

**TEACHERS' INSTRUCTIONAL ROLES AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON THE
INSTRUCTIONAL PROCESS IN KISWAHILI COMPOSITION IN
SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN KENYA**

BY

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DECLARATION

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my family whose patience and encouragement enabled me to complete this task.

ABSTRACT

Kiswahili is one of the compulsory subjects in the 8-4-4 curriculum at both primary and secondary schools in Kenya. At secondary school level, it comprises of three papers: Composition writing, Language use and Literature. The main purpose of this study was to investigate teacher roles and their influence in the teaching of Kiswahili composition. The research adopted an interpretivist research paradigm, mixed method approach descriptive design. The research objectives were: to find out the status of teacher planning in Kiswahili composition instruction; to establish methods used by teachers in Kiswahili composition instruction; to find out the kind of writing activities provided by teachers for Kiswahili composition instruction; to find out the frequency and type of feedback in Kiswahili composition instruction; to establish assessment practices used in Kiswahili Composition. The study was guided by Vygotsky's theory (1978) whose two principles – More Knowledgeable Other and Zone of Proximal Development relates to the difference between what a child can achieve alone and with guidance and encouragement from a skilled partner. The study was a descriptive survey since it was set to discover and interpret existing conditions focusing on 15 secondary schools sampled from 45 schools with a total approximately 2000 students. The sampling methods used included stratified, purposive and simple random sampling methods. Questionnaires were administered to 150 students while 15 lessons were observed. An interview schedule was used to collect verbal information from teachers. Document analysis of schemes of work and learners' marked compositions was also done. Analyzed data was presented using frequency tables, percentages, graphs and charts. The research found out that preparation for Kiswahili composition lessons was wanting, majority of the teachers used explanation, description, narrations and dictation methods of teaching. Majority of the teachers did not mark Kiswahili compositions while assessment practices were inadequate. The study recommended that teachers of Kiswahili be encouraged to prepare lesson plans and notes; they should use process approach in teaching; more practice should be given to students; teachers should give frequent feedback to students and they should assess learning frequently. It is hoped that these findings will guide Kiswahili language educators, teacher trainers, curriculum designers and the Kenya National Examinations Council, in re-examining their views on composition writing skills. Suggestions and recommendations in this study will be potentially significant for teachers of Kiswahili in that they may indicate changes of teaching behavior that would lead to more desirable classroom outcomes.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS/ACRONYMS

CATS	Continuous Assessment Tests
KCE	Kenya Certificate of Education
KCSE	Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education
KICD	Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (Formerly KIE – Kenya Institute of Education)
KNEC	Kenya National Examinations Council
L2	Second Language
MDG	Millennium Development Goals
MKO	More Knowledgeable Other
MOE	Ministry of Education.
ROK	Republic of Kenya
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
ZPD	Zone of Proximal Development

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Overview of the Chapter

This chapter provides the basis of the study as articulated in the background to the study, statement of the problem, purpose of the study, and objectives of the study and research questions. The rationale, justification of the study, assumptions of the study and theoretical framework are also discussed. Finally, definition of key terms to be used in the study is presented.

1.2 Background to the study

Kiswahili as a language has come a long way. Despite its long history in Kenya, it has taken 47 years since independence to be recognized as an official language (Mwangi, 2011). Kiswahili language is spoken by various communities across East Africa including Mozambique and The Democratic Republic of Congo (Ogechi, 2002). It is estimated that Kiswahili is spoken by over 150 million people. It is taught in over 100 universities worldwide (Nyaega, 2012). It is taught in many countries including Britain, Germany, South Korea and Japan. Kiswahili is used in broadcasting by the British Broadcasting Corporation (BBC), Deutsche Welle, Voice of America (VOA), Radio Moscow, Radio South Africa and Radio-China among others. In both Kenya and Tanzania, Kiswahili is taught as a compulsory subject at both primary and secondary school levels. In Kenya, to join various prime courses in university and other tertiary colleges Kiswahili is given almost the same status with English.

According to the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD) (2002), Kiswahili has the capacity to nurture and develop national unity and patriotism

(Nyaega, 2012). Jupp and Milne as cited in Nyaega (2012), asserts that class texts and guide books used in schools do not offer sufficient guidance on Kiswahili composition writing leaving some teachers either ignoring it or simply throwing it to students to keep them busy while away or as take-home assignment. Buhere (2001) emphasizes the importance of appropriate reading materials in building learners' language skills. To master punctuation, construct correct sentences and paragraphs require that learners spend sufficient time reading. The learner picks phrases, vocabulary and even linguistic styles from the books one has read. The reality however is that most learners read only the three set books-riwaya(novel), tamthilia(play) and hadithi fupi(short stories).These cannot give them adequate exposure to composition writing. A careful study indicates that there is inadequate reading of other books such as novels, plays, magazines, newspapers and other publications. (Nyaega (2012).

According to Kabaji (2011), reading is important in that the teaching of writing depends fundamentally on the learner's proficiency in reading. Nyaega (2012) notes that the Secondary school Kiswahili syllabus only highlights types of Kiswahili composition (Insha) to be taught leaving teachers to use their creativity and experience to come up with different strategies to prepare students for the national examination. There is thus need for the syllabus, KICD approved texts and their guides to adequately provide strategies to guide teachers in teaching various types of Insha. It is worth noting that though there are many factors that influence performance in Insha, instructional strategies play a great role (Onsare, 2011).

The woes of Kiswahili as a language in Kenya have a historical bearing which can be traced through the language policy before and after independence. Prior to Kenya's independence, the most important factors affecting the official use of Kiswahili and indirectly its unofficial use were the attitudes of administrators, educators and missionaries (Mwangi, 2011). The missionaries for instance had a negative attitude towards Kiswahili due to the fact that they associated it with Islam. They therefore strived to impose their own culture and religion on Africans by using English in schools.

When Kenya attained independence it seemed that Kiswahili was on its way to receiving recognition as an important language. The Kenya Education Report (1964) recommended that Kiswahili deserved to be taught as a compulsory subject in primary schools because of its usefulness as a unifying language and as a regional 'lingua franca'. However teaching of this subject was to start in different classes depending on where the school was located. This, together with the failure to make Kiswahili an examinable subject at the end of primary school cycle contributed in retarding the development of Kiswahili in Kenya. This is because it was not considered an important subject in schools (Mbaabu in Mwangi, 2011). So despite the declaration that Kiswahili be taught as a compulsory subject in primary schools in some schools it was not taught at all. Gachathi's report, published in 1976 recommended that Kiswahili should be introduced as a compulsory subject in Primary standard III or when English starts being used as a medium of instruction. It also recommended that Kiswahili should not only be taught as a compulsory subject in primary schools but that it should also be a subject of examination. However, it is worth noting that little or no Kiswahili was being taught in many primary schools because the time allocated

to it was spent in teaching other subjects, which were subjects of examination at that level.

Even though this recommendation was made in 1976, it was not implemented until 1985 when the report of the Presidential Working Party of the Second University in Kenya (Mackay Report: 1981) was implemented following the newly restructured 8-4-4 system of education. This report recommended that Kiswahili be made a compulsory subject at the second university (Mwangi, 2011). With the 8-4-4 system of education Kiswahili language and composition became compulsory at Kenya Certificate of Primary Education (KCPE) level while at Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) level three papers in Kiswahili would be examined; Kiswahili language, composition and literature.

The use of Kiswahili as a compulsory and examinable subject in primary and secondary schools opened up new horizons for Kiswahili. Good performance in Kiswahili examinations became a requirement for upward mobility, first in the education system- joining the university and qualifying to take certain courses in public universities as well as in other middle – level (tertiary) colleges. However, it should be remembered that even with new changes, English remains the medium of instruction for the other subjects right from standard IV to form IV.

Mwangi (2011) clearly outlines the importance of Kiswahili as a symbol of national unity. Due to its enhanced status and expanded functions which include its role as a unifying factor for diverse people. Murunga, (2013) argue that it is imperative that emphasis is laid on its teaching. Murunga (2013) further notes that the choice of Kiswahili as a national language has political and cultural symbolic importance. Thus the importance of Kiswahili in Kenyan secondary schools cannot be downplayed.

Although it has not been made a compulsory subject in universities it is worth noting that most universities in Kenya accord it a lot of importance. At Moi University's Kiswahili department for instance, Kiswahili is exclusively used as a medium of instruction for both linguistics and literature components of the discipline. Also thesis and defense in the department up to doctoral level are done in Kiswahili.

According to Barasa (2005) notes that when Kiswahili is compared to English, it is seen as an indigenous language through which the national patriotic ethos can be legitimately expressed. Barasa (2005) further notes that Kiswahili is our national language and our future medium of instruction. It is the language that connects both rural and urban, highly learned and unlearned masses in Kenya. It thus plays a vital role of cementing our national unity.

In 2002, the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE) (now Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development-KICD), released new guidelines on the teaching of Kiswahili by integrating language and literature. The Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education curriculum emphasizes the importance of Kiswahili language both as a compulsory and examinable subject. The secondary school Kiswahili syllabus postulates that fluency in all aspects of Kiswahili language will enable students to perform better in the other two papers whose mode of presentation for examination is writing (Onsare, 2011). The need to raise the standard of Kiswahili composition is therefore very urgent as the learning and teaching process of the other two papers depends very much on this skill. A student whose standard of Kiswahili composition is very low cannot excel in the other papers because he can neither express his ideas nor respond to examinations questions effectively. There is usually a tendency of teachers of Kiswahili to cover the syllabus at the expense of the requirements of the right amount

of language. Under the 8-4-4 Kiswahili subject integrated syllabus, the five lessons a week allocated is inadequate (Onsare, 2011). This limited time makes teachers only cover the syllabus superficially and ignore the necessary details. The student is therefore inadequately prepared and poorly exposed to adequate writing tasks. For most students, the only reality is the exam. The effect of exams therefore serves to limit rather than expand the teaching and learning of writing Kiswahili composition (Onsare, 2011). Even if composition writing is not likely to be one of the major goals of a language course, it should not continue to be treated as a mere appendage to the lesson or as a homework task to be carried out for the benefit of the teacher. It is important that learners need to be helped towards a mastery of the written form of language. Therefore, this study sought to investigate how various activities of teachers contribute to their teaching of Kiswahili composition in Kenya.

1.3 Statement of the Problem

Like all other languages, Kiswahili language comprises four skills: listening and speaking, reading, writing and language use. In KCSE examination in Kenya, all these skills are examined in the three papers – 102/1, 102/2 and 102/3 except listening and speaking. Kigotho (2010) decries lack of well rounded students. He asserts that youths' lack of communication skills has been a barrier to employment in Kenya. He cites surveys undertaken by World Bank that revealed that most youths leaving schools in sub-Saharan Africa lack problem – solving, communication and social skills. Communication skills can be developed in classrooms if Kiswahili being one of the compulsory subjects in Kenyan Secondary school curriculum is taught well.

According to KNEC, KCSE examination report (2012), performance in Kiswahili has been poor with the standard of the candidates' work going down. Since Kiswahili is a

compulsory subject this negatively impacts on the overall grade of the candidate. Kiswahili composition accounts for 40% of the total marks one is awarded in Kiswahili KCSE exam. Table 1 shows performance in paper 102/1(Insha) between 2009 and 2016.

Table 1: KCSE results analysis

Year	2009	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
Average mark	15.40	14.32	16.43	10.43	18.46	20.17	20.86	18.23
Deviation	6.93	6.53	5.61	3.63	5.44	5.26	5.19	5.53
Number of candidates	335,377	354,738	410,807	433,886	445,555	482,122	521,159	571,176

Source: KNEC KCSE Results Report, 2016

From this 2016 KCSE KNEC report and others, it is noted that in 2012,

- i) The average mark in Insha (Paper 102/1) dropped from 16.43 in 2011 to 10.43 in 2012.
- ii) The highest score in this paper was 35/40 in this year. Only one candidate got this score.
- iii) Majority of candidates scored below half (20/40) in this paper.

The highest number of candidates scored 08/40. These were 81121 (18.7%) while 65,464 (15%) scored 07/40. This means that more than a third of all candidates scored between 7 and 8 out of 40 which is less than a quarter of the highest possible (KNEC Report, 2013). This poor performance has persisted despite some improvement noted in later years particularly 2014 and 2015. The downward trend again is seen in 2016. This poor performance in Paper 1 is important as it gives one reason why performance

in Paper 2 and 3 is not satisfactory though not as bad as of Insha Paper. It is important to note that poor performance in this paper implies that students do not express themselves well in writing. Since the two other papers 102/2 – Lugha (Kiswahili language) and 102/3 – Fasihi (Literature) require learners' proficiency in writing, it then follows that such students will find it difficult to perform well in these two papers as well (KNEC Report, 2016). This report recommends that teachers diligently guide their learners according to the requirements of the syllabus. It also recommends that teachers give many compositions writing exercises particularly functional writing. Even with spelling mistakes being overlooked in Paper 103, the general performance of Kiswahili subject has remained rather poor.

In the school system writing is an important skill that not only helps learners in performing well in Kiswahili composition but also enhances their performance in the other two papers (102/2; 102/3) which require that the learners express themselves in writing. Many teachers of Kiswahili have concentrated on content delivery and seldom do they concentrate on the teaching and learning tasks that enable learners to acquire various language skills (Murunga, 2013). This gap between lack of a focused and systematic approach to teaching writing skills and poor performance of Kiswahili composition and Kiswahili in general in secondary school national examinations in Kenya is the starting point for this study.

1.4 Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the study was to investigate teachers' instructional roles and their influences on instruction in Kiswahili composition in Secondary schools in Kenya.

1.5 Objectives of the Study

The study was guided by the following objectives:

- i) To find out the status of teacher planning in Kiswahili composition instruction and its influence in instruction.
- ii) Establishing the teaching methods used by teachers in Kiswahili composition instruction and their influence in the instruction process.
- iii) To find out the kind of writing activities provided by teachers for Kiswahili composition instruction and how they influenced instruction.
- iv) Finding out the frequency and type of feedback in Kiswahili composition instruction and their influence in instruction.
- v) To establish assessment practices used by teachers in the teaching of Kiswahili composition instruction and how they influenced instruction.

1.6 Research Questions

The research sought to answer the following research questions:

- i) What is the status of teacher planning in Kiswahili composition instruction and its influence in instruction?
- ii) Which methods of instruction are used in the teaching of Kiswahili composition and do they influence instruction?
- iii) What kinds of writing activities are provided for Kiswahili composition instruction and how do they influence instruction?

- iv) What is the frequency of feedback in Kiswahili composition instruction and how does it influence instruction?
- v) Which assessment practices are used in the teaching of Kiswahili composition and how do they influence instruction?

1.7 Justification of the Study

Writing, it is generally agreed, is a central skill in enabling one to perform well in examinations. No matter how well one has understood a concept, if they cannot express themselves properly in writing, they may not perform well. This study focused on how Kiswahili composition instruction is handled by teachers in secondary schools and it is hoped that this will give answers to factors responsible for poor results in not only Kiswahili composition but Kiswahili Language and Literature Papers as well. KNEC KCSE (2013) reports confirm persistent poor performance with more than 30% scoring an 'E' (below 7 or 8 out of 40).

Writing is a functional skill that requires the learner to communicate ideas effectively. The general objectives of teaching Kiswahili at secondary school level contained in the old version of the Ministry of education (M.O.E,1985), the revised version (M.O.E,1992) and the current version of (2006) of the secondary school syllabus in Kenya emphasizes the teaching of language skills. These include oral, listening, reading and writing skills. A skilled writer knows how to make the textual word appear genuine to the reader by helping them relate the mediated nature of their interaction to writing. Since composition writing is one of the most important areas of writing, it is incumbent upon the teacher to direct the student to write that which can sustain the interest of the audience. Omulando (2002) points out that students use

‘Sheng’ and even vernacular in schools during lessons. This is also reflected in their writing. Some students also write their compositions in ‘Sheng’. Students’ prowess in writing skills in Kiswahili should be enhanced so that they can fit in the job market. It is hoped that if the challenges to effective teaching and acquisition of writing skills are identified and removed this will go a long way in helping students who have difficulties in paper 102/2 and 103/3 as well. The result is that performance in Kiswahili subject as a whole will improve.

The rationale for selecting the research topic was from the assumption that poor writing skills lead to poor expression (hence performance) in all the examination papers written in Kiswahili. This generated the reason underlying the justification of this study. Performance in Insha over the years has been rather poor begging the question whether it is due to poor instructional methods or other reasons. There is therefore need for such a study to investigate the influence of teacher practices on the teaching of Kiswahili composition at secondary school level. An understanding of this will help curriculum developers, implementers and other stakeholders to facilitate decision making, planning and implementation of improved teaching of this skill.

The subject objectives of teaching Kiswahili composition at secondary school level justify a study that may yield better preparation of learners in writing skills and enhance their performance. Findings of this study will also be important to teacher-trainers as they could help in reviewing their programmes in order to put more emphasis on programmes in teachers of Kiswahili’s professional competencies especially in handling the language skills in general and writing in particular. Teachers’ training institutions may find this study useful in reviewing their training curriculum so that they can produce competent secondary school teachers of

Kiswahili who can confidently handle teaching of writing skills. It may also provoke teachers of Kiswahili into having a fresher perspective on the way they prepare for teaching, present the content of subject matter, employ strategies and the type of exercises they give to their learners.

1.8 Significance of the Study

This research sought to establish how various teachers' activities affect the teaching and learning of Kiswahili composition in secondary schools in Kenya. Since teaching plays a very important role in determining performance of learners, this study will offer necessary guidance on what teachers ought to do to improve in their teaching.

The research findings will also be beneficial to the Kenya Institute of Curriculum Development which produces and provides guidance on instructional materials for teaching Kiswahili in schools. Through seminars and workshops, it will be able to identify, judge and select suitable textbooks for use by teachers of Kiswahili in order to equip themselves with pedagogical skills to improve their teaching of Insha writing. The Kenya Vision 2030 asserts that Kenya will provide a globally competitive quality education, training and research for development. The major aim of the government is to increase access to education, improve the transition rate from secondary to tertiary institutions, as well as raise the relevance of basic education as well as integrate special needs of education in all learning and training institutions. Other objectives of vision 2030 include the need to achieve 80% adult literacy rate, increase the net enrolment rate to 95% in basic education and increase the transition rate to technical institutions from 3% to 8% . In order to realize these goals, the education system in Kenya should produce school leavers who can be able to express themselves clearly and logically through writing.

KICD and publishers are also going to be able to establish areas that need to be addressed in the syllabus and course books respectively. In addition, the Directorate of Quality Assurance and Standards will utilize the findings in according relevant professional advice to teachers. Teachers of Kiswahili will be able to understand the impact of their knowledge and skills in the teaching of Insha writing in secondary schools. Various aspects of teaching including planning, teaching methods and strategies, assessment and feedback have been discussed at length and will add knowledge to the Insha instructors. Those intending to carry out research in this field will also find this information very useful. This knowledge will positively impact on learners' performance in Insha hence Kiswahili paper as a whole. This information will also be significant to teacher trainers who will have a reference that is relevant and specific to the teaching of Insha at secondary school level.

1.9 Assumptions of the Study

The research operated on the following assumptions:

- i) That teachers of Kiswahili plan prior to teaching Insha.
- ii) That teachers of Kiswahili employ various methods to teach Insha.
- iii) That teachers of Kiswahili give their students Insha activities for assessment and feedback.
- iv) That teachers of Kiswahili are trained and able to interpret the Kiswahili syllabus.

1.10 Scope of the Study

Kiswahili has four skills that are taught in the Kenya Secondary School Curriculum namely, listening and speaking, language use, reading and writing skills. These skills are broad and therefore this study limited itself to composition writing skills. The study focused on teacher practices in the teaching of Kiswahili composition in 15 secondary schools. The study was conducted in Kapseret sub-county in the North Rift region of Kenya. This sub-county has four constituencies: Ainaboi, Kapseret, Kesses and Moiben. Only Form three teachers of Kiswahili and their students were involved. This is because this was the senior most class after Form four and therefore able to interpret the questionnaire better. Form Four students were considered to be very busy preparing for KCSE examination. Form One and Two students were considered inexperienced in matters concerning composition in comparison to Form Three. Kapseret Sub-county has 45 secondary schools. Good road infrastructure and security made it possible to cover the whole of it. Many residents are farmers as the land is quite fertile with reliable rainfall. Significant proportions are urban dwellers living in estates such as Kapseret, Langas, Pioneer and Elgon View to name just a few.

1.11 Limitations and Delimitations of the Study

1.11.1 Limitations of the Study

Kothari (2010) defines a limitation as some aspect of the study that the researcher knows may negatively affect the generalizability of the results but over which he/she probably have no control. They are shortcomings, conditions or influences that cannot be controlled by the researcher and that place restrictions on the methodology and conclusions.

Some teachers of Kiswahili were unwilling to have the researcher observe them teaching. Some teachers and students were uneasy as the researcher observed the lesson. Some teachers were also reluctant to allow the researcher to scrutinize their schemes of work and lesson plans.

1.11.2 Delimitations of the Study

The study was limited to secondary schools in Kapseret Sub-county. It also placed emphasis on the writing skills and not any other aspect of the Kiswahili language which needed to be looked into. It is important to note that different teachers have different pedagogical practices and therefore the results were generalized to all other schools in Kenya.

The study was limited to the following variables: teacher planning in Kiswahili composition instruction, frequency and type of feedback in Kiswahili composition, assessment practices in Kiswahili composition, teaching methods used in Kiswahili composition and writing activities provided for Kiswahili composition and their impact on performance in Kiswahili composition. The study was confined to a smaller sample of secondary schools that were selected in Kapseret Sub-County, Uasin Gishu County. The study sample was 15 teachers of Kiswahili and 150 form three students who participated in the study.

The researcher had no control over exact information teachers of Kiswahili chose to give or withhold. The results were interpreted only within the context of the study and recommendations that were made cannot hold the same weight outside this scope.

1.12 Theoretical Framework

This study was based on Vygotsky's Theory (1978) which is a socio-cultural approach to cognitive development. This theory places more emphasis on culture affecting/shaping cognitive development. Vygotsky assumes cognitive development varies across cultures. He places considerably more emphasis on social factors contributing to cognitive development. Vygotsky states that cognitive development stems from social interactions from guided learning within the zone of proximal development as children and their partners co-construct knowledge. The environment in which children grow up will influence how they think and what they think about. Vygotsky claimed that infants are born with the basic abilities for intellectual development and through interaction within the socio-cultural environment; these are developed into more sophisticated and effective mental process which he refers to as Higher Mental Functions.

One of the elements of Vygotsky's Theory is Social Influence on Cognitive Development. Vygotsky believes that young children are curious and actively involved in their own learning, discovery and development of new understandings/schema. However, Vygotsky placed more emphasis on social constructions to the process of development. According to him, much learning by the child occurs through social interaction with a skilled tutor. The tutor may model behaviors and/or provide verbal instructions for the child. Vygotsky refers to this as cooperative or collaborative dialogue. The child seeks to understand the actions or an instruction provided by the tutor (often the parent or teacher) then internalizes the information, using it to guide or regulate their performance. Shaffer (1996) gives the example of a young girl who is given her first jigsaw. Alone, she performs poorly in

attempting to solve the puzzle. The father then sits with her and describes or demonstrates some basic strategies, such as finding all the corner/edge pieces for the child to put together herself and offers encouragement when she does so. As the child becomes more competent the father allows the child to work more independently. According to Vygotsky, this type of social interaction involving cooperative and collaborative dialogue promotes cognitive development. The teacher of Kiswahili can facilitate learning of Kiswahili composition writing through various activities including regular supervision and marking of students' work. The teacher offers guidance and reinforcement until such a point where the student can comfortably write good essays. The frequency and the kind of feedback given to students have a significant impact on subsequent performance of the learners.

Another element of Vygotsky's Theory is referred to as More Knowledgeable Other (MKO). This refers to someone who has a better understanding or a higher ability level than the learner, with respect to a particular task, process or concept. This is the person in an educational setting who facilitates and guides students through the learning process. The key to MKOs is that they must have more knowledge about the topic being learned than the learner does. The teacher of Kiswahili guides students on how to write good essays and this interaction leads to improvement on the part of students. Through constant interaction with the teacher, it is expected that the learner will be able to acquire knowledge and skills in the writing of good essays.

Teachers' knowledge and skills is a very important component in the dissemination of their day to day duties. For a teacher to effectively teach Insha writing, they should have the knowledge of content and the required skill so as to impact positively in the life of the learners. The major setback in teaching as a profession is the problem of

inadequacy of teachers' knowledge and skills. This is not limited to teachers of Kiswahili who teach Insha writing skills.

The concept of the More Knowledgeable Other is integrally related to another principle of Vygotsky's work, The Zone of Proximal Development. This is an important concept that relates to the difference between what a child can achieve independently and what a child can achieve with guidance and encouragement from a skilled partner. This concept is discussed below.

1.12.1 Zone of Proximal Development

Vygotsky (1978) sees the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) as the area where the most sensitive instruction or guidance should be given-allowing the child to develop skills they will then use on their own-developing higher mental functions. An experiment that seeks to prove this principle was conducted by Freud (1990) who conducted a study in which children had to decide which items of furniture should be placed in particular areas of a doll's house. Some children were allowed to play with their mother in a similar situation before they attempted it alone (zone of proximal development) while others were allowed to work on this by themselves. Freud found that those who had previously worked with their mother (ZPD), showed greater improvement compared with their first attempt at the task. The conclusion being that guided learning with the ZPD led to greater understanding/performance than working alone (discovery learning). This presupposes the vital role played by the teacher to enable learners write good essays cannot be overlooked. Writing skill of the learner can be enhanced through working closely with the teacher.

