

Effectiveness of Expatriate and the Local Teaching Staff in the Implementation of International Curricula in selected cities in Kenya

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ABSTRACT

The thrust of this study was to examine the effectiveness of expatriate and the local teaching staff in the implementation of international curricula in selected cities in Kenya. Two objectives guided this study, namely: i) to assess the effectiveness of expatriate and local teachers in implementation of international curricular and ii) to determine students' perception regarding the impact of expatriate and local teaching staff on their academic performance. The study was premised on the administrative management theory pioneered by Henry Fayol cited in Ukeje, et.al (1992) which identifies five elements of management. A descriptive survey research was adopted. The study sampled 10 headteachers, 73 teachers and 22 parents yielding a sample size of 105 to participate in the study. A combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches using interviews and questionnaires was employed to collect and analyze data. The major findings of the study were that majority of teachers implementing international curricular in Kenya are local teachers who have undergone intensive in-service training and wide exposure through workshops and seminars on principles and techniques of international education. As a result, these local teachers compare favourable more than their international counterparts with respect to effectiveness of teaching. Students consider the local teachers to have made a profound positive impact on their academic attainment. It is recommended that although directors and managers of the international institutions still prefer expatriate teachers over their local colleagues as a marketing strategy, they should be encouraged to employ more local staff on grounds of capacity building and cost-effectiveness.[252 words]

Key words: *Expatriate, local, teaching staff, international curricular, cost-effectiveness, institutions, Kenya.*

I.INTRODUCTION

Background Information

Education is the key to the production of human capital that drives the country of any nation (Oliba & Andu, 2014). The quality of the educational system today can be to a great extent shape what the country will be tomorrow(Orwasia& Orodho,2014) Since schools are established centres for the education of the youth in society, the classrooms for teaching and learning should be engaging and stimulating ,where students see relevance in their class work to their world , and to a much larger world around (Oliba & Andu,2014, Orodho,2014). It is therefore arguable that the effectiveness of the

implementation of curriculum is critical in shaping the attitude of the learners towards what they learn and the acquisition of knowledge, skills and competencies (Orodho, 2014).

A number of international studies have shown that school teachers lack competencies on modern approaches as a pedagogical tool in the teaching and learning process (Nihuka & Voong, 2011; Bigmlas, 2009; Ndibaleme, 2014; Orodho, 2014). In many schools, students are still being taught what students were taught in the 1950s and in the same ways because ineffective use of Information and Communication Technology (ICT), or other modern teaching methods based on e-learning or being exposed to international curricular as a pedagogical tool (Tapscott, 1998; Knight et al. 2006). Although there is a dramatic impact on growth of ICT and other modes of learning through international curricular in Kenya, many classrooms, schools, and colleges look like and operate in a remarkably similar ways to those of two decades (Ndibaleme, 2014).

At independence, the Kenya Government gave a commitment to the provision of UPE (Ominde Report, 1964). Over forty years down the line, the government has not been able to realize this target. The demand for education has outstripped its supply necessitating the government to invite private investors in supplementing its effort. Expatriates working for multinational companies, UN agencies, diplomatic missions, NGOs, and Kenyan elite choose schools that offer international education programmes that will prepare their children for quality education compatible with what is offered back home and a good foundation for further education in universities in the western world. Most parents prefer international education being administered by expatriate staff due to the belief that they are better trained and qualified than local teachers.

When the Jubilee government took over power in March 2013, they promised Kenya through their manifesto to create at least one million jobs per year. In this regard, the government outlined various measures that would give Kenyans an opportunity to participate in different economic activities. In addition to this, it underlined the need for promoting and protecting goods and services produced in Kenya. In essence, the government was determined to provide available employment opportunities to its citizenry. Issuances and renewal of work permits to expatriate staff would only be considered if similar skills are absolutely unavailable locally (Republic of Kenya, 2005, 2012a, 2012b, 2013).

