The study's primary focus on a specific geographical context within Kenya, specifically public primary schools and public secondary schools in Wajir County, may limit the generalizability of the study's findings. This is because governance dynamics can vary significantly between regions, potentially restricting the application of study outcomes to a broader national or international context.

6.7.2 Representativeness

The study may face challenges in achieving full representativeness. The selected sample, particularly for the qualitative phase (SBoM chairpersons, school heads and board members) and the research approach, might not have fully captured the diversity of challenges and successes experienced by SBoM across different school settings in Kenya. This could limit the applicability of the study's recommendations to a broader educational context.

6.7.3 Potential Bias

The qualitative nature of the data collection process introduces a potential source of bias. Responses from participants are based on their subjective experiences and interpretations, and this subjectivity could influence the overall objectivity of the study. Efforts to mitigate bias should be considered in the interpretation of the findings.

6.7.4 Limitations in respondents

Some respondents could have felt uncomfortable evaluating their observations about the idea of capacity building among SBoM, while being assured of their anonymity. As a result, they might have shown subject effects or behaviours that don't necessarily correspond to real-world scenarios. It's possible that this circumstance added inaccuracies to the outcomes.

6.8 CONCLUDING REMARKS

SBoM performs a wide range of managerial responsibilities at the school level. SBoM operates as a decision-making body overseeing various aspects of school management. Its functions include approving budgets, ensuring financial accountability, and participating in formulating and implementing school policies. The SBOM were actively engaged in hiring and evaluating teachers, addressing the welfare of students and staff, and fostering community involvement. The board operated within the framework set by the Ministry of Education, adhering to national policies while also considering the unique needs of their respective schools. Its collaborative and representative nature aims to enhance transparency, accountability, and community participation in the governance of schools.

SBoM in Kenya face several challenges in governing schools, impacting their ability to fulfil their roles effectively. Limited financial resources often constrain their capacity to implement essential projects and address infrastructure needs, hindering the overall development of schools. Inadequate training and capacity-building opportunities may result in SBoM members lacking the necessary skills to make informed financial, policy development, and strategic planning decisions. Political interference in school affairs can compromise the autonomy of SBoM, influencing decision-making processes. Unequal distribution of resources among schools exacerbates disparities in facilities, teaching materials, and infrastructure. Bureaucratic challenges, such as difficulties in accessing government funds, add a layer of complexity to their governance responsibilities. Addressing SBoM challenges requires concerted efforts from SBoM committees, education authorities, and the community. Collaborative problem-solving,

effective communication and ongoing capacity-building initiatives are essential components of overcoming these obstacles and ensuring successful governance of schools in Kenya.

The concept of capacity building among SBoM is an ongoing process that recognizes the dynamic nature of education and the need for continuous improvement. The key areas focused on financial literacy, strategic planning, policy development and compliance, networking opportunities and conflict resolution. By enhancing the skills and knowledge of SBoM members, schools can ensure effective governance that positively impacts the overall educational experience for students and the school community. Capacity-building strategies included online resources and e-learning, utilization of external expertise such as education consultants with vast experience in governance, specialized training sessions, the establishment of mentorship programs, decision-making skills, policy training and inclusive governance workshops. By implementing capacity-building strategies, educational institutions empower SBoM to govern schools effectively by providing quality education to students, thereby contributing to overall school improvement.

Comprehensive capacity-building strategies are meticulously implemented for SBoM to enhance the governance of schools. These initiatives aim to empower SBoM members with the necessary skills, knowledge, and tools to oversee educational institutions effectively. Training programs are designed to foster a deep understanding of educational policies, financial management, and leadership principles. Workshops and seminars facilitate the development of communication and decision-making skills, ensuring that SBoM members can navigate the complex landscape of school governance with competence. Collaborative platforms and mentorship programs are established to encourage knowledge-sharing among SBoM members, fostering a sense of community and a collective commitment to educational excellence. Continuous evaluation and feedback mechanisms are integrated into these capacity-building strategies, allowing for adaptive improvements and ensuring the sustained growth and efficacy of SBoM in fulfilling their crucial role in the governance of schools.