1.13 Conceptual framework

Orodho (2005) defines conceptual framework as a model of presentation of relationship between variables in the study shown graphically or diagrammatically. Boit, Serem & Wanyama (2013) defines conceptual framework as a scheme of concepts or variables which the researcher will operationalize in order to achieve the research objectives. It is a schematic presentation of a theory. The conceptual framework elaborates the research problem in relation to the relevant literature. It summarizes the major variables (independent and dependent) in the study. It summarizes hypothetical relationship of variables in a schematic diagram.

Research variables are factors that can take on different values thereby influencing the outcome of the research. In this research the main kinds of variables in play will be independent variables, dependent variables and extraneous variables. Independent variables are the variables that the experimenter changes to test their dependent variables. An independent variable is a variable that is manipulated to determine the value of dependent variables. Dependent variable is an aspect of behavior that the researchers want to investigate to see if changes in one variable result in changes in behavior. It is also a factor or phenomenon that is changed by the effect of an associated factor or phenomenon called the independent variable. Extraneous variables are those variables that affect the outcome of the research study either because the researcher is not aware of their existence or, if the researcher is aware, he or she is unable control them. (Mugenda &Mugenda, 2003).

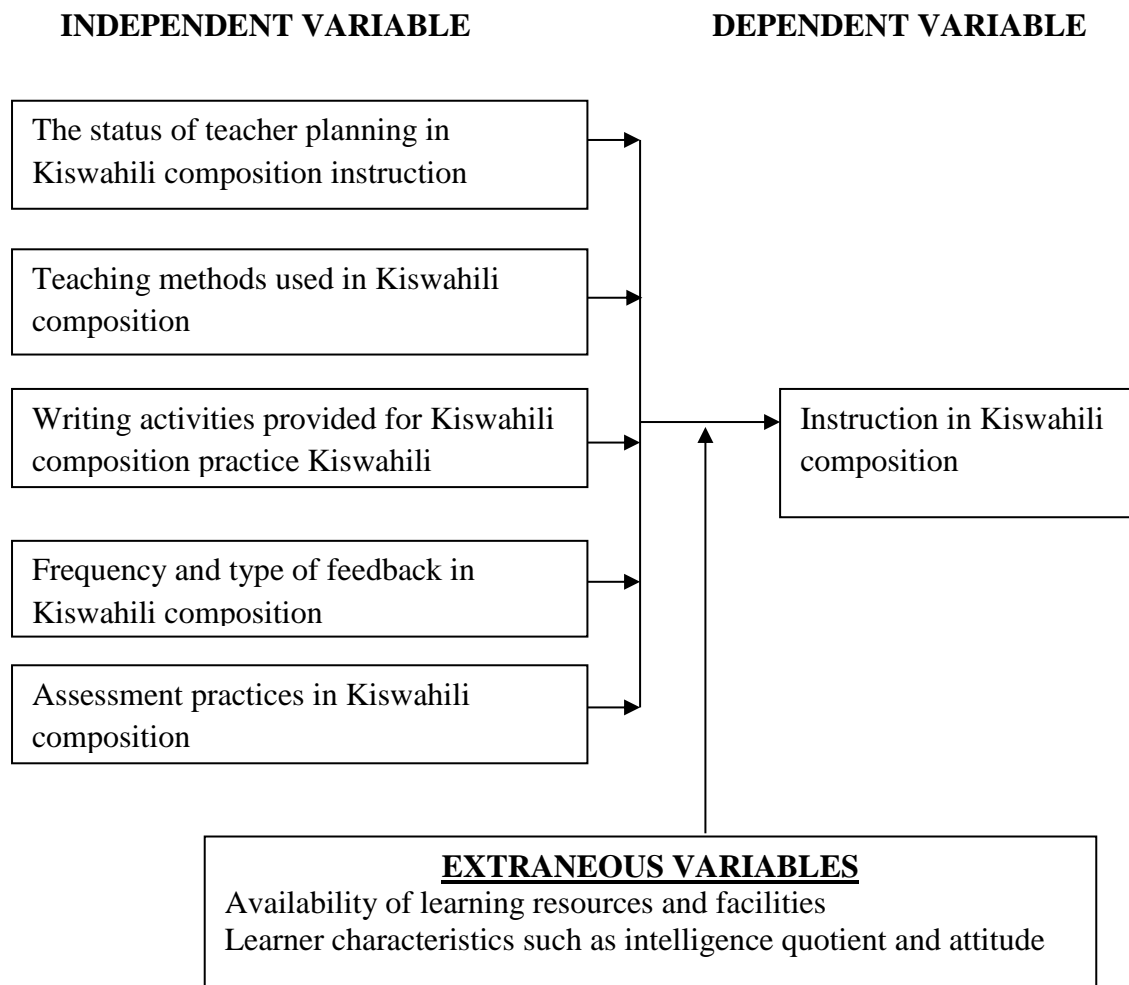


Figure 1. 1: Flow Chart of Conceptual Framework

Instruction in Kiswahili composition writing skills (dependent variable) depends to a great extent on several independent variables. The independent variables in this research include the status of teacher planning in Kiswahili composition instruction; teaching methods commonly preferred by teachers in the teaching of Kiswahili composition; the kind of writing activities provided by teachers for Kiswahili composition; frequency of marking of Kiswahili composition and finally assessment practices employed by teachers in Kiswahili composition.

1.14 Operational Definition of Key Terms

Academic learning time: The amount of time student is both engaged and successful in learning

Academic performance: Learning achievement of learner

Assessment practices: Activities used by teachers to evaluate whether learners have understood a concept or not.

Fasihi : Literature in Kiswahili

Feedback: Response given by the teacher to learning tasks from learners.

Insha : Is used in this study to mean composition written in Kiswahili. The terms ‘Insha’ and Kiswahili composition are used interchangeably.

Instruction process: Process of teaching. Kiswahili instruction in this study refers to the conditions or processes set for learning and teaching of Kiswahili language by either an individual or a group of individuals. These include all activities, materials and methodologies aimed at fostering learning of Kiswahili.

Instruction strategies: Overall plan or design in which the process of instruction is organized and implemented

Integrated Approach: Teaching where content of language and literature are fused and taught together.

Kiswahili subject/education: The term Kiswahili education in this study refers to an academic discipline concerned with lifelong development of pedagogical knowledge of teachers and teacher-trainees in relation to their understanding of theories and philosophy underlying effective and efficient teaching and learning of Kiswahili subject.

Lingua Franca: A language used for communication amongst many speakers of different countries. Kiswahili is used as both an official and a national language in East African countries

Lugha : Language; Kiswahili paper 2 (102/2)

Ordinary Level: The first four years in secondary school in the 7-4-2-3 system of education in Kenya prior to being replaced with the 8-4-4 system in 1985.

Planning for instruction: Making appropriate preparations for teaching based on learners prior knowledge and curriculum standards.

Writing activities: Tasks given to learners meant to enable the learner to learn or improve performance in the subject.

Teachers' instructional roles: All activities of the teacher geared to bring about learning. In this study, the teachers' instructional roles under investigation are planning for Kiswahili instruction, frequency of marking Kiswahili composition Assessment practices in Kiswahili composition, teaching methods used in Kiswahili composition and writing activities provided by teachers for Kiswahili composition.

1.15 Chapter Summary

This chapter has presented the background to the study, statement of the problem, the objectives of the study, research questions, significance and justification of the study, the scope and limitations of the study, assumptions of the study, theoretical framework and definition of terms. The review of literature will be done in chapter two.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter an overview of the role of the teacher in the teaching of Kiswahili composition was given. Studies done in Kenya and other parts of the world that were relevant to this study were also discussed. Traditionally, the focus on students' writing in secondary school has been on the end product-that is, the completed performance submitted for assessment of what it 'contains': there has been little or no concern for the behavior of the student as a writer, as someone whose struggles with the written word are as pedagogically revealing as the manifest outcomes of those struggles on the page of the exercise book or examination script.

The purpose of this study was to unveil this concern and help teachers to articulate this concern and put it into practical use. Writing is examined as a highly developed set of language skills which not only facilitate the recording and transmission of information, experience etc, but also serve to generate and order the writer's knowledge as he drafts and redrafts his efforts and learns to talk about his writing to others.

2.2 Acquisition of Writing Skills in General

Writing is certainly the least studied of the four main pedagogical concerns. There are people who assert that writing does not deserve the attention that should be given to other language arts. It is said with some truth that speech so predominates in everyday communication that modes of oral exchange ought to be studied to the virtual exclusion of all else (Anees & Raazia, 2007). The act of writing differs from that of

talking in that it is less spontaneous, more permanent and the resources which are available for communication are fewer because we cannot as we do in conversation interact with the listeners and adopt as we go along. For this reason, the convention of writing tends to be less flexible than those of conversation and the language used tends to be standardized (Syomwene, Nyandusi & Yungungu, 2017). It is true that writing is markedly dissociated from the more common linguistic activities of our society. The settings in which most people employ writing are very few and infrequent. After they have left school most ordinary people stop having to write very much. (Anees & Raazia, 2007)

But writing is still the most important social instrument. It is by far most common form of long distance and long term communication whether hand-written or typed. Our libraries are full of books. Kenya's educational system rightly puts a high value on writing. It is by far the most important medium of the formal transmission of knowledge and ideas and verbal art, and it remains the most common and most effective and practical medium of educational assessment. It is therefore, of great importance that teachers should know more about writing, both as a process and as a product. It is also important to invest more time and energy in examining the most effective means of teaching the skills of writing. One reason why so little attention has been paid to writing is the tendency to believe that writing is just 'speech written down'- If only children are taught how to spell, many teachers assume, all the requisites of good composition will follow in due course, then as they get older they can learn the rules of essay writing (Whitaker, 2010).

While speaking is mostly acquired, writing is learned. Having competence in spoken language does not imply equivalent competence in written language. This is because

writing is not just speech written down. There are distinct and important differences between spoken and written language and these differences are important to the teacher. It has been truly said that all the writing in the world is but the froth on an ocean of speech and yet the writing system is an important and distinct form of the language, with its own rules, characteristics and conversations (Hucker, 2005). Most students may be able to speak much and do it very well and the teacher therefore has a responsibility of enabling the learner to be able to put thoughts on paper.

The raw material of written text, the graphic substance, includes letters, numbers, punctuation marks, spaces and a set of rules governing their combination into larger and larger structures. Graphology, the term used by some linguists (to parallel 'phonology') includes orthography (the spelling rules) and all the other devices used by the language for carrying grammatical level of language has its own character, its own pattern. It has its own grammar in broad outlines which resembles grammar of spoken language, of course, but these are different. For instance, one important difference is that spoken English possess international signals which written English does not carry: for this reason there are instances when written English constructions are ambiguous which does not exist with the spoken form. The two media also have distinctly different ways of signaling the structure of utterances. Spoken language has a complex and comprehensive system of signals to show stress and intonation, this does not exist in written language, except for few devices such as question marks and italics which give very little guidance. Written language has signals such as commas and question marks, which do not have a parallel in the spoken form. When one reads aloud piece of written language it is translated from one form into another and one has to put their own interpretation in many of the written language signals. Nobody reads punctuation marks. (Clotfelter, 2007). This applies to Kiswahili as well where stress

and intonation significantly affect meanings yet in written forms this is mostly done interpreting meaning from a group of words, not a single word. For instance word 'barabara' has two meanings. In written form onus is on the reader to determine where stress is to be placed to bring out the desired meaning-'road' or 'fine/okay'.

Another very important difference between spoken forms is the different scale of values placed upon certain habits by many people. For instance many people including a large proportion of teachers will not tolerate certain forms in writing that they tolerate easily in speech. In English, 'It is I' written but 'it is me' in speech. Similarly in Kiswahili it is common to hear someone say; 'nataka kukula' instead of 'nataka kula'. In Kiswahili however grammatical mistakes are tolerated at a larger scale and at times considered fun. Many radio and television presenters deliberately make grammatical mistakes such as: 'mtoto changu' instead of 'mtoto wangu'. Use of slang compounds this problem. Due to saturation of everyday conversations with such language many students are not able to differentiate correct from incorrect grammar. These mistakes are manifested in students' writings including Insha.

The most important difference between speeches and writing is that writing requires spelling rules. It is common to see some writing by someone thought 'an intelligent decently educated fellow' but who turns out to be a 'semi-literate' because his/her spelling is so bad. The need for an agreed orthography is much more of a nuisance than the need for an agreed pronunciation system and society is much less tolerant of deviant spellings than they are of deviant pronunciations. One can say 'kitoko' or 'kindogo' (instead of kidogo) and the audience would think none the less of each other, but if one spells it as such he/she would be despised.

All these differences mean that teachers cannot afford to regard writing as merely written down speech and content themselves with teaching children to form the graphemes of language letters and words. According to Hucker (2005), one ought to include in their teaching goals the ability to select words and phrases to represent the desired meaning. Activities like vocabulary building are important for efficient reading. It is doubly important for competent writing. There is need to teach learners the skills of putting words together in a meaningful relationship. They have this capacity naturally from their speech experience but in writing it must be with certain rules, for in speech one can repeat or retract break off in the middle of a construction and try another one and so on. But in writing does not have this facility; one has to construct an utterance that has a certain purity and fitness of form. In the act of writing one is at a distance with their interlocutor both in space and in time. They are out of contact. And except when writing a personal letter one hardly ever has a real interlocutor: one has to construct one or a number of them for themselves (Clotfelter, 2007).

For all these reasons, writing must be a taught skill or complex of skills. More than any other of the language arts, writing relies for its quality on good teaching (Syomwene, Nyandusi & Yungungu, 2017). This is further supported by Hucker, (2005) who asserts that writing is a pre-meditated act and thus one has to decide deliberately that they are going to write something and also have to make a decision about what they are going to write. Speaking is mostly a form of natural behavior while writing is a conscious planned act. Unlike reading, writing has no external guide to shape their thinking. A written utterance must be shaped first in the mind. This is, of course, also true of certain spoken utterances; where one has mentally rehearsed what to say. But in writing the mental rehearsal is a prerequisite of the

action. What seems to happen is that an utterance is translated into writing by means of a complicated chain of neural, physiological and physical actions.

There must be a very close connection between ability to read and ability to write. They are both, of course manifestations of a general linguistic ability. If the act of writing is the act of committing to paper written Kiswahili grammar, the basic skill required is the skill to create written Kiswahili grammar. The more one is familiar with written Kiswahili forms, the easier he or she will find it easy to generate them. Good writing has much to do with the ability to handle language in a continuous flow. The skills of literate reading such as being able to ‘chunk’ the information taken in by the eye and brain and relate it to the context in which it occurs, are mirrored in the skills of skilled writing (Nyaega, 2012).

There can be no substitute, then, for the gradual patient acquisition of writing skills—the development of a ‘feel’ for the written language. Learning to write competently is a process of building up experience of different kinds, experience of using language, of conceptualizing written language forms, of being able to reproduce these forms in conventional orthographic and of being able to work with the other conventions of written language (Hucker, 2005). In order to facilitate the development of these forms of experience, teachers must pay attention to the characteristics of different kinds of writing. The writing research unit in London has provided a valuable typology of writing for this purpose. The scheme has three main categories; this describes kinds of writing that represent the two principal roles taken by any writer: the participant role and spectator role. The participant role utilizes first a kind of writing called expressive. Here the reader is interested with the writer and what he/she has to say. The function of expressive writing is to involve the reader in the writer thoughts,

feelings and attitudes. Expressive language should be the base from which children move into other modes of writing Richards, (2008). This is in agreement with Vygotski's (1978) principle of MKO (more knowledgeable other) as the teacher is interested with what and how the learner writes. Writing like any other skill improves with practice as stated by Biays and Wershoven (2007). It is done bit by bit rather than all at once. Producing a piece of writing requires that one thinks, plans, drafts, rethinks, focuses on the topic, revises the written work, edits it and finally proof reads it. This is a very formal procedure that requires a lot of practice and information. Khalili (2014) has pointed out that writing should meet the following standards: follow conventional form, be logical, be simple, be in accordance with tradition, be clear and unambiguous, and be free of errors in grammar be original, vary language for different audience or purposes, express the writer's personality and be imaginative. These suggestions apply to Kiswahili composition as it requires imagination and writing skills. The current poor performance by students in Kiswahili composition in KCSE suggests that students' writing in Kiswahili does not meet the required standards of writing hence the need for a study to look into methodology and preparation as a possible rationale for the poor performance.

Teachers should allow and encourage students to write in everyday language, which is nearest to them, most accessible to them and give expressive writing a central place in the classroom. In expressive writing the children explore their own thought and experience freely and they must not be prohibited or discouraged from it because it tends to be loose in explicit and subjective. Then there is transactional writing, much of which is still created in the role of participant (KIE, 2002b). Transactional writing can be subdivided into two sub-categories; functional and creative. Functional writing is associated with writing of records, reports, generalized narratives, various kinds of

letters, minutes of reports, and other speculative pieces of writing. Creative writing is needed for regulative and persuasive purposes. Both functional and creative writing are compulsory in Paper 1. They are taught right from Form 1 to 4 as outlined in the revised secondary school Kiswahili syllabus (KIE, 2002b).

It is a mistake, almost universally committed to equate an act of thought with writing. Teachers generally assume that a piece of writing is 'thought on paper'. It is not; it is thought which has been mediated- sometimes transmuted by the act of writing. The difference is very evident when a student's oral treatment of an idea is contrasted with his treatment of it in a finalized piece of writing. A spoken treatment can often be lucid and potent; the same student's written efforts may be disorganized, obscure, and inaccurate (Kembo-Sure, 2000). In teaching students to write well it is important to help them to translate their mental and oral thinking into written expression which carries the same logical and expressive force. For this to be done, certain rules must be obeyed. These rules can be borrowed from learning theory as discussed by Biays and Wershoven (2007). There are seven principles of learning enunciated by Skinnerian 'operant conditioning' theorist and all of these can be applied to the teaching of Kiswahili composition writing:

The teacher must concentrate on the student, first of all, not on his written production. He must provide one-to-one, immediate guidance: sit by the student, discuss the subject, accept the student's oral offering, guide it into writing, reinforce it with suggestions for vocabulary, phrasing, style and so on. Secondly, there is need to build from the naïve behavioral repertory. The teacher must stress the value of the student's own 'natural' offering and proceed from there. Teachers are prone to judge the product rather than concentrate on the producer. There is need to pay attention to the

student's approximations on what is nearly right, rather than errors. Thirdly, the teacher should work with freely emitted behavior. Students must be allowed to decide what they want to write; let them write what they like enjoying. It is this spontaneous kind of writing that should be encouraged most.

Fourthly, ensure a high frequency of response. Students must have many opportunities to learn. An essay a month is useless. Giving students an essay a month is least likely to be of much benefit to his acquisition of writing skill. Fifthly; the teacher should ensure a short duration of response. Teachers should require a larger number of short tasks in writing rather than few long ones.

Sixth, reinforce the desired response immediately. Marking as an effort days after it has been written is of little use. A pupil's writing skills should be strengthened as he is writing- on- the- spot. Actual advice is better than a cold appraisal after the event.

Seventh, shape the behavior through intermediate specification of response. A student can regain nothing from the remark at the foot of his essay. He needs guidance while he is still writing so that he can correct his behavior right away.

All of these rules amount to the simple message that writing should be taught in a live situation, while the pupil is actually at work. This message reinforces the principles of modern child-centered personalized teaching. (Biays and Wershoven, 2007).

Chitiavi (2002) undertook a study on the effect of school language policies on communicative competence among Kiswahili students. He found out that school language policies affect learners' communicative competence in Kiswahili by limiting the learners' opportunities to interact in Kiswahili. Such policies included limited days of the week when learners should communicate in Kiswahili, prohibition from

communicating in it, punishment for speaking in it and encouragement of learners to speak in English.

Such language policies affect the learners' spoken Kiswahili and by extension their ability to write Insha. It is such policies that may inhibit the learner's performance in Insha writing. These observations were also made by Ogechi (2003). Kembo-Sure (2000) pointed out that composition writing is a specialized technical skill that cannot be acquired by factors of chance by innate ability but through special instructional methods, teaching strategies and materials that only trained teachers can handle. This calls for careful planning, preparation, and use of instructional media. Luvisia (2003) did a study on using instructional media to teach Kiswahili grammar. He found out that teachers of Kiswahili had a positive attitude towards the use of instructional media in its teaching, though they didn't vary the media used. They mainly depended on the chalkboard and books recommended by KIE. The current study aims at establishing whether the same is true of Insha teaching.

2.3 Kiswahili Instruction for Secondary Schools in Kenya

The development of Kiswahili curriculum in Kenya dates back to the colonial period. In 1926 the conference of governors in East African region declared Kiswahili a tribal language as well as *lingua franka* (Khalili, 2014). As *lingua Franka*, Kiswahili was to be introduced as a language of instruction in the schools located in areas which were occupied by a majority of African natives speaking different languages. Yet as a tribal language, it was to be used as a language of instruction in lower elementary grades (Namulungu, 2007). This marked the formal introduction of Kiswahili syllabus to be taught as a subject in schools in Kenya. In 1972, the Bessey Report recommended the review of the Kiswahili syllabus in Kenya (Republic of Kenya, 1972) Swahili

examination required all answers to be written in Kiswahili language. In 1973, a Swahili literature paper was introduced in secondary school examinations at Ordinary Level. However, the literature as well as language examination in Kiswahili which was to be done at ordinary level was elective. In 1973, Kiswahili literature was offered in the secondary school Advanced Level examinations (Namulungu, 2007). Kiswahili language and literature were taught and examined as separate elective subjects. Being elective implied that a candidate could choose to study Kiswahili language and leave out Kiswahili literature and vice versa. This candidate also had a choice of not studying any Kiswahili paper.

In 1982, the secondary Kiswahili syllabus was revised, putting both Kiswahili language and literature in one booklet to become the Kiswahili syllabus for the Kenya Certificate of Examination. The Kiswahili language syllabus was to be taught from form one to form four, and the literature syllabus was to be taught from form three to form four. The syllabus required the learners to sit for three papers in Kiswahili examination namely; Paper one which examined composition, Paper two testing language use and paper three testing literature. KCE Kiswahili syllabus did not indicate the recommended class readers, supplementary reading texts nor the teaching methodology which would be used to implement the Kiswahili syllabus (Namulungu, 2007). This was the beginning of separation between Kiswahili language and literature during classroom instruction. Subsequently, the secondary form one and two syllabus did not offer literature to learners. This meant that learners who did not select Kiswahili would complete secondary school education without learning the language.

In 1983, The Kenya Advanced Level Kiswahili syllabus was revised and divided into three major sections namely, Paper one which tested grammar, language use, critical

appreciation and the history and the development of Kiswahili language; Paper two tested composition, comprehension and summary while Paper three tested literature (KIE 1983). Neither did the syllabus indicate the exact content to be covered in form five and six nor the methodology to be used in the teaching of language and literature (Namulungu, 2007). That meant that teachers of Kiswahili were left to decide on how they would teach the Kiswahili syllabus in class. The assumption was that they knew what and how to teach based on their training.

With the introduction of 8-4-4 system of education in 1985, Kiswahili syllabus was drastically changed (Odeo, 2011). The Kiswahili syllabus was subdivided into four main sections namely: reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary, listening and speaking. Each class had its content indicated as well as recommended course books to be used. Although the syllabus attempted to integrate Kiswahili language and literature, it did not recommend the methodology to be used in integration of the subject. The main reason for the adoption of the integrated approach was the need to break up compartments between language and literature so as to make the subject a whole unit (Odeo, 2011). From 1985, following the recommendations of The Mackay Commission, Kiswahili became compulsory and examination for all students at both primary school and secondary school levels (Republic of Kenya, 1981). Kiswahili composition therefore was now compulsory and examinable from primary to secondary school.

In 1999, The Koech commission was mandated to enquire into the education system in Kenya with a view to propose ways of reviewing it (ROK, 1999). This was due to an outcry that the 8-4-4 system of education was promoting rote learning and not meeting the national goals of education. In particular the Kiswahili syllabus had

several shortcomings that needed to be addressed. In terms of content, the syllabus left out oral literature at all levels, despite being a very important foundation on which written literature is based. Prescribed texts to be used in the teaching of poetry were left out in order to make teachers and learners have a choice on which texts to use (Namulungu, 2007). The history of Kiswahili language was also left out as well. Subsequently, in 1999 the KIE Research Report recommended a review of the curriculum with a view to respond to the needs of learners and society. There was need to remove unnecessary overlaps in subjects including Kiswahili syllabus (KIE Report, 1999). The major complaint by teachers of Kiswahili concerning secondary Kiswahili syllabus was that integration of language and literature syllabus had made the content broad considering the many set books for literature. Even though the Kiswahili education syllabus was reviewed so that it is taught in an integrated way, it is worth noting that the problem of the syllabus being too wide was not fully addressed.

Professional development should enable teachers to offer students the learning opportunities that will equip them with the right skills for writing Insha. It should also empower individual educators and communities of educators to make complex decisions; to identify and solve problems, to connect theory, practice, and student outcomes in Insha. Ogunde as cited by Chitiavi, (2002) stated that the major changes required to reform schools cannot be accomplished without professional development nor can it be achieved with out-dated models of professional development. These aspects include class administration, lesson planning and teaching strategies.