The Kenya formal education is structured in a three-tier system; Basic Education, Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) and University Education. According to the World Bank MTFE (2013/14 Report), the education sector aims at empowering Kenyans with the necessary skills that will facilitate transforming the country into a globally competitive economy because Kenya's main potential lies with its people—their creativity, education and entrepreneurial skills. The government is committed to providing quality education and training as well as research and innovation in line with the Constitution, national objectives and globalization trends. To achieve this aim, the sector has articulated policies and institutional and legal frameworks among them the **Basic Education Act of 2013**, the **TVET Act of 2013**, the **Universities Act No. 42 of 2012**, the **KNEC Act of 2012**, **Vision 2030** and **Sessional Paper No. 14 of 2012**. As stipulated in **Sessional Paper No. 14 of 2012**, the emphasis of the national goal of the education sector shifts from knowledge reproduction to knowledge education. The sector aims at providing globally competitive quality education, training and research. To achieve this aim, the education sector in Kenya endorsed Vision 2030 and will focus education and training towards achieving the goals of the Vision and the provisions of the Constitution.

Arising from the private benefits that accrue from education, parents invest heavily in education as a long-term survival strategy. Income levels are directly proportional to the level of resources that parents invest in education (Republic of Kenya, 2005, 2012a, 2012b, 2013; Republic of Kenya/UNESCO, 2012).

Any organization or individual interested in establishing a school applies to the Minister. Applications are processed by the Ministerial Committee for Registration of Schools. Each application is carefully considered, including inspection of proposed site and facilities by the professional staff of the Ministry of Education. The Minister will approve a request upon being advised by the Committee on the suitability of the proposed site, availability of adequate facilities, and whether other necessary arrangements have been made for the provision of education, in keeping with the requirements of the Education Act (Republic of Kenya, 2013).

Provision of education is an expensive venture. Most governments encourage private education providers to fill the gap left by public schools' handicap in providing enough opportunities for students¹. Private education is managed by Non Governmental Organizations (NGOs) (mainly church organizations) and individual entrepreneurs. Foreign missions accredited to Kenya and Expatriates who may wish their children to have an education that is relevant to situations in their home countries are also free to open private schools. At the institutional level head teachers are appointed to be in charge of the day-to-day administration of their schools, assisted by School Management Committees (SMC) and Boards of Management (BoM). (Republic of Kenya, 2005, 2012a, 2012b, 2013).

For a long time, private schools in Kenya have been recruiting expatriate teachers to deliver international education programmes offered in those institutions. For instance, by October 2003, Kenya had 25,352 working expatriates including education sector. In an effort to fulfil its pre-election employment pledges, and in response to pressure from local labour force, government has tightened requirements for issuance and renewal of work permits for expatriates including teachers. This has resulted in cancellation of work permits in some cases and in the non-renewal in other cases. Many parents whose children are in the affected private schools have expressed reservations on the competence of local teachers to deliver the same quality of education to their children arguing that local teachers are not well trained to deliver skill-based educational programmes (Republic of Kenya, 2012a, 2012b, 2013).

Among Kenyan teachers, there are also serious concerns on the wide disparities in remuneration between local and expatriate teachers offering similar services in the implementation of the international curriculum. International schools are seen to provide better working conditions, job and career opportunities and professional development compared to the public sector. By exploiting the high end of the education market, international schools have provided foreigners (particularly from developed countries) the opportunity to pursue their careers in Kenya without sacrificing the quality or content of the education of their children during their tour of duty. Kenyan elite aspiring to have their children pursue degrees that are only available in universities in developed countries have identified these institutions as a lower cost and more assured route to these universities. It is these parents who have expressed their greatest alarm at the government policy as they consider

¹ Daily Nation – National news – Friday, August 4, 2006 pp 11

Kenyan teachers to be less qualified to maintain the quality of learning provided by the departing expatriates. In their assessment, they feel that they may not get value for money for the expensive private education that they have invested for their children (Republic of Kenya, 2005,2012a, 2012b,2013).

Yet, most parents still prefer international education being administered by expatriate staff due to the belief that they are better trained and qualified than local teachers. It not clear whether such parents and stakeholders consider expatriate teachers to be superior to their local counterparts and if they are more effective in implementing international curricular. It is against this backdrop that the researches conceived this study which sought to compare the effectiveness of expatriate teachers and local teachers in the implementation of international curricula Kenya.

