

**COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT IN THE MANAGEMENT OF  
COMMUNITY SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN COAST AND KAGERA  
REGIONS OF TANZANIA**

**RWEYENDERA GOSBERT NGONGE**

**A THESIS SUBMITTED IN FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR  
THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY OF THE OPEN  
UNIVERSITY OF TANZANIA**

**2020**

**CERTIFICATION**

The undersigned certify that they have read and hereby recommend for acceptance by the Open University of Tanzania a thesis titled; “Community Involvement in the Management of Community Secondary Schools in Coast and Kagera Regions of Tanzania” in fulfilment of the requirements for the award of Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education.

.....

Prof. E. B. N. K Babyegeya

(Supervisor)

.....

Date

.....

Dr. Sydney Mkuchu

(Supervisor)

.....

Date

### **COPYRIGHT**

No part of this Thesis may be reproduced, stored in any retrieval system, or transmitted in any form by any means: electronic, mechanical, photocopying, recording or otherwise without prior written permission of the author or Open University of Tanzania in that behalf.

**DECLARATION**

I Rweyendera Gosbert Ngonge, declares that, the work presented in this thesis is original. It has never been presented to any other University or Institution. Where other people's works have been used, references have been provided. It is in this regard that I declare this work as originally mine. It is hereby presented in fulfilment of the requirement for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Education (PhD) award.

.....

Signature

.....

Date

**DEDICATION**

This work is dedicated to my wife, Aneth, and my children, Rwehumbiza and Kokutona, for their unwavering support, their steadfast selflessness, and their enduring love, which encouraged me throughout this journey.

## **ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS**

First, I would like to give thanks to God for keeping me healthy throughout the entire period of my study at The Open University of Tanzania. Second, I wish to extend thanks to my wife Aneth, my best friend and strongest supporter, who took part of my household and parental responsibilities as I dedicated much of my time to reading, researching and writing. I also wish to thank my two children, Rwehumbiza and Kokutona, for supporting Daddy and being understanding when I had to do my groundwork and absent at home for data collection. Third, I would like to thank my parents for facilitating my basic education and instilling in me the importance of education, courage and the belief that I can accomplish whatever task before me. To my supervisors, Prof. Emmanuel Babyegeya and Dr. Sydney Mkuchu, I am extremely grateful for your encouragement, support, and expertise throughout this writing process. Special thanks go to Dr. Coletha Ngirwa, my head of department. I would also like to extend special thanks to Dr. Michael Ng'umbi the Faculty Dean and Dr. Theresia Shavega the Associate Faculty Dean for moral support and financial assistance throughout my studies. I am indebted to the staff of the Faculty of Education and OUT community for their encouragement and support throughout this process. My special thanks are extended to all participants in Coast and Kagera regions who in one way or another facilitated collection of data for this study.

## ABSTRACT

This qualitative case study aimed at investigating community involvement in the management of community secondary schools in Coast and Kagera regions of Tanzania. Study objectives were to assess community members' perceptions, inclusivity, school managerial activities in which they were involved and to examine strengths and weaknesses of the strategies used to empower them. Methods used for data collection were semi-structured interviews, focus group discussion, field observation and documentary review. The study involved 12 education officers, 10 school heads, 7 school board members, 18 community leaders and 64 school local community members. Criterion-based and snowball sampling techniques were used to obtain participants. Findings indicated a link between resources contributed by the community members and the desire to get involved in school management. Interests of the community members could not effectively be represented through school board. The low level of education, lack of information and coordination, awareness, political antagonism, urgent directives and restrictions from the government were pointed out as the major challenges for community involvement in school management. Nature of activities in which school local communities were engaged in, largely seemed to be of material resource provision rather than participation in school management decisions. The seemingly used strategies by the education administrators to empower school local community members were not at community involvement in school management. The study recommends review of the structure of the school boards and removal of all sorts of obstacles to enhance and reframe democratic right and participation of the school local community members. Suggestions for further research on this topic are also included in this report.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

<b>CERTIFICATION.....</b>	<b>ii</b>
<b>COPYRIGHT .....</b>	<b>iii</b>
<b>DECLARATION .....</b>	<b>iv</b>
<b>DEDICATION .....</b>	<b>v</b>
<b>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....</b>	<b>vi</b>
<b>ABSTRACT .....</b>	<b>vii</b>
<b>TABLE OF CONTENTS.....</b>	<b>viii</b>
<b>LIST OF TABLES.....</b>	<b>xiii</b>
<b>LIST OF FIGURES.....</b>	<b>xiv</b>
<b>LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS.....</b>	<b>xv</b>
<b>LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS.....</b>	<b>xv</b>
<b>CHAPTER ONE.....</b>	<b>1</b>
<b>INTRODUCTION .....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 Background of the Study .....	1
1.2 Statement of the Problem .....	11
1.3 Purpose of the Study .....	14
1.4 Objectives of the Study .....	14
1.4.1 Specific Objectives.....	14
1.5 Research Tasks and Research Questions.....	15
1.6 Significance of the Study.....	16
1.7 Scope of the Study .....	17
1.8 Limitations.....	18
1.9 Definition of Key Terms .....	19



1.10	Organization of the Study.....	19
<b>CHAPTER TWO .....</b>		<b>21</b>
<b>LITERATURE REVIEW.....</b>		<b>21</b>
2.1	Introduction.....	21
2.2	The Concept of Community .....	21
2.3	The Concept of Community School.....	24
2.4	Types of Community Involvement in School Management.....	25
2.5	Models of Community Involvement in School Management .....	26
2.6	Theories on Processes of Community Involvement in School Management .....	31
2.7	Community Schools in Africa .....	42
2.8	Community Secondary Schools in Tanzania .....	44
2.8.1	History of Community Secondary Schools in Tanzania .....	44
2.9	Community Members Perception .....	51
2.9.1	Reasons for School-Community Partnership .....	53
2.9.2	Impediments to Community Involvement in Management of Education.....	56
2.10	Community Members' Representation in School Management Organs .....	60
2.11	Managerial Activities in which School Local Community Members are Involved .....	63
2.12	Strategies for Community Empowerment in Management of Schools.....	65
2.13	Empirical Studies .....	70
2.14	Synthesis of the Literature Review and Study Knowledge Gap.....	77

2.15	Conceptual Framework of the Study.....	79
<b>CHAPTER THREE.....</b>		<b>85</b>
<b>RESEARCH METHODOLOGY .....</b>		<b>85</b>
3.1	Introduction.....	85
3.2	Philosophical Assumption .....	85
3.3	Research Approach .....	87
3.4	Research Design.....	90
3.4.1	Case Study Design .....	91
3.5	Area of the Study .....	93
3.5.1	Coast.....	94
3.5.2	Kagera .....	95
3.6	Study Population.....	97
3.7	Sample Size And Sampling Procedures .....	98
3.7.1	Sample Size .....	98
3.7.2	Sampling Procedures.....	99
3.7	Data Collection Methods.....	102
3.7.1	Interview .....	104
3.7.2	Focus Group Discussion.....	107
3.7.3	Documentary Reviews .....	110
3.7.4	Participant Observation .....	111
3.8	Validations and Reliability of Instruments.....	112
3.9	Data Analysis Procedure .....	113

3.10	Ethical and Legal Consideration .....	116
<b>CHAPTER FOUR .....</b>		<b>118</b>
<b>ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION, PRESENTATION AND</b>		
<b>DISCUSSION OF THE FINDINGS .....</b>		<b>118</b>
4.1	Introduction.....	118
4.2	Perceptions of the Community Members about Their Involvement in School Management Matters .....	119
4.2.1	Community Perceptions on the Rationale for their Involvement .....	120
4.2.2	Perception of Community Members about their Representation.....	129
4.2.3	Perceived Challenges for Community Involvement in School Management .....	134
4.3	Representation of Stakeholders in Decision Making .....	144
4.3.1	Guidelines to Ensure Involvement of Various Groups of the Local Communities.....	145
4.3.2	Actions Taken to Ensure Inclusivity .....	150
4.4	Decision Making on Matters Where Local Communities were Involved.....	157
4.5	Strategies to Empower Communities for Effective Participation.....	164
<b>CHAPTER FIVE .....</b>		<b>174</b>
<b>SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS .....</b>		<b>174</b>
5.1	Introduction.....	174
5.2	Summary of Findings .....	175
5.2.1	School Local Community Perceptions on its Involvement in School Management .....	175

5.2.2	Inclusivity of Community Members in School Decision Making	
	Organs .....	178
5.2.3	Decisions and Managerial Activities in Which Local Communities	
	Were Involved.....	179
5.2.4	Strengths and Weaknesses of Strategies used to Empower	
	Community Members.....	180
5.3	Conclusions.....	182
5.4	Implications for Policy, Practices and Research.....	186
5.5	Recommendations .....	188
5.6	Recommendations for Further Research .....	190
	<b>REFERENCES .....</b>	<b>192</b>
	<b>APPENDICES.....</b>	<b>211</b>

## LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1: Primary School Leaving Examination Results, 2012 – 2018.....	2
Table 1.2: Number of Dropout in Government and Non-Government Schools, 2015 .....	8
Table 2.1: A Ladder of Citizen Participation .....	32
Table 2.2: Comparison between Arnstein (1969) and Shaeffer’s (1994) Ladder of Citizen Participation .....	32
Table 2.3: Ladder of Citizen Empowerment.....	34
Table 2.4: Ladder of Participation.....	35
Table 2.5: Matrix of Dimensions and Degrees of Community Participation in Education.....	63
Table 2.6: Details of the Dimensions of Community Involvement in the Management of Schools .....	81
Table 3.1: Major Elements of the Four Worldviews Of Research Philosophy.....	86
Table 3.2: Distribution of Government and Non-Government Secondary schools by Table 3.3: Research Participants.....	102
Table 3.4: Number and Types of Interviewed Participants .....	106
Table 3.5: Research Participants for Focussed Group Discussions .....	109

**LIST OF FIGURES**

Figure 2.1: Structure of Community Participation .....	37
Figure 2.2: Benchmarks for Involvement: The Four Dimensions of Community Participation.....	41
Figure 2.3: Standards for Effective Involvement .....	69
Figure 2.4: Conceptual Framework of Analysing Involvement of Community in Management of Community Secondary Schools .....	83
Figure 3.1: A Framework for Research- The interconnection of Worldviews, Design, and Research Methods .....	88
Figure 3.2: Map of Coast Region .....	94
Figure 4.1: Building with Three Laboratory Rooms in Community W9 .....	140
Figure 4.2: Building with three Laboratory Rooms in Community W7 .....	140

### **LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS**

AIDS	Acquired Immune Deficiency Syndrome
ANTRIEP	Asian Network of Training and Research Institutions in Educational Planning
CSS	Community Secondary School
DEOs	District Education Officers
ETP	Education and Training Policy
FGD	Focused Group Discussion
LGAs	Local Government Authorities
MDGs	Millennium Development Goals
MOEC	Ministry of Education and Culture
MoEVT	Ministry of Education and Vocational Training
NEA	National Education Association- of the United States
NGO	Non Governmental Organization
PEDP	Primary Education Development Programme
PMO-RALG	Prime Minister's Office - Regional Administration and Local Government
PTA	Parent-Teacher Association
RALG	Regional Administration and Local Government
SDGs	Sustainable Development Goals
SEDP	Secondary Education Development Programme
SEMP	Secondary Education Master Plan
SDPW	School Development Plan of work
TAPA	Tanzania Parents Association

UKAWA	<i>“Umoja wa Kudai Katiba ya Wananchi”</i> (The Constitution Defenders Coalition)
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
URT	United Republic of Tanzania
VEO's	Village Executive Officers
WC-EFA	World Conference on Education for All
WD-EFA	World Declaration on Education for All
WDC's	Ward Development Committees
WEOs	Ward Educational Officers



## **CHAPTER ONE**

### **INTRODUCTION**

This thesis is a report of a qualitative case study of community involvement in the management of Community Secondary Schools (CSS) in Coast and Kagera regions of Tanzania. The study aimed at investigating school local community's perceptions about their involvement in the managerial activities of the school. It also investigated about strategies used by leaders and administrators to harness community members' efforts and talents in the management of the school affairs. The study made use of an evaluation model formulated by Wilson and Wilde (2003), a framework that originates from social-ecological theory based on four important dimensions namely, influence, inclusivity, communication and capacity.

The model helps to focus on what is already in place and what still needs to be achieved to maximize community involvement in school management affairs. The satisfactoriness of the seemingly used strategies by the government through leaders and administrators to involve communities in the school management will be discussed subsequent to the analysis of the findings. This chapter presents the background of the study, statement of the problem, purpose and objectives of the study, research tasks and questions, significance and scope of the study. It also covers definitions of the key terms and organization of the study respectively.

#### **1.1 Background of the Study**

Involving community in the management of schools is fundamental for the success of community secondary schools particularly in the developing

countries (Miller-Grandvaux & and Yoder, 2002; Sharma, 2008). Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder (2002) stress that strong involvement of community members in schools' reform programmes makes school personnel accountable and enhances ownership and sustainability. Sharma (2008) observes that without active involvement of the school local community members in school management, quality improvement is not possible. Recently, Tanzania has witnessed an increase in number of students who pass primary school leaving examinations (Table 1.1). This has increased the demand for access to secondary education. Most of those who succeed to join secondary education are enrolled in the community (ward) secondary schools.

**Table 1.1: Primary School Leaving Examination Results, 2012 – 2018**

<b>Year</b>	<b>Candidates Sat</b>	<b>Number of Candidates Passed</b>	<b>Percentage Passed</b>
2012	865,534	265,873	30.7
2013	844,938	427,606	50.6
2014	792,118	451,392	57.0
2015	763,603	518,034	67.8
2016	789,479	555,365	70.4
2017	909,950	662,035	72.76
2018	943,318	733,103	77.72

**Source:** NECTA (2018)

The trend shows that without community secondary schools, a good number of students who pass primary school leaving examinations would not have access to secondary education. The secondary education cycle begins with Form 1 and ends with Form 4 whereby Form 1 selection and enrolment in Government and Non-Government secondary schools is subject to the performance in Primary School Leaving Examination (PSLE).

Sumra (1993) argues that one of the reasons for the government's decision to encourage community involvement in education is to pass on an increasing share of the cost of education to the parents and to the local community. Involvement of community members in the management of schools is seen as cost-effective (comparable or even better instructional services for less money). Another goal of community schools focuses on improving governance, developing local democratic organizations such as school management committees and boards.

On the other hand Galabawa (1997) noted that involvement of local communities in the education process is an essential element of decentralization. The element of localization is a strategy for improving school management and students' enrolment and retention. According to Sharma (2008), the shift to increase community control of schools can be seen as a move to enhance and reframe democratic right and participation. Among other factors, quality education requires the collective efforts of teachers, students, parents and community. These benefits of involving school local communities tell us that despite the fact that government help is needed for community schools to survive, but the roles of other partners, such as local government authority, civil society, and the private sector, are equally important and need to be clarified. Community secondary schools in developing countries like Tanzania play a vital role since they give more children access to secondary education.

Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) introduced the concept of quality education into their goals and international development targets. More specifically,

goal number two of MDGs insisted that education is vital to meeting all other Millennium Development Goals: with a view that education to all gives the next generation the tools to fight poverty and prevent disease, including malaria and AIDS. Since September 2015, MDGs have been succeeded by the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), which are based on six essential elements: “dignity, people, prosperity, our planet, peace and partnership.” As it was for MDGs, all these essential elements of SDGs can better and faster be realized by providing quality education at all levels and to all. Among others, goal number 4 of SDGs puts emphasis on ensuring inclusive and equitable quality education and promotes lifelong learning opportunities for all (UN, 2015).