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ANNEXURES

ANNEXURE A: LETTER FOR CONSENT

Date:10-02-2023

Title: **BUILDING CAPACITY AMONG BOARDS OF MANAGEMENT: TOWARDS EFFECTIVE GOVERNANCE IN KENYAN SCHOOLS**

DEAR PROSPECTIVE PARTICIPANT

My name is **TOM OSCAR NYAMBANE** and I am doing research under the supervision of RJ (Nico) Botha, a professor in the Department of Educational Leadership and Management towards a PHD at the University of South Africa. We have funding from The Department of Students Finance (DSF) for research. We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled **BUILDING CAPACITY AMONG BOARDS OF MANAGEMENT: TOWARDS EFFECTIVE GOVERNANCE IN KENYAN SCHOOLS.**

This study is expected to collect important information that could shed light on the concept of building capacity among school boards of management for effective governance in Kenyan schools. The researcher anticipates that the findings of this study can help promote and enhance new knowledge that could contribute to the policy debate on management of schools in Kenya. The contribution of this study could also spur future research in the area of study as well as opening up views on how to handle the concept of capacity building among school boards of management with the intention of promoting quality learning.

You are invited because you are a member of the board of management in one of the secondary schools in Wajir county, Kenya. The researcher obtained your contact details from social media, specifically Wajir County Secondary School Principals' and Primary School Headteachers' WhatsApp groups respectively. This is after a written request to the chairpersons of the two groups. In the process of obtaining your contact details, the researcher considered the full implications of privacy of all research participants and therefore ensured controlled informational data in a locked format. The researcher clearly understands that the interactive nature of social media escalates the speed of interaction, allowing for greater opportunities for errors in protecting private information. To ameliorate the situation in case it arises, the researcher has put in place concrete plans on how to obviate such errors.

In this study, the approximate number of participants are as follows: In the quantitative phase, a total of **2163** school board members will be sampled while in the qualitative phase **16** board chairpersons and **64** school heads will be selected for the interviews.

The study involves questionnaires and focus group interviews as data collection strategies. The questionnaire format will comprise of open-ended, closed-ended and rating scale items. The time needed to complete and return questionnaires will be two weeks while focus group interviews will be concluded within a period of five days. Please note that participating in this study is voluntary and you are under no obligation to consent to participation.   If you do decide to take part, you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a written consent form. You are free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason.

The main purpose of this study is to examine how capacity among boards of management can be built and maintained to enhance school governance in Kenyan schools. The researcher believes that the findings of this study will be of benefit not only to the participants taking part in this study, but also to the scientific community and the society in general. As a participant, you will gain

knowledge, awareness, and/or information concerning the concept of building capacity among school boards of management for effective governance in Kenyan schools. Potential benefits such as sense of empowerment among participants as well as an increase in knowledge that will come about as a result of this study may lead to better educational governance advocacy, study participation and outcomes. In the researcher's opinion, the sense of empowerment will not only serve as an indirect benefit to the participant, but indirectly, can also help in bridging the existing educational governance disparity gaps.

In the course of this scientific inquiry, the researcher affirms that there are no foreseeable risks of harm or side effects to the potential participants. Neither is there any level of inconvenience and/or discomfort to the participants.

As a participant, you have the right to insist that your name will not be recorded anywhere and that no one, apart from the researcher and identified members of the research team, will know about your involvement in this research. In conformity with the principles of confidentiality, your name will not be recorded anywhere and no one will be able to connect you to the answers that you give. Instead, your answers will be given a code number or a pseudonym and you will be referred to in this way in the data collected in this study, any publications, or other research reporting methods such as conference proceedings.