The State of Art Review

The literature review of this study focuses on five main preliminary matters involved in arriving at a system for the evaluation of teachers. The first is the purpose of the evaluation; the second is the target category of teachers to be assessed; the third is the conception of teachers' work that is adopted; the fourth concerns the dimensions of teaching quality about which judgments are to be made; and the fifth is the approach to establishing the validity of the assessments.

In terms of purpose of evaluating teachers, Scriven (1967) has drawn attention to the distinction between formative and summative evaluation. If a school system institutes a system of assessment in order to encourage the professional growth and development of its teachers, it is engaged in formative evaluation. On the other hand, if the school system establishes an accountability system of evaluation in order to select teachers to license, hire, give tenure to, promote, demote or dismiss it is engaged in summative evaluation.

Accountability systems strive to affect school quality by protecting students from incompetent teachers. However, because nearly all teachers are at least minimally competent, the accountability system directly affects only very few teachers who are not competent. Thus, if our goal is to improve general school quality - and we use only those strategies that affect a few teachers - overall school improvement is likely to be a very slow process. Growth-oriented systems, on the other hand, have the potential of affecting all teachers - not just those few who are having problems. Highly developed accountability-based evaluation protects teachers' property and rights to due process and protects the public from incompetent teachers.

Lambert (2004) in her cross-sectional study on teachers pay and conditions in Africa noted that there are only few studies that try to evaluate the impact of teachers' salary on students' achievement in developing countries and they are not really conclusive. They generally do not have adequate data to really answer this question. What seems relatively clear is that the impact of an increase in the salary is probably relied to the form of this increase (in particular, lump-sum increase vs. bonuses). All the previous studies have been on public funded education and there is no existing literature on studies on international education in Africa. Kingdon (1996) , using Indian data shows that teacher's characteristics that call for higher remuneration are not those that provide obvious learning benefits for pupils. Glewwe et.al. (2003) evaluate an experience of providing incentives to teachers based on students' performances in Kenya.

Regarding the impact of the hiring of low-qualified and low-paid teachers, Michaelowa (2002) using a dataset put together by the PASEC² shows that the “volunteer” status, by the control and incentives structure it imposes, has a positive impact on students’ achievement, while it negatively affects the teachers satisfaction with their job. Based on the Indian data, Banerjee et.al. (2003) also show that hiring low qualified individuals at very low cost to teach basic literacy and numeracy skills proved very effective.

With regard to categories of teachers to be assessed, issues and methods associated with teacher evaluation depend upon the stage of professional development attained by the teachers to be evaluated (Stiggins & Duke, 1990). Graduates of pre-service teacher education programs seeking certification or licensing would not fairly have the same standards applied to them as would experienced teachers seeking promotion to senior teacher positions. Clearly, the assessment of pre-service expatriate teachers would need to be considered separately from the assessment of novice, in-service teachers, who would need to be considered separately from experienced teachers seeking career awards, promotion or merit pay (Stiggins & Duke, 1990).

Writing on types of teacher clientele, Stiggins and Duke (1990) studied several cases of success in the pursuit of growth oriented evaluation and considered the most important policy decision to be the distinction between the three types of teacher clientele described above. They also concluded that such an approach necessitated teacher involvement in the development of teacher evaluation systems, which the frequency of teacher evaluations varies across the three teacher groups, from annually for the first two groups to perhaps four yearly for the last. They suggested that departmental heads, peers, central authority supervisors, outside consultants, and students could make worthwhile contributions. They went on to prescribe training for both supervisors and teachers in a "vision" of good teaching, effective communication and interpersonal relations, in the gathering and analysis of data. Third, they recommended that the sources of data used in the evaluation be diverse, including classroom observation, student achievement data that are sensitive to particular priorities and that are used by teacher and supervisor together for the purpose of teacher growth, artefacts, such as lesson plans, student work books, and teacher reflections, journals and interview responses. Furthermore, the authors argued for "a culture conducive to growth." Stiggins and Duke went on to argue for teacher involvement, mainly in order to build a climate of trust, and for the provision of adequate resources to support professional development.

³ PASEC : Programme d’analyse des systèmes éducatifs des pays de la CONFEMEN ; CONFEMEN : Conférence des ministres de l’éducation des pays ayant le français en partage.