Available evidence shows that there are a number of challenges to be tackled in most of the developing countries if quality education is to be indiscriminately provided to all children. Most secondary school students in Tanzania are living in rural areas and served by the community schools. It is with this concern that community involvement in management of community secondary school gains its importance. Community members’ involvement in projects and programmes of the school is not only aimed at improving their life but also an activity of promoting human rights. UNICEF (2004) maintains that “every person and all peoples are entitled to active, free and meaningful participation in, contribution to, and enjoyment of civil, economic, social, cultural and political development in which human rights and fundamental freedoms can be realized” (p. 92).

Article 6 of the WD-EFA puts emphasis on enhancing the environment for learning where it states that learning does not take place in isolation. Societies, therefore,

must ensure that all learners receive the nutrition, health care, and general physical and emotional support they need in order to participate actively in and benefit from their education (UNESCO, 1990). Such support can be better realised when school local communities are involved in the management of school affairs. Among other things, Article 7 of the World Declaration on Education for All (WD-EFA), places emphasis on the recognition of the vital role of both families and local communities in the provision of quality education to the children (UNESCO, 1990).

On resource mobilization, article 9 of WD-EFA states that if the basic learning needs of all are to be met through a much broader scope of action than in the past, it will be essential to mobilize existing and new financial and human resources, public, private and voluntary. The article suggests mobilization of the available resources so as to meet the basic learning needs; undoubtedly, mobilization of school local community members' efforts and talents in the management of schools is one of the essential elements.

In response to MDGs (2000), SDGs (2015) and WD-EFA calls, the government of the United Republic of Tanzania is encouraging greater community participation in order to meet the material and financial aspects of educational goals. Ensuring that all girls and boys complete free, equitable and quality primary and secondary education by 2030 is one of the targets under SDG goal number 4. Ensuring inclusive, equitable and good-quality education requires all actors to make a concerted effort to meet their responsibilities (UNESCO, 2017).

Sumra (1993) asserts that decisions on the management and financing of education had to be increasingly delegated to the local level with the central ministries reoriented to a policy making, supervisory and regulatory functions. An observation that was accommodated by the Education and Training Policy of the United Republic of Tanzania of 1995. This policy put emphasis on devolution of management and administration of education and training to lower levels and communities (URT, 1995). Furthermore, the policy pointed out that all education and training institutions shall have school/college committees/boards and that the committees/boards shall be responsible for management, development, planning, discipline and finance of institutions under their jurisdiction.

At both international and local levels, initiatives are directed at strengthening partnerships between governments and communities in the provision of education for all, for example Article 7 of the WD-EFA and Tanzania Education Policy of 1995 calls for partnership between communities and government in the provision of education. They put emphasis on collaboration between government and community members in the establishment and management of schools in their area. This partnership altogether calls for decentralization of primary and secondary education systems where management of education is mainly transferred to the local authorities and schools. The same idea was supported by Babyegeya (2001) who posited that participation in decentralized schools should include all stakeholders and develop effective relationships between the school and the community.

Communities as well as parents are highly expected to play a vital role in contributing physical, financial and human resources. It is expected that each

community should determine the type of support and contributions as well as how they are to be provided. Ishumi (1981) contends that it is not enough for a school, college or a given new building to be situated or constructed amidst a given community for it to be called a community school or community college. One important index for a community school or college is the existence and level of relations between the institution and the community of which it is physically a part. If there is no supportive cultural and economic interaction then the school cannot be claimed to be owned by the community.

Sharma (2008) maintains that empowering local community to take charge of educating their children is the foundation of effective school community relation. The shift to increase community control of schools can be seen as a move to enhance and reframe democratic right and participation. Instead of top-down administrative decision-making, a broader base of constituents should be included in shared educational decision making. Nishimura (2017) adds that community participation in school management has great potentials for removing mistrust and distance between people and schools by nurturing transparency of information and a culture of mutual respect and by jointly pursuing improvement of school by sharing vision, process, and results. Looking at the academic achievement, physical infrastructure and general objectives attainment of the ward secondary schools in Tanzania, one can easily judge that some kind of improvement is still required in establishing and implementation of the planned strategies for these schools.

In the year 2004, the government of Tanzania initiated a two-phase programme with the main objective of improving secondary education in the country (SEDP I & II), a

move which seemed to be the implementation of the EPT of 1995. With this initiative, many community secondary schools have been initiated. Community secondary schools (CSS) in Tanzania are famously known as “*Shule za Kata*” which is a literal translation of the term *ward schools*. By the year 2013, there were 4576 secondary schools in Tanzania mainland, of which 3121 (68.2%) were community secondary schools. Kagera region had a total of 219 secondary schools, 172 (78.5%) being community secondary schools.

Coast region had a total of 164 secondary schools, 99 (60%) being community secondary schools (URT, 2013). When officially launching SEDP II (2010-2015), the President of the United Republic of Tanzania (Jakaya Mrisho Kikwete) revealed that despite tremendous improvement in public secondary education, there were still a number of issues to be addressed, he said:

*"Quite a number of activities, including the quality of education were not fully implemented and are still necessary for the ultimate goal of strategy. There is thus a need to move forward to consolidate the gains of the first phase of SEDP and address the challenges met during the implementation of SEDP I" (Kimboy, 2011, p.A2).*

Statistics collected a year prior to collection of the data for this study indicated significant numbers of dropouts in Tanzania secondary schools, mainly due to truancy (URT, 2015). Table 1.2 shows the number, grade and reasons for dropouts in Tanzania Government and non government secondary schools.

**Table 1.2: Number of Dropout in Government and Non-Government Schools, 2015**

GRADE	Death		Pregnancy		Truancy		Total			%
	F	T	F	T	F	T	M	F	T	
F. I	89	196	422	422	7558	16530	9079	8069	17148	27.9
F. II	84	213	823	823	9390	21257	11996	10297	22293	36.3



F. III	73	167	1050	1050	5461	11751	6384	6584	12968	21.1
F. IV	63	158	1068	1068	3595	7510	4010	4726	8736	14.2
F. V	4	19	64	64	57	158	116	125	241	0.4
F. VI	3	18	12	12	8	72	79	23	102	0.2
Grand Total	316	771	3439	3439	26069	57278	31664	29824	61488	100
<b>% of Total</b>	0.5	1.3	5.6	5.6	42.4	93.2	51.5	48.5	100.0	

**Source:** URT (2015)

Several incidents about school dropouts have been reported for example *The Citizen* news paper dated 8/8/2011 reported that a number of school boys in primary and secondary schools in Rorya, Musoma and Bunda districts (Mara Region) were dropping out of school at an unbelievable rate. One of the headmasters was quoted saying “I am astonished to find out that chronic absenteeism and dropouts make 40 to 50 per cent in school’s attendance list”. Another school head in the same area was quoted saying that “about 40 students (boys) are out of school daily due to fishing activities in this area”. On another incident, it was reported by *The Citizen*, dated 19/9/ 2011, that in Tanzania 50% of girls from poor families do not finish schooling and that only 9% from the poorest families complete secondary education. To a larger extent the blames over this practice were directed to parents and community members. The incidents suggest that the partnership among community members, schools’ management and other role prayers is not working properly.

Involvement of school local community members is expected to improve students’ retention in schools and thus reduce the number of dropouts. Horn and West (1992) observe that levels of parents and community involvement have a strong influence on the dropout and attendance rates among students, as well as school’s discipline and climate. Provision of quality education in developing countries is undeniably

coupled with involvement of different stakeholders, including school local community members in the management of school affairs.

Such a situation suggests a need for the study on the perceptions of community members and strategies used by various role players to involve school local community in the management of community secondary schools (CSS) in the country. Through collaboration between government and community members, many community secondary schools have been established in Tanzania. Among other things tremendous increase in the number of CSS has necessitated the government to review its management structure of secondary education in the country. The reform included transfer of administration of secondary education from ministry of education (MOEVT) to PMO-RALG (currently RALG). Education sector performance report by URT (2010) indicates that the process of decentralization of management and administration of secondary schools to LGAs was finalised in June 2009. LGAs assumed full responsibilities of management and administration of secondary schools with effect from July 2009.

According to the report by URT (2010), MOEVT in collaboration with PMO-RALG, have finalized the process of transferring the supervision of secondary schools from the central Government to the Local Government Authorities (LGAs). Under the new structure, heads of community secondary schools are answerable to the City/Municipal/Town and Council Directors (LGAs) who in turn are directly answerable to the Permanent Secretary PMORALG. MoEVT on the other hand, works in collaboration with PMO-RALG on matters pertaining to policy, technical guidance, and quality assurance.

Ideally the reform in the management structure could go together with the decentralization of management of community secondary schools, where strengthening of partnership with school local community members was expected. Despite the changes made in the management structure of secondary education at ministerial level, almost nothing has been done at the community level. Community involvement seems to mean material contributions rather than tapping of their effort and talents in the management of community secondary school in the country.

How the government of Tanzania involves the public in education programme development and decision-making remains an on-going challenge for the education system. This study was motivated by different strategies and approaches used by various local authorities and school heads to tap community's contributions and sustain involvement of communities in the affairs of the community secondary schools. It is with this regard that a study on how community members are involved in the management of these community secondary schools gained its importance.

## **1.2 Statement of the Problem**

Despite the emphasis placed by the policy on community involvement in the management of schools, scanty information and guidelines about community involvement in management of community secondary schools exists. Available evidence indicates that in schools where communities are actively involved in establishment and management of schools, there are high chances of realizing education objectives as compared to schools where communities are passively involved (UNESCO, 2000).

The government of the united Republic of Tanzania has been encouraging self-help schemes such as support to local school community members in the establishment of community secondary schools. Thus, at least every ward has been supported by the government to establish its own community secondary school by coordinating community members' efforts. Some wards are doing fairly well while others are failing to catch up. Differences in the way community members' effort are taped are considered to have contributed to the better or poor management and development of community secondary schools.

The transfer of power from central government and its central agencies to lower levels is perceived as a feasible strategy in overcoming management constraints to education provision and improvement. Local management of schools is the move, which necessitated assumed benefits of involvement and participation of stakeholders. Based on this assumption, structures that allow involvement (school policies, boards and construction committees) were established. The ETP (1995) directed, among other things, decentralization of local management of schools, establishment of school committees and boards and local accountability of schools (URT, 1995). Also this is motivated by further assumptions that such involvement creates commitment and readiness to support schools. UNESCO (2008) recommends that devolution of authority to schools' local community is a strategy that can facilitate and enhance participation of the local communities in management of community schools. Despite structures established in Tanzania, expected outcomes

are not forthcoming as schools are operating without adequate resources and performance has not improved.

Without doing something, attainment of EFA and SDGs may not be achieved. One major doubt was whether local communities were strategically involved. If they were involved, why are the benefits of involvement not forthcoming? Do all stakeholders understand their responsibility to ensure that schools were well resourced (perceptions)? What types of school local community members are involved? In what issues and decisions are they involved? Were school local community members facilitated to participate effectively? How did communication between stakeholders take place? And, what was the effect of the demonstrated involvement of school local community members on school improvement? This study intended to shed light on these questions.

There could be a number of factors, which influence school local community members for their involvement in the management of community secondary schools. Community members' understanding and perceptions are among the driving forces for the school local community members to volunteer for involvement in school management decisions. Strategies used by leaders and education officers to involve school local community members in managing community secondary schools are another area that needs attention. Therefore, this study sought to investigate school local community members' perceptions about their involvement and strategies used by education administrators and community leaders to empower them for effective involvement in the management of school affairs.

### **1.3 Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to investigate the practices used by education administrators and leaders to involve school local communities in the management of community secondary schools in Tanzania and suggest strategies for effective participation of school local communities.

### **1.4 Objectives of the Study**

The main objective of this study is to investigate the practices used by education administrators and leaders as a means of involving local communities in the management of community (ward) secondary schools in Tanzania and suggest strategies for effective community participation.

#### **1.4.1 Specific Objectives**

- i. To analyse the perceptions of the community members about their involvement in school management decisions.
- ii. To assess the representativeness of all groups and interests of the community members in the decision-making bodies of the school.
- iii. To evaluate decisions and managerial activities of the school in which local community members are involved.
- iv. To examine the strengths and weaknesses of strategies used to empower community members for effective involvement in the management of school affairs.

### **1.5 Research Tasks and Research Questions**

The following research tasks and accompanying main and sub research questions helped to guide the study:

**Task I:** To analyse the perceptions of the community members on their involvement in school management decisions

**Main Research Question:** What are community members' perceptions about their involvement in school management decisions?

**Sub Research Questions:**

- a) What are the perceptions of the school local community members as regards their involvement in school management decisions?
- b) Is there anybody who is representing school local community members in the decision-making organs of the school? If yes, who is that and in what ways are the representatives accessible to school local community members?
- c) What are the perceived challenges hindering community members' direct involvement or representation in the decision making of the school affairs in the studied area?

**Task II:** To assess the level of representation among groups of community members in the decision making bodies of the school.

**Main Research Question:** How are different groups and interests of the community members represented in the decision making bodies of the school?

**Sub Research Questions:**

- a) What guidelines are there to ensure that various groups and interests of the school local communities are involved in decision making process of the school affairs?
- b) What actions are taken by education officers and leaders to ensure that representation by the various groups and interests of the school local community reflect gender balance and other groups' diversity of the geographical area?

**Task III:** To evaluate decisions and managerial activities of the school in which local community members are involved.

**Question:** In what decisions and managerial activities of the school are local community members involved?

**Task IV:** To examine the strengths and weaknesses of strategies used to empower community members for effective involvement in the management of school affairs.

**Question:** What are the strengths and weaknesses of strategies used to empower community members for effective involvement in the management of school affairs?

### **1.6 Significance of the Study**

The study is significant in that it focuses on how the larger goals of secondary education might be achieved through proper involvement of local people in the decision-making process. Involving community in management of the schools in their area would undoubtedly ensure proper school running and development. The study provides evidence of how the national education programme links to local communities to promote better education in all corners of the country. Understanding the perceptions of the school local community members can expand the dialogue at the local level and be used to inform larger policy goals.



The knowledge and understanding gained would add to the literature on coordination of all role players of community secondary schools. The study would help to focus attention on what is already in place and what still needs to be achieved to maximise community involvement. All partners may use it to raise the profile of community involvement and it would also provide useful means of understanding and appraising the processes of community involvement in the management of community schools particularly in developing countries. In short the study contributes to the body of knowledge regarding effective and efficient involvement of local people in the management of schools, which are meant to serve them. Policy makers, education officers, school heads including researchers and other stakeholders are expected to gain from this study.

### **1.7 Scope of the Study**

The focus of the study was on school local community members' perceptions on involvement and representation in school board and construction committee. Moreover, the study focused on decisions and managerial activities in which local school community members were involved including the strategies used by leaders and education officers to empower community members. Therefore, other managerial functions of School Management were left out in the analysis. The study was delimited to Government Ward Secondary Schools, which in this study are termed as 'Community Secondary Schools' in Regions and Districts that were purposefully selected. This study may also be predisposed by the degree to which the leaders, parents, councillors, community members and the school heads, when interviewed, expressed their views and beliefs truthfully. Of course, responses of the

interviewees are open to interpretations other than the author's conclusions. Qualitative studies have limitations because they hinge crucially on their paradigm and context. This means that the findings from this study are specific and limits the transferability of conclusions.