This means that learners rely heavily on what they receive from their teachers. This explains why many students have the challenge of writing Kiswahili compositions as

this requires a lot of input on the part of the learner. Besides, very few teachers accord Insha sufficient time and effort. Buhere (2001) defines composition as the art of clear thinking in speech and writing. It is an act of making decision about content, style and organization. With regard to these important aspects of composition writing, Freedman (2010) states that it is important that children are introduced to each of these aspects, taught the strategies needed to undertake each stage and given time to undertake each part of the process by their teachers. This view agrees with Vygotsky's theory of Zone of Proximal Development which sees the teacher as a critical element in facilitating learning. There are several stages of composition writing including: prewriting, drafting, revising, editing and publication (Nyaega 2012). The learner cannot go through these stages effectively without the help of the teacher.

Mogambi (2011) considers media particularly electronic as contributing immensely to falling standards of level of Kiswahili in Kenya. He points out that many broadcasters use colloquial Kiswahili especially because it appears popular with listeners. Besides, many of these broadcasters are not competent in Kiswahili as evidenced by their poor use of its grammar. Some print media especially newspapers too use slang which has immense influence to students particularly the young such as pupils in primary school.

2.4 The Role and Nature of Planning for Instruction

Some teachers do not complete detailed schemes of work and lesson plans and then wonder why students do not learn. Although years of experience can shore up less-than-complete planning, nothing compares to well-planned lessons. Comprehensive

schemes and plans increase the likelihood that lessons run smoothly, so that students receive quality instruction.

According to Murunga (2013), instructional process comprises three basic steps. The first is planning instruction which includes identifying specific expectations of learning outcomes, selecting materials to foster these expectations of outcomes and the second step involves delivering the planned instruction to learners- that is; teaching them. The third step involves assessing how well students learn or achieve the expectations of outcomes. As the lesson is taught, the teacher pays close attention to how well students understand key concepts so she can later write notes in her lesson plan book to inform future lessons. Every detail, from the minutes necessary for each phase to notes concerning the best questions for student response, provides insight for the next lesson.

Several scholars have suggested considerations that need to be made in preparing and delivering a Kiswahili composition lesson. These efforts should also take into account the selection of relevant teaching resources and Kiswahili composition writing tasks given to learners during and after the lesson. However, many teachers consider Kiswahili composition as homework and only give a few instructions such as the length of the composition expected (Freedman, 2010). He further suggests that composition writing is a skill that is distinct from the other language skills with its own complexities that can be resolved by using special methods. It is a technical skill that cannot be acquired by chance or by some innate ability but has to be taught. This teaching requires proper planning of what instructional methods to adopt, materials to use, assessment activities and so on. In teaching Kiswahili composition writing, Awino (2011) suggests that teachers of the second language (L2) must prepare

adequately, have a purpose of writing, provide the right help to learners and guide them during the writing process.

The transformation of subject matter for teaching Kiswahili composition writing, occurs as the teacher critically reflects on and interprets the subject matter, finds multiple ways to represent the information as analogies, metaphors, examples, problems, demonstrations and classroom activities; adapts the material to students' abilities, gender, prior knowledge, and preconceptions (those pre-instructional informal, or non-traditional ideas students bring to the learning setting); and finally tailors the material to those specific students to whom the information will be taught (Biays and Wershoven 2007).

One of the greatest challenges facing proper teaching is the premium attached to examination performance by the Kenyan system of education. Kabaji (2011) states that Kenya's education system overburdens the learner with a heavy syllabus that is hard to complete. To deal with this weakness, teachers have devised retrogressive approaches to making children attain good grades. This means that Insha writing is mainly taught for examination purposes. Teachers do not cultivate learners' abilities to express their feelings, ideas and thoughts in their writing. For any successful instructional process Murunga (2013) recommends that the following should be put in place:

First, intentional and proactive ways to address the established goals and the assessment plan. Secondly establish a plan for how instructional materials and strategies will be used to support learner understanding. The third step involves assessing how well students learn or achieve the expectations of outcomes.

In this study the researcher was mainly concerned with how teachers of Kiswahili language align these basic steps with one another in a way that the planned instruction should be logically related to the actual instruction and how this influences how learners of Kiswahili language acquire writing skills. This calls for teachers to come up with a systematic approach to teaching that requires a careful selection of materials, tasks and procedures at all levels of learning. For successful teaching to take place there is need on the part of the teacher to consider all the variables in play (Kabaji, 2011). Odeo (2003) researched on the instructional practices of teachers of Kiswahili and his findings revealed that teachers heavily subscribe to the traditional methods of teaching. Pedagogy though quite often ignored is very crucial in any instructional setting because it is concerned with how various instructional strategies are employed, classroom management, assessment of students, planning for instruction and so on.

Rodgers (2007) advises that in teaching languages teachers must consider the objectives, syllabus specification, types of activities and roles of teachers, learners and materials among others during the preparation process and the process of learning. In order to achieve this, then the teachers and the learners of Kiswahili should be able to utilize all the writing skills in order to achieve the set objectives. This study assumes that adequate knowledge in methodology places the teachers of Kiswahili in a better position to conduct lessons aimed at developing various writing skills.

Borg (2003) observes that poorly trained teachers can teach only what they know, and that as a result, they cling to the textbooks and depend on the narrow framework of the system to give them their sense of security. He further points out that these teachers when in doubt, always fall back onto ways in which they were taught several

years back. Teacher preparation is therefore one of the keys to better instructional approaches and techniques which embrace innovation and change both in education and the society.

Taylor and Richards in Barasa (2005) see “the skill and experience of the teacher” as the fulcrum of the process of the curriculum. They argue further that the teacher’s perception of what was intended by the curriculum developers and teacher’s ability to shape his teaching so as to facilitate the achievement of their interventions add to the realization of the objectives and aims of the curriculum.

Cooper (2003) on teacher’s professional efficiency says that a teacher should process knowledge of the fundamentals of the subject they teach. They should have a sound academic and cultural background. In addition the teacher must have the required professional training without which they will commit serious pedagogical blunders. With the integrated approach to teaching Kiswahili (KIE 2002) a teacher of this subject requires a sound command in all language skills. Since integration is a recent innovation in Kiswahili language instruction, a teacher of Kiswahili is required to attend in-service training programmes.

According to Farrant (2002) many second language learners leave school without the necessary literacy skills to be able to gather information from what is spoken or from printed sources. Studies in literacy development show that proficiency in second-language learning contributes greatly in learning other subjects while lack of knowledge and skills in language affects performance in other subjects. Farrant (2002) explains that efficient learning depends on well-chosen and managed activities suggesting that activities should never be regarded as an end in themselves for it is possible to be very active and yet learn nothing. A good teacher will always give

activity as a means to an end and select with care the activities to use so that they serve best the process of learning. This assertion stresses the fact that task-based activities are essential in learning of language skills. Therefore teachers of Kiswahili should integrate and plan for their utilization within their lessons.

Teachers of Kiswahili language should also plan teaching-learning activities which can be contextualized to bring enjoyment to the exercise. This can be done through a variety of instructional activities. This is why MOE (2002) advocates for learner – centered approaches to teaching with multiple teaching strategies to suit the topic and objectives intended to be achieved. According to Assey and Ayot (2009), the extent to which learners master a skill or concept depends on the way it is presented to them. This view is supported by Murunga (2013) who explain that the way teachers teach contributes greatly to the extent of learning attained.

Richards (2008) elaborate that in “preparing for teaching” planning is the only sure way to ensure educational objectives are achieved. The effects of teaching and assessment on students’ learning should also be considered while planning. Preparation according to Richards (2008) also entails writing schemes of work and preparation of lesson plans. This view is supported by Murunga (2013) who asserts that planning is an important step in teaching. A teacher who plans communicates effectively, logically and presents the right content and ends teaching well in time (Assey & Ayot, 2009).

2.5 The Role of Instructional Methods for Kiswahili Insha

What determines the content and methods of teaching? If the test is the primary determinant of what teachers teach and how they teach it, then they are indeed

“teaching to the test.” But if desired learning goals are the foundation of students' instructional experiences, then assessments of student learning are simply extensions of those same goals. Instead of “teaching to the test,” teachers are more accurately “testing what they teach.” If a concept or skill is important enough to assess, then it should be important enough to teach. And if it is not important enough to teach, then there's little justification for assessing it (Freedman, 2010).

Okwara (2012), states that the teacher's skill in composition writing is dependent on his proficiency in the language and his knowledge of and expertise in methods and techniques of teaching. Freedman (2010) lamented that teachers lacked a coherent theory of learning in respect to writing. According to him, language teachers do indeed have a substantial, though incomplete awareness of the problems students experience in the process of writing but they have only a limited grasp of how learning the necessary skills might take place. He listed several teacher factors that determine achievement in composition writing namely: length and type of professional training, length of relevant teaching experience, teaching strategies employed in teaching writing and the teacher's academic qualifications. Buhere (2001) supports Freedman stating that teachers should be well educated to be able to interpret and implement the curriculum. Gathumbi (2010) identified teacher qualification and experience, teaching methods and evaluation procedure, methods of correcting students' errors, teaching and learning resources and teachers' attitude towards teaching as factors affecting performance.

Owuondo (2010) found out that teachers preferred teaching grammar and literature to composition writing. She noted that teachers did not give writing assignments and that those who gave did not mark. According to her, the few that marked sprinkled a few

ticks over the text. Others gave comments which were all virtually negative and vague such as; write legibly, avoid spelling mistakes, improve on grammar, nothing interesting and sketchy ideas. Such feedback does not give the learner any guidance on correcting his work and only serves to discourage him from writing tasks. Approaches used to teach writing may be classified into either product or process (Nyaega, 2012). Product approach is a traditional approach in which students are encouraged to mimic a model text which is usually presented and analyzed at an early stage. It focuses on the product: production of neat, grammatically correct pieces of writing. Process approach is an approach to teaching writing that places more emphasis on the stages of writing process than on the final product. According to its proponents the writing process should go through brainstorming, organizing ideas, writing, revising and editing drafts.

Nyaega, (2012), states that writing is a process which involves several identifiable steps. It is a complex cognitive behavior and a non-linear process of discovery. According to him, the teacher's role in the process model is to facilitate the writing process rather than provide direct instruction. The teacher gives the student considerable freedom within the task. He encourages students to communicate their own messages. Communication is paramount and therefore the developing but inaccurate attempts at handwriting, spelling and grammar are accepted. In this approach, writing is seen as predominantly to do with linguistic skills such as planning and drafting. There is much less emphasis on linguistic knowledge such as knowledge about grammar and text structure (Mwangi, 2011). The process approach treats all writing as creative act which requires time and positive feedback to be done well. The teacher here moves away from being someone who sets students a writing topic and receives the finished product for correction without any intervention in the

writing process itself. Focusing on language errors improves neither grammatical accuracy nor writing fluency. Feedback is more useful between drafts not when it is done at the end of the task after students hand in their compositions to be marked (Nyaega, 2012).

The development of the ability to write a particular genre requires the learners to be given the opportunity to contact with texts that are examples of that same genre. Through the exposure to similar texts students can notice the specific configurations of that genre. They can also activate their memory of previous reading and/or writing experiences of texts similar to the one they are being challenged to produce. Corrections written on compositions seem to do little to improve student writing. The teacher needs to move away from being a marker to a reader responding to the content of student writing more than form. The teacher's role in the process approach is to facilitate the writing process rather than to provide direct instruction. Clotfelter (2007) further asserts that whereas the product approach focuses on writing tasks in which the learner imitates, copies and transforms teacher supplied models, the process approach focuses on the steps involved in creating a piece of work. The primary goal of product writing is an error-free coherent text. Process writing allows for the fact that no text can be perfect but that a writer will get closer to perfection by producing, reflecting on, discussing and reworking on successive drafts of a text.

2.6 Assessment in Kiswahili Instruction

There are strong evidences that the teacher plays a crucial role in achieving remarkable learning outcomes for students. Teachers' knowledge influences the ability of the teacher to positively teach students as cited by Darling-Hammond, Holtzman, Gatlin & Heilig (2005). Clotfelter (2007) found that the knowledge of

teachers in any school forms an important input variable, which can have tremendous impact on how they teach Insha writing skills. This means that teachers' formal qualification, experience, motivation, creativity, interaction with learners and their methodology may greatly influence how they teach writing Insha.

In addition, teachers' characteristics such as the teaching skills have a direct impact on how they teach as stated by Huang and Moon (2009). This is further elaborated by Wilson and Floden (2001) who opines that inadequate skills of the teachers and their commitment affect their abilities to deliver. In any country, education can play a vital role in the development and attainment of Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). The SDGs main aim is to encourage development by improving social and economic conditions in the world's poorest countries. The SDGs focus on three areas of human development: bolstering human capital, improving infrastructure and increasing social, economic and political rights. Within the human capital focus, education is the key driver. Teachers are an important component of education whose services are important in the realization of educational goals in any country. Due to their central role in the enterprise of education, teachers at all levels require effective and sufficient education and training to be able to adequately carry out their teaching roles and responsibilities. If learners are equipped with communication skills in Kiswahili this can go a long way in being instrumental towards enabling Kenya develop private and development assistance and expansion of market access as Kiswahili is the most commonly used language in Kenya and in East Africa in general.

In line with this the Kenya Vision 2030, the long-term development blueprint for the country articulates the appropriate national goals to meet peoples' aspirations motivated by collective aspiration for a better society (Daily Nation May 17, 2012).

In a world that is becoming more dependent on information, communication and technology (with language being a central factor) its skilled and proficient use is a key factor in economic and social opportunities (Mogambi, 2011). Teachers are thus an important component of education whose services are important in the realization of educational goals the world over. Therefore, in order to participate fully in the realization of the country's vision, the secondary school curriculum should embark on a comprehensive path towards imparting improved writing skills in a language readily understood and that language is Kiswahili. The writing skill has been singled out as one of the most important language skill. This is because all examinations require writing. The writing skill is in itself a process that begins at kindergarten through tertiary institutions and beyond (Mwangi, 2011).

Using classroom assessment to improve student learning is not a new idea. More than 30 years ago, Benjamin Bloom showed how to conduct this process in practical and highly effective ways when he described the practice of mastery learning (Bloom, 1971). But since that time, the emphasis on assessments as tools for accountability has diverted attention from this more important and fundamental purpose.

Asking students to demonstrate their understanding of the subject matter is critical to the learning process; it is essential to evaluate whether the educational goals and standards of the lessons are being met. Teachers who develop useful assessments, provide corrective instruction, and give students second chances to demonstrate success can improve their instruction and help students learn (Huang and Moon, 2009).

Today's students need to know not only the basic reading but also writing skills that will allow them to face a world that is continually changing. They must be able to

think critically, to analyze, and to make inferences. Changes in the skills base and knowledge our students need require new learning goals; these new learning goals change the relationship between assessment and instruction (Mogambi, 2011). Teachers need to take an active role in making decisions about the purpose of assessment and the content that is being assessed. Effective assessments give students feedback on how well they understand the information and on what they need to improve, while helping teachers to better design instruction. Assessment becomes even more relevant when students become involved in their own assessment. Students taking an active role in developing the scoring criteria, self-evaluation, and goal setting, more readily accept that the assessment is adequately measuring their learning. (Frodesen, 2001). When assessing his classroom, the teacher should consider how to allow all students to contribute, how to respond to the student feedback and how often to collect feedback. All types of assessment are based on the principle that the more you understand how students are learning, the more effective your teaching will be (Mogambi, 2011).

To become an integral part of the instructional process, assessments cannot be a one-shot, do-or-die experience for students. Instead, assessments must be part of an ongoing effort to help students learn. And if teachers follow assessments with helpful corrective instruction, then students should have a second chance to demonstrate their new level of competence and understanding. This second chance helps determine the effectiveness of the corrective instruction and offers students another opportunity to experience success in learning (Freedman, 2010).

A majority of students dislike writing. When faced with a writing task, most students will react with comments like “oh no! Not again!” or, “this is so boring.” A teacher

who does not try to see the real message behind these comments could easily become discouraged. (Frodesen, 2001). Eventually, both the teacher and the students will hate writing. To prevent this from happening, the teacher should consider what the students actually mean when they say “boring” and the possibility that students are actually expressing their insecurity and lack of confidence in completing the task. The assessments best suited to guide improvements in student learning are the quizzes, tests, writing assignments, and other assessments that teachers administer on a regular basis in their classrooms (Nasibi, 2003). Teachers trust the results from these assessments because of their direct relation to classroom instructional goals. Additionally, results are immediate and easy to analyze at the individual student level. (Frodesen, (2001). To use classroom assessments to make improvements, however, teachers must change both their view of assessments and their interpretation of results. Specifically, they need to see their assessments as an integral part of the instruction process and as crucial for helping students to learn.

Freedman (2010) asserts that composing is a complex process since it involves inter-related aspects of graphic, linguistic, cognitive and social features. Assessment involves the process of gathering and providing information on the learners’ performance on a learning task through observing, recording and evaluating performance (Nasibi, 2003). Nyaega (2012) describes measurement, evaluation and assessment as related since evaluation involves making judgments in relation to set goals while measurement is its base judgment because judgment made is centered on the data collected through measurement. Thus measurement is dependent on evaluation. Assessment is the overall process comprising the activities of evaluation and measurement.

Twoli, Maundu, Muindi, Kiio & Kithinji, (2007) define assessment as all ways used to measure learning in all forms. Writing is a skill that has not been accorded the attention it deserves in high school education. Students have not been taught to make their ideas flow on paper. They don't know how to write, feel stupid when they can't find the right words, fear criticism and want to avoid the emotional turmoil experienced when faced with a topic and a blank piece of paper (Assey & Ayot 2009). Teachers who want to help their students gain confidence in writing should try to follow a writing process that takes the student from insecurity to success.

The first state that students must go through is that of coming to terms with reality". It is very important that students be made aware of what their actual level of writing is at present. It is also crucial that at this stage teachers must not tell students what they believe their level to be but must provide the right feedback to enable students to see for themselves (Kroll, 2001). This view is supported by Twoli (2007) who groups evaluation into three main categories: baseline, formative and summative. Baseline assessment is an assessment on learners' capabilities on entry to school. It can be used by new teachers to establish the level of learners. It is essential for secondary school teachers teaching Kiswahili in form one. Results of baseline assessment would give them a basis of their teaching that will take care of individual learners' differences. Formative assessment refers to monitoring which takes place every day when teachers respond to the writing that learners are doing or have completed.

Composition writing teachers have long recognized the many benefits of a second chance. They know that students rarely write well on an initial attempt. Teachers build into the writing process several opportunities for students to gain feedback on early drafts and then to use that feedback to revise and improve their writing.

Teachers of other subjects frequently balk at the idea, however—mostly because it differs from their personal learning experiences (Kroll, 2001).

All educators strive to have their students become lifelong learners and develop learning-to-learn skills. What better learning-to-learn skill is there than learning from one's mistakes? A mistake can be the beginning of learning. Some assessment experts argue, in fact, that students learn nothing from a successful performance. Rather, students learn best when their initial performance is less than successful, for then they can gain direction on how to improve (Freedman, 2010).

Using assessments as sources of information, following assessments with corrective instruction, and giving students second chances are steps in a process that all teachers use naturally when they tutor individual students. If the student makes a mistake, the teacher stops and points out the mistake. The teacher then explains that concept in a different way. Finally, the teacher asks another question or poses a similar problem to ensure the student's understanding before going on (Frodesen, 2001). The challenge for teachers is to use their classroom assessments in similar ways to provide all students with this sort of individualized assistance

Summative assessment is a summary of what a child can do, knows and understands that is usually made at transition point such as entry to school, change of class and at the end of a key stage. Nyaega (2012) notes that some teachers do not even mark their students' Insha assignments as expected attributing this to having heavy workload. Giving out and marking Insha tasks is crucial in assisting the learners to nurture and develop their competence in language use. Without practice and proper teacher guidance, there is no way of monitoring whether instructional goals are achieved. Assessing Insha should be treated as normal exercises except for examination

purposes. Marks are not paramount. In assessing Insha writing, teachers should aim at what the learner has learnt or failed to learn and the progress that the learner has made. Concentrating on the learner's mistakes may turn out to discourage and frustrate the student. Awarding students very low marks continuously can be very demotivating. Njuguna (2012) suggests four ways of evaluating learners' Insha. After reading the work, the teacher can assign a number, letter, and grade or give judgment (good/fair) without any comments. The teacher may assign separate numbers, grades or judgments to several categories such as content, spelling and punctuation. Giving general comments at the end of the composition in two or three lines is another way of assessing writing. Finally the teacher may give detailed comments in all different weak areas or spots. These suggestions will assist teachers who rely on either numbers or grades. Students who do not write well should not be fooled into believing that they do. At this stage, commenting only on the positive aspects of a student paper will only create a false sense of confidence in the students. Comments on how to improve poor areas in writing both on paper and in person can help students understand just what their writing is in need of. Once this stage has been satisfactorily completed, then the teacher must move on to reassure students that it will be possible to improve their writing (Frodesen, 2001).

Reassurance is the stage where the students are made to understand that poor writing is not a curse, can be improved and most of all is not something for which they should punish themselves. The message given by the teacher should be, 'now we know what the problem is; let's deal with it'. The teacher at this point is a crucial element in the students writing process because it is at this stage that the student needs an external motivator (Frageau, 2013).

Critics sometimes contend that this approach means “teaching to the test.” But the crucial issue is; what determines the content and methods of teaching? If the test is the primary determinant of what teachers teach and how they teach it, then we are indeed “teaching to the test.” But if desired learning goals are the foundation of students' instructional experiences, then assessments of student learning are simply extensions of those same goals. Instead of “teaching to the test,” teachers are more accurately “testing what they teach.” If a concept or skill is important enough to assess, then it should be important enough to teach. And if it is not important enough to teach, then there's little justification for assessing it (Frageau, 2013).

Error correction is a useful part of writing lessons. It is useful both for the learners and for the teachers to see what language they have and have not learnt. However, sometimes teachers can correct too much (overcorrection) which can frustrate learners. One should note the following points in correcting students: Firstly, as well as correcting errors, one should always praise learners for their work, give positive comments such as ‘well done’, nice language, good hand writing etc. Secondly, one should not confuse correcting with summative assessment. One does not always need to give a remark or grade to every piece of writing. Thirdly, there is no need to correct every mistake, learners can only notice a few corrections each time, so choose the most important mistakes to correct, ones which either make the text difficult to understand or ones which involve grammar that they have studied recently (Kroll, 2001).

Correction can take a long time especially with a big class. It is suggested that the teacher adopts self correction and peer correction strategies. Before correcting a piece of writing, one should get the learner to check it for mistakes, first they should read

through their own work (self correction) to see if they can find any mistakes, then they should give the text to their partners and let him or her check it (peer correction). Often they will be able to correct some of their mistakes without asking the teacher. During this stage the teacher can monitor and answer questions (Frodesen, 2001).

The main reason learners need to write is to practice their writing skill. The accuracy of their writing will improve naturally with time as they practice over and over. One teacher in Eritrea, Tesfahannes has the following strategy in his class:

‘I usually give them writing three times a week, each time I only correct the work of ten learners and I keep careful record of those whose work I correct each time. So I correct one piece of writing for each learner every two weeks. But I never tell them whose work I am going to correct, so they all try hard with every piece of writing they do’ (Gatherer, 2008).

From the above description, when a teacher gives back a piece of corrected writing to the learners, they should make a note of each mistake at the back of their exercise. This practice though making students try to do their best may not make them achieve much considering students do not get feedback frequently enough. If feedback is not given regularly learners may never discover their mistakes and so they may not improve much.

2.7 Appropriate and Effective Feedback in Instruction

Hounsell (2008) defines feedback as the return of information about a result of a process or activity. Feedback can either be positive or negative. Effective feedback should be timely, regular and specific. One of the most valuable aspects of feedback is its ability to foster learner autonomy. Students tend to become self regulated learners when they are provided with detailed feedback on performance as well as guidance for future improvement (Nyaega, 2012). Feedback which specifically identifies

weaknesses in aspects of student writing such as structural and language issues and then offers guidance in addressing these can better equip the student to proofread and self-correct in future (Hounsell, 2008). When explicitly linked to assessment tasks, learning outcomes and marking schemes, feedback functions to create and maintain meaning for teachers and students alike through a reinforcement of the purpose of assessment and how it relates to the learning outcomes. Feedback affects self esteem and motivation of students (Nyaega, 2008). Frageau (2013) notes that motivation is probably the longest activity in this process of feedback. Tasks which allow students to narrow down their expectations and move step by step towards the final goal of success will show them what they can do rather than what they can't. Each task should be set at a level higher than the previous one, thus with each task students will build confidence and become motivated to move on to the next step. A first baby step brings with it claps and screams of joy even though the step is not perfect. A positive reaction from parents will get the baby to attempt another step, just as positive reaction from the teacher will get the students to go a step further. Without realizing it with each step the student will gain courage. Once motivation has taken the student step by step towards higher achievement and self confidence, fear and insecurity will have been replaced with courage and students will feel the need to show what they can do (Leki, 2013). Maintaining students' courage at a specific level is very important. If students have been pushed towards unattainable goals they will have gained a false sense of courage and their initial attempt at the final goal will bring disappointment to both the teacher and the student.

Written feedback is an essential aspect of any language writing course. This is especially true with the predominance of the process approach to writing that requires some kind of second party feedback- usually the instructor- on students' drafts. So

dependant is current writing instruction on instructor feedback that Kroll (2001) describes it as one of the two components most central to any writing course with the other being the assignments the students are given. The goal of feedback is to teach skills that help students improve their writing proficiency to the point where they are cognizant of what is expected of them as writers and are able to produce it with minimal errors and maximum clarity.