As participants, please note that your anonymous data may be used for other purposes, such as a research report, journal articles and/or conference proceedings. In guaranteeing your privacy, a report of the study may be submitted for publication, but you will not be identifiable in such a report. Although it is sometimes impossible to make an absolute guarantee of confidentiality or anonymity, the researcher undertakes to take all necessary measures to ensure confidentiality and anonymity.

By its nature, a focus group interview involves a small number of demographically similar people or participants who have other common traits or experiences. While every effort will be made by the researcher to ensure that you will not be connected to the information that you share during the focus group, I cannot guarantee that other participants in the focus group will treat information confidentially. I shall, however, encourage all participants to do so. For this reason, I advise you not to disclose personally sensitive information in the focus group.

Hard copies of your answers will be stored by the researcher for a period of five years in a locked cupboard/filing cabinet in the principal's office in the school where the researcher works for future research or academic purposes; electronic information will be stored on a password protected computer. Future use of the stored data will be subject to further Research Ethics Review and approval if applicable. If it becomes necessary, hard copies containing data will be shredded while electronic copies will be permanently deleted from the hard drive of the computer by use of a relevant software programme.

Since this study is meant for academic purposes only, there will be no any form of payment or monetary rewards to research participants. In addition, the researcher does not envisage any costs to be incurred by the participants and in the event that the contrary happens, this will be explained and justified in adherence with the principle of fair procedures.

This study has received written approval from the Research Ethics Review Committee of the department of Educational Leadership and Management, Unisa. A copy of the approval letter can be obtained from the researcher if you so wish. Similarly, if you would like to be informed of the final research findings, please contact **TOM OSCAR NYAMBANE** on +254726000122 or email: 67123023@mylife.unisa.ac.za or website: www.unisa.ac.za/cedu The findings are accessible for a period of two years. In addition, should you have concerns about the way in which the research has been conducted, you may contact my

supervisor, Prof RJ (Nico) Botha, Department of Education Leadership and Management, College of Education, Unisa Email: botharj@unisa.ac.za Cell:0824116361, Fax: 0866344060.

Thank you for taking time to read this information sheet and for participating in this study.
Thank you.

TOM OSCAR NYAMBANE

ANNEXURE B: QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE COMPLETED BY SBoM MEMBERS

This questionnaire seeks to assess the concept of building capacity among boards of management for effective governance in Kenyan schools. The questionnaire is designed to obtain information for purposes of educational research. Data attained from the accounting, operations and human resource department will be handled as private and used only for purposes of educational research.

SECTION I: GENERAL INFORMATION

A: RESPONDENT'S PROFILE (Tick as applicable)

1.1 Respondent's Gender (Tick where applicable):

     a) Female - F (   )

     b) Male - M (   )

1.2 Respondent's Age (Tick where applicable):

     a) Below 29 years (   )

     b) 30-45 years (   )

     c) 46-60 years (   )

d) Above 60 years (   )

1.3 Indicate by ticking where applicable the achieved education level:

a) Certificate (   )

b) Diploma (   )

c) Undergraduate (   )

d) Postgraduate (   )

1.4 Specify your position by ticking where applicable:

1. Representative of Parents or Local community

2. County Education Board Representative CEB

3. The teaching staff in the school Representative

4. Representatives of the sponsor of the school

5. Representative of special groups in the community

6. Representative of persons with special needs.

7. A representative of the student's council

8. General Member

1.5 For how long have you served as a SBoM member?

a) Less than 1 year (   )

b) 1-2 Years (   )

c) 3-4 Years (   )

d) Over 5 Years (   )

SECTION II BUILDING CAPACITY AMONG BOARDS OF MANAGEMENT: TOWARDS EFFECTIVE GOVERNANCE IN KENYAN SCHOOLS

A. **SBoM in the Kenyan Context and How They Function**

In efforts to understand the context of SBoM in Kenya, kindly indicate your agreement on the function of SBoM in the Kenyan context.