### **1.8 Limitations**

While undertaking this study, the researcher encountered several barriers particularly during data collection. English language seemed to be one of these barriers; therefore the researcher had to use both English and Kiswahili by code switching and or code mixing to ensure correctness of the information.

On the other hand, the researcher was aware of the few things on which precautions were required as noted by Ahuja (2005), firstly, people do not easily accept to spend their time with the researcher without being assured of a certain form of reward. Secondary, they are not clear about confidentiality, as in most cases the researcher is not familiar to them. Thirdly, some participants do not accept to be recorded by use of the tape recorder. These barriers were also encountered when collecting data for this study. Some participants at the beginning were not open enough to the researcher because of the fear of unknown. To solve these problems, the researcher had first of all to show letters of permission from the relevant authorities including a company of the local leaders where necessary. Tape recorders were not used when with participants who were not comfortable; instead, notebooks were used. On top of that, the researcher used his research experience and skills to build rapport with the participants as a starting point to success.

### **1.9 Definition of Key Terms**

For the following terms the researcher was especially referring to:

**Community:** As far as this study is concerned community means people in the catchment area of the school which is a ward (*kata*), and that not all of them would be parents of current students.

**Community involvement:** This entails the participation by individuals or representatives of community or voluntary organizations in designing what is to be done in community secondary schools and in implementing it.

**Community Secondary School:** This means a school which has been built through community financing in collaboration with the Local Government Administration (ward secondary school) and after establishment, the government takes a full charge of running this school.

**Management:** The term means the three processes of planning, decision-making and monitoring.

Other terms shall be defined in the literature and other sections of the report.

### **1.10 Organization of the Study**

The thesis is organized under five chapters. Chapter one is about the introduction where background information, statement of the problem, research objectives, tasks and research questions are presented. Then, reviewed literature and methodology used during the study are elucidated in chapters two and three respectively. Chapter four deals with presentation and discussion of the findings under each research objective whereas conclusions and recommendations of the study are presented in

chapter five. The thesis includes at the end, the list of references and appendices. The next chapter reviews the literature related to the study.

## **CHAPTER TWO**

### **LITERATURE REVIEW**

#### **2.1 Introduction**

This chapter reviews the theoretical underpinnings and the already conducted empirical studies related to the present study. The chapter starts by providing insights on the concepts of community, models and theories of community involvement in school programmes and projects. Then experiences of community schools in Africa and Tanzania in particular are enlightened. Community members' perceptions on rationale and challenges for their involvement in community secondary management are discussed in this chapter. Constraints as well as experiences such as cultural practices and poverty that might limit involvement of community members in management of schools are furthermore explained in this chapter.

Literature on school local community members' representativeness in school management organs and activities in which school local community members are involved are also discussed. Then strengths and weaknesses of strategies used to empower school local community members for involvement in management of schools' projects and programmes are explored. Empirical studies, synthesis of the reviewed literature, knowledge gap and finally the conceptual framework for this study are illustrated in this chapter.

#### **2.2 The Concept of Community**

It is difficult to say something related to community without first explaining what is the community and the type of community one is referring to. The term 'community'

has been used in different ways and at different levels. Traditionally a "community" has been defined as a group of interacting people living in a common location. The word is often used to refer to a group that is organized around common values and social cohesion within a shared geographical location, generally in social units larger than a household. The word can also refer to the national community or global community.

Katunzi (1988) argues the word community is derived from the same root as "communal" suggesting a sharing of some attributes. Such attributes may include a place or locality; shared beliefs, goals or interests; shared authority, moral agreement; shared historical continuity and traditions, etc. Community therefore has a geographical delimitation; it has social interdependence and interaction and common bonds and ties between its members. As far as schools are concerned we can state that community means people in the catchment area of the school, not all of them would be parents of current pupils in school.

Carhill (1996) reveals that a school's community can be defined in geographical, philosophical, political, cultural or economic terms. *Communities* are the physical and social contexts in which schools operate – the neighbourhoods in which school buildings are located, and the milieu in which students and their families interact with other local stakeholders, including residents, businesses and religious and civic institutions. In this study community means people who are living around the school, in a geographical location of a ward and therefore it's a supply of learners and major beneficiary of that particular school. A school is an integral part of the society and community.

Bray (2000) reiterates that the word 'community' means different things to different people in different circumstances. While studying on community partnerships in education, Bray identifies five most important types of communities as follows:

*Geographic communities*, which embrace the individuals living in relatively small areas such as villages, districts or suburbs;

*Ethnic and racial groups*, especially ones which are minorities and which have self-help support structures;

*Religious groups* of various kinds;

*communities based on shared family concerns*, including Parents' Associations which are based on adults' shared concerns for the welfare of their children; and

*Communities based on shared philanthropy* and in many cases operated by specifically- designated charitable and/or political bodies.

Bray stresses that these communities are not at all times formally organized. For example, not all geographic communities have formal bodies through which voices are heard and collective decisions reached. Indeed, in many settings it is difficult to state where the community begins and ends and that communities are rarely homogenous. Most communities have sub-groups which do not always operate together and in harmony; and even in tightly-defined geographic areas some individuals and groups may not consider that residence in a particular location necessarily part of a community.

Bray (ibid) concludes that no single formula for partnership can be used in all communities and all types of circumstances. Approaches to strengthen partnership in rural areas may be very different from those for cities; policies for dynamic

communities will differ from those for passive communities; and the varied historical legacies of colonialism, politics and economics have different implications for different communities.

### **2.3 The Concept of Community School**

Having explained what the concept community means, it is now sensible to look at the concept of *community school*. DeStefano, Moore, Balwanz, and Hartwell (2007) maintain that a community school is a community-based learning institution, involving an active participation of the local community in their areas of operation in terms of management and organization of the school. These schools are usually designed to meet the education needs of the children of the disadvantaged communities. It is important to note that the managing of these schools differ greatly within and across nations.

Ishumi (1992) asserts that community self-help secondary schools in Tanzania started early 1980s and more conspicuously from 1985. Ishumi argues that the three factors which contributed to the establishment and development of these schools were: First, the parents and the general community's demand, the state having been unable (and willing) to expand schools; Second, the government's inability to expand and efficiently run secondary schools; and Third the internal and especially external pressure which encouraged private and non-governmental participation and partnership towards national economic recovery and growth.

The government of Tanzania has encouraged each community (ward) to build at least one secondary school through self-help scheme by communities in



collaboration with the local government though after establishment, the government almost takes a full charge of running these schools and therefore the role of the community declines. In this regard, the government owns two kinds of secondary schools namely central and community secondary schools. With community schools, the communities play a supportive role in government provision of education.

#### **2.4 Types of Community Involvement in School Management**

Since this study is aimed at investigating the strategies used by role players to involve school local communities in school management, it is important to discuss a bit about the term ‘community involvement’ and types of involvement. Community involvement has several meanings but it simply refers to the process of engaging in dialogue and collaboration with community members. Goodlad (2002) distinguishes three types of community involvements. The first type is involvement by individuals or representatives of community or voluntary organisations in public policy ‘both in designing what is to be done and in implementing it’.

Second, community involvement may refer to the participation of people in a variety of types of voluntary and community organisations, for their own or others benefit. Thirdly, community involvement can be informal, in ‘social support mechanisms based on family, friendship and neighbourliness’. This study intends to investigate the processes used to involve community members in the management of community secondary schools and therefore it is mainly concerned with the first type of community involvement though, other two types of community involvements identified by Goodlad (2002) were as well implicitly dealt with.

Heneveld and Craig (1996) provide five categories of parent and community support to community schools in sub-Saharan Africa, these are: (i) children come to school prepared to learn; (ii) the community provides financial and material support to the school; (iii) communication between the school, parents, and community is frequent; (iv) community has a meaningful role in school governance; and (v) community members and parents assist with instruction. Among other things this study investigated the nature of school activities in which school local community people were involved in by making reference to these categories of community support to community schools.

### **2.5 Models of Community Involvement in School Management**

A model is a way of doing something that can be used as an example or can be imitated or is a description or analogy used to help visualize something that cannot be directly observed. Before we embark on the models of community involvement in school management we first need to understand models of education and community. Williams (1994) identifies three models of education and community, namely *traditional community-based education model*, *government-provided education model* and *collaborative model*.

*Traditional community-based education* is a model in which communities provide new generations of young people with the education necessary for transmitting local norms and economic skills. The government, being of little use in meeting the specialized training needs of industrialized economies, plays a minor role, providing little basis for political integration at the national level. *Government-provided education model* is a model in which governments have assumed responsibility for

providing and regulating education. The content of education has been largely standardized within and across countries, and governments have diminished the role of the community.

However, Williams (1994) argues that lack of resources and management incapability has proven that governments cannot provide the community with adequate educational delivery, fully equipped school buildings, and a full range of grades, teachers and instructional materials. This triggers the emergence of the *collaborative* model, in which community plays a supportive role in government provision of education. Community secondary schools (*ward secondary schools*) in Tanzania exemplify collaborative model of partnership between community and government. Communities, in collaboration with government, establish secondary schools in their areas but after establishment the government almost takes full charge of running these schools.

With regard to school-community partnerships, Valli, Stefanski and Jacobson (2014) argue that school-community partnerships models can be identified by making use of differences in purpose and organizational implications.

They wrote:

*We differentiate models of school-community partnerships through differences in purpose and organizational implications. The Family and Interagency Collaboration model is the most basic form of partnership. Its purpose is to better coordinate education, social, and health services for students and families and requires organizational commitment. The Full-Service School model aims to do this and more: to coordinate a comprehensive array of services and, as much as possible, offer them at the school site. Full-Service Community Schools continue this model, but add a critical element: family and community input. This is a democratic model, where families and community members are viewed as partners, not simply recipients of services.*

*As such, Full-Service Community Schools require both organizational and cultural change. The Community Development Model is the most comprehensive of the four, aiming not only to assist students and families, but also to transform whole neighbourhoods. The breadth of this goal requires inter-organizational and cultural change (p. 111)*

This study tried to find out in what ways the school- community partnership is working in Tanzania. Thus, analysis of the findings reflected the model of *Full-Service Community Schools* where the families and community members are viewed as partners and not simply recipient of services.

On the other hand, UNESCO (2000) maintains that there are several models of structures for school–community partnership. One model is a national education system giving legal status to school governing bodies. A second model has Parents’ Associations that do not have such strong legal status but important within public education systems. A third model embraces clusters, village education committees and similar bodies, of which may be responsible for several schools within a particular area. On their side, Colletta and Perkins (1995) in Uemura (1999) identify six forms of community involvement: (a) research and data collection; (b) dialogue with policymakers; (c) school management; (d) curriculum design; (e) development of learning materials; and (f) school construction.

Out of these six forms of community involvement, communities in Tanzania are explicitly involved in school construction. This study tried to explore community members’ perceptions, representativeness, activities and strategies used by education officers and school administrators with a view of involving community members in other stated forms of involvement. Epstein (1995) and Epstein, Coates, Salinas,

Sanders, and Simon (1997) summarize various types of involvement to explain how schools, families, and communities can work productively together:

*Parenting:* This entails helping families to establish home environments that support children's learning at schools; Assist families with parenting skills, family support, understanding child and adolescent development, and setting home conditions to support learning at each age and grade level. Assist schools in understanding families' backgrounds, cultures, and goals for children.

*Communicating:* This involves designing of effective forms of school-to-home and home-to-school communication that enable parents to learn about school programmes and their children's progress in schools as well as teachers to learn about how children do at home; Create two-way communication channels between school and home that are effective and reliable.

*Volunteering:* This entails recruiting and organizing parent help and support; improve recruitment and training to involve families as volunteers and as audiences at the school or in other locations. To enable educators to work with volunteers who support students and the school. Provide meaningful work and flexible scheduling.

*Learning at home:* This involves giving information and ideas to families about how to help students at home with homework and other curriculum-related activities, decisions, and planning;

*Decision making:* Include families as participants in school decisions, governance, and advocacy activities through school councils or improvement teams, committees, and other organizations; and

*Collaborating with the community:* To identify and integrate resources as well as services with community groups, including businesses, agencies, cultural and civic organizations, and colleges or universities in order to strengthen school programmes, family practices, and student learning.

In the context of family and community involvement in school affairs, Adelman and Taylor (2007) define the term *collaboration* as formal working partnerships between schools, families, and various local organizations and community representatives. Schools and local governments are expected to be involving families and communities in all the above stated six types of involvements, however, at different extent depending on the local circumstances. Epstein (1995), Colletta and Perkins (1995) summarize types and areas of involvement but do not categorically explain the processes of involving communities in the decision-making of school affairs.

According to Williams (1994), Epstein (1995), Epstein *et al.* (1997) and UNESCO (2000), community may work collaboratively with the government to establish and run schools hence the emergency of the idea of naming ward secondary schools in Tanzania, community secondary schools. Communities in Tanzania play a supportive role in government provision of education. Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder (2002) maintain that a community school in Africa is a school that is established with the help of the community.

A community school may either use the government curriculum or the one that is developed or adopted by the community. What makes a community school different

from other forms of schools is the support they receive from the school local community members. Taking into consideration of the way secondary schools are established in various wards of Tanzania it is appropriate to place such schools in the group of community schools. The model of school-community partnership in Tanzania is the collaborative one, in which community plays a supportive role in government provision of education. Moreover, at a certain point communities in Tanzania are involved in some decision making of the school affairs. Thus, communities are in partnership with the government of Tanzania in provision of secondary education.

## **2.6 Theories on Processes of Community Involvement in School Management**

This section provides an outline of theories, which propose a framework in which community participation and involvement in school management can be assessed. It provides a theoretical context within which the appropriateness of different approaches to community involvement in the management of community secondary schools can be assessed.

*Arnstein's (1969) and Shaeffer's (1994) Ladder s of Community Participation:*

Arnstein (1969) in Bray (2001) came up with a proposal that, for community to be involved in decision making there are a number of levels to be passed through. These begin with manipulation or therapy of citizens, then consultation, and finally full participation. The arrangement of the levels in ascending order is what Arnstein (1969) terms as a ladder of participation. Arnstein uses the following ladder (table

2.1) to show how members of community are involved at various levels in planning and decision making of school projects or programmes.

**Table 2.1: A Ladder of Citizen Participation**

Rungs of the Ladder		Level of Citizen Power
8	Citizen Control	Degrees of Citizen Power
7	Delegated Power	
6	Partnership	
5	Placation	Degrees of Tokenism
4	Consultation	
3	Informing	
2	Therapy	Non-participation
1	Manipulation	

**Source:** Bray (2001)

After studying Arnstein's ladder of participation, Shaeffer (1994) came up with seven steps of community participation famously known as step seven of Shaeffer's (1994) Ladder of Participation. Shaeffer insists that full involvement and commitment of the community only comes with willing action based on understanding. The ladder ascends from the lowest rung where communities simply make use of a service to the seventh rung where communities participate in real decision-making at every stage. The following (table 2.2) compares Arnstein (1969) and Shaeffer's (1994) ladder of citizen Participation.

**Table 2.2: Comparison between Arnstein (1969) and Shaeffer's (1994) Ladder of Citizen Participation**

	<b>Arnstein (1969) Ladder of citizen participation</b>	<b>Shaeffer (1994) Ladder for analysis of participation in education</b>
↑	Citizen Control	Participation in real decision-making at every stage (from identification to evaluation)
	Delegated Power	Implementation of delegated powers
	Partnership	Delivery of service
	Placation	Consultation on particular issues
	Consultation	Involvement through contribution (extraction) of resources
	Informing	Attendance and receipt of information (implying



		passive acceptance)
	Therapy	Use of service
	Manipulation	

**Source:** Bray (2001)

Arnstein (1969) and Shaeffer's (1994) Ladder of Citizen Participation theories shed light for the present study for they provide an explanation for the various levels in which communities have to go through so as to attain genuine involvement. Perceptions of the community members and strategies used by education administrators including local leaders to empower community members to get involved in school management can be examined and compared by use of these theories. Furthermore, school activities in which community members are involved including their representativeness in school management organs at various stages are explicitly and implicitly elaborated by these theories.