The most prominently used methods of feedback fall into two common categories: feedback on form and feedback on content. The most common methods of feedback on form are outright teacher correction of surface errors, teacher markings that indicate the place and type of error but without correction, and underlining to indicate the place and type of error but without correction, and underlining to indicate only the presence of errors. The first requires students to copy the corrections and the later two require students to correct the errors on their own (Hounsell, 2008).

Feedback on content consists mainly of comments written by teachers on drafts that usually point out problems and offer suggestions for improvement on future compositions. Students are usually expected to incorporate information from the comments into other versions of their paper. Many faults have been found with standard practices of providing feedback on content (Cohen & Cavaleri, 2011). Fathman and Walley (2012) as well as Frageau (2013) report that teacher feedback on content in the form of teacher comments is often vague, contradictory, unsystematic and inconsistent. This leads to various reactions by students including confusion, frustration and neglect of the comments. Leki (2013) reports that when presented with written feedback on content, students react in three main ways: The students may not read the annotations at all, may read them but not understand them, or may understand

them but not know how to respond to them. Teacher comments on content are of little use if students do not know what they mean or how to use them productively to improve their skills as writers. As Fathman & Walley (2012) note, much like correction of grammar mistakes, comments on content tend to be negative and point out problems more than tell students what they are doing right.

Despite these negative aspects there are effective points to some of the common methods of teacher feedback. Fathman and Walley (2012) discovered that when students receive grammar feedback that indicated the place but not type of errors, the students significantly improved their grammar scores on subsequent rewrites of the papers. This idea is echoed by Frodesen (2001), who notes that indirect feedback is more useful than direct correction.

Written feedback has also been found to be effective when it is coupled with student-teacher conferencing (Frageau, 2013). As noted earlier, many students find understanding written feedback problematic. Conferencing allows both students and teachers a chance to trace the causes of the problems arising from student writing and feedback and to develop strategies for improvement. During their sessions, teachers can ask direct questions to students in order to gain a deeper understanding of students' writings. Also students are able to express their ideas more clearly in writing and to get clarification on any comments that teachers have made. Finally teachers can use conferencing to assist students with any specific problems related to their writing Leki (2013).

One important aspect of feedback that is often overlooked is the desire of students as to the kinds of feedback they wish to receive. Frageau (2013) notes that students want to participate in process approach to writing that allows for multiple rewrites as well

as conferencing of some sort. Frodesen (2001) asserts that students want to take part in conferencing and find it more effective than written comments. Leki (2013) points out that students prefer error correction methods that label mistakes and let them make corrections on their own. Finally, Cohen and Cavaleri (2011) mention that students want to have some kind of feedback pertaining to the content of their writings.

Teachers have to come up with an effective method of feedback that take into account the shortcomings of common methods of feedback, the positive aspects of them and the desires of students. The goals of a particular writing course are one of the main factors that need to be considered when determining how to provide feedback. Feedback that is a mismatch with assignment or course goals may be one of the factors contributing to students not knowing how to properly respond to it. Among these are considerations of course and assignment goals, the stage of the writing process and the form of the feedback (Frageau, 2013).

Aside from the aforementioned effectiveness of making errors for student self correction, other methods of feedback on grammar can be productive in improving students writing skills. To lessen student confusion, teachers should consistently use a standard set of symbols or markings to indicate place and type of error and train the students in what kinds of corrections to make based on each symbol. List of proofreading symbols can easily be found in most writing textbooks, or teachers can create their own (Frodesen, 2001). Furthermore teachers should familiarize students with the system so they will not be surprised when new symbols occur.

Many of the same kinds of improvements that can be made for feedback on form can also be made for feedback on content. The failure of written comments dealing with

content comes from a combination of using inconsistent, unclear comments along with not training students in how to properly use the feedback to improve. Teachers should consistently use a standard set of clear and direct comments and questions to indicate place and type of content feedback. These types of comments and questions should focus students' attention on the content of the composition and the process they followed instead of merely pointing out areas that the teacher found interesting or lacking. As Leki (2013) points out, these kinds of questions and comments can be used to create a dialogue between the student and the teacher in order to give both a clearer understanding of how the assignment was and should be conceived and executed. Furthermore, teachers should as with grammar, familiarize students with the type of comments that will be used and train students on how to make use of the comments to better their writing. Students are likely to ignore the comments, misunderstand them or fail to use them constructively (Cohen & Cavaleri, 2011; Kroll, 2001).

The comments that the teachers use and training that they give students can be further developed in individual conferences. Aside from conferences to determine if students understand and are making use of feedback, teachers can also use them to explain their comments to students. Conferences are excellent time for teachers and students to ask direct questions to each other and uncover any misunderstandings by either party (Frodesen, 2001). One way to do this would be to present students with pre-conference sheets that allow them to prepare questions for the teachers beforehand. Likewise, the teacher should also prepare a list of comments and questions before the conference.

Many teachers agree that students' papers are amusing to read but difficult to grade. Standards might be issued from the ministry of education. Such centralized control has both positive and negative aspects to it. On the positive side, all students/candidates' compositions would be judged by the same standards. On the negative side, standards tend to squelch creativity and innovation. Two methods of evaluation writing have been described (Kroll, 2001); the holistic and the analytic. The holistic method at the entire writing as communication; the analytic method looks, bit by bit, at all the rules of grammar and spelling, as applied to each word, sentence and paragraph. Analytic methods grading are useful mostly to people who see trees, instead of the forest. The holistic grading method looks at the forest, the whole art of communication. Of the two methods, the holistic method is better. Teachers can calibrate themselves, or agree on certain standards within a corpus of student paper. Teachers agree before a grading session starts what an "A" paper is, a "B" paper is, and the rest of the grades and gradations. With calibrated teachers who evaluate with a good will and a deep store of humour students' papers are not as difficult to grade as it might seem on the surface (Kroll, 2011).

The most common problem that confronts teachers of writing class does not lay so much on what to ask students to write about. The difficulty is more on how to motivate the students to write interesting and effective materials. Writing for writing sake is a drag, and produces boring output. By combining the teaching of writing with other skills, the teacher allows students freedom to express themselves meaningfully.

2.8 Teacher's Role in Instruction

There are specific characteristics about the language teacher that greatly influence and determine how the whole instructional process will be structured and conducted.

These basically include the teacher's knowledge in relation to:

- i) First, skills and abilities in language;
- ii) Second, the language learning and language pedagogy;
- iii) Third, the learners and how they learn language;
- iv) Lastly, the teacher's teaching experience (Omulando, 2009).

The language teaching process is influenced by two major variables; the teacher and the learner as expressed by Mwangi (2011). This scenario clearly presents what is expressed by Gathumbi and Masembe (2005) concerning the relationship that exists between "education and learning" and "education and teaching". These authors argue that because learning can take place even without teaching, learning has a tighter relationship with education compared to that of education and teaching. This concept brings the learner into greater focus in the whole instructional process especially if the desired learning outcomes are to be attained. However, they emphasize the fact that for effective learning to take place, there must be effective teaching and that is why it is of paramount importance to focus on teaching as a factor in the instructional process. Omulando (2009) argues that language teaching as an educational activity should at least take into consideration what educational theory has to offer and what language teaching has in common with other educational activities.

Good teaching is very important for effective language instruction. Mwangi(2011) acknowledge the fact that poor teaching hampers learning. Gathumbi and Masembe (2005) further note that the decision made on what to do in a particular lesson depends on the assessment made of all the factors involved in teaching the students in that situation. These are materials, syllabus, methodology and resources. A syllabus is usually obtained by the teacher of language. In Kenya, they are usually designed and prepared at national level by education specialists assigned the task by the Ministry of Education (MOE) at the Kenya Institute of Education (KIE). A syllabus usually outlines the content to be covered and long-term objectives of teaching the subject. It also offers guidance on the forms of methodology that can be used in the instructional process. However, the language teacher should not, as emphasized by Gathumbi and Masembe (2005) just consider the syllabus implementation. The syllabus is not sacrosanct as the subject matter is not detailed. It only provides a framework for language teaching. It is, therefore, the onus of the teacher to decide how to use it; specifically so because “the syllabus... is usually not within the control of most ordinary teachers” (Kroll, 2001). From the syllabus, the teacher is expected to come up with an appropriate breakdown of the topics, appropriate and effective teaching strategies to ensure effective and efficient language teaching. It is necessary that a language teacher understands the syllabus and how the content relates and builds in order to implement it effectively. This can be achieved through effective instructional planning by use of well thought out schemes of work and lesson plans (Frageau, 2013).

2.8.1 Writing: Function and Audience Categories

There are several factors which contribute in determining the nature and quality of writing process in the secondary school and which must be appreciated by the teacher as important variables to be considered whenever a student is given a writing task of any significance within a given subject or curricular field (Kroll, 2001). They are:

The degree to which a writer is involved in the writing task (whether he/she fully engages in the task or whether he/she performs it perfunctorily). Secondly, the writers' sense of audience as they prepare and complete writing tasks (that is, their expectations regarding their readers' views of what they write). Audience in the secondary school is usually considered mature enough to note mistakes.

Thirdly, the teacher's expectations with regard to the class, whether as a group or as individuals. Fourthly, the function served by the writing task as perceived by the writers-that is, the demands made upon them by a particular task such as telling a story, writing up a laboratory report, composing a poem, writing a history essay or completing a questionnaire.

Fifthly, the variety of language resources which individual students bring to their writing. For instance, the extent to which these resources include experience in reading about a given topic. Sixth, the extent to which the writing is a means to some practical end beyond the writing task itself.

Two of these variables; sense of audience and function of writing task can be elaborated into two distinct sets of categories which researchers find helpful in describing systematically a wide range of opportunities and demands facing the young writer in the secondary school. The resultant two dimensional model of function and

audience categories is useful teaching aid by means of which teachers of all subjects can map out the 'writing territory' appropriate to their particular specialism. It enables teachers to clarify for students the purposes, expectations and conventions which govern different writing tasks: equally importantly, it opens up a far wider range of function and audience possibilities than many are aware of.

2.8.2 The Writer's Sense of Audience

The writer's sense of audience, his interpretation of his reader's expectation as they affect his writing- is revealed by the way in which he expresses a relationship with that reader with regard to the writing task being undertaken. Five categories of audience are suggested: the writer's own self, his/her teacher, a wider audience known to him/her, an unknown audience and additional categories (Kroll, 2011).

2.8.3 Categories of Functions Served by Writing

A writing function may be defined as the conventional or typical purpose which a piece of writing is designed to serve. The function category represents an attempt to provide a framework for the question, 'why are you writing? Their linguistic genesis is to be found in the concept of context or 'universe of discourse' to use a roughly equivalent term (Shen, 2003).

Whenever one writes, they use one of the four modes or forms of writing: exposition, description, narration or persuasion. The purpose in writing determines which mode one uses. If the purpose is to inform or explain, one uses exposition. If the purpose is to convey an impression of a description for the purpose of telling a story, one uses narration. To convince the reader that one's opinion is correct one uses persuasion (Stiggins, 2002).

Who should our learners write for? Sometimes teachers think that they have to read and correct everything that their learners write. This is not true. Learners can write for each other. For instance, after writing learners can swap with their partners to read what their partner has written. Another way is where learner displays their texts on the walls of classroom then they walk round and read a selection of their classmates' work, this is called gallery reading (Richards, 2008).

Learners can also publish what they have written for example by creating a class storybook or a 'book review notice board' in the school library. Learners are very interested in what their classmates think about their writing, so we can also get them to provide peer feedback on what they have read (Kroll, 2001). He also points out the importance of collaborative writing. He posits writing does not always have to be individual work, learners can benefit from doing some types of writing in pairs or three. This makes them benefit from working together and sharing ideas to produce a balanced piece of writing. When they do a writing task in this way, the process of writing involves discussion, peer correction and peer reviewing, all of which are useful ways for learners to practice speaking and provide peer-correction. In this way, the process becomes as important as the product (the text they write) (Richards, 2008).

2.9 The Role of Strategy in Teaching

Nasibi (2003) defines strategy as a learning experience. It is the overall way in which the process of instruction is organized and executed. As a science teaching it involves a repertoire of techniques, procedures and skills that can be systematically studied and described and therefore transmitted and improved. As an art, teaching calls for reflective thinking about the content methodology and resources. Twoli et

al (2007) describes teaching as a process of telling or showing someone how to do something through talking, explaining, showing, illustrating or demonstrating. This shows that teaching is about adopting various methods in order to pass knowledge to learners. For effective teaching to occur, planning, solving problems, creating instruction and making decisions become key elements in reflective teaching.

Concerns from previous studies indicate that Insha has not been receiving the art and science of teaching (Nyaega 2012). As an art, Njuguna (2012) found out that the style used by composition teachers in teaching composition was not effective. Concerning teaching resources and methods, Awino (2011) laments on lack of improvisation among teachers. The scientific nature of Insha teaching is described by the systematic way of delivering the Insha lesson. She suggests steps that would yield positive results starting from topic selection, methods of teaching and assessing and teaching resources selection. Mogambi (2011) suggests that the teaching of Kiswahili Insha needs to be approached from a practical position rather than a theory. The subject is supposed to be practiced and not merely taught in class and regurgitated in examinations. Nearly all masters of prose agree that the best way of moulding students into excellent writers or speakers is by exposing them to the best writers or speakers contemporary and ancient (Nyaega, 2012).

Grammar is nothing but the speech habits of accomplished speakers and writers. Citing an English playwright Ben Johnson, Buhere (2001) says for one to write well there are three requirements: to read the best authors, observe the best speakers and much exercise of their style. One who hears and reads well-framed sentences will naturally more or less tend to use similar ones. In the field of language pedagogy, methodology encompasses the terms approach, methods, and strategies (classroom

practices/techniques/activities/procedures). Any methodology chosen must be both effective and efficient. This can be measured by the language teacher gauging the learning outcomes (Kroll, 2011).

In order to achieve this, it is however important to note that there is no one particular method or technique that has been known to have a magic solution to all teaching problems (Gathumbi and Masembe, 2005) Further, they emphasize that integration of various teaching techniques has been known to hold the key to better teaching outcomes. Similar thoughts are expressed by Barker and Westrup (2006) who after considering various approaches to language teaching note that:

“The effectiveness of each teaching depends on your situation and on the needs of your situation and on the needs of your students ... Using activities from a variety of teaching methods help students to learn better. This is because using different approaches, activities and materials makes learning more interesting and give all students an opportunity to make progress. It also means that you can incorporate new ideas gradually; starting with what is familiar and slowly introducing new methods’.

In any educational system teachers must be concerned about their learners and how best they can work towards attaining the best possible outcomes. Therefore, teachers must immediately pursue new campaigns of the mind and spirit, setting the highest standards for students’ intellectual achievements. They must become deeply concerned with the knowledge and skills of education and assessment designed to foster those accomplishments (Kroll, 2011).

There are different stages in the process on which the teaching of writing should focus (Whitaker, 2010). The first stage is brainstorming. During this stage, students give their ideas a free flow and make a note of anything that comes to their minds. The second stage is organizing ideas whereby the student decides which ideas of the

previous stage to keep or discard as irrelevant. The remaining ideas are then organized into a logical sequence. The third stage is drafting. In this stage the students should attend to text generation globally.

This means that on the sentence discourse level, the student needs not to worry about finer nuances of the appropriateness of individual words as yet as this will come in the fourth stage of revising and editing, where students then check organization and sequence of ideas, attend to appropriateness of cohesive devices and make necessary changes. Then they take time to attend to appropriateness of individual words and correct possible grammatical mistakes. In the final stage (proofreading) students are expected to attend to spelling and punctuation. When they are done, students' work should be evaluated and feedback given on their drafts. Following feedback students re-write their compositions trying to eliminate indicated mistakes as well as they can. The proposed study sought to establish whether or not teachers in Kapseret Sub-County were aware of these stages and whether they used them to teach Kiswahili composition writing skills.

Gathunga (2012) offers an elaborate description of what he considers as the various facts of the learning process which include: the learner, the teacher, the learning environment, the goal of learning, the methodology, knowledge and skills to be acquired. He observes that the above require that any teacher must acquire a sound knowledge of learning, its nature and its process, ensuring that teaching and learning is effective, efficient and inspirational. He should know well the operations and approaches to use proper strategies and if needed to evolve new strategies of teaching and learning. This whole process is dependent upon the nature of teaching conducted because it is possible that learners may be taught but fail to learn anything

(Golafsheni, 2005). This implies that “poor teaching” will undermine the goal of learning while ‘good teaching’ will facilitate the process of learning and the attainment of the set instructional objectives. Therefore all teachers must be well oriented in educational issues and equipped with appropriate knowledge, skills and attitudes in order to effectively and efficiently handle any instructional situation.

The teacher should be in a position to respond in appropriate ways to the different learning needs of individuals and the varying circumstances of particular situations (Farrant 2002). Teaching has to do with the teacher helping the teachers to behave in new and different ways; thus the effective teacher is one who is able to bring about intended learning outcomes (Cooper 2003). Borg (2003) sees teaching writing skill as a process. This view is supported by Tsui, (2006) who says that both the process and the product of writing should be assessed and evaluated, allowing students and teachers to focus on and assess the learning that takes place during writing, rather than trying to ascertain what has been learned from the finished product only. On the same note, Hyland (2002) says that the basic components of the writing process are similar from writer to writer but each writer is unique and develops an individual writing process. He further notes that writing abilities are largely acquired by practice and frequent writing. While instruction may be required about some writing skills and knowledge, it must be conducted within the context of students writing and should not be broken into isolated sub-skills, which are less likely to transfer to the students’ writing.

The concept of teaching then implies that in the instructional process the central focus should not only be on the teacher and the content to be taught but also in the learner

who should be considered as a very important player. Such an instructional process will address these fundamental questions as outlined by Mwangi (2011):

- i) How is it going to be conceived in relation to the needs of the learner?
- ii) How is it going to be understood in terms of requirements of the content of education in order to bring about the desired results?
- iii) How is it to be characterized in terms of the needs of the society, society's aims and values?

The implication here then, is that effective teaching involves the teacher and the learner. In the general history of teaching and learning the central focus has been on the teacher. Students and the learning environment have received remote attention yet they are powerful components of effective teaching. (Gamson and Archer 2000), discussing issues on approaches to teaching note that:

‘Prior to the 1970s it seemed reasonable to study teacher effectiveness by focusing on specific teacher behaviors. This was a logical deduction from the then powerful behaviourist school of psychology, which tended to view education as a linear process in which are adjusted stimuli in order to produce desired responses. One of the stimuli that could be manipulated was teacher behavior particularly presentation techniques for giving feedback to students so as to produce desired response. However, little attention was given to the values and beliefs upon which teachers based their decisions. There was even less attention paid to student thought processes, and the desirability or worthwhileness of the proposed learning outcomes’.

However, the recent approaches to teaching emphasize the role of the learner and the learning environment, in facilitating the learning process. Farrant (2002) posits that modern teaching recognizes that the process of education is not a simple matter presenting and receiving knowledge but is a process that involves the whole of the personality and is affected as much by physical, social and economic factors of

environment as by teachers. This realization has made teachers much more conscious of the value of the school and the classroom as aids in support of their own programme of direct teaching. Their aim is to provide a favourable educational environment.

Any language teacher should ensure that the most conducive environment is created within the classroom to facilitate the teaching process and enhance the language learning ability in the learner. It is further noted that language teaching involves organizing learning environment and language use/or language learning tasks and activities that are intended to facilitate students' language development Farant (2002). According to Clotfelter (2007), learning strategies are ... any set of operations, steps, plans, routines used by the learner to facilitate the obtaining, storage and uses of information. Byrne (2009) state that language learning strategies are

“... intentional behaviours and thoughts used by learners during learning so as to better help them understand, learn or remember new information.”

Teaching and learning of a language goes beyond the usual instructional process in class. That is, the presence of a teacher, the learner and the lesson content. The language teacher is required to manipulate the situation to ensure that the most appropriate language teaching strategies are used in order to enhance language learning. The choice of strategy should be guided by the nature of the learners, the learning conditions, the topic to be covered and the teacher's knowledge, skill and ability to use that strategy.

Recent developments world-wide in the teaching of language have tended towards communicative and heuristic approaches with much of their emphasis on the learner, linguistic content, issues of integration and communication skills (Buhere, 2001).

More and more researchers since 1970's have come to agree that the aim of learning language is to acquire the communicative competence of using the language, rather than pure linguistic competence. The vast number of language teaching methods has led to the problem in the choice of the most appropriate language teaching approaches/methods to use. Benton et al (2012) suggest that anyone who aspires to be entirely professional about teaching language would ask the following questions: Are the learners reading, writing, listening or talking? Are they practicing the production of correct forms or are they practicing the use of forms they already learnt? Are they operating grammatical rule, a collocation pattern or an idiomatic form of expression? Are they using words, phrases and sentences in appropriate contexts to convey the message they actually intended to convey? Are they concentrating on accuracy on language or communication? Any language teacher who is able to appropriately provide answers to these questions, these scholars consider, will be in a very good position to ascertain the nature of language activity taking place, therefore be able to engage appropriate language teaching strategies. It is the responsibility of the language teachers to offer direction on exactly what should be done in language classrooms regarding language teaching strategies and language learning strategies, all embedded within the existing language acquisition and language theories alongside language methodologies that seem to work best. Gathumbi and Masembe (2005) emphatically note that,

‘a conscious understanding of second language learning principles helps teachers to examine those principles critically and to make the necessary adjustments thereby improving their teaching’.

In a discussion on theories, grammar and methods in second language learning, they note that there are two most fundamental questions in second language acquisition research:

- i) Through what processes do learners learn a second language?
- ii) How can the teacher best enable and support those processes?

This discussion points to the very fact that these two questions have not adequately been addressed because ‘research based theories of second language acquisition have paid insufficient attention to classroom-based learning, preferring to scan a broader horizon of acquisition in general and often in experimental laboratory-type setting (Freedman, 2010).

Strategy can be considered a classroom activity specifying the teacher-learner roles in a language classroom. This is a loose term used to give general description of “what will happen in a classroom... what generally and physically, the students are going to do”. Barker and Westrup (2000). The roles of both the learner and the teacher are very important during the instructional process. Awino (2011) devote much attention to teacher and learner roles in language instruction. She points out that a method will reflect assumptions about the contributions that learners can make to the learning process through the aid of the teacher. She suggests that learner roles are very closely related to the functions and status of the teacher which is greatly controlled and determined by the methods the specific teacher chooses to use. She further notes that some methods are totally teacher dependent, while others allow the teacher some freedom of control and learner autonomy during the instructional process. Such methods give the teacher the role of a catalyst, consultant or guide. Barton (2002) highlights the fact that strategies require that learners adapt to a range of roles brought out in the language teaching methods available and three of these that are learner centered are:

- i) The learner is involved in a process of personal growth.
- ii) The learner is involved in a social activity, and the social and inter-personal roles of the learner cannot be divorced from psychological processes.
- iii) Learners must take responsibility for their own learning, developing autonomy and skill in learning how to learn.

2.10 Related Studies

A study by Sifuna in Mwangi (2011) on primary schools entitled, “The Impact of New Primary Approach on the Quality of Teaching in Primary Schools in Kenya” pointed out that although much had been said about the quality of those who go into teaching, there had been no attempt to predict performance in teaching. He recommended that teacher- learner interaction analysis be used as a means of helping teachers to become better in teaching and yielding good results. Mwangi (2011) observed that poor teaching and inappropriate teacher behaviours are not deliberately or consciously done by the teachers concerned. Therefore, if the teachers were made aware of this discrepancy they would try to adjust accordingly.

Kinyanjui (2009) carried out research on immediate feedback on the teaching behaviour patterns in secondary schools in Kenya. Nonetheless, when the teacher took control of the class, she realized that the students’ freedom was limited and they were denied opportunities to be creative. She noted that the teachers dominated the classroom talk and most of the time they controlled the classroom interchange by giving direction to the students on what to do or say. This behaviour inhibited students’ participation in classroom activities.

Njogu (2003) in his research on quality of classroom interaction and its effects on performance, observed that the greater the verbal classroom interaction between a teacher and a student, the better the students' performance. Omar (1996) also carried out a study in secondary schools in Physics, Chemistry, English and Kiswahili. In her research, "Variation of Teaching Behaviour Patterns of Teachers with Different Class Levels and Subjects" she observed that, teachers teaching different class levels did not exhibit different teaching behaviour patterns.

However, those teaching different school subjects exhibited different teaching behaviour patterns. She recommends that teachers be in-serviced, with the aim of sensitizing them on the necessity to develop a domestic classroom climate which would help to motivate and sustain learning in students.

As can be deduced from above, Kenyan researchers have observed that teachers interact differently with their students. As a result of this, some students are encouraged to participate in the learning activities while other are discouraged from any form of classroom participation in the learning process.

Muthwii (2011) compared trained versus untrained teachers interaction in primary schools. In his study, he found out that teachers in Kenya were authoritarian and used lecture method 80 percent of the teaching time. Maritim (2003) found that students who initiate interaction with teachers in classroom achieve higher grades than those who don't. This can only take place after the learner has gained confidence. The teacher therefore needs to use appropriate teaching methods. Ochola (2005) carried out a study in teaching methods used in Kenya Secondary schools. From the data collected he found that both science and arts teachers used the lecture method more than any other, which is teacher- centered.

Muthwii (2011) studied teacher-pupil discourse events and teachings styles of chemistry teachers in Machakos District in Kenya. He found out that there existed some considerable difference in teaching styles between teachers. He also found out that the teacher talk was more dominant with pupil talk accounting for only 16.7% of the total talks. Gathumbi (2010) in her study done in rural and urban secondary schools found that teacher talk dominated the English language classrooms for 75% of the time with student talk taking only 25 percent of the total verbal transactions. Classrooms were teacher-centered and the questions asked were closed thereby constraining students' thinking processes.