With regards to the conceptions of teachers work, Darling-Hammond, Wise, and Pease (1983) presented several conceptions of teachers' work. First, teachers' work might be conceived of as labour, whereby the teacher's task is to implement educational programs as required along with adherence to prescribed procedures and routines. Second, teaching might be seen as a craft, that is, an activity involving knowledge of specialised techniques and rules for applying them. Next, the work of the teacher might be viewed as that of a profession. In this view, a teacher would need to be able to muster not only theoretical and technical knowledge, and specialised skills and techniques but also sound professional judgment about their application arising from a body of knowledge of theory. Fourth, teachers' work might be considered an art, and their artistry manifested in unpredictable, novel, and unconventional applications of techniques in personalised rather than standardised forms.

Evaluation of teaching is conducted largely to ensure that proper standards of practice are being employed. (p.532) Haertel (1991) claimed that the professional model should involve assessment based on control methods similar to those used in established professions like law and medicine, involving more rigorous entrance requirements, professional practice boards, altered school administration to allow teachers greater scope for planning and decision making, professional development roles for professional associations, and new forms of assessment. On a more sceptical note, however, Scriven (1996) referred to the "professional orientation" as "the politically correct approach" (p.444).

Regarding dimensions of teacher quality, Medley (1994) isolates important conceptual distinctions concern three aspects or dimensions of teacher quality that are commonly used in making judgments about the quality of work performed by teachers. Medley (1982) and Medley and Shannon (1994) distinguished between teacher effectiveness, teacher competence and teacher performance. Teacher effectiveness is a matter of the degree to which a teacher achieves desired effects upon students. Teacher performance is the way in which a teacher behaves in the process of teaching, while teacher competence is the extent to which the teacher possesses the knowledge and skills (competencies) defined as necessary or desirable qualifications to teach. These dimensions are important because they influence the types of evidence that are gathered in order for judgments about teachers to be made.

As Medley and Shannon (1994) pointed out, the main tools used in assessing teachers' competence are paper-and-pencil tests of knowledge, the main tools for assessing teachers' performance are observational schedules and rating scales, and the main tools for assessing teachers' effectiveness involve collecting "data about the teacher's influence on the progress a specified kind of student makes toward a defined educational goal" (p.6020) and are most likely to be student achievement tests.

Moss (1994) distinguishes between approaches of establishing validity of assessment . This issue concerns the debate about epistemologies that has featured in research on teaching over the last two decades. Moss (1994) distinguished between "psychometric" or "traditional" and "hermeneutic" approaches, with particular reference to "performance assessment". In a psychometric approach to assessment, judges score independently each performance without any extra knowledge about the teacher or the judgments of other judges. Scores awarded to each separate component are aggregated and the composite score is the basis for inferences about competence with reference to relevant criteria or norms. In a hermeneutic approach, judges have contextual knowledge on the

basis of which they ground their interpretations, and make integrative interpretations about the collected set of performances, rather than on each component separately. Rational debate among judges occurs, multiple sources of evidence are used, and judgments are revised as a part of collaborative inquiry. Moss explained the issues as follows:

Regardless of whether one is using a hermeneutic or psychometric approach to drawing and evaluating interpretations and decisions, the activity involves inference from observable parts to an unobservable whole that is implicit in the purpose and intent of the assessment. The question is whether those generalizations are best made by limiting human judgment to single performances, the results of which are then aggregated and compared with performance standards [the psychometric approach], or by expanding the role of human judgment to develop integrative interpretations based on all the relevant evidence [the hermeneutic approach]. (p.8)

With regard to performance measures of teacher effectiveness, Good and Mulryan (1990), Medley and Shannon as well as Darling-Hammond et al. (1995) have attempted to provide a very thorough review of the use of rating scales in evaluating teachers and found that problems in their use had persisted from the early years of the twentieth century right up till the time of their writing (1988). When Medley and Shannon (1994) reviewed the literature on the validity of observational rating scales for measuring teacher performance, they found that the best of them had high content validity. It is not clear what was meant by "content validity" in this case, but presumably it had a wider meaning than academic subject-matter knowledge and included "aspects of teacher performance known to be related to teacher effectiveness" (p.6018). Medley and Shannon concluded as follows concerning predictive validity:

There is no empirical evidence that correlations between supervisors' ratings of teacher performance and direct measures of teacher effectiveness differ from zero. Thus, they apparently do not contain the information about teacher effectiveness they are assumed to contain. (p.6018) .An alternative to the rating scale approach to measuring teacher performance is the low inference, observational schedule or check list.