**A ladder of Citizen Empowerment:** Since Arnstein, there has been a shift towards understanding participation in terms of the empowerment of individuals and communities. This has stemmed from the growing prominence of the idea of a citizen as a consumer, where the choice among alternatives is seen as a means of access to power. Under this model, people are expected to be responsible for themselves and should, therefore, be active in public service decision-making. In this context, Burns, Hambleton and Hogget (1994) modified Arnstein's ladder of participation and proposed a ladder of citizen empowerment (table 2.3).


Their ladder is more elaborate than Arnstein's, with a further, more qualitative breakdown of some of the different levels. For example, a distinction is drawn

between ‘cynical’ and ‘genuine’ consultation, and between ‘entrusted’ and ‘independent’ citizen control. The phenomena of ‘civic hype’, increasingly recognised during the 1990s, are incorporated at the bottom rung of the ladder. This essentially treats community participation as a marketing exercise, in which the desired end result is ‘sold’ to the community.

Like the previous theories, this theory sheds light on the various levels through which a community has to go through so as to reach the stage of full participation. The theory in particular addresses research question that asks “What are the strengths and weaknesses of strategies used to empower community members for effective involvement in the management of school affairs?” The theory tries to show how empowerment of the community members relates with the strengths of the partnership between community and the school. The strategies to be used for involving community members in school management should be backed by their empowerment.

**Table 2.3: Ladder of Citizen Empowerment**

	<b>CITIZEN CONTROL</b>
	12. Independent control
	11. Entrusted control
	<b>CITIZEN PARTICIPATION</b>
	10. Delegated control
	9. Partnership
	8. Limited decentralised decision-making
	7. Effective advisory boards
	6. Genuine consultation
	5. High quality information
	<b>CITIZEN NON-PARTICIPATION</b>



	4. Customer care
	3. Poor information
	2. Cynical consultation
	1. Civic hype

**Source:** Burns, et al. , (1994)

**Wilcox (1999) a continuum of Involvement:** As a development of the ladder concept of participation, Wilcox (1999) identifies five interconnected levels of community participation. This is well illustrated by the Table 2.4.

**Table 2.4: Ladder of Participation**

	Information
	Consultation
	Deciding together
	Acting together
	Supporting individual community initiatives

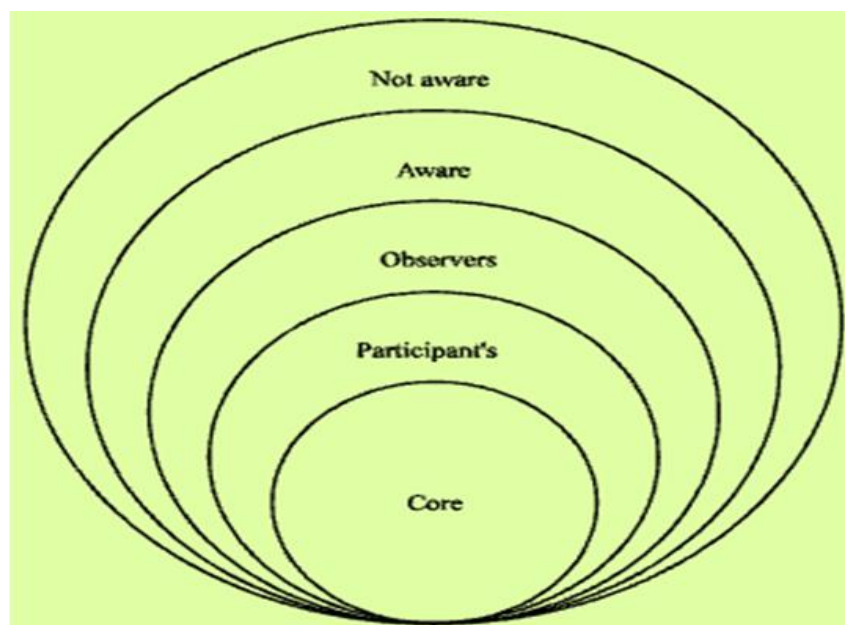
**Source:** Wilcox (1999)

Wilcox proposes that different ‘levels’ of participation are acceptable in differing contexts and settings; this progression recognises that power is not always transferred in apparently participative processes, but that the processes still have value. As opposed to the common interpretation of Arnstien, that brings the thought that it is only acceptable to be striving towards citizen control. Within some contexts, this move in philosophy has been further developed to describe levels of involvement as a continuum.

The theory proposes that the various levels of community involvement are interconnected that there is no clear demarcation between one level and the next. It addresses all the research questions of this study and that the process of involving community members in school management is a complex process that requires a

multidimensional approach.

**Structure of Community Participation:** Cavaye (2010) compared community participation with the cross section structure of an onion (Figure 2.1). That at the centre of the “core” of community efforts, there is a small number of highly committed and motivated people. Around this “core”, there are the people who get involved in the activities organized by the core and provide the support to the core’s initiatives; these are known as “participants”. In the third ring, there are the “observers”, these are the people who normally watch and/or critically monitor the progress of the activities and initiatives developed by the “core” and supported by the “participants”. Although, “observers” might have interest, they do not yet become actively involved. Around the “observer”, there is a larger circle that consists of the people that are “aware” of the activities which are organized and take place in the community but these people are not interested to participate in such programmes or activities. The last circle is constituted by people in the community that are not aware of any of the activities or programmes happening in their community.



**Figure 2.1: Structure of Community Participation****Source:** Cavaye (2010)

This theory provides explanation about motivation and extent of participation in the school affairs by various groups of people in the community. The theory addresses the issue of representative ness showing that not all community members can participate equally in school management as some members take more proactive positions than others.

The structure by Cavaye (2010) provides a framework for the analysis of the speed at which various categories of community members get motivated and therefore join others in getting involved in school affairs. In Tanzanian context such structure may not be seen because the idea of establishing ward schools was not initiated by the school local community members but a government directive.

All above discussed theories propose that any intervention to community participation should take into consideration the various levels of participation. That involving communities in school management is built gradually from the lowest stage of non-participation up to the highest stage of full participation in decision-making. That at the beginning of the intervention, only some community members will take proactive positions while others remain observers only to take a proactive role in the end.

**Wilson and Wilde's (2003) four Dimensions of Community Participation:** Based on the socio-ecological theory developed by Bronfenbrenner (1979), Wilson and Wilde (2003) have proposed the four dimensions that can be used to evaluate the

processes for involving local community members in managing schools in their area. The dimensions are influence, communication, inclusivity and capacity building. Bronfenbrenner's (1979) socio-ecological theory provides a good conceptual model to investigate the complexity of people's engagement in community school's management. After review of several studies, Bronfenbrenner (1986) concludes that the effects of social networks vary depending on numerous factors and outcomes are viewed within a broader social context. The dimensions fall under social-ecological theory that addresses the relationships between ecological and social issues. There is interdependence between genuine involvement of community members and the processes of influence, communication, inclusivity and capacity building.

Human-environment interactions can be described at varying levels of organisation and the interrelationships between people and their environment are dynamic. Individuals were viewed as nested within ever-expanding systems of networks; the Microsystems, mesosystem, exosystem and chronosystem. In a way, the Wilson and Wilde's (2003) dimensions may be used to assess the extent of community empowerment, activities involved in and strategies used in involving school local community members in school management as detailed below.

**Influence:** Influence is the capacity to have an effect on the character, development, or behaviour of someone or something, or the effect itself. This is about ensuring that involvement leads to real influence of community over what happens in schools at both a strategic and operational level. How partnerships involve communities in the 'shaping' of schools' plans/activities and in all decision-making.

Communication: Communication may be defined as a two-way process of reaching mutual understanding, in which participants not only exchange (encode-decode) information, news, ideas and feelings but also create and share *meaning*. How effective are forms of sharing information with communities and clear procedures that maximize community involvement?

Inclusivity: Inclusivity may be defined as an intention of including people who might otherwise be excluded or marginalized, such as those who are handicapped or racial minorities or the act of not excluding members or participants on the grounds of gender, race, class, sexuality and disability. This is about valuing diversity and addressing inequality in order to ensure inclusive and equal involvement. This may mean targeting specific groups and taking positive action. How are partnerships ensuring all groups and interests in the community represented, e.g. in the school board?

Capacity building: Capacity refers to the ability or power to do, experience, or understand something. How do partnerships empower communities to participate and support both local people and those from partner agencies to develop their understanding, knowledge and skills? Among other things, this study investigated strategies used by education administrators and leaders to empower school local community members for participation in school management. Thus, it was important to study the strengths and weaknesses of the strategies used to empower the community members with a view of suggesting the best practices.

Despite the fact that these dimensions inter-relate, all four require careful consideration in order to develop opportunities for meaningful involvement of community. Each of these four dimensions is further broken down into a number of aims to provide benchmarks as indicated in figure 2.2. These benchmarks describe what partnerships between community, local government and school management should strive to achieve. Each benchmark is accompanied by key questions for consideration.

### **Influence**

<b>Benchmarks</b>	<b>Key questions for considerations</b>
The community is recognised and valued as an equal partner at all stages of the process	Who has had the first word in your regeneration strategy and how are community agendas reflected from day one and the process throughout? How are community members made to feel valued as equal partners?
There is meaningful community representation in all decision-making bodies from initiation	How are communities represented in decision-making groups (in addition to/instead of the bigger players such as local councillors)?
All community members have the opportunity to participate	How are you supporting community networks/ structures through which all communities can contribute to decision making? What is the range of opportunities e.g. creative/ flexible approaches, through which community members can influence decisions?
Communities have access to and control over resources	In what ways do regeneration workers and decision makers; Make themselves accessible to community members? How is community control of resources being increased?
Evaluation of regeneration partnerships incorporates a community agenda	How are you ensuring community ownership of evaluation processes?
<b>Inclusivity</b>	
<b>Benchmarks</b>	<b>Key questions for considerations</b>
The diversity of local communities and interests are reflected at all levels of the regeneration process	What steps are you taking to ensure that all communities can be involved with and influence regeneration strategy process and activity? What actions are you taking to ensure that representation by all partner agencies and staff composition reflect the gender balance



	and diversity of the geographical area?
Equal opportunities policies are in place and implemented	What support and training is offered to the development of equal opportunities policies and anti-discriminatory practice? How are you monitoring and reviewing practice in relation to equal opportunities?
Unpaid workers/ volunteer activists are valued	How do you support and resource unpaid workers and voluntary activists? What opportunities do you provide for their personal development and career progression?
<b>Communication</b>	
<b>Benchmarks</b>	<b>Key questions for considerations</b>
A two-way information strategy is developed and implemented	How do you ensure that information is clear and accessible and reaches all communities in time for it to be acted upon? How are those involved in regeneration informed about the communities with whom they are working?
Programme and project procedures are clear and accessible	What steps are you taking to ensure that scheme procedures facilitate community involvement rather than act as a barrier?
<b>Capacity</b>	
<b>Benchmarks</b>	<b>Key questions for considerations</b>
Communities are resourced to participate	What resources are provided for the development of Community-led networks and community groups? What support is provided for community members and Community representatives? What strategy is in place to support Community-led Sustainability?
Understanding, knowledge and skills are developed to support partnership working	How are you ensuring that all partners (including senior people from the public and private sectors), develop the understanding knowledge and skills to work in partnership and engage with communities? What training is provided and who is participating in both the delivery and learning?

**Figure 2.2: Benchmarks for Involvement: The Four Dimensions of Community Participation**

**Source:** (Wilson & Wilde, 2003, p.43)

Unlike previous theories which place emphasis on the blueprints, Wilson and Wilde's (2003) formulation has to a large extent answered the questions of "What,

how and why? Strategies need to be established to include people. It forms the basis on which the interrelated aspects of process of community involvement in school management can be analysed and evaluated. The formulation shows areas through which community members can be empowered and strategized to manage schools in their areas. In this study, genuine community involvement is a function of community perceptions, activities in which they are involved, inclusivity and strategies for their empowerment.

## **2. 7 Community Schools in Africa**

According to UNESCO (2016), by the year 2016 about 263 million children and youth were out of school. Of all the regions, sub-Saharan Africa has the highest rates of exclusion. Over a fifth of children between the ages of 6-11 were out of school, followed by a third of youth between the ages of 12-14. According to UNESCO Institute for Statistics (UIS) data, almost 60% of youth between the ages of 15-17 were not in school. These situations make it sensible for African countries to find a way of intervention so that this number of out of school children is kept to the minimum if not eliminated. Onsomu, Mungai, Oulai, Sankale and Mujidi (2004) stress that community schools are an important part of education systems in sub-Saharan Africa.

To emphasise on the rationales for community schools in Africa, Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder state that,

*A large range of rationales exist for community schools in Africa. They increase access to education where the government does not have the resources to do so and are often seen as more relevant to local development*

*needs than public schools. Many models attempt to make programmes more attractive to children by supporting interactive and student-centered teaching methods. Community schools are seen as cost-effective (comparable or even better instructional services for less money) and community participation is expected to improve educational quality and increase student achievement. Another goal of community schools focuses on improving governance; developing local democratic organizations such as school management committees. School personnel become accountable to communities when communities manage schools. Finally, community schools are seen as one way to implement educational decentralization. (Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder, 2002, p.5.*

Miller- Grandvaux and Yoder (2002) furthermore maintain that community schools in Africa can be distinguished into two main models: (a) the newly created, community-managed schools; and (b) the existing public schools where community management is strengthened through decentralization to revitalize them.

Nishimura (2017) argues that despite the fee abolition policy in provision of basic education in many developing countries, yet this does not stop the spread of private schools. Parents bore not only the direct and indirect costs of schooling; they also contribute to school in the form of labour (e.g., classroom construction) and in cash. It is important to note that various intentions and demands for community involvement in school management in developing countries have led to different roles of community. Nishimura suggests that community participation in school management will result in a long-term impact only if it involves a wide range of actors who can discuss and practice the possibilities of revisiting the definition of community and the way it should be.

It is with this concern that despite the similarities in rationales for establishment of community schools in Africa yet different approaches in different societies had to be

devised if one needs to adequately involve community members in schools management. For example, abolition of school fees and subsidies in schooling costs might bring a negative impact in the quality and relevant education provision in some societies. This is due to the differences in political, social, economic, legal systems and cultural backgrounds.

## **2. 8 Community Secondary Schools in Tanzania**

This section provides explanation on the historical development, policy and legal framework for establishing and running of secondary education in the country. And more specifically a brief description on historical development and legal framework for community involvement in management of community secondary schools in Tanzania is given.

### **2.8.1 History of Community Secondary Schools in Tanzania**

According to Ishumi (1992), secondary education was first introduced and popularized in the country in the 1920s, the earliest known secondary school was Karimjee (today's Usagara) in Tanga in 1923 and the Aga Khan Girls (today's Zanaki) school in Dar es salaam in 1928. Other non-governmental secondary schools constructed out of personal philanthropy or else by private community trusts include the Indian Public School in Bukoba town in 1939, now called Bukoba secondary, Aga Khan Boys (today's Tambaza in Dar es Salaam in 1955, Goan (today's Kibasila) in Dar es salaam in 1955, Galanos in Tanga (1965), Highland in Iringa (1965), Popatlal in Tanga (1966) and a few others set up in a few principal towns.