Claessen (1993) recommends that work in small groups should be seen as the only way to provide students with an opportunity to develop their ability to think for themselves. He also argues that teachers in a school have the collective responsibility in fostering the intellectual developments and students competence in using their main tool of learning.

Wanyama (2007 in Koross 2008) reported that in addition to the teachers' enthusiasm in promoting academic success, also the use of the integrated approach in Kiswahili, the use of various teaching techniques was consistently related to the students achievement. The poor performance in Kiswahili has always been associated with poor methods of teaching. For example, Ambula (2006) states that the cause of poor standards in Kiswahili paper in general reveals that teaching and learning standards in secondary schools in Kenya had deteriorated due to poor methods of teaching used.

Similar sentiments were expressed in the Daily Nation (July 24, 2003) by a renowned author of Kiswahili primary educational books Wallah Bin Wallah when he observed that most teachers of Kiswahili dwell on old training methods of teaching due to their

inability to adopt research findings on teaching. He asserts that unless teachers were helped to adopt modern teaching trends geared towards academic excellence, examination failures would persist. Wallah notes that teachers need to update their skills in accordance with the changing trends to meet students' demand. Those who wallow in ignorance can therefore not be equal to the job (Daily Nation July 24, 2003). His views are further supported by Odeo (2003) who recommended frequent seminars, workshops and in-service courses for teachers of Kiswahili. The purpose of such activities should be, among others, specifically focus on enlightening, updating, refreshing and sharpening teacher's knowledge and skills.

Leithwood (2004) describes the teachers as the key factors in contributing towards any enhanced quality classroom experience. He stresses that poorly trained teachers are unable to foster a child-centered learning environment. Hendrikz (2007) emphasizes that the teacher should use appropriate instructional methods for better results. According to Hendrikz, teacher's knowledge of the subject should not be overlooked since it is essential for arranging for successful learning.

Koross (2008) states that teachers find it difficult learning new strategies cut across the old habit and assumptions and invalidated worn-out skills. Teachers then need to improve on through training and in-service courses. He further states that many teachers do not read after leaving college. Training is a necessary condition for effective performance of teaching roles and responsibilities.

Teacher and learner attitude plays a very important role in the acquisition of knowledge (Kinyanjui, 2009). Mutua (2008) in describing the role of attitude in learning states that poetry is usually described as the most difficult genre of literature to understand and many students shy away from studying it. Yet poetry is the most

common form of literary expression, having its origin in the oral tradition of song and art. Many students feel that poetry is not part of their lives but belongs to the poets. Students also fear Ushairi because of the vocabulary used especially words borrowed from ancient Kiswahili dialects (Njogu, K. and Chimerah, R. 1999). They point out that many teachers have a negative attitude towards the teaching of Kiswahili (particularly those teaching other subjects) and they pass the attitude to students. These makes the students disinterested and assume that Kiswahili lessons are not important. They therefore spend most of their time concentrating on other subjects. This contributes to their poor performance in Kiswahili. In dealing with this problem, Mwangi (2011) suggests that there is need to change learners' attitude and employ more learner-centered methods of teaching such as group discussion. Byrne (2006) however identifies two factors that generally determine the success or failure of a discussion:

1. The stimulus for discussions should consist of activities that motivate the learners by making them want to talk. This depends largely on how the activities are presented to them. Activities that learner-centered and task-based are more effective.
2. The role of the teacher, either in class discussion or when he joins group activity is to facilitate and give guidance when required. The teacher should not impose his or her opinion on the learners but should instead encourage them to express theirs.

Any opinion offered by the teacher should only serve to stimulate further ideas on the part of the learners. The teacher should also appear to be more interested in the learners' ideas rather than mistakes they make. This will keep the discussion going.

The teacher should also be patient, informal and relaxed during group discussion. Such an attitude make students feel at ease.

According to Odeo (2003), one of the major problems facing oral literature teaching in schools is the teacher attitude. He asserts that in spite of Oral Literature in Kiswahili being integrated into Kiswahili syllabus, many teachers shy away from it while some avoid teaching it perceiving it as being difficult. He traces this problem from diploma colleges and universities where oral literature remains an elective subject implying that some teachers may not have been trained in it as their teaching subject.

According to research by Kavochi (2003), teachers' mastery of theories about various aspects of Oral Literature in Kiswahili is very wanting, and this affects how they handle the subject in class. He notes that more emphasis is put on other areas of the Subject. According to language learning, people who have a positive self-image will seek to obtain more input and by so doing acquire the content and hence the knowledge. Attitude is the way one thinks and feels about somebody or something that shows how one feels or thinks. Therefore a student may feel fasihi is difficult or easy and behave in such a way as to show difficulty or simplicity (Koross, 2008).

Gitau (2003) found out that teachers were enthusiastic in teaching Kiswahili while students did not have any motivation in learning it. This explains why the teacher is crucial in determining learning outcomes. A teacher need not only teach but also change the attitude of the learner towards content being taught. From the foregoing discussion it is worth noting that teachers' instructional roles have a lot of effect on how teaching activity is carried out.

According to Chitiavi (2002), school improvement and effectiveness leading to high academic achievement can be contributed by various inputs but the most important is effective teaching. This calls for proper planning, use of appropriate teaching methods, the right and adequate class activities including feedback and supervision. Leithwood, 2004 supports this view pointing out that even school leadership is second to classroom instruction in terms of priority. These observations together with the poor performance noted in Insha in national examinations show that there is need for this area to be researched on.

2.11 Conclusion

The foregoing discussion shows the crucial role played by the teacher right from planning, actual teaching, assessing and evaluation. In the end it is the quality of the essay that will ascertain the success of the entire exercise. Feedback from learners is therefore very important. Most of the frequently used and relied on methods of teacher feedback on written assignments are ineffective when it comes to developing and promoting students writing skills. Methods such as outright correction of surface errors, inconsistently marking errors, unclear and vague responses on content have all been found to have little positive and some negative impact on students writing skills. They can lead to feelings of confusion and frustration. Teachers need to develop more systemized and consistent forms of feedback that take advantage of the process approach and make it clear to students what the feedback means and what they are to do with it. Moreover teachers need to familiarize and train students on how to effectively use feedback in order to make gains in their proficiency and competence as students of Kiswahili.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presented a number of related aspects of research design and methodology that enabled the researcher to undertake the study. These included the study design, study area, study population, sampling procedures and research instruments. Research procedures, validity and reliability of research instruments as well as data analysis were also discussed.

3.2 Philosophical Paradigm

Cresswell (2005) defines the term philosophical paradigm as looking at the world and interpreting what is studied. The philosophical background defines the research paradigm that underpins a study (Khalili, 2014). A research paradigm can be defined to mean general theoretical assumptions, laws and techniques which are applied to a scientific community or school of thought. A paradigm could mean a loose collection of logically related assumptions, concepts or propositions that guide thinking and research. These imply doctrines, hypotheses and rules which are affiliated to specific schools of thought regarding educational research. It can therefore be said that a paradigm is a comprehensive belief system, worldview or framework that guides research and practice in the field with regard to research methodology, tools of data collection, types of data that the research is expected to generate, the data analysis process and the inferences made from the research findings. Understanding the philosophical paradigm underlying a research is very important in research as it has an influence on the research process. In this study, the two considerations in stating the philosophical paradigm are ontology and epistemology.

This was a mixed method study and adopted a relativist view. Relativists believe that there is no single viewpoint of the world and that reality depends on individuals' perceptions and experiences; not what is perceived, but what is interpreted by the individual. Relativists hold that what is interpreted by individuals depend on human understanding that is influenced by their history, social, cultural upbringing and contexts they construct and interpret situations as they interact.

Crotty (1998) describes epistemology as dealing with the nature of knowledge. It is concerned with providing a philosophical grounding for deciding what kinds of knowledge are possible and how we can ensure that they are both adequate and legitimate. This study having taken a qualitative approach, the researcher's epistemological paradigm is interpretivism (Cresswell, 2011; Wallman, 2005). This approach is deemed most suitable for this particular study because of the nature of research problem. By using this approach, the researcher tries to understand and explain a phenomenon rather than search for internal causes and fundamental laws, (Cohen and Manion, 1994; Cresswell, 2011). The researcher adopted a constructivist worldview since in this situation the researcher sought to establish the meaning of the phenomenon under study from the view of participants (Cresswell, 2011). One key element of collecting data in this study was through observing respondents' behavior as they engage in their activities. Since it is qualitative in nature, it was undertaken without any preconceived hypotheses that characterize quantitative research.

3.3 Research Methodology

Research methodology is about the techniques and procedures used in a study. It describes and analyses these methods showing their limitations and resourcefulness. Cohen and Manion (2005) posit that a research methodology helps to understand in

the broadest terms the process of research. To Kombo and Tromp (2009), it is the description of methods applied in carrying out the study. Methodology describes methods to be used, tools, sample size and population, sampling procedures and the entire process of research (Kothari, 2010). According to Kothari (2005) methodology is a way to systematically solve the research problems where the various steps are generally adopted by a researcher in studying the research problem along with the logic behind them in the context of the study. Methodology includes a description of research design, sampling techniques, instrumentation and data analysis techniques. It describes in detail what will be done and how it will be done.

Mixed method research was used in this study. Creswell and Clark (2011) argue that integrating methodological approaches strengthens the overall research design as the strengths of one approach offsets the weaknesses of the other, and can provide more comprehensive and convincing evidence than mono-method studies. Another more practical benefit is that mixed methods research can encourage interdisciplinary collaboration and the use of multiple paradigms. Mixed methods research is also an attempt to legitimate the use of multiple approaches in answering research questions, rather than restricting or constraining researchers' choices and it rejects dogmatism (Mugwuku, 2014). It is an expansive and creative form of research, rather than a limiting form of research. It is inclusive, pluralistic and complementary, and it suggests that researchers take an eclectic approach to method selection and the thinking and conduct of research. Creswell (2006) further asserts that mixed methods research is a research design with philosophical assumptions as well as methods of enquiry. As a methodology it involves philosophical assumptions that guide the direction of the collection and analysis of data and the mixture of qualitative and quantitative approaches in many phases in the research process. As a method, it

focuses on collecting, analyzing, and mixing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study or a series of studies. Its central premise is that the use of qualitative and quantitative approaches in combination provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone. Mixed methods research provides more comprehensive evidence for studying a research problem than one method used alone.

3.4 Research Design

A research design is the structure of research that glue and hold the elements of the research project together (Kombo and Tromp 2009). It shows how all the major parts of the research work together to try to address the central questions. It is also to be the scheme, outline or plan that is used to generate answers to research problems. Kombo and Tromp (2009) as well as Orodho (2003) define a research design as a plan, structure and strategy of investigation conceived so as to obtain answers to research questions and to control variance. It is an arrangement of conditions for collection and analysis of data in a manner that aims to combine relevance with the research purpose. It is the conceptual structure within which research is conducted. It constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data (Mugenda & Mugenda (1999). It is the specification of methods and procedures for acquiring the information needed for solving a problem. Research design thus enables the researcher to arrive at certain meaningful conclusions at the end of the proposed study.

This study adopted a cross-sectional survey design. A cross-sectional survey collects information from a sample that has been drawn from a predetermined population. Information is collected at just one point in time, although the time it takes to collect all the data desired may be one day to a few weeks (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). Survey

research does not belong to any one field and it can be employed by almost any discipline. Surveys are capable of obtaining information from large samples of the population and also well suited to gathering demographic data that describe the composition of the sample. They can also elicit information about attitudes that are otherwise difficult to measure using observational techniques. In addition, survey design procedures require inputs from the people who will use the data and from those who will conduct the survey (Koul, 2006). Moreover, survey research is used “to answer questions that have been raised, to solve problems that have been posed or observed, to assess needs and set goals, to determine whether or not specific objectives have been met, to establish baselines against which future comparisons can be made, to analyze trends across time, and, generally, to describe what exists, in what amount, and in what context” (Watkins, 2002). The purpose of survey research design is to enable researchers to describe the attitudes, opinions, behaviours or characteristics of the population based on data collected from a sample or a population. Finally, the survey research design is often used because of the low cost and accessibility of information. This design assisted the researcher to collect data from 15 teachers and 150 students using lesson observation schedule and questionnaires respectively.

3.5 Study Area

The research was carried out in Kapseret Sub-County. It was selected on the premise that it comprises of schools whose performance cuts across the entire continuum. The area is also fairly large and therefore a large varied number of school types- day, boarding, mixed, boys’/girls’ only, urban and rural- were easily captured within the study sample. This enabled the researcher to obtain a balanced representation of the

variables under inquiry. Tuckman (2008) notes that if the population is broadly defined external validity or generalizability was maximized thus the confidence level was easily obtained and there was a 95% chance that the sample is distributed in the same way as the population.

Another justification for the choice of the area was that KCSE performance in Kiswahili in general and composition (Insha) in particular was wanting as can be seen in the KNEC, KCSE, results analysis reports for the last four years as shown in Table 1.

3.6 Study Population

A study population, Wallman (2005) notes, 'is a collective term used to describe the total quality of cases of type which are subject of your study. It is a group of individuals, objects or items from which samples are taken for measurement. Creswell (2005) describes the study population as a group of available individuals from the population that have some common characteristics that the researcher can identify and study. It is the entire group a researcher is interested in and from which the researcher wishes to draw conclusions. It also refers to the larger group from which the sample is taken. Study population for this research was 2000 form three students and 90 teachers of Kiswahili from Kapseret Sub-county. A total of 45 schools comprised the study population.

The study subjects were teachers teaching Kiswahili in form three and their students from the 45 schools. Form three teachers of Kiswahili were selected because they were the ones teaching the subject. They were therefore in a better position to give information about the teaching of Kiswahili. Form three students were selected

because they were expected to have covered enough work to answer questions in the questionnaire. Form fours were considered undesirable because they were busy preparing for KCSE. These learners were involved in collecting information on how they were taught, methods used by their teachers and teaching resources. Their feedback on Insha teachers was expected to be more accurate than any other class.

3.7 Sample and Sampling Procedures

A sample is a sub-group of the target population that the researcher plans to study in order to make generalizations about the target population (Creswell, 2005). He stated that one method of determining sample size is to specify margins of error for the items that are regarded as most vital to the study. The goal is to include sufficient numbers of subjects so that significant results can be detected. Sample size depends on what you want to know, the purpose of the enquiry, what is at stake, what will be useful, what will have credibility and what can be done with available time and resources (Castillo, 2009). A sample design is a definite plan for obtaining a sample from a given population. It refers to the techniques or the procedure the researcher would adopt in selecting items for the sample (Kothari, 2005).

It is a process of selecting a number of individuals or objects from a population such that the selected group contains elements representative of the characteristics found in the entire group (Orodho and Kombo, 2002). In simple random sampling each member of the population has an equal chance of being selected as a sample. One of the advantages of simple random sampling is the ease of assembling the sample. It is also considered as a fair way of selecting a sample from a given population since every member is given equal opportunities of being selected (Castillo, 2009).

Another key feature of simple random sampling is its representativeness of the population. Theoretically, the only factor that can compromise its representativeness is luck. If the sample is not representative of the population, then the random variation is called sampling error. An unbiased random selection and representative sample is important in drawing conclusions from the results of a study. One of the goals of research is to be able to make conclusions pertaining to the population from the results obtained from a sample. Due to the representativeness of a sample obtained by simple random sampling, it is reasonable to make generalizations from the results of the sample back to the population (Castillo, 2009). However, one of the most obvious limitations of simple random sampling method is its need of a complete list of all the members of the population.

Stratified random sampling is a type of probability sampling technique. Sometimes one is interested in particular strata within the population such as males versus females or bungalows vis-a-vis apartments (Frankael & Wallen, 2000). To create a stratified random sample, there are seven steps which include defining the population, choosing the relevant stratification, listing the population according to stratification, choosing sample size, calculating a proportionate stratification and using a simple random or systematic sample to select the sample. The aim of stratified random sampling is to reduce the potential for human bias in the selection of cases to be used in the sample. As a result, stratified random sampling provides a sample that is highly representative of the population being studied (Castillo, 2009). Since the units selected for inclusion within the sample are chosen using probabilities methods, stratified random sampling allows one to make statistical conclusions from the data collected that will be considered to be valid (Kombo & Tromp, 2006).

In this research, stratified, purposive and simple random sampling procedures were used to sample out the required schools, learners and Kiswahili language teachers from the study area. Simple random sampling is preferred on the basis that it gives the most reliable representation of the whole population, while purposive technique, relying on the judgment of the researcher, is aimed at reaching the sample subjects with specific characteristics more easily. It enables the researcher to select a sample based on the purpose of the study and knowledge of a population. The sample of this research was 15 schools which formed 30% of the schools in the sub-county which had 45 registered schools. The sample comprised of 8 mixed, 4 girls' and 3 boys' secondary schools in Kapseret Sub-county. 150 form three students and 15 teachers of Kiswahili constituted the sample. 150 students formed 30% of the total number of students from the sampled schools. 15 teachers were randomly picked one from each school sampled.

The schools were stratified into their categories based on whether they were boys', girls' or mixed. From each category 30% of schools were randomly selected. One teacher was randomly selected from each of the sampled schools with two or more teachers of Kiswahili. Students who participated in the study were randomly sampled from form three in all the sampled schools. Sampling of students in mixed schools was selected by stratified sampling with each gender giving 15% while those from single sex schools were selected by simple random sampling.

Table 3.1: Sampling Frame

	Population	Sample Size	Sampling Methods
Schools	45	15	Stratified, purposive and random
Teachers	90	15	Simple random
Students	2000	150	Stratified, purposive and random

Target population and sample size

3.8 Research Instruments

Research instruments are tools or methods of collecting data from a sample to solve a problem (Nsubuga, 2000). These are tools with predesigned questions that participants are supposed to respond to. The instruments that were used in this study included: questionnaires, interview schedules, observation schedule as well as document analysis of schemes of work and students' notebooks.

3.8.1 Student's Questionnaire

This is a research instrument consisting of a series of questions and other prompts for the purpose of gathering information from respondents. Kombo and Tromp (2006) define a questionnaire as a form of interview on paper. It is preferred to other instruments because of its economy in cost, time and labour. Unlike other instruments, it is interpersonal because subjects give answers anonymously.

The questionnaire (Appendix I) was used to investigate teachers' preparations before teaching Insha in secondary schools, teaching methods employed, assessment and feedback as well as types of writing tasks given to learners. It was administered to 150 Form three students of Kiswahili from the sampled schools. This questionnaire

contained both open-ended and closed-ended questions. The questionnaire was also designed to have structured and unstructured questions. The advantages of questionnaires are that structured questions allow all respondents to respond to the same set of questions in the same order. (Kombo & Orodho, 2006). It is also administered to many respondents who answer questions freely because there is no subjectivity from the researcher. Information is collected from a large sample and diverse places and respondents have adequate time to give well thought out answers. It is free from interviewer bias and answers are in the respondents' own words. Confidentiality is upheld and data collection also saves time (Cohen & Manion, 2007).

The questionnaire has several disadvantages: answers cannot be clarified since the some respondents may not understand the questions even after they have been restructured after piloting and thus they may be biased. It is also possible that the respondents could consult another person filling in the questionnaire or simply ask them to fill it on their behalf (Cresswell, 2005).

3.8.2 Teachers' Interview Schedule

Interview is a technique of generating data that involves gathering data through direct verbal interaction between individuals. This to a large extent counters the disadvantages of questionnaire as information solicited comes directly from the intended person. An interview schedule is a checklist used to solicit responses from participants in a face-to-face contact. According to Gall et al (2005), the main advantage of interviews is their adaptability. The interviewer can alter the interview situation at any time in order to obtain the fullest possible response from the individual. Interviews also elicit data of much greater depth than is possible with other

measurement techniques. Interviews have the disadvantage of direct interaction between interviewer and interviewee which makes it easy for subjectivity and bias to occur.

The eagerness of the interviewee to please the interviewer, a vague antagonism that sometimes arises between interviewer and interviewee, and the tendency of interviewers to seek out answers that support their preconceived notions are a few of the factors that may contribute to biasing of interview data. As a result, the validity of findings based on the interview method is highly contingent on the interpersonal skills of the interviewers. According to Cohen & Manion (2007), an interview may be used as the principal means of gathering information having direct bearing on the research objectives. It may also be used to test hypotheses or to suggest new ones; or as an explanatory device to help identify variables and relationships. Interviews may also be used in conjunction with other methods in a research undertaking. In this connection, Golafsheni (2005) suggest that it might be used to follow up unexpected results, or to validate other methods, or to go deeper into the motivations of respondents and their reasons for responding as they do.

A set of pre-determined semi – structured and structured questions was used for teachers as indicated in the appendix III section. This ensured that more detailed information was obtained. This technique is advantageous because the interviewer is able to re-structure questions whenever there is difficulty in understanding by the respondent (Cohen & Manion, 2007).

This enabled the researcher to gather in-depth information from respondents. The researcher gets a complete and detailed understanding of the issue under investigation. The interview schedule was used to investigate priority accorded to Insha lessons in

the scheme of work. This helped to determine preparations made for Insha lessons. It was also used to establish methods used in teaching Insha, types of writing activities given to learners during Insha lessons as well as types and frequency of assessment of learners in Insha. The researcher interviewed one teacher from each of the 15 schools sampled.

3.8.3 Lesson Observation Schedule

Tikstone (1998) defines the concept of observation as;

‘The systematic and as accurate as possible, the collection of usually visual evidence leading to informed judgments and to necessary changes to accepted practices’

Observation is the technique of obtaining data through direct contact with a person or group of persons Cooper and Schindler (2001). The researcher has the role of non-participant observer. Non-participant observation involves the researcher getting into situations where behavior and interactions can be observed at first hand (Hucker, 2005). Observation is a purposeful, systematic and selective way of watching and listening to an interaction or phenomenon as it takes place (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Cohen & Manion (2007) assert that observation enables researchers to understand the context of programmes, to be open-ended and inductive, to see things that might otherwise be unconsciously missed, to discover things that participants might not freely talk about in interview situations and to move beyond perception-based data and to access personal knowledge. Golafsheni (2005) classifies observation into participant and non-participant observation. Jwan and Ongondo (2011) suggest that observational data should enable the researcher to enter and understand the situation that is being described. Traditionally, observation has been characterized as non-interventionist (Gagne, 2004) where researchers do not seek to manipulate the

situation or subjects, they do not pose questions for the subjects, nor do they deliberately create 'new provocations'. Flick (1998) suggests that observation has to be considered along five dimensions:

Firstly, structured, systematic and quantitative observation versus unstructured and unsystematic and qualitative observation. Secondly, participant observation versus non-participant observation. Thirdly, overt versus covert observation. Fourthly, observation in natural settings versus observation in unnatural, artificial settings (eg a 'laboratory' or contrived situation). Fifthly, self- observation versus observation of others.

Cooper and Schindler (2001) suggest that observation can be considered along three dimensions:

One should consider whether the observation is direct or indirect: the former requiring the presence of the observer, the latter requiring recording devices (e.g. video cameras). Secondly, whether the presence of the observer is known or unknown (overt or covert research), whether the researcher is concealed (e.g. through a one-way mirror or hidden camera) or partially concealed, i.e. the researcher is seen but not known to be a researcher.

Finally, one should consider the role taken by the observer (participant to non-participant observation). This research used non-participant observation. The researcher observed actual Insha lessons without taking part in teaching and learning process. It therefore allowed the teacher to execute the lesson without interference from the researcher. Therefore this type of observation was appropriate because it gave the researcher an opportunity to concentrate on the teaching which was the main

interest of the study. It was used to investigate the preparations made by teachers before teaching Insha, the teaching methods as well as status of feedback and assessment in Insha classes. It was also used in evaluating the whole process of teaching and learning of Insha. An observation schedule was preferred because it provided firsthand information for the study. It further provided data for approving or disapproving responses given in the questionnaire. An observation schedule was used to collect data during actual teacher-student interaction during Insha lessons (appendix III).

Tape – recording was also used as a method of recording data in order to enable the researcher concentrate fully on what was going on in the classroom. The researcher combined the two methods of recording data during observation; writing field notes and tape-recording. This enabled the researcher capture a lot of information without having to write everything which would otherwise have made him miss out on some of the classroom interactions (Hucker, 2005).

3.8.4 Document Analysis

Document analysis refers to examining existing documents so as to obtain data. It is a systematic examination of current records as sources of data. Its advantage is that it enhances credibility of the study which is an important aspect of trustworthiness (Jwan and Ongondo, 2011). Content analysis defines a strict and systematic set of procedures for the rigorous analysis, examination and verification of the contents of written data (Mayring, 2004). Krippendorp (2004) defines it as ‘a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use’. Content analysis can be undertaken with any written material, from documents to interview transcriptions, from media products to personal

interviews. It is often used to analyze large quantities of text, facilitated by systematic, rule-governed nature of content analysis, not least because this enables computer assisted analysis to be undertaken (Cohen & Manion, 2007).

According to Oso and Onen (2009), document analysis enables the researcher to obtain the language and words of the informants, access data at his convenient time as well as obtain unobtrusive information. One can observe without being observed (Jwan and Ongondo, 2011). It focuses on language and linguistic features meaning in context, is systematic and verifiable. Further as the data are in a permanent form (texts), verification through reanalysis and replication is possible. Content analysis takes texts and analyses, reduces and interrogates them into summary form through the use of both pre-existing categories and emergent themes in order to generate or test a theory. Data obtained are thoughtful in that informants have given attention to compiling them. In this research, scheme of work and students' note books were examined (Appendices IV and V).