Darling-Hammond et al. (1995) saw three major deficiencies in "first-generation" attempts to obtain performance measures of teachers. The rating instruments seek to promise objectivity by specifying a set of generic uniform teaching behaviours that are tallied in a small number of classroom observations. In so doing, they fail to assess the appropriateness of teaching behaviours and decisions, and they completely neglect teaching content. The assessment systems do not evaluate candidates in similar job settings and performance situations. Licensing assessments are made in part by employers who are also responsible for hiring and for granting tenure, thereby entangling licensing and employment decisions in conflicts of interest. (p.61)

In terms of student achievement measures, Glass (1990) as well Medley and Shannon (1994) have all documented the use of pupil achievement data in the evaluation of teachers. It was the case of a school that initiated a merit pay system to reward its teachers. After stating that pupil-achievement data could not tell teachers how to teach or distinguish between good and poor teachers, Glass reached the following conclusions, among others:

Using student achievement data to evaluate teachers ... is too susceptible to intentional distortion and manipulation to engender any confidence in the data; moreover, teachers and others believe that no type of test nor any manner of statistical analysis can equate the difficulty of the teacher's task in the wide variety of circumstances in which they work. (p.239)

Medley and Shannon (1994) also expressed serious doubts about using measures of student achievement to judge teacher effectiveness. After specifying the conditions of measuring student achievement required, they hinted at the same deliberate distortions mentioned by Glass when they warned as follows:

The fact that the achievement test used to measure student achievement ... is valid is no guarantee that measures of teacher effectiveness based on that test will also be valid. On the contrary, using students' scores for such a purpose will almost certainly destroy the validity of the test... Valid measures of teacher effectiveness can be derived from students' achievement test scores only if they are used for other purposes than the evaluation of individual teachers. (p.6019).

It is against the results of the foregoing that this paper focused on five main preliminary matters involved in arriving at a system for the evaluation of teachers. The paper sought to examine the perceptions of various education stakeholders, especially the students, teachers, parents and school managers regarding the impact of expatriate and local teacher in implementing international education in institutions in Kenya, Are there likely to be consensus on whether or not these teachers differ significantly in their effectiveness in implementing international curricular ?

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impact of expatriates and local teachers in implementing international education programmes in Kenya. The objectives of this paper were to:

- i. To determine the difference between the effectiveness of expatriate staff and local teachers in implementing international education systems in Kenya.
- ii. To determine the effect of international and local teachers on students' academic performance in international educational programmes in Kenya.

Theoretical framework

This study reported in this paper was based on the administrative management theory, which was pioneered by Henri Fayol cited in Ukeje, et al 1992 and Bell (1992). Henri Fayol identified five processes or elements, which are the basis of management. They are *planning and forecasting*; making advance preparation for the future activities of the organization or identifying of a course of action in order to achieve desired results, *organizing*; mobilizing the human and material resources of the organization to ensure that all members of the organization are working co-operatively to carry out the necessary functions and tasks, *commanding*; giving clear instructions and information to the subordinates so that they can work to realize organizational goals, *coordinating*; unifying and harmonizing all activities to avoid friction, duplication, delay and collusion, and *controlling*; a process of seeing to it that everything occurs in conformity with established rules or evaluating activities to assess achievement of the set objectives.

In view of the above, it is critical that when schools offering international educational systems recruit staff, whether local or expatriate to implement their curricula, they should ensure that both

are subjected to a similar management environment, appropriate staff professional development programmes and performance management systems.

II. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The study used a descriptive research study in institutions offering international education across the three major cities of Nairobi, Mombasa and Kisumu, Kenya. A combination of purposive and stratified random sampling techniques were employed to select 10 headteachers, 73 teachers (comprising 22 expatriates and 51 local teachers), and 22 parents constituting a sample size of 105 subjects for the study. Qualitative data was collected using interview guidelines while quantitative data was collected using questionnaires. The questionnaires were piloted to determine their validity and reliability. The teachers' questionnaire yielded a reliability index of .873 while that of headteachers' resulted into a reliability index of .897, hence declaring the instruments reliable and stable for use in data collection (Brook, 2013; Orodho, 2012).

The qualitative data from interviews was analyzed thematically and presented in narrative and direct quotes as suggested by Orodho (2012). The quantitative data from questionnaires were first edited, coded before being entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and descriptive statistics such as means, percentages and correlation coefficients generated to summarize the data and presented in tables and graphs. Strict logistical, ethical and human relations principles were upheld throughout during the entire research process from data collection, analysis and reporting to ensure confidentiality, anonymity and lack of plagiarism.

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Effectiveness of Expatriate and Local Staff

The first objective was to examine the effectiveness of expatriate and local staff in implementation of international curriculum. The study established that there were 259 teachers in international schools in Kenya, 80 expatriate and 179 local teachers, constituting 31% and 69% of the total, respectively. An attempt was made to assess the perceived effectiveness of these teachers. The response of the key assessors is contained in Table 1.

Table 1: Effectiveness of Expatriate compared to local teachers

Opinion of assessors	Expatriate staff (n=22)	Headteachers (n=10)	Students (n=42)
Similar	55	30	52
Expatriates superior to locals	36	20	5
Locals superior to expatriates	9	50	42
Total respondents	100	100	100

The data carried in Table 1 indicates that over half of the expatriate staff rated themselves as being similar to their local counterparts while slightly over one third considered themselves as being superior to their local colleagues. The headteachers had a different opinion as half of them concurred that the local counterparts were superior to their expatriate counterparts in terms effectiveness of implementation of international curriculum. The rating of the students revealed that slightly over half of them considered the expatriate and local teachers to be similar in their implementation effectiveness. It was also interesting to note that 42 percent of the students considered the local teachers to be superior to their expatriate counterparts.

On the whole, the students who are in direct contact with these staff considered the local teachers to be either similar or more superior to their expatriate colleagues. This implies that the students and headteachers concurred that the local teachers were better than their expatriate counterparts in their effectiveness in implementation of international curriculum in the sampled schools. A plausible explanation of the apparent superiority of local teachers compared to their expatriate colleagues lies in the fact that majority of local teachers, nearly half of the sampled total had over six years of experience in teaching international education curriculum compared to only 45% of their expatriate colleagues with such long teaching exposure. Similarly, slightly over two thirds of the local staff had undergone in-service training in most of the courses programmes offered in international education curriculum such as IGCE and GCE (A-level) . The wealth of teaching experience and exposure to professionally related workshops and symposia seem to have adequately prepared the local staff to effectively implement the international curricular better than their expatriate colleagues. This notion is further supported by the fact that while 52 % of the interviewed students considered both local and expatriate teachers to have prepared them well in their studies, a larger proportion of the rest of the students, comprising of 43% were unanimous that the local staff were superior to their local counterparts in the way they had taught them and prepared them professionally.

Students' performance after being taught

The final objective was to find out the perceived impact of the expatriate and local teachers in their overall academic performance. The responses of the students are carried in Table 2.

Table 2: Impact of expatriate and local teachers on students performance

Perceived Impact of Teachers	Expatriate teachers (%)	Local teachers (%)
Declined	10	10
Improved	23	57
Remained the same	67	33

Results in Table 2 indicates that although a negligible percentage of students considered both expatriate and local teachers to have caused a decline in their academic performance, over half of them considered the local teachers to have caused improvement in their academic performance

The findings of this study is supported by Stingins and Duke, (1990), who documented that categories of teachers to be assessed, issues and methods associated with teacher evaluation depend upon the stage of professional development attained by the teachers to be evaluated (Stingins & Duke, 1990). They pointed out that graduates of pre-service teacher education programs seeking certification or licensing would not fairly have the same standards applied to them as would experienced teachers seeking promotion to senior teacher positions. Clearly, the assessment of pre-service expatriate teachers would need to be considered separately from the assessment of novice, in-service teachers, who would need to be considered separately from experienced teachers seeking career awards, promotion or merit pay (Stingins & Duke, 1990). This study focused on trained expatriate and local teachers with diverse professional background and made their perceived verdict regarding their effectiveness in implementing international curricular.