Except Galanos secondary school, the rest were originally set up to meet the educational needs of the children of minority (Indian) community resident in the country. The exception, Galanos secondary school, was established by the Greek industrialist-commercialist for pupils of all races without discrimination on whatever ground. Ishumi (1993) stresses that it was during this span of time especially during the 1940s and 1950s that a number of secondary schools (i.e. schools above elementary or central school level) were established by Christian missions. These were established in the different districts of their denominational influence to cater for the rising needs for advanced-level secular education for the religious followers and generally for the rural African communities, which were also the most underprivileged in educational opportunity.

The first government sponsored and government controlled secondary in the country was Tabora Boys, established in 1925, a few years after the initiatives by non-governmental organizations. The school, set up by the British colonial administration, was initially intended for sons of chiefs and the nobility within the indigenous system of African native authorities. The trend shows the contribution of private and non-governmental agencies that, with time assumed a participatory role in education development, especially at secondary school level.

Ishumi (1993) argues that it was 1967, with a new, post-independence socialist policy, and particularly after 1971, when the government nationalized privately owned or else trust-funded secondary schools, that state-NGO relations became strained and inconsistent. But later on, a climate for secondary schools as a new

phase of NGOs was established. These include the quasi-political Tanzania Parents Association (TAPA), from the 1960s -1970s and local communities and their community based development/education associations, since the early 1980s.

Review of history of education development in Tanzania tends to suggest that Community Secondary Schools were essentially part of the private sector through community and NGOs initiatives. Examples are: a) Njombe District Development Trust (NDDT) and Mufindi Education Trust (MET) that were established to set up a secondary school in every division (Tarafa) through self-help schemes in Njombe and Mufindi Districts respectively. b) In Ruvuma Region there were a network of Madaba villages (WILIMA) and in Kagera, Kanyigo Development Association (KADEA) and Bwanjai, Bugandika and Kitobo Development society (BWABUKI) which owned and managed the community secondary schools.

Therefore the establishment of community secondary schools was the major educational reform in Tanzania during the 1980s and 1990s. The government issued a circular in 1984 to initiate a ten year programme for the expansion of secondary education where it was planned to build 79 community secondary schools by year 1995 and that each region had to build three schools. During the year 2013, Tanzania mainland had a total number of 4576 secondary schools out of which 3439 (75%) were collaboratively built by the communities and Local Government Administration. Community (ward) secondary schools in Tanzania are basically established by the people at the ward, division or district levels. Role of the people is essentially that of construction of school plant before relinquishing the role to the

central government for supply of teaching and learning materials, teaching force, or teaching staff and administrators.

Ishumi (1992) argues that three factors contributed to the establishment and development of community self-help secondary schools during the 1980s. The first factor was that the parents and the general community's frustration at a far reduced range of secondary education opportunities for their primary school-leaving children, and state having been unable (and willing) to expand schools and enrolment now that all schools had been nationalized. The second factor was a resultant and generalized anger of disillusionment and disaffection with government inability to expand and efficiently run secondary schools. The third factor was internal and especially external pressure on the state to relax central government control on the economy and to encourage private and non-governmental participation and partnership towards national economic recovery and growth.

There was a change of heart on the part of the State since the early 1980s and more conspicuously from 1985. The State invited communities and private individuals into "partnership in development" in terms of private and local investment and cost sharing in various fields of national life, including secondary education provision in the different wards, divisions, districts and regions of the country. At that time manpower planning approach of the country was changed from "Manpower Requirement Approach" to "Social Demand Approach". It was during that time when locally based community self-help movement towards construction and running of private (non-government) secondary schools has since grown stronger and spread across many districts.

An attempt to improve management of these community (ward) secondary schools is an attempt to improve secondary education in the country since they form a large proportion of secondary schools in the country. In order to facilitate the establishment and quality running of secondary education in the country, the government of Tanzania initiated a 10 years programme called SEDP (Secondary Education Development Plan). The plan was to be implemented in two phases; the first phase (SEDP I) was implemented between 2004 and 2009 whereas the second phase (SEDP II) was implemented between 2011 and 2015. Among other things, the programme aimed at improving management of the secondary education system.

Generally, there is lack of adequate information on community involvement in management of community secondary schools in Tanzania. This observation is in line with Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder (2002) who upholds that a few evaluations and even fewer syntheses of information on establishment and management of community schools in Africa exist. The way community secondary schools are managed in Tanzania raises more questions than answers. In the past, public secondary education in Tanzania was entirely planned and run by the central government but few years ago some kind of transformation has been enforced.

In 1990s the government adopted Decentralization by Devolution policy (D-by-D Policy). With D-by-D Policy local authorities were given authority to make decisions and set development priorities (URT, 2008). In that regard individuals at the grassroots are expected to be involved in planning process and decision making. Despite of the implementation of D-by-D policy, norms and management structure



of secondary education have remained the same.

### **2.8.2 Contextual Framework for Community Secondary Schools in Tanzania**

According to the Education and Training Policy of 1995 the structure of the formal education and training system in Tanzania is 2-7- 4 -2 - 3+, that is; 2 years of pre-primary education; 7 years of compulsory primary education; 4 years of lower secondary (Form I-IV); 2 years of secondary advanced level education (Form V and VI) and 3 or more years of higher education.

Education Act No. 25 of 1978 (as amended by Act No.10 of 1995), forms the statutory basis for community involvement in decision-making through representatives. Thus the management of schools is vested in the District council within the area of jurisdiction where they are situated. This has been realised through the formation of District Education Committees in which ward councillors are members. Its role is to advise the District Executive Director and the District Education officer on matters pertaining to education in the District.

Through its Education and Training Policy (ETP) of 1995, the policy document gives powers to community through their representatives (school committees and boards) and this is assumed to make the community feel the ownership of the school. With regard to management of community secondary schools, Education Act No. 25 of 1978 (as amended by Act No.10 of 1995), gives the provision that every school shall have the following school board members who shall be approved by the Regional Commissioner:

- i. One member representing the voluntary organization if that school was

originally established by that voluntary organization

- ii. One member representative who shall be a senior education officer in the region
- iii. The head of the school
- iv. One member representing the academic staff
- v. Not more than five members appointed by the Regional commissioner upon recommendation of the Regional Education Officer
- vi. Two members appointed by the Regional commissioner upon recommendation of the Head of school; and
- vii. Two members co-opted by the Board during its first sitting

The above act provides a legal base for the process of school board formation and general management of these schools. If we are to introduce interventions for appropriate involvement of school local community in the management of community secondary school in Tanzania, we should begin from this point. An analysis of the autonomy and participation of the school local community in the management of schools need to take into consideration of the legal framework that governs the operationalization of schools in the country. Looking at the way the School Boards are formed in Tanzania CSS, one may raise a number of questions regarding the presence and participation of school local community members.

Appointments for the school board members seem to be initiated outside the community and leave a number of questions unanswered. In fact, both the administrative and legal frameworks governing the formation of School Boards do not provide for the representation of members of the community in which the school

is located. For example the questions of how community members, who are claimed to be owners of schools are coordinated, empowered and represented in the school management organs? The report by UNESCO (2014) highlights that community presence and participation in school boards, local transparency committees, appeal mechanisms, social audits, and informal whistle blowing, are among key actions taken in the battle against corruption in education. Obviously the observation put emphasis on true representation of the community members in the school management organs.

The 1995 education act No. 10 of 1995 defines community secondary schools as schools owned by local community or owned by an institution on behalf of a community (URT, 1995). Through this definition it is evident that the government assumes that the local communities can own schools. Ward secondary schools, in other words community secondary schools, are established collaboratively between the government and the school local communities. Thus the model of community school in Tanzanian context can be termed as what William (1994) described as *collaborative model*, in which community plays a supportive role in government provision of education. The current study looks at how this supportive role is connected with management of community secondary school affairs.

## **2.9 Community Members Perception**

According to Rao (2009), perception is the process by which people select, organise, interpret and respond to information from the world around them. Rao adds that perception is a subjective process, because different people may look at the same event from different angles and interpret the same in multifarious ways. There are

both external and internal factors that influence perception. Perception process is influenced by motivation, that people do perceive things that promise to help satisfy their needs and that they have found rewarding in the past.

Perception can be described as the way in which individuals interpret their environment. An individual's perception can influence how they make decisions and solve problems. For example, when information about a problem needs to be gathered, the individual's perception will impact on where the information is sought and the type of information regarded as relevant.

When making decisions on what and how to do it, community members are expected to be directly involved or fairly represented. Epstein (1995) reiterates that community would want to have a say in almost every aspect of the management of the schools if it has to contribute significantly and be committed to its advancement. In reality every community has its own environment and therefore it has to take into consideration of its circumstances when planning interventions for education development in their area. This will, to a larger extent, be successful if community members are appropriately involved.

For Henderson, Mapp, Johnson and Davies (2007) community members are part and parcel of community schools. To them the term community school refers to school-community initiatives in school reform, which typically offer academic assistance, such as, tutoring, after school programmes and learning clinics. The programmes are designed with the input of families and local residents and may have a family support centre. In real sense what are termed as community schools in this study are

not initiated by communities but communities have certain influence during their establishment.

Therefore community schools in Tanzania are at infant stage. Among other things this study sought to investigate school local community members' perceptions about their involvement in school management activities. This is to get the insight on their willingness and readiness to be involved in community secondary schools' management affairs. The perceptions of the community members about reasons for their involvement in school management, their representativeness and challenges for involvement in school management will be explored in the subsequent sections.

### **2.9.1 Reasons for School-Community Partnership**

The school-community relation is currently a topic of interest among parents, teachers, policymakers and all those involved in children education. Community members, administrators and leaders are expected to have a common understanding on why school local community members are supposed to be involved in school affairs. This will build a strong relationship between school local communities and schools since their perceptions towards schools will be positive. On the other hand, UNESCO (2000) identifies a cluster of eight important rationales for school-community engaging in partnerships, these are:

- i. *Shared experiences and expertise.* Each partner can bring knowledge and skills to the task at hand.
- ii. *Mutual support.* When circumstances are difficult, partnership provides mutual support to persist in efforts to achieve goals.
- iii. *Division of labour.* Collaboration can allow partners to concentrate on the

tasks that they do best. The tasks which one partner can best do are not necessarily the ones that other partners can do best. In these situations, division of labour permits all sides to gain.

- iv. *Increased resources.* When each partner brings resources to the common forum, the total availability of resources is increased. These resources can be human, material or financial.
- v. *Increased sense of ownership.* When people work together on a task, they are more likely to feel a sense of ownership than if someone else performs the task for them.
- vi. *Extended reach.* Different partners may have voices in different places. This can extend the reach of initiatives.
- vii. *Increased effectiveness.* When partners come together, they each bring their perspectives. They may help each other to identify obstacles to effective implementation of programmes and ways around those obstacles.
- viii. *Evaluation and monitoring.* When partners have links to different sectors of society, they can complement each other's efforts in assessing the impact of programmes. This information can be used to make necessary adjustments and improve impact.

In attempt to help children succeed in school and later life, and focuses on partnerships of schools, families, and communities attempt to: (a) improve school programmes and school climate; (b) provide family services and support; (c) increase parents' skills and leadership; (d) connect families with others in the school

and in the community; and (e) help teachers with their work. Genuine partnership is one based on mutual trust, common goals and two-way communication.

Sharma (2008) points out that involvement of the community facilitates the relation between the school and community and that it can improve school accountability and make school more responsive to community needs. Adelman and Taylor (2008) maintain that schools are more effective and caring places when they are an integral and positive part of the community. The relationships enhance academic performance, fewer discipline problems, higher staff morale, and improved use of resources. Moreover, families and other community entities can enhance parenting and socialization, address psychosocial problems, and strengthen the fabric of family and community life by working collaboratively with schools.

To collaborate is to participate in the accomplishment of a task or the assumption of a responsibility. Partnership is therefore a collaborative relationship between two parties, parental and community involvement is a means of establishing it. Valli, et al., (2014) observe that such partnerships have been found to support student learning, strengthen schools and families, and help neighbourhoods flourish. The above observations make it sensible for the government of the developing countries like Tanzania to strengthen the school-community relations. This may be achieved through focusing on the people of the community and their needs and by figuring out how best the community can be an integral part of the community secondary schools. This study sought to investigate whether community members perceive rationales for them to get involved in management of secondary schools. It was expected that among other things, the above-identified

rationales were likely to happen in the school local community members of Tanzania.

### **2.9.2 Impediments to Community Involvement in Management of Education**

According to Uemura (1999), one of the ways in which school local community members can be assistive to school is to identify factors contributing to educational problems such as low enrolment, high repetition and dropouts. There are a number of challenges to be tackled when one plans to involve communities in the education management. Oakley (1991) in Wodajo, Kwame and Asfaw (2014) identifies three major obstacles to people's participation and involvement in development projects; these are structural, administrative and social-cultural.

- i. Structural. Structural obstacles form part of centralized organizational systems that control decision-making, resource allocation and information, and are not people centred development. It is usually typified by a 'top-down' development approach. There is existence of anti-participatory structures and legal system to maintain status quo and ignorance by rural poor of their rights.
- ii. Administrative. These relate to bureaucratic procedures, operated by a set of guidelines and adopt a blue print approach, providing little space for people to make their own decisions or control their development process.
- iii. iii) Social and Cultural. These entails things like mentality of dependence, culture of silence, domination of the local elite, gender inequality, and low levels of education and of exposure to non-local information. The existing cultural norms and values like the culture of silence, the women's role are some of such processes. The mentality of dependence and feeling of inferiority of many poor people has deep historical roots. For generations, poor people



have been dominated by the elite, and depended on them to make decisions. These feelings leave people without initiative and self-esteem needed for participation and involvement.

ANTRIEF (2003) emphasizes that there are constraints as well as experiences such as cultural practices and poverty that might limit involvement of community members in schools. Communities behave differently due to values, norms, traditions and inclinations that have been transmitted across generations. Prew (2008) observes that there is perception that opening the school to broader community involvement would take control away from the principal. Some even refuse to take steps to promote parental involvement in their individual schools. Peiffer (2003) in Lazaridou and Kassida (2015) maintain that many principles do not actively support programmes for involving parents in school affairs. Govinder (1997) observes that community's occupation is another factor that influences involvement of community in school activities. The point was also insisted by Martinez and Velazquez (2000) that migrant farm workers have a time barrier for engaging in school projects.

NEA (2008) reveals that parents see lots of roadblocks to getting involved in their children's education. Some point to their own demanding schedules and say they do not have extra time to volunteer or even attend school activities, much less get involved in bigger ways. Others reveal how uncomfortable they feel when trying to communicate with school officials, whether that is due to language or cultural differences or their own past experiences with schools. Some say that they lack the

know-how and resources to help their child, or they express frustration with school bureaucracies or policies they find impossible to understand or change.

NEA furthermore reveals that some parents complain that they rarely hear from the school unless there is a problem with their child's behaviour or performance. Others say the information provided by the school is not comprehensible either because of educational jargon used or because the parent or family member can not read or understand the language used. These observations suggest that there are some communication barriers between school management and community members.

According to NEA (2008), some families criticize school personnel for not understanding the troubles of single parents, grandparents, foster parents, or other caregivers. Others say they lack transportation to attend school events or have no child care for younger siblings; such state of affairs is likely to exist in other countries like Tanzania. While some schools have made great strides in engaging parents and others in the educational process, there is still much more that can be done. Mokoena (2011) reveals that some factors hinder parents from becoming involved in schools' management activities. These factors were lack of skills and poor understanding of school issues, time pressure resulting from involvement and home commitments.