3.8.5 Document Analysis for schemes of work

Document analysis for the scheme of work was used to investigate preparations made for lesson plan in the scheme of work, methods employed in the teaching of Insha, type and frequency of writing activities and assessment practices used.

3.8.6 Document Analysis for Students' Notebooks

Document analysis for students' notebooks was used to establish frequency of marking Kiswahili compositions, types of feedback by the teacher and writing activities provided by teacher of Kiswahili.

3.9 Validity and Reliability of Research Instruments

It is important for any research study to consider issues of precision and accuracy if the results to be obtained are to be relied on for any decision making and policy formulation. This can be attained through consideration of validity and reliability of research instruments. If considered, they will ensure generalization of the study results to any other similar populations. (Cohen & Manion, 2007).

3.9.1 Validity of Research Instruments

Validity is the accuracy and meaningfulness of inferences, which are based on the research results. It is the degree to which results obtained from analysis of the data actually represent the phenomenon under study (Mugenda & Mugenda, 1999). According to Saunders (2009), content validity of an instrument refers to whether an instrument provides adequate coverage of a topic. It generally refers to the extent to which an empirical measure adequately reflects the real meaning of the concept under consideration (Golafsheni, 2005). The content validity of the research instruments was ascertained by my supervisors and experts from the Department of Curriculum and Instruction, School of Education, University of Eldoret. In order to check content validity, the researcher sought expert opinions where the instruments were discussed in line with the objectives. The ambiguous questions were corrected in line with the objectives.

3.9.2 Piloting of Instruments

It is necessary to carry out a pilot study because one cannot be completely sure of reliability and validity of the study instruments to be used. Golafsheni (2005) asserts that there is a great deal in favour of piloting any empirical research and that there is

no complete substitute for involvement with 'real' situation when the feasibility of what is proposed in terms of time, efforts and resources can be assessed. Saunders (2009) defines pilot study as a smaller version or trial run of a larger study that is conducted in preparation for the study. It can involve pre-testing or trying out a research tool such as a data collecting form. For this research, a questionnaire, an observation schedule and an interview schedule were tried out. Simple random sampling was used to select one school in the neighbouring Ainabkoi sub-county.

A questionnaire, an observation schedule and interview schedule were then administered to the subjects in the school selected in the neighbouring sub-county. The questionnaire was administered to the same subjects at two different times within a span of two weeks. Opinion from teachers and clarification sought by respondents were used to modify the questionnaire. Questions that attracted different answers on the two occasions were modified accordingly. From the pilot study, the need to improve the content of the questionnaire and the interview schedule arose. Knowledge on how to administer research instruments successfully for the current study was acquired. It was noted that waiting for students to complete questionnaires would achieve better results than allowing them indefinite time. Questions that were not clear during the pilot study were modified accordingly so that they could attract specific answers from the respondents. This was crucial for easy data analysis.

While observing Insha lessons using the observation schedule, need arose to include other learning activities and students' observed behavior during Insha lesson. Other learning activities were important to the current study in capturing strategies that the teacher employed to achieve his objectives. Students' behavior assisted the study in identifying teaching methods other than the ones indicated that the teacher used to

benefit the learners. Therefore a pilot study was carried out by administering the interview to 2 teachers and 30 form three students in 2 selected schools in Ainabkoi Sub-county. The reason for carrying out a study in this area was that its geographical and demographic characteristics were to a large extent similar to those of Kapseret Sub-county. This was repeated after two weeks with the same group of respondents. From these two responses, a Pearson product Moment formula for test-retest was used to compute the correlation coefficient in order to determine the extent to which the items were consistent in eliciting the same response on the two occasions they were administered.

3.9.3 Reliability of Research Instruments

Reliability is defined as the extent to which a questionnaire, test, observation or any measurement procedure produces the same results on repeated trials. It is the stability or consistency of scores over time or across raters (Golafsheni, 2005). It is the degree to which an assessment tool produces stable and consistent results (Phelan & Wren, 2005). The reliability of a measure indicates the extent to which it is without bias and hence ensures consistent measures across time and across the various items in the instrument. The concept of reliability is a matter of whether a particular technique applied repeatedly to the same object would yield the same results each time (Golafsheni, 2005). To establish the reliability of instruments, a pilot study was carried out in 2 selected schools in Ainabkoi sub-county. The instruments were administered to the same respondents twice in an interval of two weeks. From the responses obtained, the Cronbach's alpha formula was used to calculate coefficient of the correlation (r) in order to establish the extent to which the items in the questionnaire are consistent in eliciting the same responses every time they were used.

In this study, the correlation coefficient of 0.76 was obtained. This was higher than the 0.5 Pearsons' Product Moment correlation recommended by Saunders (2009).

3.10 Data Collection Procedures

Primary data collection involves the researcher collecting data using methods such as questionnaire, interviews and observation schedule. In this research, the researcher used questionnaire to personally collect data from the students. He also personally conducted interview on the sampled teachers. He also visited the sampled schools to observe actual Insha lessons. The researcher first visited all the sampled schools before commencing the actual data collection. Permission was sought from the principals of the said schools. Appointments were made with sampled teachers and their students and they were briefed about the intended exercise. The students were assured that their responses would be confidential and would not affect them negatively. Teachers too were assured that the obtained information would not affect them professionally but would be used for study purposes only.

The researcher waited as the students completed the questionnaires. This was to ensure that most questionnaires were returned. The researcher visited each of the sampled schools to observe Insha writing lessons. The information gathered was recorded in the adapted observation schedule. Prior arrangements were made to get the time allocated for each of the sampled schools. Although this would affect the behavior of the teacher and learners in class, it was the only way of ensuring teachers were present and planned to teach Insha at the scheduled time.

3.11 Data Analysis Procedures

Kombo and Trump (2006) define data analysis as the process of creating order, structure and meaning to the mass of information collected. Data was analyzed using descriptive statistics. This is due to the qualitative approach adopted by the study although quantitative approach was also used on the data collected through questionnaires and structured interviews. This is suitable for collecting data from many respondents simultaneously. The interview schedule assisted in probing to seek clarification where a response is not very clear. Questionnaires were collected, coded then data collated and analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and Microsoft Excel. Data that was collected interpreted and analyzed helped the researcher to discuss the findings according to themes and draw conclusions. A summary of the methods used to analyze the quantitative data is presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3. 2: Data Analysis Techniques

Objectives	Analysis techniques
To find out the status of teacher planning in Kiswahili composition instruction	qualitative
To establish the teaching methods used by teachers in Kiswahili composition instruction.	qualitative
To find out the kind of writing activities provided by teachers for Kiswahili composition instruction.	Qualitative
To find out the frequency and type of feedback in Kiswahili composition instruction.	Descriptive statistics
To establish assessment practices used by teachers in the teaching of Kiswahili composition instruction.	Qualitative

3.12 Ethical Considerations

Research ethics revolves around the planning, conducting and reporting of research. Research ethics should include protection of humans and animals. According to Diener (2008), ethical issues can be separated into four main sections: whether there is harm to the participants, whether there is informed consent, whether the participants' privacy has been invaded and whether the researcher has had to deceive those involved. The researcher informed all participants of the purpose of the study and sought their informed consent before their participating in the research. The researcher also assured the respect, rights to privacy and to protection from physical and psychological harm of the respondents involved in the study. The researcher ensured that each respondent understood what the study was all about.

3.13 Chapter Summary

This chapter has focused on the various details concerning research design and methodology that the study employed. Details on specific study area have been given. Details about each research tool and how it was to be administered to obtain data was given. Data analysis and ethical considerations have also been presented.

CHAPTER FOUR
DATA ANALYSIS, PRESENTATION, INTERPRETATION AND
DISCUSSION

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents results of data analysis. The purpose of the study was to investigate the influence of teacher roles in the teaching of Kiswahili composition in Secondary schools in Kenya. The specific objectives of the study were:

- i) To find out the status of teacher planning in Kiswahili composition instruction and its influence in instruction.
- ii) To establish the teaching methods used by teachers in Kiswahili composition instruction and their influence in the instructional process.
- iii) To find out the kind of writing activities provided by teachers for Kiswahili composition instruction and how they influenced instruction.
- iv) To find out the frequency of feedback in Kiswahili composition instruction and their influence in instruction.
- v) To establish assessment practices used by teachers in the teaching of Kiswahili composition and how they influenced instruction.

In the first section, a description of the demographic profiles of the respondents was presented. This was followed by a section that provided a descriptive analysis of the study variables in conjunction with the results of thematic analyses of the questionnaires and interviews conducted with teachers.

4.2 Background Information of the Respondents

The study sought to determine the general information of the respondents concerning sex and school type.

4.2.1 Sex of the Students

The students were asked to state their gender and the responses are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4. 1: Gender of the Students

What is your gender	Frequency	%
Male	65	43.3
Female	85	56.6
Total	150	100.0

As shown in Table 4.1, 56.6 % (85) of the students were female whereas 43.3 % (65) were male. This implies that majority of the students who participated in this study were female.

4.2.2 School Type

The results on the school type of the students who participated in this study are shown in Table 4.2.

Table 4. 2: School Type

Class	Frequency	%
Mixed	75	50.0
Boys	30	20.0
Girls	45	30.0
Total	150	100.0

Table 4.2 shows that half (50%) of the students were in mixed schools while 30% (45) were in girls schools. Only 20% (30) were in boys schools. This shows that majority of the students who participated in this study were in mixed schools.

4.3 Teacher Planning for Kiswahili Composition Instruction

Preparation stage is very crucial to a teacher if effective teaching is to take place. The first objective of this study was to find out the status of teacher planning in Kiswahili composition instruction. To achieve this objective, data was collected using students' questionnaire, teachers' interview schedule, lesson observation schedule, document analysis for schemes of work and students' notebooks. The findings are presented in the following sub-sections.

4.3.1 Students' Responses on Teacher Planning for Kiswahili Composition

Instruction

Students' questionnaire had eight items measuring teacher planning that the students were to respond to. The responses were in five-point likert scale from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. However, for the purpose of this analysis, 'strongly agree' and 'agree' were considered as 'agree' whereas 'strongly disagree' and 'disagree' were considered as 'disagree'. The results are as shown in Table 4.3.

Table 4. 3: Teacher Planning for Kiswahili Composition Instruction

Statement	SD		D		U		A		SA		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
The Kiswahili composition lesson caters for all the different needs of the students	54	36.0	83	55.3	0	0	10	6.7	3	2.0	150	100.0
In my school we always have lessons set aside for Kiswahili composition	52	34.7	78	52.0	6	4.0	13	8.7	1	.7	150	100.0
The content of Kiswahili composition lesson reflects how we are examined	58	38.7	57	38.0	11	7.3	19	12.7	5	3.3	150	100.0
The teacher presents the content at a good pace to enable all of us understand the concepts taught	73	48.7	52	34.7	10	6.7	8	5.3	7	4.7	150	100.0
Our teacher always gives us notes for Kiswahili composition	55	36.7	58	38.7	8	5.3	21	14.0	8	5.3	150	100.0
The teacher always tells us the lesson objectives at the beginning of the lesson	59	39.3	56	37.3	20	13.3	12	8.0	3	2.0	150	100.0
The teacher allows the students to participate during the Kiswahili composition lesson	33	22.0	56	37.3	32	21.3	23	15.3	6	4.0	150	100.0
The teacher starts a lesson from what we know	49	32.7	58	38.7	14	9.3	21	14.0	8	5.3	150	100.0

As shown from data from students' questionnaires in Table 4.3, 91.3 % (137) of the students stated that the Kiswahili composition lesson does not cater for all the different needs of the students whereas 8.7 % (13) agreed. There were 86.7 % (130) who asserted that their school did not have lessons set aside for Kiswahili

composition whereas 9.4% (14) agreed. Further, 76.7% (115) of the students stated that the content of the Kiswahili composition lesson did not reflect how they were examined, while 16.0 % (24) agreed. Another 83.3 % (125) of the students stated that the teacher did not present the content at a good pace to enable all of them understand the concepts taught. Only 10% (15) agreed. Table 4.3 also shows that 75.3% (113) of the students stated that their teachers did not always give them notes for Kiswahili composition whereas 19.3 % (29) agreed.

It is also revealed that 76.7 % (115) of the students stated that their teachers of Kiswahili did not tell them the objectives of the lesson at the beginning of the lesson. However, 10% (15) agreed and 13.3% (20) were undecided. It should be noted that 59.3%(87) of the students asserted that the teachers did not give them chance to participate in class during the teaching and learning process as 19.3% (29) agreed and 21.3% (32) were undecided. Majority (71.3%) of the students also disagreed to the statement that the teachers of Kiswahili started the Kiswahili composition lesson from what they knew while 19.3 % (29) agreed. These findings agreed with the view of Richards, (2008) who elaborated that in preparing for teaching, planning is the only sure way to ensure educational objectives are achieved. The effects of teaching and assessment on students' learning should also be considered while planning. Preparation according to Richards (2008) also entails writing schemes of work and preparation of lesson plans. Murunga (2013) asserts that planning is an important step in teaching. A teacher who plans communicates effectively, logically and presents the right content and ends teaching well in time (Assey & Ayot, 2009).

4.3.2 Data from Teachers' Interview on Planning for Kiswahili Composition

Instruction

Planning involves determining what to teach, when and how to teach. It therefore involves identifying content of the lesson, making scheme of work, lesson plans and notes and preparing teaching resources-all drawn from the syllabus. Preparations made by Insha teachers were investigated because they impact on the teaching process. A total of 15 teachers of Kiswahili were interviewed in the schools involved in the study. Data from interview schedule indicated most teachers 70% (10) had schemed for Insha lessons. However, only one teacher had a lesson plan. According to Murunga (2013), instructional process must begin with planning which includes identifying specific expectations of learning outcomes and selecting materials to foster these expectations and outcomes. This could explain why many teachers seem to lack a concrete method of teaching Insha as planning for the lessons is neglected.

4.3.3 Data from Lesson Observation Schedule on Planning for Kiswahili

Composition Instruction

A total of 15 lessons were observed. Data on preparation indicated that most teachers did not prepare lesson plans and lesson notes. Of 15 lessons observed, only one teacher had a lesson plan. With 15 Insha lessons observed; one in each of the 15 schools involved in the study, it was observed that most teachers 65% (10) schemed for Insha indicating that it would be taught once a week. Whereas many teachers had schemes of work, only a few 40% (6) consulted them during the lesson. It was further observed that very few teachers 28% (4) were teaching the content schemed for with some being ahead of the schemes of work while others lagged behind the schemes of work. Teachers relied on class-texts, teachers guide, revision books and memory to

deliver their Insha lessons. This led to use of inappropriate methods and resources. The resources used were few and wrongly used. It was noted that Insha tasks given to learners were inadequate. The tasks and exercises given to develop Insha skills were irrelevant and teacher-centered. The Insha tasks given recorded a poor performance. This poor performance would be attributed to teacher-centered strategies employed by Insha teachers as observed in actual Insha lessons. Further, from these observations, there were indications that teachers did not strictly adhere to scheme of work. Lack of lesson notes was a pointer to unpreparedness on the part of the teacher. Freedman (2010) suggests that instruction in writing should take into account careful selection of topics to be taught, methods of giving writing assignments, selection of materials to use in teaching writing and criteria for judging a good composition. According to him, a good composition should present information according to rules of grammar, spelling and punctuation, communicate fluently, have aesthetic value and cognitive content. All these require proper planning on the part of the teacher if teaching is to be successful. Composition writing is a skill that is distinct from the other language skills with its own complexities that can be resolved by using special methods. It is a technical skill that cannot be acquired by chance or by some innate ability but has to be taught. This teaching requires proper planning of what instructional methods to adopt, materials to use, assessment activities and so on. This further agrees with the view of Awino (2011) who suggests that teachers of the second language (L2) must prepare adequately, have a purpose of writing, provide the right help to learners and guide them during the writing process.

4.3.4 Data from Document Analysis for Schemes of Work and Students'

Notebooks on Planning for Kiswahili Composition Instruction

While schemes of work indicated that Insha lessons would be held at least once a week, students' Insha exercise books proved otherwise. The few compositions written by students implied that either Insha lessons did not exist or assignments were not given. Neither were there Insha notes. Students' Insha notebooks indicated that teachers did not give their students Insha tasks on weekly basis. Though most teachers had planned for Kiswahili composition lessons, the few or no tasks given every week implied that it would be difficult to achieve the objective of writing skill. This is contrast with studies done which portray the teacher's planning as a crucial activity in teaching (Hucker, 2005). From the 15 lessons, it was also observed that majority of the teachers had no lesson plans while only a few had lesson notes for the lessons they taught. This contradicted suggestions by Nasibi (2003) and Twoli et al (2007) who stated that lesson plans and lesson notes enhanced the quality of lessons delivered.

According to Nyaega (2011), writing must be a taught skill or complex of skills. More than any other of the language arts and since it relies for its quality on good teaching; there is need for proper prior planning before teaching takes place. This is in agreement with the view of Hucker, (2005) who asserts that writing is a pre-meditated act that requires the writer to decide on what and how to write.

Awino (2011) underscores the fact that teachers are the key factors in contributing towards any enhanced quality of classroom experience. Watkins in the Oxfam Education report (2003) concurs with Hucker, (2005) by stressing that poorly trained teachers are unable to foster a child-centered learning environment. He found out that

teacher's knowledge of the subject should not be overlooked since it is essential for planning for effective learning if as the teacher they have the knowledge of content.

Most marked scripts had similar introductory paragraphs for students from the same school. This is a pointer to rote learning resulting from mimicking already written compositions read to them by their teachers. Irrelevant use of proverbs and idiomatic expressions points to the wrong strategies used in teaching meaning and use of the sayings. Seventy five (75) exercise books from 15 schools visited showed that most of the teachers either do not plan or do not adhere to scheme of work going by the Insha tasks given to students. Most exercise books had only a few Insha tasks and notes.

Eshiwani (1993) argues that the invariable success of particular schools is a clear testimony of the superiority in the quality of their teachers. He observes that teachers are the key factor in contributing to any enhanced quality of classroom experience. He further stresses that teachers are important resources in the teaching and learning process and should therefore be considered alongside other learning resources. He further concludes that teachers must help individual students discern what strategies are most relevant to their learning styles, tasks and goals. All this requires proper planning. Successful teaching begins with clear planning. Samples from marked exercise books are in Appendix VIII.

It is worth noting that lack of lesson plans and accompanying lesson notes led to haphazard delivery of the lesson. It was observed that some teachers simply gave out Insha as assignments and concentrated on teaching other skills. This is contrary to suggestions made by Nyaega (2011) who emphasize on need to make necessary preparations before teaching Kiswahili composition.

4.4 Teaching Methods Used in Kiswahili Composition Instruction

The second objective of the study was to determine the teaching methods used by teachers in Kiswahili composition instruction in secondary schools in Kenya. Data was obtained from the respondents using questionnaire, interview, lesson observation and document analysis. The results are presented in the following sub-sections.

4.4.1 Data from Students' Questionnaire on Teaching Methods Used in Kiswahili Composition Instruction

The students who participated in this study were asked to state how often their teachers used discussion, lecture, description, narrations and dictations in teaching Kiswahili composition. The findings are tabulated in Table 4.4.

Table 4. 4: Teaching Methods Used by Teachers in Kiswahili Composition Instruction

Statement	Very Often		Often		Don't Know		Rarely		Never		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Discussion	50	33.3	12	8.0	15	10.0	57	38.0	16	10.7	150	100.0
Lecture	54	36.0	64	42.7	9	6.0	16	10.7	7	4.7	150	100.0
Description	61	40.7	40	26.7	13	8.7	22	14.7	14	9.3	150	100.0
Narrations	48	32.0	39	26.0	6	4.0	30	20.0	27	18.0	150	100.0
Dictations	47	31.3	56	37.3	14	9.3	17	11.3	16	10.7	150	100.0

It is instructive to note that 33.3% (50) of the students stated that their teachers used discussion method very often while 38% (57) stated that their teachers rarely use discussion methods. However, 8% (12) asserted that their teachers of Kiswahili often use discussion method whereas 10.7% (16) stated that their teachers never used

discussion method when teaching Kiswahili composition. There were 36% (54) and 42.7% (64) of the students who participated in this study who asserted that their teachers of Kiswahili taught them Kiswahili composition using lecture method very often and often respectively. This implies that majority (78.7%) of the students confirmed that their teachers use lecture method often when teaching them Kiswahili composition. However, 10.7% (16) stated that their teachers rarely used lecture method and only 4.7% (7) stated that the teachers never used lecture method when teaching them Kiswahili composition.

Further, 40.7% (61) of the students stated that the teachers of Kiswahili used description method very often when teaching Kiswahili composition and 26.7% (40) stated that their teachers often used description method when teaching Kiswahili composition while 14.7% (22) asserted that the teachers rarely used description method when teaching Kiswahili composition. The remaining 9.3% (14) stated that the teachers never used description method when teaching them Kiswahili composition. It is also shown that 32% (40) of the students stated that the teachers of Kiswahili used narrations method very often when teaching Kiswahili composition whereas 26% (39) asserted that the teachers of Kiswahili used narrations method often when teaching Kiswahili composition. The study also shows that 18% (27) of the students stated that the teachers of Kiswahili never used narrations method when teaching Kiswahili composition.

As stated by 31.3% (47) of the students, the teachers of Kiswahili used dictation method very often when teaching Kiswahili composition while 37.3% (56) stated that the teachers of Kiswahili used dictation method often when teaching Kiswahili composition. There were 11.3% (17) of the students who stated that their teachers of

Kiswahili rarely used dictation method when teaching Kiswahili composition. Another 10.7% (16) agreed that the teachers of Kiswahili never used dictation method when teaching Kiswahili composition. This agrees with views given by Hucker, (2005) who researched on the instructional practices of teachers of Kiswahili and his findings revealed that teachers heavily subscribe to the traditional methods of teaching. Clark (2003) opines that learners must be taught the writing process. This enables the learners to write in any situation. According to the traditional approach, teaching grammar plays pivotal role in the process of writing skills but the latest researches have proved that the grammar teaching has no significant influence in the development of these skills (Anderson, 2012).

4.4.2 Data from Teachers' Interview on Teaching Methods used in Kiswahili

Composition Instruction

Results from the interview indicated that discussion, role play, group work and narration were not clearly used in the observed lessons. However, most 70% (10) of the teachers who were interviewed said they used the discussion method. It is worth noting that only a few use other methods such as narration, group work and role play. Teaching methodology is very important in classroom success. Farrant (2000) suggests that a child centered method of teaching for older primary and secondary school students that attempts to break with formal and conventional (traditional) methods of teaching; which is marked with parity and lacks keenness would be an inappropriate method. The method employed by the teacher must cater for all the levels of learning in the Blooms taxonomy of learning-knowledge, comprehension, application, and analysis, synthesis and evaluation Kothari (1992). The importance of teaching methods is described by Kembo-Sure (2000) who points out that

composition writing is a specialized technical skill that cannot be acquired by factors of chance by innate ability but through special instructional methods, teaching strategies and materials that only trained teachers can handle. This calls for careful planning, preparation, and use of instructional media.

There are other factors worth noting that must guide in the choice of the writing skills and instructional methods. Clark (2003) points out some social and psychological factors which affect L2 writing skills. Social factors include social status and family background and psychological factors include motivational level, age among other factors. Lantolf (2003) mentions effects of multicultural and multilingual background on the learners' writing skills. He emphasizes that the entire teaching process must be compatible with social set up and cultural background, which they termed as 'situated cognition' (as cited in Hyland, 2002). Hanson (2009) describes that teaching becomes more productive if the learners are provided stress free environment. Hanson (2009) supporting the issue also says that mind works at its best when the environment is secure, and disciplined (as cited in Hanson 2009).

4.4.3 Data from Lesson Observation Schedule on Teaching Methods used in Kiswahili Composition Instruction

Data from observation schedule indicated that expository was the main strategy used by the sampled teachers. The teachers did much of the talking transmitting instructions to learners. Most teachers 80% (12) used lecture method to teach Insha. Lecture method was used to introduce a topic and state the requirements of the given task. Other teachers used it to explain the structure of Insha (introduction, body and conclusion). It was also employed in explaining the meaning of idioms, vocabulary and proverbs. This explanation was done in a vacuum and it encouraged rote

learning cited by Kabaji (2011) of idiomatic expressions, vocabulary and proverbs (Nyaega, 2012). There are several methods which if combined in the classroom situation will benefit the students in their language learning. A teacher cannot rely on only one method of teaching. A teacher who merely demonstrates his own knowledge through lectures is not teaching. Teaching and learning of language goes beyond the usual instructional process in class. That is, the presence of a teacher, the learner and the lesson content. The language teacher is required to manipulate the situation to ensure that the most appropriate language teaching strategies are used in order to enhance language learning. The choice of strategy should be guided by the nature of the learners and the learning conditions, the topic to be covered and the teachers' knowledge, skill and ability to use that strategy. It is also noteworthy that teachers must help individual students discern what strategies are most relevant to their learning styles tasks and goals.

4.4.4 Data from Document Analysis for Schemes of work and Students' Notebooks on Teaching Methods Used in Kiswahili Composition Instruction

Although schemes of work showed that a variety of methods would be used, this was not the case with most teachers using expository approach. Any methodology chosen must be both effective and efficient. This can be measured by the language teacher gauging the language outcomes. According to Mukwa and Too (2002:37),

“If retention of transfer of information or skill learned is greater than and also takes a shorter time, then that method is more efficient and effective for teaching a specific objective than other ways of teaching.”