(Key: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=not sure; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree)

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
The board is made up of representatives from the school, local government and the wider community.					
School Boards of Management in the Kenyan context are responsible for the management of schools and for providing direction to school principals and other school staff.					
The board is responsible for overseeing the running of the school, setting school policies and procedures, and ensuring that the school is compliant with relevant regulations.					
The board is responsible for developing and approving the school's annual budget, managing any funds allocated to the school, and ensuring that the school's resources are used effectively and efficiently.					
The board also works with the school principal to ensure that the school provides a safe and healthy environment for students, and that it is compliant with any relevant safety regulations.					
The board ensure that the school is providing quality education to students and this involves setting school standards, monitoring and evaluating the school's performance and providing feedback to the school principal and other staff.					
The board is responsible for developing plans for the future of the school, including curriculum development, staff development, and any other initiatives that are necessary to ensure school's success					
The board also has a responsibility to ensure that the school is engaging with the wider community.					

B: Challenges facing SBoM in governing schools in Kenya and how they deal with them;

In an attempt to identify the existing challenges facing SBoM in governing schools in Kenya and how they deal with them, kindly indicate your agreement by use of the scale 1-5 in the statements provided below, regarding the existing challenges facing SBoM in governing schools in Kenya.

(Key: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=not sure; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree)

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
There is lack of enough resources which make the board unable to implement its plans effectively, resulting in a lack of progress					
There is lack of transparency and accountability					
We lack basic infrastructure, such as classrooms, toilets, libraries, and laboratories which prevent the board of management from making the most of their resources and providing a quality education to students					
There is lack of access to proper technology and the internet which can greatly limit the ability of the board of management to use innovative methods of teaching and learning.					
There is political interference which influence the decisions of the board hence making it difficult for the board to make decisions that are in the best interests of the school.					

What are other challenges does the SBoM face when governing schools in Kenya

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C: Capacity Building Strategies

For the purpose of choosing the best strategies that assist SBoM in governing schools in Kenya, kindly indicate your measure of agreement by use of the scale 1-5 in the statements provided below, regarding capacity building strategies that are put in place to assist SBoM in governing schools in your school.

(Key: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=not sure; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree)

Statement	1	2	3	4	5
Our school Strengthen Capacity of School Boards through Training and Professional Development					
The school provides training and development programs that focus on the essential aspects of school governance such as school finance, policy formulation and implementation and school improvement.					
There is provision of accessibility to resources and technical assistance to school boards in order to ensure that they are able to effectively manage and lead their schools.					
There is promotion of collaboration and networking to develop opportunities for school boards to collaborate and network with each other.					
The school should develop an effective communication strategy to ensure that school board members are informed about relevant issues and decisions.					
There is increased involvement of local communities by establishing advisory boards and committees comprised of local stakeholders and allowing them to have a say in decision-making.					
Establishing a network of support including mentoring and coaching opportunities, professional development programs, and access to resources.					
Developing a unified system of data collection and analysis to track school performance, evaluate the impact of school policies, and identify areas for improvement.					

Please indicate other capacity building strategies that are put in place to assist SBoM in governing schools in your school.

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Please indicate measures put in Place to deal with existing challenges facing School Boards of Management in governing Schools in Kenya.

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SECTION III: EFFECTIVE GOVERNANCE IN KENYAN SCHOOLS

Rate the following statement according to your observations

1.The level of commitment of School Boards of Management in governing schools in Kenya is:

A. Very high ( ) B. High (   ) C. Moderate ( ) D. Low ( ) E. Very low (   )

2. The quality of education provided by schools under School Boards of Management in Kenya is: A. Very high ( ) B. High (   ) C. Moderate ( ) D. Low ( ) E. Very low (   )

3. The level of financial resources available to School Boards of Management in Kenya is:

A. Very high ( ) B. High ( ) C. Moderate ( ) D. Low ( ) E. Very low ( )

4. The capability of the School Boards of Management in Kenya to manage school resources effectively is:

A. Very high ( ) B. High ( ) C. Moderate ( ) D. Low ( ) E. Very low ( )

5. The ability of the School Boards of Management in Kenya to respond to the changing needs of the schools is:

A. Very high ( ) B. High ( ) C. Moderate ( ) D. Low ( ) E. Very low ( )

6. The level of communication between the School Boards of Management and the schools they govern is:

A. Very high ( ) B. High ( ) C. Moderate ( ) D. Low ( ) E. Very low ( )

Thank you for your patience, time and cooperation

ANNEXURE C: INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. How long have you been a member of the Board of Management at this school?