Lareau (1987) observes that the level of attendance at school functions was much higher at the upper-middle class school. Parents at the working class school were more reluctant to interact with school staff, often communicating about non-academic issues like bus schedules and playground activities. Both sets of parents

valued educational opportunity for their children but viewed the process differently. Social class position and class culture were found to be a form of cultural capital in the school setting. “The standards of schools are not neutral; their requests for parental involvement may be laden with the social and cultural experiences of intellectual and economic elites” (Lareau, 1987, p. 74).

Shaeffer (1992) and Crites (2008)), found out that social and economic classes of the particular community influence the extent of involvement of parents and community members in the school issues. Steven and Jennifer (2008) took a study in Iran and identify three main barriers to community involvement in education projects and programmes. These are i) inability to analyze the changing socio-cultural dimensions of educational system ii) lack of understanding of the policy process and iii) lack of access to information.

Adelman and Taylor (2008) observe that in some places there are no policies governing school-linked services. This would definitely hamper proper integration of communities and other agencies in the management of schools in their area. Literature show that the general apathy of the community, lack of organisation, lack of leadership, and above all poverty can militate against community participation. Stringfield and Land (2002) noted poor principal leadership, lack of parental and community knowledge and skills on the part of school personnel, and an unwelcoming school climate as some of the factors that hinder parent and community involvement in the schools. Nishimura (2017) maintain that political aspects of school management and socio-cultural difference among the population

require caution, as they are likely to affect involvement of the community in the management of schools.

On the other hand, World Bank (2000) in Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder (2002) described eight principal difficulties of community schools as being in large part ideological, these were: political resistance to change; low level of motivation; the resistance of teachers' unions; too rapid decentralization of education; insufficient resources; lack of technical competence at the management and the local levels; community disengagement and poverty and illiteracy. Undoubtedly these factors are likely to exist in many societies or countries till today but differ from one society to another, Tanzania is not an exception. As such this study sought to investigate perceived factors by community members in Tanzania that hinder parent and community members to adequately get involved in management of community secondary schools.

### **2.10 Community Members' Representation in School Management Organs**

Mfum-Mensah (2004) observes that community involvement in school management is a means for enabling local members to deepen their participation in the decision-making relevant to their schools by playing a constructive role in the process. Sheedy and colleagues (2008) reveal that involving citizen in any development project is based on the belief that people should have a say in the decisions that affect their lives and there are different levels of public involvement in decision making. Moving from more passive to more active forms of public involvement, these include:

**i. Public communication.** Information is disseminated from the government to the public. This includes ads, reports, press releases, and websites.

**ii. Public consultation.** The government asks for public input on a specific policy issue, having provided the public with information on the concern. Public consultation methods include public meetings, public opinion polls, public hearings, focus groups, and referenda.

**iii. Public participation.** Information is exchanged between the public and government, involving dialogue. Public participation methods include citizen juries, citizens' panels, consensus conferences, deliberative polls, and citizens' dialogues. Decision-makers have identified criteria for informed, effective and meaningful public participation.

To place emphasis on representation of school local communities in the management of schools, Berger (1991) and ANTRIEP (2003) reveal that active involvement of communities in the planning and management of school activities does significantly improve student achievements. It is not possible for all school local community members to be involved in the school management organs but fair representation should be observed. Yasuyuki (1999) points out that community participation through parental group improve students' academic performance indirectly. He supports the view that decentralization of education system should involve delegation of school administration and teacher management to the community group. Wilson and Wilde (2003) assert that community-school partnerships should ensure that all groups and interests in the community are represented in decision making organs e.g. in the school board and construction committee.

Crewe and Harrison (1998) observe that while involving communities in the management of education or any other programmes there is a tendency of overlooking complexities and questions of power and conflict within communities. The approaches are designed based on the false assumption that the community, group, or household is homogeneous, or has mutually compatible interests. But in practice differences occur with respect to age, gender, wealth, ethnicity, language, culture, race and so on. That even though marginalized or minority groups may be physically present during discussion, they are not necessarily given a chance to express their views to the same degree as others. This is what Wilson and Wilde (2003) suggested by using terms of influence and inclusivity, that the diversity of local communities and interests should be reflected at all levels of the regeneration process. Menno, Suryadarma, Beatty, Wong,

Gaduh, Alisjahbana and Artha (2014) have shown that providing school grants and training for school committee members has limited or no impact on student learning. However, the democratic election of committee members and the facilitation of meetings between the school committee and the village authorities generate positive effects on student learning. It has been observed that it is not easy to involve all community members in decision-making and running schools. Every community or country has its own way of involving communities depending on its geography and socio-economic complexities. But generally, democratic election of the representatives is of paramount importance. This study attempted to explore community members' feelings about their representation in management organs of the secondary schools of which they were involved during their establishment.

### **2.11 Managerial Activities in which School Local Community Members are Involved**

Regarding managerial activities in which school local community members should be involved, Deslandes (2001) suggests involvement of community members through exchange of information between parents of pupils and school local community members. On the other hand Reimers (1997) from the work of Shaeffer (1994) developed matrices, which can be used to indicate the nature of activities and extent of involvement by the community members in managing the schools in their area. He devised a matrix (Table 2.5), in which aspects of Shaeffer's rungs were placed along the horizontal axis and some specific functions in the education sector were placed along the vertical axis.

The matrix was based on schools which were owned by non-governmental organization which provided formal and non-formal education at different levels. These are schools which typically belong to the community, and promote mechanisms for community involvement in running the schools. Parental and community involvement in education, particularly in school governance, is seen as a means of making schools more accountable to the society which funds them. Table 2.5 provides a Matrix of Dimensions and Degrees of Community Involvement In Education.

#### **Table 2.5: Matrix of Dimensions and Degrees of Community Participation in Education**

Pseudo Involvement ←————→ Genuine Involvement

<b>Community role/ education function</b>	<b>Use of service</b>	<b>Contribution of resources</b>	<b>Attendance of meetings</b>	<b>Consultation on issues</b>	<b>Involvement delivery</b>	<b>Delegated Powers and decision making</b>	<b>'Real' powers and decision making at every stage</b>
Designing Policy							
Mobilizing Resources							
Curriculum development							
Teacher hiring and firing							
Supervision							
Payment of salaries							
Teacher Training							
Textbook design							
Textbook Distribution							
Certification							
Building and maintenance							
Students' Discipline							

**Source:** Reimers 1997 b, p.150; in Bray (2001)

If we are to use the above matrix as criteria for analysing school activities in which school local community members are to be involved, it is easy to judge that ward schools in Tanzania are not real community schools. This is due to the fact that the government performs most of the listed roles in the matrix. It is therefore correct to say that community involvement in school management in Tanzania where some activities are centralised while others are decentralised, community involvement is relatively at very low level and therefore approaches to interventions should be based on that assumption.

Essentially, ward secondary schools in Tanzania are government schools with divided responsibilities between local communities on the one hand and the central



government on the other. The matrix sheds light on various activities of the school in which school local community members are expected to be engaged in. Among other things this study sought to investigate the nature of managerial activities in which school community members were engaged in.

### **2.12 Strategies for Community Empowerment in Management of Schools**

Rappaport (1987) maintains that the concept 'empowerment' suggests both individual determination over one's own life and democratic participation in the life of one's community, often through mediating structures such as schools, neighbourhoods, churches, and other voluntary organizations. Page and Czuba (1999) in Kamando (2014) define empowerment as a multi-dimensional social process that helps people gain control over their own lives. That empowerment is a process that fosters power in people for use in their own lives, their communities and in their society, by acting on issues they define as important. On the other hand, Cornell Empowerment Group (1989) sees empowerment as an intentional, ongoing process centred on the local community, involving mutual respect, critical reflection, caring, and group participation, through which people lacking an equal share of valued resources gain greater access to and control over those resources.

Sumra (1993) observes that everyone involved in education provision from ministry level up to school level has to be accountable to parents and to the community and that the process of empowerment is complex. To support the idea of complexity of the empowerment process, Spreitzer (2008) identified features of empowerment that are global and social-structural as well as those that are experienced by individuals who self-empower through the integration of their beliefs and perceptions with their

environment. Schermuly, Meyer and Dämmer (2013) similarly, observe that there are actually two constructs that contribute to empowerment. These are psychological empowerment and structural empowerment. Psychological empowerment comes from within an individual and is not dependent on the approval or permission of one's supervisors or leaders. Structural empowerment includes structural factors such as policies and rules within the community.

To emphasize the importance of empowerment in management, Michele and Browne (2000) maintain that empowerment is the foundation stone upon which radical reform can be built. Palmleaders (2004) reiterate that empowerment is a process that facilitates deep fundamental change at the core of the school system. Furthermore Palmleaders observes that many new projects in schools include a hive of activities, but the change is at a superficial level.

Sumra (1993) suggests that the process of empowering school local community members to get involved in school management should be gradual and structured in a way that it avoids conflicts whenever possible. Available evidence shows that empowerment cannot be achieved if the methods used to search for it are not empowering.

Munt (2002) outlines some of the strategies and considerations for a school project to be successful. In the early stages of planning a project, some important questions can act as a guide. Who are the people to be affected by the project? What is the nature of their current involvement with the project? Are these people supportive? In

what capacity can they be involved? What is the way to open up a dialogue? What processes need to be established to include people?

Bush and Bell (2003) reveal that quite often, restructuring in education takes the form of greater decentralization of powers to schools or local administrative bodies to enhance responsiveness to the needs of local communities. A study done in Asia has shown that although the government sometimes had trouble following through on its promise to devolve authority to autonomous regions, its support for decentralization projects did not decline. Despite its limitations, Babyegeya (2001) comments that decentralization facilitates greater involvement of stakeholders and that participation of stakeholders improves the quality of education and enhances efficiency and effectiveness of the public school system.

This study assumed that despite the observed importance and considerations of involving community members in the school management, there are some challenges which are faced by both educators and community. These challenges could be traced by looking at the processes used by the education administrators and local government leaders to involve school local community people in the management of school affairs. Singleton (2005) maintains that community participation needs to be reconceptualised so as to facilitate a meaningful adoption of participatory strategies. In order for parents and community to manage schools for teachers and schools to be responsible for them, the process should be well planned and strategized in order to work.

Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder (2002) observe that for the bright future of community

schools, there are some critical factors which need to be worked on, these include: recognizing community schools legally and integrating them into the national education system; governments paying for teacher salaries, teacher training, improving teachers' working conditions, and professionalizing community school teachers; ensuring that local and central government agencies monitor and support community school teachers.

Other factors are: governments providing textbooks and teaching materials; and paying a portion of construction costs; local government becoming responsible for community schools; upholding community management of schools; identifying and supporting local community leaders. Furthermore, supporting capacity building for parent committees and committee federations; encouraging continued NGO involvement in education; developing close relationships with public schools; paying school fees as a collectively rather than having parents pay for each student; continuing to offer alternative education, including practical subjects in the curriculum; and forming regional networks of exchange. To a large extent these factors are being taken care of in Tanzania ward secondary schools. Thus, there is a promising environment for ward secondary schools to flourish if these schools are fully operated as community schools.

To put emphasis on the point of upholding community management of schools, Epstein (2000) suggests six standards which have to be met for effective involvement of communities in school management.

Communication: *Communication between home and school is regular, two-way, and meaningful.*

Parenting: *Parenting skills are promoted and supported.*

Student Learning: *Parents play an integral role in assisting student learning.*

Volunteering: *Parents are welcome in the school, and their support and assistance are sought.*

School Decision Making and Advocacy: *Parents are full partners in the decisions that affect children and families.*

Collaborating with Community: *Community resources are used to strengthen schools, families, and student learning.*

**Figure 2.3: Standards for Effective Involvement**

**Source:** Epstein (2000)

The six standards suggested by Epstein are communication, parenting, student learning, volunteering, School Decision Making and Advocacy, and Collaborating with Community as elaborated in figure 2.3. To support the Epstein' suggestions, Sharma (2008) maintains that school should focus on the people of the community and their needs and by figuring out how the community can be an integral part of the educational conversation. Available evidence shows that Parents' associations are potential to the existence of community schools, to place emphasis on this relationship Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder noted,

*Effective and active parents' associations are strength of community schools, in comparison to traditional public schools, and are one reason given for community school students' achievement. Existing associations became more active in many cases reviewed. While improved parents' association is a strategy for improving school quality and equity, it is also a desired outcome of many interventions (Miller-Grandvaux & Yoder, 2002, p. 18).*

On the other hand, Uemura (1999) lists the ways through which communities can contribute to the education delivery including raising money for schools; constructing, repairing, and improving school facilities; contributing in labour, materials, land, and funds; making decisions about school locations and schedules; forming village education committees to manage schools; handling the budget to

operate schools; and identifying factors contributing to educational problems (low enrolment, and high repetition and dropout). Among other things, this study sought to investigate strategies used by education officers and leaders to empower school local community members to participate in school management. Some of the described factors and ways to involve community members in school affairs are likely to be found in Tanzania.

### **2.13 Empirical Studies**

The following are empirical studies conducted elsewhere in the world, in Africa, and Tanzania with regard to the involvement of community members in the management of community secondary schools. Nishimura (2017) maintains that various studies have posited the challenges and opportunities of community involvement in school management in terms of social structure, the social and cultural aspects of individual and organisational behaviours, and political intervention in community participation. Empirical literature in this study will mainly base on social structures, cultural aspects of school local communities including political interventions.

Sheldon and Epstein (2002) conducted a study on improving student behaviour and school discipline with family and community involvement using longitudinal data from 37 elementary and 10 secondary schools in U.S.A. Results indicated that regardless of the prior statuses of the discipline, the more community involvement activities were implemented, the fewer students were disciplined. Also schools that improved the quality of their partnership programmes reported fewer students in need of discipline actions. The study by Sheldon and Epstein (2002) has strengths in the sense that it is about community involvement in school affairs.

The results of that study also relates with the aim of the current study as it indicates that involving community in school management improves students' discipline, hence school management success. However, the two studies are methodologically different as Sheldon and Epstein's used a correlation longitudinal design whereas the current study uses a descriptive case study. Moreover, the former study differs from the current one in contextually in that the former was conducted in a developed country where community involvement in school management has been practised for centuries, while the current study has been conducted in Tanzania where community involvement in school affairs is relatively a contemporary phenomenon. Moreover, the study by Sheldon and Epstein (2002) falls short of addressing the research questions raised in this study hence the need for conducting the current study.

Crites (2008), making use of a qualitative case study design, studied about parent and community involvement and the impact of that involvement on education in one elementary school in U.S.A. Study results indicate that to increase parent and community involvement, schools need supportive administrators who are willing to involve parents and community members in the decision-making process. The study is strong for it investigated involvement and impact of community on education in elementary school. Study results revealed, among other factors, that involving community into school management is highly influenced by the motivation of the administrators.

That study is similar to the present study for it used qualitative case study and investigated the role of administrators in involving community in school

management. This study employed a qualitative case study in investigating the strategies used by administrators and leaders to involve school local community people in school management. However, Crites' (2008) study differs with the current one for it involved elementary schools of a developed country while this current one deals with secondary schools in a developing country. Moreover, the former study falls short of investigating community perceptions about their involvement in school management which is the focus of current study.

Nasir, Farooq and Tabassum (2017) conducted a study to investigate the effectiveness of community participation in education with respect to the role of District Education Officers in public sector schools of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa, Pakistan. Data was collected through questionnaire, tabulated and analysed by using Chi-Square. Results showed that the efforts of the education officers to involve communities in schools were ineffective. This was due to improper launching of community awareness campaigns and meeting with the elders of community. Also there were some shortfalls in ensuring the formation and functioning of community bodies in schools. Moreover, ineffectiveness was noted in the monitoring of funds contributed by communities and there were no clear plans for improvement in the quality of education.