Teacher's knowledge plays an important role in determining the right instructional method to be used. This means that it can be deduced that teachers' knowledge and skills impact greatly on students' Insha writing. Apart from teachers' content level

and pedagogical knowledge, teacher preparedness and teacher-student interaction and student-student interaction impacts greatly on students' Insha writing. Kothari (2010) underscores that the lecture method is a deductive method involving one way communication from the active presenter to the more or less passive audience. He highlighted the discussion method as a process of collective decision making and says it has the value of clarifying and sharpening the nature of agreements. Kabaji (2011) supports discussion method by arguing that this may be an exchange of ideas between the teacher and his students or among the students themselves. The goal of an instructional strategy is to enable learning, motivate students, and engage them in learning and mastering the curriculum. There is no one best strategy that a teacher should choose, but rather varying instructional strategies will assist students in maintaining interest, interacting with content, and eventually achieving learning goals. Effective teachers develop and utilize a range of research based strategies to help reach their learners who have varying backgrounds, abilities, and interests.

Teachers can easily access a variety of resources for their toolbox of instructional strategies via collaboration with colleagues, internet searches, professional journals, books, and many other quick finds. Teachers who are models of using effective and varying strategies in the classroom typically have a more student centered classroom, where learners are actively engaged in building upon existing knowledge. In these classrooms, time is used efficiently; information is communicated clearly and consistently reinforced with differing instructional strategies. Effective teachers also utilize questioning. Asking higher order clarifying questions and using students' answers to drive further instruction have a significant effect on daily student learning. Effective teachers use the information they receive during questioning to

accommodate students and differentiate their teaching strategies so that all students are involved in meaningful, standards-based learning.

Effective teachers promote students' learning by using research-based instructional strategies relevant to the content to engage in active learning and to facilitate the students' acquisition of key knowledge and skills. Due to lack of mastery of language content and pedagogical skills, schools and training institutions produce linguistically ill prepared people, who eventually join public and private service. This phenomenon has turned the spotlight on the teaching and learning of Kiswahili language that sees language teachers in dire need of pedagogical and linguistic competence.

Barasa (2005) emphasizes that in-service training may be carried out to inform, expand teachers' capabilities, to upgrade and reorient them. It is further argued that this will give teachers new techniques, methods, materials, skills more knowledge and even boost their morale. Buhere (2001) indicates that several suggestions on the importance of in-service training should assist the teachers to develop existing skills and knowledge. He further stresses that in-service should build on the existing knowledge and experience of the teachers by improving their potential. In conclusion, they say that teachers will be in a position to get answers to classroom management problems.

4.5 Writing Activities for Kiswahili Composition Instruction

The other concern for this study was to establish the kind of writing activities provided by teachers for Kiswahili composition instruction.

4.5.1 Data from Students' Questionnaire on Writing Activities for Kiswahili

Composition Instruction

The students' responses are shown in Table 4.5.

Table 4. 5: Writing Activities for Kiswahili Composition Instruction

Statement	Very Often		Often		Don't Know		Rarely		Never		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Group discussions	51	49.0	2	1.9	3	2.9	46	44.2	2	1.9	104	100.0
Free writing	12	11.5	33	31.7	14	13.5	41	39.4	4	3.8	104	100.0
Guided writing	33	31.7	6	5.8	5	4.8	59	56.7	1	1.0	104	100.0
Dictations	34	32.7	44	42.3	13	12.5	13	12.5	0	0	104	100.0
Note taking	44	42.3	51	49.0	6	5.8	3	2.9	0	0	104	100.0

As presented in Table 4.5, 49 % (51) of the students stated that their teachers used group discussions very often while 44.2% (46) stated that their teachers used group discussions rarely. However, 1.9% (2) stated that their teachers of Kiswahili often used group discussions whereas 1.9 % (2) stated that their teachers never used group discussions when teaching Kiswahili composition. There were 31.7% (33) and 39.4% (41) of the students who asserted that their teachers of Kiswahili engaged them in free writing when teaching them Kiswahili composition often and rarely respectively. Another 11.5%(12) stated that their teachers very often engaged them in free writing and only 3.8%(4) stated that the teachers never engaged them in free writing during the Kiswahili composition instruction.

The findings also indicates that 31.7% (33) and 5.8% (6) of the respondents stated that their teachers of Kiswahili very often and often engaged them in guided writing when teaching them Kiswahili composition respectively whereas 56.7% (59) stated that the

teachers rarely engaged them in guided writing. Further, 32.7% (34) and 42.3% (44) of the students stated that their teachers very often and often respectively used dictations during the Kiswahili composition instruction. Only 12.5% (13) stated that their teachers rarely used dictations during Kiswahili composition instruction. According to 42.3% (44) and 49% (51) of the students who participated in this study, their teachers of Kiswahili very often and often used note taking during the Kiswahili composition instruction whereas 2.9% (3) stated that their teachers rarely used note taking during the Kiswahili composition instruction. Buhere (2001) defines composition as the art of clear thinking in speech and writing. It is an act of making decision about content, style and organization. As explained by Vygotsky's theory a learner requires guidance from a more informed person to be able to acquire the necessary skills and knowledge to achieve this. This agrees with the view of Freedman (2010), who with regard to these important aspects of composition writing, states that it is important that children are introduced to each of these aspects, taught the strategies needed to undertake each stage and given time to undertake each part of the process by their teachers. Teachers of Kiswahili language should also plan teaching/learning activities which can be contextualized to bring enjoyment to the exercise. This can be done through a variety of instructional activities. This is why MOE (2002) advocates for learner – centered approaches to teaching- learning with multiple teaching strategies to suit the topic and objectives intended to be achieved. According to Assey and Ayot (2009), the extent to which learners master a skill or concept depends on the way it is presented to them.

4.5.2 Data from Teachers' Interview on Writing Activities for Kiswahili

Composition Instruction

The interview conducted on teachers indicated that most teachers 60% (9) gave their learners illustrations and brief notes and this was confirmed by analyzing students' notebooks. Many teachers 80% (12) dictated notes or asked students to copy illustrations from text books. Despite having notes on how to write different types of compositions, they wrote only a few which were also not marked. Many researchers like Hillocks (2005) have worked on the influence of grammar teaching on English writing skill. They conclude that the classes where English grammar is taught, students lose their interest and they take English writing skills as a very hard task and such classes become 'boring, useless and repetitive'. Hillocks (2005) suggests that usage and 'mechanics' of the writing skills must be carefully handled with appropriate planning (as cited in Clark, 2003). This can also apply to Kiswahili grammar and composition because like English, it is a language. The kind of writing activities will determine how much the interest of the learner will be sustained. Passive activity may leave students with a feeling that they have understood but when it comes to actual writing this may be proved otherwise.

4.5.3 Data from Lesson Observation Schedule on Writing Activities for Kiswahili

Composition Instruction

Data from lesson observation indicated that most teachers 73% (11) would briefly describe a certain type of Insha and then instruct learners to get more information from the course books. With analysis of students' notebooks showing marking being carried out rarely this implies that many students, particularly slow learners did not master the concepts taught. Writing is a productive skill. It is a challenging activity

which requires authenticity. It is not only a challenge to the educators trying to teach students but also writers trying to get a message across to the reader. Writing should possess a magical power which lies in the ability to trick the reader into believing the story unfolding before them (Basow & Martin, 2012). This therefore means that in Kiswahili composition writing, the teacher should assist the learner write in such a way that the reader is able to identify what he reads with real life.

Msanjila (2005) investigated writing problems in Kiswahili in Tanzanian secondary schools. Using data from two schools specifically selected as case studies, Msanjila's study indicated that pedagogically, unlike speaking which is acquired without explicit instructions, writing is a language skill that has to be taught, adding that failure to appreciate this difference leads to communicative writing constraints. The study revealed six glaring writing problems namely: capitalization and punctuation problems, inexplicitness or fuzziness, poor organization or illogical sequence, spelling mistakes and grammatical errors. The study revealed that most of the cited writing problems arise from pedagogical reasons and that to a greater extent, those problems were not limited to the schools involved in the study but could also apply to other schools and higher learning institutions as well. Msanjila (2005) advocated that writing problems could be minimized if students are taught writing as a skill by professional teachers of Kiswahili language. While Msanjila's study looked at secondary schools in Tanzania, the current study was undertaken in Kenya to see whether parallels can be drawn between Kenya and Tanzania in the teaching of Insha writing. This observation by Msanjila contrasts the observations in this research which from analysis of learners exercise books show that majority of teachers do not pay much attention to learners work. They simply confirm that learners wrote their essays

and give general comments, a few markings here and there or signature and date checked (appendix VI).

Waititu (1995) investigated secondary school students' ability in writing a letter of application for a job. The study found out that there were many errors in the learners' application letters occasioned by wrong punctuation, relativization, pronouns, and prepositions, singular and plural forms of non- Kiswahili vocabulary or chosen phrases, semantics, contiguity, malapropism to content such as failing to mention how they got the information, qualification, readiness for interview, referees and expressing sycophancy. This can be corrected if the teacher give varied writing tasks more regularly and marks them in detail.

4.5.4 Data from Document Analysis for Schemes of work and Students'

Notebooks on Writing Activities for Kiswahili Composition Instruction

The research established that many teachers 53% (8) gave their students writing tasks at least once every two weeks. However most of these tasks were not marked. This observation agrees with the view held by Owuondo (2010) that teachers did not give writing assignments and that those who gave did not mark. According to her, the few that marked sprinkled a few ticks over the text. Others gave comments which were all virtually negative and vague such as; write legibly, avoid spelling mistakes, improve on grammar, nothing interesting and sketchy ideas. Such feedback does not give the learner any guidance on correcting their work and only serves to discourage them from writing tasks.

Whereas many survey results imply that formal training in educational measurement might convey to teachers that they are capable of performing classroom assessment

tasks, teachers also need a clear vision about the usefulness and relevance of the training to daily classroom assessment practices. In other words, to raise teachers to the desirable level of assessment literacy, measurement training should simultaneously give attention to teachers' knowledge, skills, and attitudes related to educational measurement. Teachers' way of marking which involves comments made have a very significant effect on subsequent tasks and this is why the researcher was interested in the kind writing activities teachers gave and the kind of comments they made. It could be argued that measurement training in pre-service teacher education needs to introduce knowledge and skills within an authentic classroom context for prospective teachers to practice what has been learned. This critical feature of the pre-service teacher education program might help future teachers develop a deeper understanding of educational measurement principles.

4.6 Frequency and Kind of Feedback in Kiswahili Composition Instruction

The study sought to find out the frequency and type of feedback in Kiswahili composition instruction. The findings were obtained from students' questionnaire, interview schedule and document analysis for students' note books.

4.6.1 Data from Students' Questionnaire on Frequency and Kind of Feedback in Kiswahili Composition Instruction

The students' responses are shown in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6: Frequency and Kind of Feedback in Kiswahili Composition**Instruction**

Statement	SD		D		U		A		SA		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
My teacher always marks my Kiswahili composition	89	59.3	42	28.0	2	1.3	10	6.7	7	4.7	150	100.0
My teacher always asks me to correct my Kiswahili compositions after marking	68	45.3	61	40.7	6	4.0	9	6.0	6	4.0	150	100.0
My teacher is very keen on my handwriting	50	33.3	49	32.7	19	12.7	22	14.7	10	6.7	150	100.0
My teacher always marks punctuation in my Kiswahili compositions	57	38.0	52	34.7	20	13.3	6	4.0	15	10.0	150	100.0
My teacher is always keen on the way I use vocabulary in my Kiswahili compositions	56	37.3	58	38.7	16	10.7	12	8.0	8	5.3	150	100.0
My teacher insists on proper sentence structure in my Kiswahili compositions	49	32.7	60	40.0	15	10.0	14	9.3	11	7.3	150	100.0
My teacher insists on proper paragraphing when writing Kiswahili compositions	44	29.3	59	39.3	13	8.7	15	10.0	19	12.7	150	100.0

As presented in Table 4.6, 87.3% (131) of the students stated that their teachers did not always mark their Kiswahili composition while 11.4% (17) agreed. There were 86% (129) of the students who asserted that their teachers did not ask them to correct their Kiswahili compositions after marking whereas 10% (15) agreed. Further, 66% (99) of the respondents disagreed that their teachers were very keen on their handwriting, whereas 21.4% (32) agreed. The findings also shows that majority

(72.7%) of the students who participated in this study disagreed that their teachers always marked punctuation in their Kiswahili compositions while 14% (21) agreed. It is also instructive to note that 76% (114) of the respondents stated that their teachers were not always keen on the way they used vocabulary in their Kiswahili compositions whereas 13.3% (20) agreed. Table 4.6 shows that 72.7% (109) of the students stated that their teachers did not insist on proper sentence structure in their Kiswahili compositions, however, 16.6% (25) disagreed. Similarly, 68.6%(103) of the respondents disagreed with the statement that their teachers insisted on proper paragraphing when writing Kiswahili compositions while 22.7% (34) agreed.

Any language teacher should ensure that conducive environment is created within the classroom to facilitate the teaching process and enhance the language learning ability in the learner. It is further noted that language teaching involves organizing the learning and language use or language learning tasks and activities that are intended to facilitate students' language development (Magno, 2010). Biays and Wershoven (2007) point out that Skinnerian 'Operant Conditioning' Principle can guide teachers of composition writing where the first principle recommends immediate and regular guidance of the student. Marking of students' work should be regular and where possible be enforced with suggestions for vocabulary, phrasing, and other stylistic devices. In supporting this view of need for frequent feedback from teachers of composition writing, Hucker (2005) states that there can be no substitute for the gradual patient acquisition of writing skills. This requires close monitoring of the learner's progress. Learning to write competently is a process of building up experience of different kinds, experience of using language, of conceptualizing written language forms, of being able to reproduce these forms in conventional

orthographic and of being able to work with the other conventions of written language.

As Magno (2010), explains, there are several stages of composition writing including: prewriting drafting, revising, editing and publication. The learner cannot go through these stages effectively without the help of the teacher. This explains why regular feedback is essential in enabling the learner to progress from a poor quality essay to a better composition.

4.6.2 Data from Teachers' Interview on Frequency and Kind of Feedback in Kiswahili Composition Instruction

Many teachers 80% (12) interviewed stated that they rarely marked Kiswahili compositions implying that they did not give feedback to the students often enough. Most teachers 67% (10) stated that they confined themselves to marking Insha only during exams. This implies that the learners received feedback two to three times in a term. It is worth noting that this feedback may not have had much impact as the students' concentration was focused on exams. Though the schemes of work indicated that Insha assignments would be given regularly marking was inadequate. Feedback is more useful between drafts not when it is done at the end of the task after students hand in their compositions to be marked (Nyaega, 2012). Further, students notebooks sampled showed that where marking was done, it was not done appropriately. Many teachers simply put red marks/ticks here and there, signed giving comments such as "seen", "repeat", "good", "tried" and so on. Mistakes were underlined without any correction or comment. The KNEC format recommends that marks be awarded for content, vocabulary, cohesion and style. This is important as it helps the student know which area requires special attention. Awarding marks without clearly indicating how

they were earned does not help a student to improve. In most compositions, no suggestions were given to learners to act on. Most exercise books indicated no follow-up was done as no corrections were noted.

Borg (2003) sees teaching writing skill as a process. This view is supported by Hucker (2005) who says that both the process and the product of writing should be assessed and evaluated, allowing students and teachers to focus on and assess the learning that takes place during writing rather than trying to ascertain what has been learned from the finished product only. On the same note, Hyland (2002) says that the basic components of the writing process are similar from writer to writer but each writer is unique and develops an individual writing process. He further notes that writing abilities are further acquired by practice and frequent writing. While instruction may be required about some writing skills and knowledge, it must be conducted within the context of students writing and should not be broken into isolated sub-skills, which are less likely to transfer to the students' writing. The teacher should ensure that they assess their learners' progress as often as possible through assignments and tests.

4.6.3 Data from Document Analysis for Schemes of Work and Students' Notebooks on Frequency and Kind of Feedback in Kiswahili Composition Instruction

Data from the analysis of schemes of work indicated that most teachers 73% (11) had an Insha topic at the end of every chapter or topic in the syllabus. Many teachers indicated that students would carry out an Insha task after every two weeks. This implied that at least 7 Kiswahili compositions would be written every term. This means that a student would get feedback from the teacher at least seven times per

term excluding examinations if marking of all Insha tasks planned for was done. This however contradicted the findings from the students' questionnaire which showed that most teachers did not mark students' Insha assignments. This response from the students was further confirmed by many teachers interviewed who admitted that they did not mark Insha regularly.

This research also established that students rarely received feedback on their Insha tasks from teachers as only a few of the tasks given were marked. It was also established that most teachers gave general comments mainly on quality of the composition and not on mistakes made. Comments like good, tried, repeat were common. Some teachers put a tick/mark, wrote 'checked' or 'seen' and then signed. This kind of feedback could not therefore help the student make necessary corrections as specific mistakes were not pointed out. Where the teacher pinpointed the mistake no comments were made. Mistakes were underlined without any explanation. For those whose Insha assignments were marked, 81% of students stated that the teachers did not follow up the corrections done.

Writing like any other skill improves with practice as stated by Biays and Wershoven (2007). They assert that it is done bit by bit rather than all at once. Producing a piece of writing as stated before requires that one thinks, plans, drafts, rethinks, focuses on the topic, revises the written work, edits it and finally proofreads it. This is a very formal procedure that requires a lot of practice and information. The teacher should closely guide the learner through all this.

According to Magno (2010), both students and teachers are commonly frustrated over the number of errors and lack of improvement in students' writing. In these articles, they look at how teachers traditionally assign and react to students' writing. Magno

claims that students may become more involved in editing their own work if the teacher does less correcting. Thome (2001) suggests that teachers look at writing as a process or a series of drafts, including pre-writing, writing and rewriting. Less attention to correction of grammatical errors, together with real attention to content, leads ultimately to better student compositions. Magno (2010) claims that the advantages to both students and the teachers of process writing and writing for communication include greater quantity, higher student motivation, and more efficient use of grading time. Writing is a process that involves at least four distinct steps: prewriting, drafting, revising, and editing. The process writing approach involves teaching pupils strategies to help them express themselves in writing through the act of writing. Students experience these interrelated phases before the final products come out. Process writing breaks the writing acts into manageable parts and it integrates oral language, reading and writing in meaningful writing task. It allows students to concentrate on one task at a time and to experience the value of peer feedback in developing their ideas for effective written expressions. Since students need to publish their writing, they need to tailor the message for a particular audience and purpose. It is known as a recursive process (Leithwood, 2004). The end result of the learning process. Students choose from a choice of comparable writing tasks. Individually, they use the skills, structures and vocabulary they have been taught to produce the product; to show what they can do as fluent and competent users of the language.

According to Thome (2001), one has to include in teaching goals the ability to select words and phrases to represent the desired meaning. This explains why regular feedback is necessary. Activities like vocabulary building are important for efficient reading. It is doubly important for competent writing. Then learners need to be taught

the skills of putting words together in a meaningful relationship. They have this capacity naturally from their speech experience but in writing it must be with certain rules, for in speech one can repeat himself, retract, break off in the middle of a construction and try another one and so on. This is not the case with writing where mistakes including pronunciation are overlooked as what matters most is to communicate.

4.7 Assessment Practices Used By Teachers in the Teaching of Kiswahili Composition

The study sought to establish assessment practices used by teachers in the teaching of Kiswahili composition.

4.7.1 Data from Students' Questionnaire on Assessment Practices Used By Teachers in the Teaching of Kiswahili Composition

The students' responses are shown in Table 4.7.

Table 4. 7: Assessment practices used by teachers in the teaching of Kiswahili composition

Statement	SD		D		U		A		SA		Total	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	f	%
Kiswahili composition teacher gives out assignments and class work excises on what was taught in the class lesson	60	40.0	45	30.0	8	5.3	24	16.0	13	8.7	150	100.0
Interclass examination is done frequently	32	21.3	44	29.3	8	5.3	31	20.7	35	23.3	150	100.0
Students are ranked based on overall performance	66	44.0	52	34.7	11	7.3	16	10.7	5	3.3	150	100.0
Internal examination is preferred by students to external examination	52	34.7	42	28.0	11	7.3	22	14.7	23	15.3	150	100.0
Teachers marked the exercises and assignment given to the learners	50	33.3	49	32.7	19	12.7	10	6.7	22	14.7	150	100.0
CATS are given to monitor end of topic on weekly/ fortnightly basis	46	30.7	41	27.3	17	11.3	18	12.0	28	18.7	150	100.0
Teachers ensure thorough revision and remedial after a CAT is done	58	38.7	65	43.3	5	3.3	8	5.3	14	9.3	150	100.0
Teachers release results officially on assembly/ in class after CATS	63	42.0	53	35.3	16	10.7	10	6.7	8	5.3	150	100.0

As shown in Table 4.7, 70% (105) of the students disagreed to the statement that their Kiswahili subject teachers gave out assignments and class exercises on what was taught in the Kiswahili composition class lesson while 24.7% (37) agreed. Half (50.7%) of the students stated that inter class examinations were not done frequently while 44 % (66) agreed. Another 78.7 % (118) of the students stated that students

were not ranked based on overall performance, whereas 14 % (21) disagreed. Further, 62.7 % (94) of the students disagreed to the statement that internal examination is preferred by students to external examination while 30 % (45) agreed. Further, 66% (99) of the students stated that teachers did not mark the exercise and assignments given to learners while 21.4% (32) disagreed. It is also revealed that 58 % (87) stated that CATs were not given to monitor end of topic on weekly fortnightly basis, but 30.7% (46) agreed. There were 82% (123) of the respondents who stated that teachers did not ensure thorough revision and remedial work after a CAT was done, 14.6% (22) agreed. Another 77.3% (116) disagreed to the statement that teachers released results officially on assembly in class after CAT. However, 12% (18) agreed. All types of assessment were based on the principle that the more one understood how students were learning, the more effective their teaching would become.

According to Clark (2003), to become an integral part of the instructional process, assessments cannot be a one-shot, do-or-die experience for students. Instead, assessments must be part of an ongoing effort to help students learn. And if teachers follow assessments with helpful corrective instruction, then students should have a second chance to demonstrate their new level of competence and understanding. This second chance helps determine the effectiveness of the corrective instruction and offers students another opportunity to experience success in learning. According to Frodesen (2001), effective assessments give students feedback on how well they understand the information and on what they need to improve, while helping teachers to better design instruction.

4.7.2 Data from Teachers' Interview on Assessment Practices Used By Teachers in the Teaching of Kiswahili Composition

During the interview conducted with the teachers who participated in this study, most teachers 60% (9) stated that the performance of their students was average in Insha while only a few 27% (4) rated theirs below average. It was noted that half of the teachers gave their learners Insha tasks once in a while. This implies that the tasks given were not regular. Very few teachers gave Insha tasks weekly. However, a few gave Insha assignments after every two weeks.

Assessments can be a vital component in our efforts to improve education. But as long as they are used only as a means to rank schools and students, their most powerful benefits will be missed out. There is need to focus instead on helping teachers change the way they use assessment results, improve the quality of their classroom assessments, and align their assessments with valued learning goals and standards. When teachers' classroom assessments become an integral part of the instructional process and a central ingredient in their efforts to help students learn, the benefits of assessment for both students and teachers will be boundless. Proper assessment that takes into account content, vocabulary structure, cohesion and style would assist learners and teachers to focus on mistakes in order to rectify them.

4.7.3 Data from Document Analysis for Schemes of Work and Students' Notebooks on Assessment Practices Used By Teachers in the Teaching of Kiswahili Composition

Data from document analysis for scheme of work indicated that most teachers 80% (12) planned for assessment tests such as beginning of term exam, mid-term exams and end of term/year exam.

To investigate the assessment methods, the study sought to establish the regularity of Insha tasks given to students, assessment methods used in assessing them, mistakes noted in compositions and how teachers rated their Insha learners. Students' Insha exercise books were used to cross-check the questionnaire responses on aspects such as how teachers rated their students; to establish mistakes made in Insha and how often teachers gave Insha tasks. Analysis of students' Insha notebooks indicated that the highest number of tasks given by a teacher in a term was five.

This conclusion was arrived at after carrying out an analysis of 75 students' Insha notebooks in 15 schools. Since writing is a production skill that needs practice to perfect it, the tasks given must be frequent to give learners enough practice on writing as proposed by KNEC (2005) and (2008). It was noted that Insha tasks given were inadequate to perfect the skill. The students' notebooks analysis was used to determine the assessment methods used by teachers. It is worth noting that during the interview all the teachers stated that they used the KNEC format in assessing Insha. This is in line with the KNEC format which recommends that marks be awarded for content, vocabulary, cohesion and style. The total of marks awarded in every category gives the final mark. However an observation of students marked work had few wrong words underlined and a final mark given. These arbitrary marks do not help the

student. The Insha teacher should give comments for each category with the aim of assisting the learner to improve. According to Frodesen (2001), assessment becomes even more relevant when students become involved in their own assessment. Students taking an active role in developing the scoring criteria, self-evaluation, and goal setting, more readily accept that the assessment is adequately measuring their learning.

4.8 Chapter Summary

This chapter has focused on details concerning data analysis, interpretation and discussion. Findings indicate that most of the teachers involved in the study prepared schemes of work though very few prepared lesson plans. It was noted that the most commonly used method in teaching Insha was lecture. Dictation was also found to be popular among most teachers of Kiswahili. On writing activities, it was noted that most teachers give notes during the Insha lessons. Many teachers did not mark Kiswahili compositions regularly. Where marking was done it was once or twice in a term. Most exercise books sampled showed very scanty marking. Comments included 'good', 'repeat', 'poor', 'seen', 'tried' and so on which could not help a learner to know where to improve. Most teachers and students agreed that assessment in Insha was done one to three times in a term during exams.