2. What experience do you have in terms of board of management meetings and decision-making?

3. How often do you hold board of management meetings at your school?

4. What challenges, if any, have you encountered in building capacity among the board of management?

5. How has the increased capacity of the board of management led to improved governance in your school?

6. What approaches have you taken to ensure effective communication and collaboration between the board of management and school staff?

7. Do you feel that the board of management has a clear understanding of its roles and responsibilities?

8. What measures have you put in place to ensure the board of management is able to fulfil its duties effectively?

9. What strategies have been developed to ensure the board of management remains accountable for its decisions?

10. What role do you think the government should play in building and maintaining capacity among SBoM?

11. What other suggestions do you have to enhance capacity building among SBoM to improve school governance in Kenyan schools?

ANNEXURE D: REQUEST PERMISSION FROM PRINCIPAL OF SCHOOL TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

BUILDING CAPACITY AMONG BOARDS OF MANAGEMENT: TOWARDS EFFECTIVE GOVERNANCE IN KENYAN SCHOOLS
Date: 10th February 2023.
ABDIAZIZ ADAN HASSAN
HADADO SECONDARY SCHOOL
+254725044816
abdiazizadanh@gmail.com

Dear Mr. Principal,

I, **TOM OSCAR NYAMBANE** am doing research under the supervision of Prof. RJ (Nico) Botha, a professor in the Department of Education Leadership and Management towards a PhD at the University of South Africa. We have funding from the Department of Students' Finance (DSF) Unisa for conducting research. We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled **BUILDING CAPACITY AMONG BOARDS OF MANAGEMENT: TOWARDS EFFECTIVE GOVERNANCE IN KENYAN SCHOOLS**.

The aim of the study is to examine how capacity among School Boards of Management (SBoM) can be built and maintained to enhance school governance in Kenyan schools.

Your school has been selected because it is within the study location and members of your school Board of Management are included in the sample size.

The study will entail determining the existing challenges facing school boards of management in governing schools in Kenya and how these boards deal with them. In the same context, the study seeks to find out which capacity building strategies are put in place to assist school boards of management in governing schools in Kenya. Therefore, the data gained from research participants in your

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school will play a pivotal role in terms of data analysis and interpretation with regard to the concept of building capacity among SBoM for effective governance in Kenyan schools.

The benefits of this study are as follows: Development of SBoM members who are endowed with the capacity for critical analysis, strategic perspective, contextual awareness, and decision-making capacity so as to provide quality management in schools with the intention to promote quality learning. The ministry of education could use the findings of this study as a succession management plan in a bid to build and sustain the capacity of School Boards of Management.

The researcher does not foresee any potential risks associated with this study and kindly note that there will be no reimbursement or any incentives for participation in the research.

Feedback procedure will entail providing a link to a website or social media page at the end of the questionnaire and post the findings on that website once the study has been completed. Alternatively, the researcher will include his contact information at the end of the questionnaire (in the debriefing statement) that participants may use to request the findings.

Yours sincerely,

TOM OSCAR NYAMBANE
PHD STUDENT

ANNEXURE E: ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE FROM UNISA

CAN TRANSLATORS
Translation | Transcription | Proof Reading

P.O. BOX 35148, 00100
Nairobi-KENYA
Tel: +254 722 304178

CERTIFICATE OF EDITING

This document certifies that the undersigned reviewed and edited the thesis listed below for proper English language, grammar, punctuation, spelling, and overall style. Neither the research content nor the authors' intentions were altered during editing.