The study is also in tandem with the works of Stingins and Duke (1990) who on writing on types of teacher clientele, their studied on several cases of success in the pursuit of growth oriented evaluation and considered the most important policy decision to be the distinction between the three types of teacher clientele described above. They also concluded that such an approach necessitated

teacher involvement in the development of teacher evaluation systems, which the frequency of teacher evaluations varies across the three teacher groups, from annually for the first two groups to perhaps four yearly for the last. They suggested that departmental heads, peers, central authority supervisors, outside consultants, and students could make worthwhile contributions. They went on to prescribe training for both supervisors and teachers in a "vision" of good teaching, effective communication and interpersonal relations, in the gathering and analysis of data. The findings of this study was based on the informed opinions of headteachers, teachers and students regarding their perceptions regarding differences in the effectiveness of expatriate and local teachers with consistent levels of assessment.

Finally, it was noted that over two thirds of the respondents considered expatriate teachers to have made no impact on their performance. It was therefore evident that local teachers compared to their expatriate counterparts were making a remarkable improvement on the academic attainment of students. The implication of this finding is that school managers should actually give preference to local teachers on cost effectiveness basis. Although Banerjee et.al. (2003) also suggested that hiring low qualified individuals at very low cost to teach basic literacy and numeracy skills proved very effective, the situation in this study confirms that recruiting local teachers is not only cost effective, but is also based on their rated superiority over their expatriate colleagues.

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The gist of this paper was to determine the effectiveness of expatriates and local teachers in implementing international education programmes in Kenya. Within this broad perspective, the paper has attempted to determine the difference between the effectiveness of expatriate staff and local teachers in implementing international education systems in Kenya and ultimately establish the effect of international and local teachers on students academic performance in international educational examinations in Kenya. From the findings of the study, it was concluded that a significant number of students in Kenya, both local citizens and foreigners, study in Kenyan schools offering international educational systems. It was also evident that majority of staff implementing international educational systems in Kenya are local teachers. These local staff in schools offering international educational systems have undergone in-service-training in implementing these curricula. As a result, these trained local staff compare favourably to expatriate staff in the implementation of international education in Kenya.

However, despite their higher rating of local teachers compared to expatriate teachers in terms of superiority in curriculum implementation, majority of managers/directors of schools offering international education still hire expatriate staff largely as a marketing strategy to attract more prospective students. This notwithstanding, it was also established that hiring of expatriate staff has become a major challenge to schools offering international education due to difficulties experienced in acquisition of work permits due to stringent rules and regulations related to employment of foreign personnel. The Kenyan government has put very strict conditions for issuance and renewal of work permits to expatriate staff especially if the same skills can be found locally. In fact, in the long run, it is much more economical to hire and train local staff to implement international education in Kenya.

From the findings and conclusions, the following recommendations are made. First, schools offering international education should intensify provision staff professional development strategies

to equip local staff with skills and expertise in methodology and assessment of international education.

Second, the Government, through the Ministry of Education should create awareness and build confidence among students and parents regarding the comparative effectiveness of local teachers in implementing international educational systems in Kenya.

Third, the Government of Kenya, through the Ministry of Education should put in place comprehensive monitoring and evaluation mechanisms and involve local staff in collaboration with international education providers to ensure high quality international education is provided in various institutions offering the systems of education in the country.

Finally, the Government of Kenya, through the relevant line ministries, should not only tighten issuance and/or renewal of work permits to expatriate staff if such skills are readily available locally but also encourage the recruitment of local personnel who have been found by this study to be either similar to or more effective than their expatriate counterparts in implementing international education programmes in the country .

For further research, it is recommended that a replication of the study needs to be done in Kenya on a wider scope focusing on the cost implications of hiring and training of local and expatriate staff to implementing international educational systems in Kenya. Similar studies also need to be done in other professional fields in Kenya on a wider scope on the professional training needs of the local staff in order to effectively implement organizational goals in different professional fields.

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