The foregoing discussion further shows that there has been a general downward trend in composition writing among learners. Students therefore end up with very little experience on Kiswahili composition writing. This has contributed to the general poor performance in Kiswahili in the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (K.C.S.E) over time. The 2012 KNEC report states that majority of candidates who attain low marks in Kiswahili language are neither able to use suitable vocabulary or correct grammar. In addition, they are not able nor can they write sustainable essays.

CHAPTER FIVE

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1 Introduction

The purpose of the study was to investigate teacher practices in the teaching of Kiswahili composition in Secondary schools in Kenya and their influence on performance. In this chapter, the results of the study were summarized and conclusions drawn. Finally, the potential areas of future research were outlined.

5.2 Summary of the Findings

The summary of findings focused on the following sub-headings that formed the study objectives:

5.2.1 Teacher Planning for Kiswahili Composition Instruction

The first objective of this study was to find out the status of teacher planning in Kiswahili composition instruction. Data was collected from 75 female students and 75 male students whereby half (50%) of the students were in mixed schools while 40% were in girls schools. Only 10% were in boys schools. The study established that majority (91.3%) of the students stated that the Kiswahili composition lesson did not cater for all the different needs of the students. It was also found that in most (86.7 %) schools, there were no lessons set aside for Kiswahili composition. Further, 76.7% of the students stated that the content of the Kiswahili composition lesson did not reflect how they were examined, while 83.3% stated that the teacher did not present the content at a good pace to enable all the learners to understand the concepts taught. It was also revealed that majority (75.3%) of the students were of the view that their

teachers did not always give them notes for Kiswahili composition whereas 76.7 % stated that their teachers of Kiswahili did not tell them the objectives of the lesson at the beginning of the lesson. Student participation during the Kiswahili composition class was also wanting as stated by 59.3% of the students who participated in this study. Majority (71.3%) of the students also disagreed to the statement that the teachers of Kiswahili start the Kiswahili composition lesson from what they know. It is worth noting that preparations made by teachers of Kiswahili composition have a lot of impact on teaching and learning process. It is however worth noting that majority of the teachers prepared schemes of work though they did not use them appropriately. This implies that majority of the teachers were not presenting the Kiswahili composition lessons in a sequential manner to enable the students understand the concepts covered in class. This explains why many students did not take Insha seriously as seen from the very few Insha activities they engaged in.

5.2.2 Teaching Methods used in Kiswahili Composition Instruction

The second objective of the study was to determine the teaching methods used by teachers in Kiswahili composition instruction in secondary schools in Kenya. The study established that discussion method was rarely used as stated by 38% of the students who participated in this study. Only 33.3% of the students stated that their teachers used discussion method very often when teaching them Kiswahili composition. Majority (78.7%) of the students confirmed that their teachers use lecture method often when teaching them Kiswahili composition. Further, 40.7% and 26.7% of the students stated that the teachers of Kiswahili use description method very often and often respectively, when teaching Kiswahili composition. Narrations method was also popular among the teachers teaching Kiswahili composition as stated

by majority (58%) of the students who participated in this study. There were 31.3% of the students who stated that the teachers of Kiswahili use dictation method very often when teaching Kiswahili composition while 37.3% stated that the teachers of Kiswahili use dictation method often when teaching Kiswahili composition. This implies that many teachers of Kiswahili use dictation method when teaching Kiswahili composition.

The goal of an instructional strategy is to enable learning, motivate students, and engage them in learning and mastering the curriculum. There is no one best strategy that a teacher should choose, but rather varying instructional strategies will assist students in maintaining interest, interacting with content, and eventually achieving learning goals. Effective teachers develop and utilize a range of research based strategies to help reach their learners who have varying backgrounds, abilities, and interests.

Teachers can easily access a variety of resources for their toolbox of instructional strategies via collaboration with colleagues, internet searches, professional journals, books, and many other quick finds. Teachers who are models of using effective and varying strategies in the classroom typically have a more student centered classroom, where learners are actively engaged in building upon existing knowledge. In these classrooms, time is used efficiently; information is communicated clearly and consistently reinforced with differing instructional strategies. Effective teachers also utilize questioning. Asking higher order clarifying questions and using students' answers to drive further instruction have a significant effect on daily student learning. Effective teachers use the information they receive during questioning to

accommodate students and differentiate their teaching strategies so that all students are involved in meaningful, standards-based learning.

There are several methods which if combined in the classroom situation will benefit the students in their language learning. A teacher cannot rely on only one method of teaching. A teacher who merely demonstrates his own knowledge through lectures is not teaching. Teaching and learning of language goes beyond the usual instructional process in class. That is, the presence of a teacher, the learner and the lesson content. The language teacher is required to manipulate the situation to ensure that the most appropriate language teaching strategies are used in order to enhance language learning. The choice of strategy should be guided by the nature of the learners and the learning conditions, the topic to be covered and the teachers' knowledge, skill and ability to use that strategy. It is also noteworthy that teachers must help individual students discern what strategies are most relevant to their learning styles tasks and goals.

5.2.3 Writing Activities for Kiswahili Composition Instruction

The study also sought to establish the kind of writing activities provided by teachers for Kiswahili composition instruction. Slightly below half (49%) of the students stated that their teachers used group discussions very often while 44.2% stated that their teachers use group discussions rarely. As stated by 39.4% of the students, the teachers of Kiswahili rarely engage them in free writing when teaching Kiswahili composition. This was slightly higher than those who stated that the teachers of Kiswahili often engage them in free writing when teaching Kiswahili composition.

The study also established that 56.7% of the students stated that their teachers of Kiswahili very often and often engaged them in guided writing when teaching them Kiswahili composition. As earlier noted, dictation method was commonly used by teachers when teaching Kiswahili composition in secondary schools where the study was done. This was stated by 75% of the students who participated in this study. According to 42.3% and 49% of the students, their teachers of Kiswahili very often and often respectively used note taking during the Kiswahili composition instruction. In Kiswahili composition writing, a student is required to select a topic, generate ideas, organize them logically and put them down into a whole story. Even if writing enables the learners to express their ideas meaningfully, there are various formats that the students need to follow in order to sharpen their writing skills. Other requirements include themes, correct sentence structure, punctuation, correct sentence construction, spelling and the layout of the composition.

5.2.4 Frequency and Kind of Feedback in Kiswahili Composition Instruction

The other concern for this study was to find out the frequency of feedback in Kiswahili composition instruction. The findings revealed that majority of the teachers did not mark students' work in Kiswahili composition (87.3%). There were 86% of the students who asserted that their teachers did not ask them to correct their Kiswahili compositions while 66% of the students stated that their teachers were not very keen on their handwriting. Similarly, 72.7% of the students asserted that their teachers did not mark punctuation in their Kiswahili compositions. It is also instructive to note that 76% of the respondents stated that their teachers were not always keen on the way they used vocabulary in their Kiswahili compositions. The findings also showed that 72.7% of the students stated that their teachers did not insist

on proper sentence structure in their Kiswahili compositions while 68.6% of the students stated that their teachers did not insist on proper paragraphing when writing Kiswahili compositions.

5.2.5 Assessment Practices Used By Teachers in the Teaching of Kiswahili Composition

The study sought to establish assessment practices used by teachers in the teaching of Kiswahili composition. From the findings presented in the previous chapter, 70% of the students disagreed to the statement that every subject teacher gave out assignments and class exercises on what was taught in the Kiswahili composition class lesson. Half (50.7%) of the students stated that inter class examination was not done frequently while 78.7% of the students stated that students were not ranked based on overall performance. Further, 62.7% of the students disagreed to the statement that internal examination was preferred by students to external examination. The study also found out that 66% of the students stated that teachers did not mark their Insha exercises and assignments given to them while 58% stated that CATs were not given to monitor end of topic on fortnightly basis. Majority (82%) of the respondents stated that teachers did not ensure thorough revision and remedial work after a CAT was done and that teachers did not release results officially on assembly after CAT.

Regardless of having been taught for four years, learners in form four still find it difficult to communicate effectively in academic writing. They make many mistakes in the process. These errors affect the flow of writing, the intended meaning, making comprehension of the work difficult. Many students write their compositions without

following given instructions. Such students end up setting their own questions hence writing their compositions out of topic.

5.3 Conclusions

Based on the findings of the study, it can be concluded that the teachers of Kiswahili do not adequately prepare in Kiswahili composition instruction in secondary schools where the study was done. This is because the Kiswahili composition lesson did not cater for all the different needs of the students. It was also found that in most schools, there were no lessons set aside for Kiswahili composition. The teachers were not able to present the Kiswahili composition lessons at a good pace and they did not always give students notes for Kiswahili composition. The study also established that student participation in Kiswahili composition was low.

On the teaching methods used by teachers in Kiswahili composition instruction, the study established that majority of the teachers used explanation, description, narrations and dictation methods. However, discussion method was rarely used when teaching students Kiswahili composition. The study also established that group discussions, free writing and guided writing were rarely used when teaching Kiswahili composition. However, dictation and note taking were the main writing activities used in the learning and teaching of Kiswahili composition instruction.

The findings reveal that majority of the teachers did not mark students' work in Kiswahili composition. Similarly, the teachers did not encourage and require the students to correct their Kiswahili compositions and they were not very keen on their handwriting. The teachers did not mark punctuation and were not always keen on the way they used vocabulary in their Kiswahili compositions. The findings also showed

that the teachers did not insist on proper sentence structure and proper paragraphing in their Kiswahili compositions.

On frequency and type of feedback, the findings reveal that many teachers did not regularly mark students' Insha tasks. They concentrated only on marking Insha examinations once or twice a term. Even then, they gave scanty comments or just give a tick here and there then award marks. This implies that students do not get regular feedback so they can correct their mistakes and hence improve their compositions.

Concerning the assessment practices used by teachers in the teaching of Kiswahili composition, the study established that teachers did not regularly give out assignments and class exercises on what was taught in the Kiswahili composition class lesson. Half of the students stated that inter class examination was not done frequently and that students are not ranked based on overall performance. Majority of the students stated that teachers did not mark the exercises and assignments given to learners and that CATs were not given to monitor end of topic on fortnightly basis. Majority of the respondents stated that teachers did not ensure thorough revision and remedial work after a CAT were done and that teachers did not release results officially after CATs were done.

5.4 Recommendations of the study

Based on the findings and conclusions of this study, the following recommendations need to be considered by Insha teachers, teacher trainers, teacher trainees, language scholars and other education stakeholders.

- i) On preparations, teachers of Kiswahili should be encouraged to prepare lesson plans and lesson notes for Insha lessons. This will improve their efficiency and

effectiveness. Internal school inspection mechanisms should be established on teacher preparation for Kiswahili composition.

- ii) Teachers of Kiswahili should be encouraged to use the process approach in teaching Kiswahili composition. To make this possible, Kiswahili lessons need to be increased from five to seven because the process approach will need more time than the five lessons allocated. This can ensure that teachers set adequate time for Kiswahili composition. In heuristic strategy, the teacher is a facilitator. Teachers of Kiswahili need to be encouraged to involve their learners in coming up with Insha writing tasks. This will ensure that teachers guide learners in coming up with relevant tasks that affect them in their daily lives.
- iii) Writing is a production skill that requires practice to perfect it. Teachers should give short writing exercises on topics negotiated with students for practice in the Kiswahili composition lessons.
- iv) On frequency and type of feedback, teachers should regularly mark assignments so that students can get feedback and make necessary corrections so that they can improve their compositions. Teachers should give sufficient feedback on all components of Insha such as punctuation, vocabulary, proper flow of ideas, paragraphing and so on so that students can focus on their specific areas of weakness with a view to improve.
- v) On assessment, teachers of Kiswahili need to use compositions to diagnose main areas of weaknesses in order to address them. They should also give regular CATs and assignments in Kiswahili composition.

5.5 Suggestions for Further Studies

The following suggestions are made for future research.

- i) In order to improve on external validity, a similar study should be conducted in public schools in other counties with similar challenges
- ii) Further research should be conducted in which other variables can be investigated, for instance, the level of teacher preparedness to teach Kiswahili composition in secondary schools in Kenya.
- iii) There is need to conduct a research on strategies used in teaching Kiswahili composition at primary school level.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I: QUESTIONNAIRE FOR STUDENTS

Dear student,

I am carrying out a study on teacher practices in Kiswahili Composition instruction.

You have been selected to participate in this study. Your response will be treated with a lot of confidentiality.

SECTION A: BIODATA

Use appropriately to answer the questions.

What is your sex? Male Female

What is your school type?

i) Mixed

ii) Boys'

iii) Girls'

SECTION B: Teacher planning for Kiswahili composition instruction

Please respond to the following items by ticking appropriately:

Key: SD-strongly disagree D-disagree U-undecided A-agree SA-strongly agree

	SD	D	U	A	SA
In my school we always have lessons set aside for Kiswahili composition					
My teacher always give us notes for Kiswahili composition					
The Kiswahili composition lesson is designed to ensure that it caters for all the different needs of the students					
The content of lesson is in line with the topic objectives of the lesson, hence reflects how the students will be examined					
Time distribution in lesson is done such that all the activities are delivered in an orderly way.					
Lesson clearly shows achievements and goals that should be achieved in a particular lesson					
The lesson is always students centered so that students are active					
Lesson build upon prior student knowledge i.e from known to unknown					

SECTION C: Teaching methods used in Kiswahili composition instruction

Please respond to the following statement with regard to methods used by your teacher during Kiswahili composition lessons:

How often does the teacher use the following strategies in teaching Kiswahili composition?

	Never	Rarely	Often	Very often
(i) Discussion				
(ii) Lecture				
(iii) Description				
(iv) Narrations				
(v) Dictations				

SECTION D: Writing activities for Kiswahili composition instruction.

Indicate the frequency of the following as used by teacher during Kiswahili composition lessons:

		Never	Rarely	Often	Very often
I	Group discussions				
Ii	Free writing				
Iii	Guided writing				
Iv	Dictations				
V	Note taking				

SECTION E: Frequency and kind of feedback in Kiswahili composition instruction

a) Indicate frequency and kind of feedback in Kiswahili composition instruction:

	Never	Rarely	Often	Very often
(i) My teacher always marks my Kiswahili composition				
(ii) My teacher always asks me to correct my Kiswahili compositions after marking				
(iii) My teacher is very keen on my handwriting				
(iv) My teacher always marks punctuation in my Kiswahili compositions				
(v) My teacher is always keen on the way I use				
(vi) vocabulary in my Kiswahili compositions				
(vii) My teacher insists on proper sentence structure in my Kiswahili compositions				
(viii) My teacher insists on proper paragraphing when writing Kiswahili compositions				

b) How often are your Kiswahili composition assignments marked in a term?

More than 8 times []

6-8 times []

3-5 times []

1-2 times []

Never []

SECTION F: What kind of exams do you have in your class?

i) continuous assessment tests

ii) inter-class examinations

iii) assignments

iv) any other _____

APPENDIX II: INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR TEACHERS OF KISWAHILI

1) How much priority is accorded to Insha lessons in your scheme of work?

.....
.....
.....
.....

2) Which methods do you use to teach Insha?

.....
.....
.....
.....

3) Which writing activities do you give to the learners during Insha lessons?

.....
.....
.....
.....

4) How often do you mark Insha exercise books?

.....
.....
.....
.....

5) How do you assess your learners' abilities in writing of Insha.

.....
.....
.....
.....

6) What kind of writing activities do you give to students apart from grammar?

.....
.....
.....

APPENDIX III: LESSON OBSERVATION SCHEDULE

School:

Lesson No..... Date:

Time: start..... Stop:

Topic

No. of students

(i) Availability of scheme of work and/or lesson plans available

.....

ii) Teaching methods are employed in the teaching of Kiswahili composition

.....

iii) Writing activities provided for Kiswahili composition instruction.

.....

iv) Frequency of feedback during the lesson (verbal and written)

.....

v) Assessment practices used

.....

Other remarks

.....

APPENDIX IV: DOCUMENT ANALYSIS FOR THE SCHEME OF WORK

(i) Availability of schemes of work

.....
.....
.....

(ii) Teaching methods indicated

.....
.....
.....

(iii) Writing activities

.....
.....
.....

(iv) Frequency of Kiswahili composition lessons-

.....
.....
.....

(v) Assessment practices indicated –

.....
.....
.....

APPENDIX V: DOCUMENT ANALYSIS FOR STUDENTS' NOTE BOOKS

(i) Writing activities provided

.....
.....
.....

(ii) Frequency of marking

.....
.....
.....

(iii) Type of feedback provided

.....
.....
.....

(iv) Average number of Kiswahili compositions written in a week, term.

(v) Frequency of Kiswahili composition notes

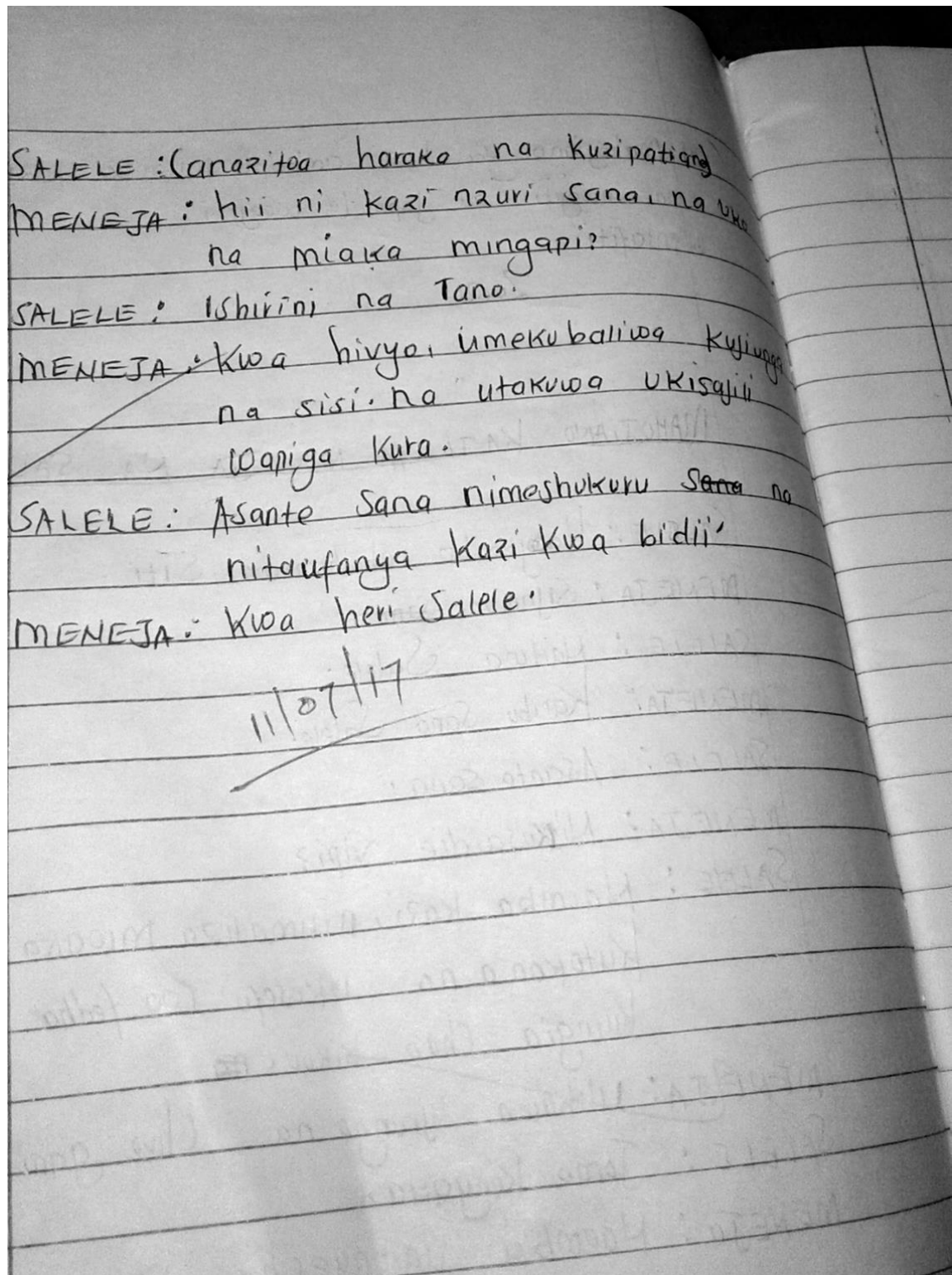
(vi) Writing activities for Kiswahili composition provided

(vii) Frequency of marking Kiswahili compositions

(viii) Kinds of feedback on Kiswahili composition assignments

(ix) Kinds of Kiswahili composition assignments given

APPENDIX VI: SAMPLES OF MARKED COMPOSITION



rukusa ya kutohudhuria masomo
siku ya jumamosi-jumatatu. ↓

Sababu kuu ni kipo cha
nyanya yangu aliyekuwa akiishi
Makurda. Sikupenda kukosa masomo
hayo lakini lisilobidi hubidi.
Itanilazimu niende nikahudhuria
mazishi yake hasa mimi kama
mjuukuu.

Ninauhakikisha kwamba nitore
baada ya shughuli hizo za
mazishi. Hatumai utalikubali ombi
langu.

[Handwritten signature]

Wako muamini
Zipporah Kimani

APPENDIX VII: UNIVERSITY RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION LETTER



P. O. Box 1125-30100 Eldoret, Kenya
 Tel: +254 53 206 3111 ext 2358
 Fax: +254 53 2063257
 Email: bpgs@uoeld.ac.ke
 Website: www.uoeld.ac.ke

OFFICE OF THE DIRECTOR BOARD OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

Our Ref: UOE/BPS/35
 Your Ref:

DATE: 27th October, 2015

The Chief Executive Officer
 NACOSTI
 P.O. BOX 30623 – 00100
 NAIROBI.

Dear Sir/Madam,

RE: RECOMMENDATION FOR MWANGI PETER KAMAU – EDU/PhD/PGC/1008/13

I write this in support of the application for **MWANGI PETER KAMAU** for Research funding from National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovations (NACOSTI). The applicant is undertaking a thesis research entitled “**Teacher practices in Kiswahili composition instruction and their influence on performance in secondary schools in Kenya: A case of Wareng sub-county in Uasin Gishu county, Kenya.**”

The applicant is a registered PhD student in the **Department of Curriculum & Instruction/Educational Psychology, School of Education in the University of Eldoret.** The applicant has completed the coursework and has successfully defended his proposal in readiness for commencement of the research.

I therefore strongly support the application for funding for the student from your esteemed institution to enable him complete the postgraduate studies. Your support will be highly appreciated.

Yours faithfully,



DR. ELIZABETH W NJENGA (PhD)
DIRECTOR, BOARD OF POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

Tel: +254 716980251/ +254 735925989
 Email: njengae@yahoo.com
elizabeth.njenga@uoeld.ac.ke

APPENDIX VIII: NACOSTI RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION LETTER



NATIONAL COMMISSION FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND INNOVATION

Telephone: +254-20-2213471,
2241349, 3310571, 2219420
Fax: +254-20-318245, 318249
Email: dg@nacosti.go.ke
Website: www.nacosti.go.ke
when replying please quote

9th Floor, Utalii House
Uhuru Highway
P.O. Box 30623-00100
NAIROBI-KENYA

Ref. No.

Date:

NACOSTI/P/16/24104/10137

9th May, 2016

Peter Kamau Mwangi
University of Eldoret
P.O. Box 1125-30100
ELDORET.

RE: RESEARCH AUTHORIZATION

Following your application for authority to carry out research on "*Teacher practices in Kiswahili composition instruction and the influence on performance in secondary schools in Kenya. A case of Wareng Sub-County, Uasin Gishu County,*" I am pleased to inform you that you have been authorized to undertake research in **Uasin Gishu County** for the period ending **5th May, 2017**.

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

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

**BONIFACE WANYAMA
FOR: DIRECTOR-GENERAL/CEO**

Copy to:

The County Commissioner
Uasin Gishu County.

The County Director of Education
Uasin Gishu County.

APPENDIX IX: NACOSTI RESEARCH PERMIT

CONDITIONS

- 1. You must report to the County Commissioner and the County Education Officer of the area before embarking on your research. Failure to do that may lead to the cancellation of your permit.**
- 2. Government Officers will not be interviewed without prior appointment.**
- 3. No questionnaire will be used unless it has been approved.**
- 4. Excavation, filming and collection of biological specimens are subject to further permission from the relevant Government Ministries.**
- 5. You are required to submit at least two(2) hard copies and one(1) soft copy of your final report.**
- 6. The Government of Kenya reserves the right to modify the conditions of this permit including its cancellation without notice.**

REPUBLIC OF KENYA

NACOSTI

National Commission for Science, Technology and Innovation

RESEARCH CLEARANCE PERMIT

Serial No. A 9052

CONDITIONS: see back page

THIS IS TO CERTIFY THAT:

MR. PETER KAMAU MWANGI
OF UNIVERSITY OF ELDORET 2024-30100
Eldoret, has been permitted to conduct
Research in Uasin-Gishu County

on the topic: TEACHER PRACTICES IN KISWAHILI COMPOSITION INSTRUCTION AND THE INFLUENCE ON PERFORMANCE IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN KENYA: A CASE OF WARENG SUB-COUNTY, UASIN GISHU COUNTY

for the period ending:

5th May, 2017

Applicant's Signature

Director General National Commission for Science, Technology & Innovation



Director General National Commission for Science, Technology & Innovation