THESIS TITLE

BUILDING CAPACITY AMONG BOARDS OF MANAGEMENT: TOWARDS EFFECTIVE GOVERNANCE IN KENYAN SCHOOLS

AUTHOR

T.O. NYAMBANE
(STUDENT NO.67123023)

DATE ISSUED

February, 04, 2024

Grace M. Njeru
Editor, CAN Translators.

ANNEXURE G: RESEARCH PERMIT

NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY & INNOVATION

Ref No: 999199

Date of Issue: 22/December/2023

RESEARCH LICENSE

This is to Certify that Mr.. Tom Oscar Nyambane of University of South Africa, has been licensed to conduct research as per the provision of the Science, Technology and Innovation Act, 2013 (Rev.2014) in on the topic: BUILDING CAPACITY AMONG SCHOOL BOARDS OF MANAGEMENT: TOWARDS EFFECTIVE GOVERNANCE IN KENYAN SCHOOLS for the period ending : 22/December/2024.

License No: NACOSTI/P/23/32055

999199

Applicant Identification Number

Director General
NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR
SCIENCE,TECHNOLOGY &
INNOVATION

Verification QR Code

NOTE: This is a computer generated License. To verify the authenticity of this document, Scan the QR Code using QR scanner application.

See overleaf for conditions

ANNEXURE H: AUTHORIZATION LETTER FROM THE COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION-WAJIR

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION
STATE DEPARTMENT OF EARLY LEARNING AND BASIC EDUCATION

Telegrams: "Education Wajir"
Telephone: 0721479026
When replying please quote
REF:EDW/VOL. III/ADMIN/254

COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
P.O. BOX 31-70200
WAJIR.
Date 12TH JANUARY, 2024

MR. TOM OSCAR NYAMBANE
UNIVERSITY OF SOUTH AFRICA
Preller Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
P.O. BOX 392 UNISA 0003
SOUTH AFRICA.

DEAR SIR/MADAM,

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

This is in reference to the letter ref NACOSTI/P/23/32055/999199 dated 22nd December 2023 from the National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation granting you authority to undertake research on the topic "Building Capacity among school Boards of Management: Towards Effective Governance in Schools in Kenyan Schools, Wajir County, Kenya" for the period ending 22nd December, 2024.

This is therefore to inform you that this office has no objection and has granted you authority to conduct your research in Wajir County.

Wish you all the best in your undertaking.

DR KORIYOW.H.ALI
COUNTY DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION,
WAJIR.
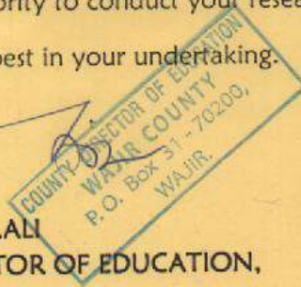
ANNEXURE I: AUTHORIZATION LETTER FROM THE COUNTY COMMISSIONER- WAJIR

OFFICE OF THE PRESIDENT

MINISTRY OF INTERIOR AND NATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Telegraphic Address: "County"
Email: ccwajircounty@yahoo.com
When replying please quote

Ref No: F50/VOL.1/216

The County Commissioner
Wajir County
Private Bag
WAJIR

22nd January 2024

All Deputy County Commissioners
WAJIR COUNTY

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Reference is made to a research license from National Commission for Science, Technology & Innovation ref no. 999199 dated 22nd December, 2023 on the above subject matter.

Tom Oscar Nyambane is hereby authorized to conduct research on the **"Building Capacity among School Boards of Management Towards Effective Governance in Kenyan School"** for the period ending **22nd December 2024."**Within Wajir County.

This is therefore to request you to give them the necessary assistance to enable them conduct the research within your Sub-Counties.

COUNTY COMMISSIONER
WAJIR COUNTY

J. G. Magangi
For: County Commissioner
WAJIR COUNTY

Cc

Tom Oscar Nyambane