The study is strong for it investigated about the effectiveness of community participation with respect to the role of DEOs and that the objectives were somehow similar to the objectives of the current study. Moreover, the study was conducted in a country which is somehow similar to Tanzania in terms of socio-economic development. However, the current study differs from Nasir, Farooq and Tabassum's



(2017) study in that, while the latter study focused on the role of DEOs and employed only questionnaire for data collection, data for this study was collected through triangulation of interviews, focused group discussion, field observation and documentary reviews. As far as respondents are concerned, this study gave insights into the role of local leaders.

Through qualitative approach and multiple case-study design, Ternieden (2009) conducted an investigation on community participation in primary education in three rural village schools in Ethiopia. Data collection methods were interview, observation and documentation. The study's results demonstrated that community participation occurred in the schools of the three studied villages in several different ways. Findings also showed that geography and history influenced the level of community participation. Parents were motivated to participate in school improvement because of child health and safety. The community was represented by the active participation of local school improvement committees and farmer's cooperatives.

Finally, the study found that, most often community participation was influenced by the positive interaction between NGO and the Ethiopian government sub-district official. That study is similar to the current study for it addresses participation of the community in education. Similar to this study also it employed qualitative approach and multiple case-study design where the methods of data collection were interview, observation and documentation. Moreover, it was conducted in a developing country with socio-economic environment which is somehow similar with that of Tanzania.

However, it differs from this study in context and it did not address the same questions as those which were raised in this study.

Using qualitative case study design, Mokoena (2011) conducted a study about perceptions of school stakeholders in decision-making participation. Parents, teachers, principals and learners from two public secondary schools which were located in rural areas of South Africa were interviewed. Findings revealed that lack of skills and poor understanding of school issues, time pressure resulting from involvement and home commitments including teachers' negative attitude towards parents' lower education or a lack of education hindered community from smooth and effective decision-making participation.

Another study was conducted in three communities of Zambia by Kalemba (2013) using qualitative approach; the study revealed that despite a number of challenges, community involvement contributed positively towards education delivery. And that those community schools interventions were perceived differently indicating diversity among different stakeholders. In relation to this study, the study by Mokoena (2011) and Kalemba (2013) are both strong for they address challenges and benefits of involving school local communities in school management decisions. Both studies were conducted in Sub-Sahara African countries with historical, cultural, social, political background which are similar to that of Tanzania. However, the studies differ with this one in terms participants, questions asked, sample size and methods of data collections.

Using a qualitative multiple-case study approach, Kamando (2014) studied Government- Community Partnership (GCP) in the provision of education in rural areas of Mwanga and Manyoni districts of Tanzania. In this study, Interviews, Focused Group Discussion and Observations were the main instruments used. The findings from this study revealed that the nature of working relationship between the actors has prevented opportunities for creating productive network ties and for the collective development of social capital. The study is similar to this one for it addresses the issues of community involvement in secondary school management. However, the study differs from the current one in context, cases studied and questions which were raised.

John (2015) conducted a qualitative case study about community involvement on planning and decision making of secondary school affairs in Bagamoyo district of Tanzania. The study involved a sample of 92 participants (district education officer, school heads, parents, school board members and students). The results indicated that the perception of parents on community involvement in planning and decision making in education was negative because of lack of knowledge and skills in planning and decision making.

The study is strong in that it addresses the issues of community involvement in planning and decision making of secondary affairs which were also addressed in this study. However, the study differs from the current one in a number of aspects for example it was conducted in one district while this one was conducted in four districts from two different regions of Tanzania. Moreover, it did not address the

questions which were raised in this study and it did not employ use of Wilde and Wilson (2003) model of community involvement in planning and decision-making of the school affairs.

Other studies on ward-based community schools in Tanzania have placed emphasis on the effects, success and failures of school management. For example, Babyegeya (2000) conducted a study on the decentralization of school management while Matekere (2003), Moshia and Dachi (2004) and Raphael (2008) paid more attention on devolution of educational management powers to local governments. All these studies have in one way or another shown unsatisfactory community involvement in the management of school affairs. In contrast with most of the research findings, Hanushek et al. (2013), using empirical data which relies on the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA), report that school autonomy have different outcome in different countries. Their test involved over one million students in 42 countries and was conducted between 2000 and 2009. Findings from this study reveal that school autonomy affects student achievement negatively in developing and low-performing countries, while the same autonomy has a positive effect in developed and high-performing countries.

Surveyed empirical studies indicate that both quantitative and qualitative approaches were adopted when studying community involvement in the school management and that case study design was dominant. Most studies were conducted in elementary schools and all studies were positive about community involvement in management of community schools. Furthermore none of the surveyed studies employed evaluative model formulated by Wilson and Wilde (2003).

### **2.14 Synthesis of the Literature Review and Study Knowledge Gap**

Reviewed literature shows that involvement of communities in management of schools in their areas has done more good than harm. When schools, parents, families, and communities work together to support learning, students' academic performance and behaviour improves. Similarly, when students attend school more regularly, stay in school longer, and enrol in higher level programmes, positive results are expected. The goals of having community schools in Africa include increased access to education where the government does not have the resources to do so and are often seen as more relevant to local development needs than public schools. Community schools are seen as cost-effective (comparable or even better instructional services for less money) and community participation is expected to improve educational quality and increase student achievement. Another goal of community schools focuses on improving governance, developing local democratic organizations such as school management committees. School personnel become accountable to communities when communities manage schools. Finally, community schools are seen as one way to implement educational decentralization.

Reviewed literature has also shown a number of constraints as well as experiences such as cultural practices and poverty that might limit involvement of community members in schools. Obstacles to people's participation and involvement in community schools' management may be categorized into structural, administrative and social-cultural obstacles. Poor principal leadership, lack of community knowledge and skills on the part of school personnel, and an unwelcoming school climate are factors that may hinder community from involvement in school

management. Other obstacles include too rapid decentralization of education, insufficient resources, lack of technical competence at the management and the local levels, community disengagement and poverty and illiteracy. Complexities and questions of power and conflict within communities are other things which may cause community disengagement in school management.

Furthermore the reviewed literature suggests that the process of involving community members in the management of school is a slow process and passes through different levels. That is from the lowest level (pseudo or passive involvement) where community does simply make use of service up to the level where community participates fully in decision making (genuine or active involvement). The literature also has shown that school autonomy does have negative impacts in developing countries when compared to developed countries. Thus, community schools interventions were perceived differently in different societies indicating diversity among different stakeholders. This is due to the differences in values, norms, traditions and inclinations that have been transmitted across generations. This shows that different types of environment might have different results on school performance and, therefore, require different strategies.

Both theoretical and empirical reviewed literature seemed to place more emphasis on searching answers to 'what' questions but relatively leaving unanswered the questions of 'why' and 'how' community members are involved in school management. Reviewed literatures do not show how the complex nature of the community-school relationship influences school managerial effectiveness. Successful school-community partnerships are not stand-alone projects or add-on

programmes but are well integrated with the school's overall mission and goals. More research on finding out different modalities on how communities can effectively be involved in school management for better results is required. How well school information is communicated to and from the community members, how the community is empowered and how various groups of community members are represented is the ongoing challenge.

While a single study like this one cannot provide a sound basis for community involvement in management affairs of the schools, this study (and other studies with similar findings) would suggest that there are barriers that can be removed. Removal of the barriers allows for the implementation of best practices, and the implementation of research-based best practices can increase parent and community involvement in community secondary schools. There was a need to study such practices in a Tanzania context with the view of understanding how effectively and professionally local communities can get accommodated in the planning and decision-making of the community secondary school issues. Through analysis of the communities' perceptions, representativeness and managerial activities including strategies used by leaders and education officers to empower the community, the community- school relationship is explored in this study.

### **2.15 Conceptual Framework of the Study**

Reichel and Ramey (1987) as cited in Smyth (2004) define conceptual framework as a set of broad ideas and principles taken from relevant fields of enquiry and used to structure a subsequent presentation. A conceptual framework is the researcher's own

position on the problem and gives direction to the study. It may be an adaptation of a model used in a previous study, with modifications to suit the inquiry.

This study aimed at examining school local community members' perceptions, community representativeness in school management organs and managerial school activities in which community members were involved. Furthermore it examined the strategies employed by education administrators and local leaders to empower school local community members for CSS management in Tanzania. After reviewing the related literature, the researcher has decided to undertake this study by adapting Wilson and Wilde (2003) model.

The model identifies four dimensions namely influence, communication, inclusivity and capacity. That under each of these dimensions there are benchmarks and key questions for considerations as detailed in the literature. Thus the conceptual framework for this study is rooted in the themes of involving community in a regeneration process described by Wilson and Wilde (2003). However, unlike Wilson and Wilde's (2003) model, the framework of this study, firstly, analysed the community's perceptions about their involvement and then went on to look at the dynamics of influence, inclusivity and capacity of school local community members in managing community secondary schools.

Table 2.6 summarizes the Wilson and Wilde (2003) dimensions for analysing the processes of community involvement in management of CSS by indicating the benchmarks and associated key questions.



**Table 2.6: Details of the Dimensions of Community Involvement in the Management of Schools  
Community Perceptions**

<b>Benchmarks</b>	<b>Key questions for considerations</b>
Community understanding of the rationales for their involvements builds confident and have positive attitude for their involvement in the management of secondary schools. All community members have the opportunity to get involved in performing school management functions	Is the community aware of the rationales for its involvement in management of the community secondary school affairs? What was the local community members' attitude towards their representation in management of community secondary school in their area? What were the community members' perceived challenges hindering them to adequately get involved directly or being represented in the decision- making of the school affairs in the studied area?

**Managerial Activities Involved in (Influence)**

<b>Benchmarks</b>	<b>Key questions for considerations</b>
All community members have the opportunity to get involved in performing school management functions	What decisions and managerial activities of the school in which local community members are involved? What is the range of opportunities e.g. creative/ flexible approaches, through which community members can influence decisions?

**Community Inclusivity**

<b>Benchmarks</b>	<b>Key questions for considerations</b>
The community is recognised and valued as an equal partner at all stages of the school management process .The diversity of local communities and interests are reflected at all levels of the involvement process	How community-school partnerships ensure all groups and interests in the community are represented in decision making organs e.g. in the school board and Construction committee?

**Strategies for Community Empowerment (Capacity)**

<b>Benchmarks</b>	<b>Key questions for considerations</b>
Communities are resourced to participate	What support is provided for community members and or community representatives?
Understanding, knowledge and skills are developed to enable community participate in the management of schools	What strategies are used by administrators and leaders to empower community members to participate effectively in the management of school affairs?

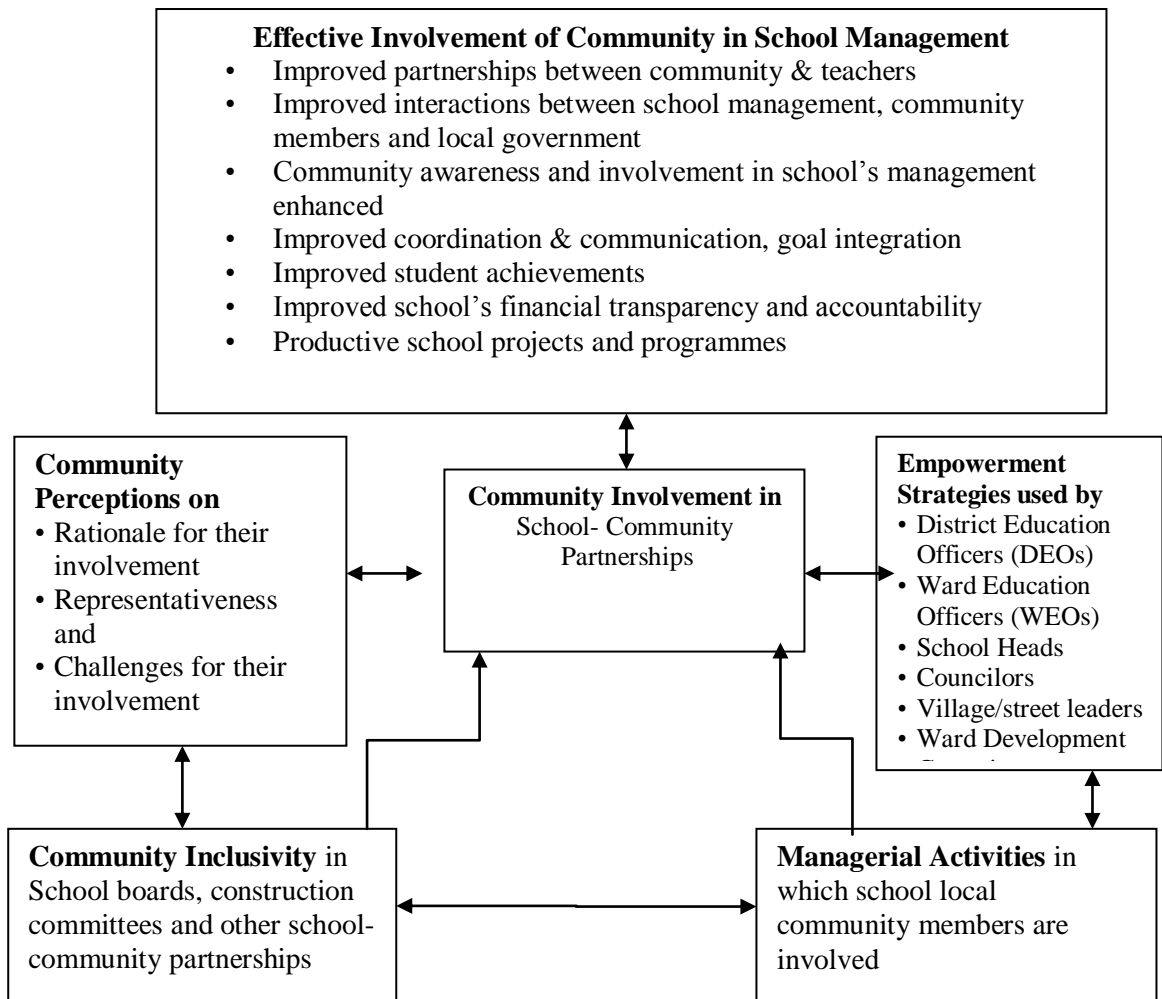
Using the research questions, for specific data the following themes were identified to provide a framework to guide the collection, organisation and presentation of the findings:

- i. Perceptions of the community members about their involvement in school management decisions;
- ii. Representativeness (inclusively) of all groups and interests of the community members in the decision making bodies of the school;
- iii. Managerial activities of the school in which local community members are involved and
- iv. Strengths and weaknesses of strategies used to empower community members for effective involvement in the management of school affairs.

In the first theme, the study explores perceptions of the community members about their involvement in school management decisions. In the second theme, inclusivity of the school local community members in the school-community partnerships is examined. The third theme is about decisions and managerial activities of the school in which local community members are involved. In the fourth theme, the study examines strengths and weaknesses of strategies used by administrators and community leaders to empower school local community members for effective involvement in the management of school affairs. Figure 2.4 below summarizes the framework of analysing the dynamics of involving school local community members in the management of community secondary schools.

The study assumes that there is a relationship between community members' understanding of rationales, representation and challenges to their effective

involvement in school management. Also effective involvement is associated with school activities done by community and strategies used by education administrators and local leaders for community empowerment. Each of these qualitative variables has an influence on each other and that community members are expected to be linked or coordinated appropriately with all key role players towards the same goal.



**Figure 2.4: Conceptual Framework of Analysing Involvement of Community in Management of Community Secondary Schools**

**Source:** Adapted from Wilson and Wilde (2003)

Effective involvement of school local community members in the management of community secondary schools is expected to bring the following results: community awareness and involvement in school's management enhanced; improved

partnerships between community and teachers; improved interactions between school management, community members and local government; improved coordination and communication including goal integration; improved student achievements; improved school's financial transparency and accountability; and productive school projects and programmes. Thus, appropriate involvement of the school local community members in the management of school affairs is expected to bring positive results. The next chapter describes the research methodology used during collection, analysis and presentation of data.

## **CHAPTER THREE**

### **RESEARCH METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.1 Introduction**

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the research methodology used during data collection, analysis and presentation. The chapter provides explanation on philosophical assumption of the study, approach and design. Details on area of study, population, sample and sampling procedures, study instruments, methods used during data collection, ethical considerations, data presentation as well as data analysis procedures are explained. Furthermore, a discussion on how ‘validity and reliability’ were achieved is presented and finally a conclusion is drawn.

#### **3.2 Philosophical Assumption**

Despite the fact that philosophical ideas remain largely hidden in research, the ideas still influence the practice of research and therefore need to be identified (Slife & Williams, 1995). Saunders, Lewis, and Thornhill (2009) maintain that the important assumptions are present in research philosophy that explains about the researcher’s view regarding the world. Research philosophy is belief about the ways in which data about a phenomenon should be collected, analysed and used. It helps to explain why a researcher chose qualitative, quantitative, or mixed methods approaches for her/his research.

Creswell (2014) identifies four worldviews or beliefs of research philosophy that are widely discussed in the literature. These are postpositivism, constructivism, transformative, and pragmatism. The major elements of each position are presented in Table 3.1.

**Table 3.1: Major Elements of the Four Worldviews Of Research Philosophy**

<b>Postpositivism</b>	<b>Constructivism</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Determination</li> <li>• Reductionism</li> <li>• Empirical observation and measurement</li> <li>• Theory verification</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>•Understanding</li> <li>• Multiple participant meanings</li> <li>• Social and historical construction</li> <li>• Theory generation</li> </ul>
<b>Transformative</b>	<b>Pragmatism</b>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Political</li> <li>• Power and justice oriented</li> <li>• Collaborative</li> <li>• Change-oriented</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Consequences of actions</li> <li>• Problem-centered</li> <li>• Pluralistic</li> <li>• Real-world practice oriented</li> </ul>

Source: Creswell (2014, p.37)

Creswell (2014) maintains that postpositivist assumptions have represented the traditional form of research, and these assumptions hold true more for quantitative research than qualitative research. This worldview is sometimes called the *scientific method*, or doing *science research*. On the other hand Becker and Niehaves (2007) observe that postpositivist view is more objective and contends that the material world has its own meaning independent of human interpretation. In contrast, constructivism holds that the meaning of the material world depends on human interpretation.

The position of constructivism or social constructivism (often combined with interpretivism) as described by Creswell (2014) is such a perspective, and it is typically seen as an approach to qualitative research. The interpretivist approach (Della Porta & Keating, 2008) combines the epistemologies of postpositivist and constructivism in that it involves the interpretation of objective data along with, and in light of, the history, experience, culture and society of human beings.

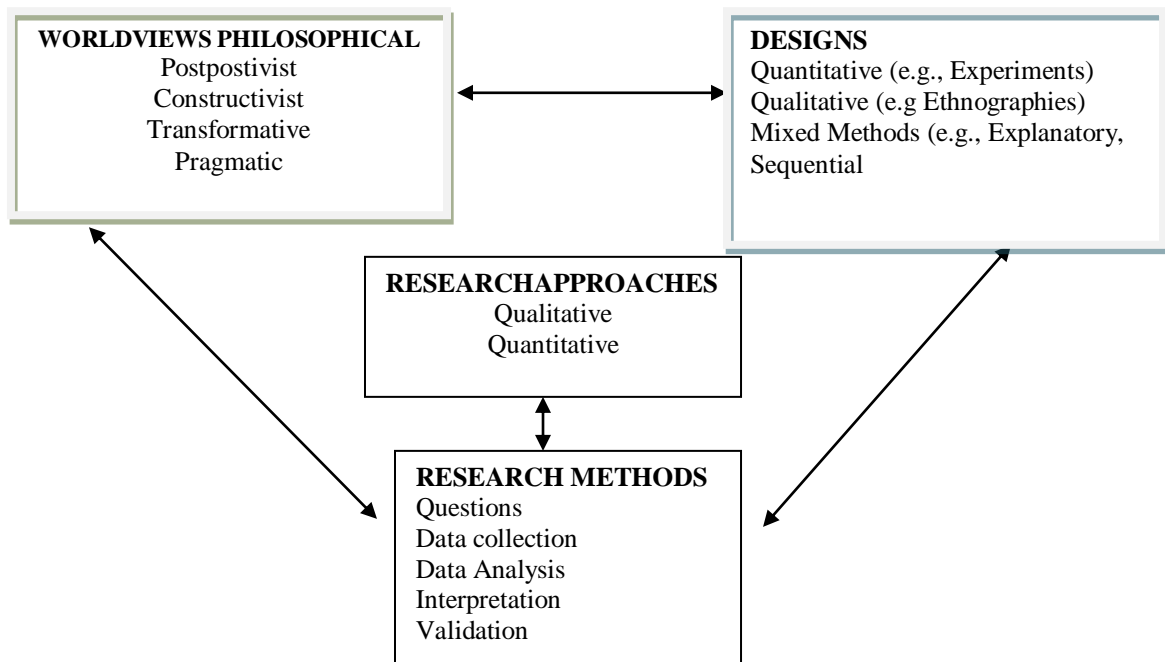
The present study aimed at investigating school local community members' perceptions and strategies used by education officers and leaders including school heads to involve community members in affairs of ward secondary schools. In order to collect rich data there was a need for the school local community people to construct their own meaning about their involvement in running the school. Therefore, in order to gain a deeper understanding of the strategies and perceptions for the community involvement in planning and decision making of the school affairs I adopted the worldview of constructivism.

### **3.3 Research Approach**

According to Bryman (2008), research approach refers to the general orientation of conducting a social research. To Creswell (2014), research approaches are plans and the procedures for research that span the decisions from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection and analysis. It involves the intersection of philosophical assumptions, designs, and specific methods. There are two broad research approaches to social science researches, namely qualitative and quantitative. Other research approaches are pragmatic (mixed methods) and advocacy/participatory (emancipatory) approaches. Newman and Benz (1998), as cited by Creswell (2014), maintain that qualitative and quantitative approaches should not be viewed as rigid, distinct categories, polar opposites, or dichotomies. Instead, they represent different ends on a continuum.

Mixed methods research resides in the middle of this continuum because it incorporates elements of both qualitative and quantitative approaches. Creswell (2014) observes that selection of a research approach is based on the philosophical

assumptions the researcher brings to the study; procedures of inquiry; and specific research methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation (figure 3.1). The selection of an approach is also based on the nature of the research problem or issue being addressed, the researchers' personal experiences, and the audiences for the study.



**Figure 3.1: A Framework for Research- The interconnection of Worldviews, Design, and Research Methods**

**Source:** Creswell (2014, p.36)

In order to gain a deeper understanding of the community members' perceptions about their involvement and the strategies used by administrators and leaders to involve school local community members in school governance, I chose to use a qualitative methodological approach. Qualitative approach was chosen because of the philosophical position of constructivism which was adopted by the researcher.



Reviewed empirical literature, nature of participants, nature of research problem and researcher's experience were other factors that contributed to the choice of this approach.

Qualitative inquiry is defined by Merriam (2002) as one which is designed to uncover the meanings people have constructed about a particular phenomenon, and in which the researcher is interested in an in-depth understanding of that phenomenon. According to Bouma and Atkinson (1995) the essence of qualitative research is to view events through the perspective of the people who are being studied; the way they think, and their view of the world etc. On the other hand Creswell (2009) maintains that qualitative research paradigm is largely an investigative process where the researcher gradually makes sense of a social phenomenon by contrasting, comparing, replicating, cataloguing and classifying the object of the study. The data that come out from a qualitative study are descriptive and are reported in words (primarily the participants' words) since the focus is on participants' perceptions and experiences and the way they make sense of their lives.

This study was in line with the above views as it was looking at community's opinions, perceptions and evidence of strategies used for their involvement in management of school affairs. This is also supported by Myers in Marion, Klaus and Geoff (2012) who posit that qualitative researchers argue that it is virtually impossible to understand why someone did something or why something happened in an organization without talking to people about it. In this study the researcher interacted with the school local community people with a view of getting opinions and perceptions about their involvement in managing community secondary schools.

Moreover, views about strategies to involve school local community members in school management were sought from local community leaders and education administrators at ward and district levels.

Furthermore, as a researcher I am drawn to qualitative inquiry as it provides a more comprehensive picture of individual lived experiences, behaviours and emotions that influence the partnerships between the school and school local communities in the management of CSS. Through the triangulated methods of observation, interview and documentary review, description of the community members' perceptions and strategies used by leaders and education officers to involve school local community members in the management of CSS are given. Everything that happened in the setting was observed continuously and the researcher did his best to record it virtually as it existed.

### **3.4 Research Design**

Research design has been defined differently by social scientists; For example, Yin (2009) defines a research design as a logical plan for getting from here to there where "here" may be defined as the initial set of questions to be answered, and "there" is some set of conclusions (answers) about these questions. Polit and Beck (2006) define a research design as a set of proposals for conducting a study with maximum control over factors that may interfere with the validity of the findings. M.D.Gall, Gall and Borg (1995) outline four major research designs. These are descriptive, analytical, historical and experimental designs. On the other hand Creswell (2013) identifies five different research designs that are commonly used in qualitative research: narrative, phenomenological, grounded theory, ethnographic,

and case study. In this study case study design has been chosen. In the next section, the details on case study design and the reason for its choice are explained

### **3.4.1 Case Study Design**

Yin (2009) defines case study design as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident. Kumar (2011) asserts that a case could be an individual, a group, a community, an instance, an episode, an event, a subgroup of a population, a town or a city. Case studies are based on an in-depth investigation of a single individual, group or event to explore the causes of underlying principles. Researchers (Borg and Gall, 1989) put emphasis on the study of the individual case because individual, class, school, culture or society is likely to have peculiar set of values, feelings and beliefs that can only be discovered through intensive study of that individual, school, class or community. Dyer (1995) reveals that the power of case study approach in cases like school community is to allow features of behaviour or experiences, which are shared by many people to be studied in detail and depth.

In this study, a case is a school local community in a ward where the school is established by the community in collaboration with the government. Since the study is about community involvement in school management, the descriptions are of the volunteering behaviour of members of the school local community in various school management activities. The researcher has decided to take the form of a *case study* due a number of reasons. Firstly, the focus of the present study was on exploring and understanding rather than confirming and quantifying. This allowed in-depth

description and explanation of the school local community involvement in the school management. Kumar (2011) maintains that case study design is of immense relevance when the focus of a study is on extensively exploring and understanding rather than confirming and quantifying. Secondly, case study design was preferred because it was appropriate to answer types of research questions of this study.

In general, case studies are a preferred method when “how” or “why” questions are being posed. This study seeks to answer the questions of why and how community members were involved in the management of community secondary schools in Tanzania. Thirdly, case study design was preferred because the researcher lacked control over the participants; Yin (2009) observes that case study design is preferred when the investigator has little control over events. Fourthly, case study was chosen because the establishment of CSS in Tanzania is a relatively recently emerged contemporary phenomenon. This reason is supported by Yin (2009) who observes that a case study method is appropriate when the focus is on contemporary phenomenon within a real life context.

In a nutshell, a case study was preferred because of the kind of research questions proposed; the contemporary nature of the phenomenon under investigation; necessity for collecting evidence in real life setting of the participants; to exploit the advantage of the availability of multiple sources of evidence that corroborate each other; the demand for in-depth understanding of issues; and the possibility of using small number of participants. To be called a case study, it is important to treat the total study population as one entity. Case study design can be a *single case*, such as, a person (e.g. a student), a principal, a programme, a specific policy, a school, a

community or organization or a *multiple case study*, such as when it involves two or more cases at the same time (Merriam, 2002).

In total ten cases, local school communities were studied independently and therefore the current study is a *multiple case study*. In this study, a multiple case study was preferred because of the following benefits. First, the conclusion drawn from several schools in local communities provide a wider picture of the country when compared with a conclusion drawn from studying a single school local community. Yin (2003) maintains that the analytical conclusion drawn from each of the research cases is more powerful than that of a single case study because the findings are likely to offer a somewhat contrasting context.

The second reason for undertaking multiple case studies is that the researcher wanted to analyse the data both within each situation and across situations. Baxter and Jack (2008) maintain that the researcher is studying multiple cases to understand the differences and the similarities between the cases. The third reason for undertaking multiple cases was to allow wider exploring of research questions and theoretical evolution as posited by Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007). These strengths enabled the researcher to draw a powerful analytical conclusion based on somehow contrasting contexts of community involvement in school management.

### **3.5 Area of the Study**

This study was conducted in two regions of the united Republic of Tanzania mainland; these are Coast and Kagera regions.

### 3.5.1 Coast

Coast region is one of the 31 regions of Tanzania, located in the middle Eastern side of the country, between latitudes 6° and 8° south of equator and longitudes 37°30' and 40° east of Greenwich. It borders Dar es Salaam region and Indian Ocean in the East, Tanga region in the North, Lindi in South and Morogoro region in the West (figure 3.2). The area of Coast region is about 3.5% of Tanzanian Mainland's total area of 947,784 square km (URT, 2015). Administratively, the region is divided into six districts, which include Bagamoyo, Kibaha, Kisarawe, Mafia (an island in Indian Ocean) Mkuranga and Rufiji; as well as seven Local Government Authorities (LGAs) namely Kibaha Town, Kibaha, Bagamoyo, Kisarawe, Mafia, Mkuranga and Rufiji (figure 3.2). According to 2012 population and housing census (NBS, 2013), Coast region had a total of 111 wards.



**Figure 3.2: Map of Coast Region**

Source: [www.tamisemi.go.tz/menu\\_data/Programmes/SEDP/SEDP.pdf](http://www.tamisemi.go.tz/menu_data/Programmes/SEDP/SEDP.pdf)

### **3.5.2 Kagera**

Kagera is also one of the 31 regions of Tanzania located in the north -western part of the Mainland Tanzania. In terms of longitude, Kagera lies between 30° 25' and 32°40' east of Greenwich. It has a common border with Uganda to the north, Rwanda and Burundi to the west, Geita and Kigoma regions to the south. The region includes a large portion of Lake Victoria, the second largest lake in the World. The region's large water area of Lake Victoria provides the border to the east with Mwanza, Geita and Mara regions. The area of Kagera region is about 4.3% of Tanzanian Mainland's total area of 947,784 square km (URT, 2015). The region had seven district councils namely Karagwe, Bukoba, Muleba, Biharamulo, Ngara, Missenyi and Kyerwa including the Municipal council of Bukoba (figure 3.3). According to 2012 population and housing census (NBS, 2013), Kagera region had a total of 181 wards.

The justification for conducting a study in the regions of Coast and Kagera was motivated by a number of reasons. First like other regions of the country, there was enough number of ward secondary schools in both regions. In 2013 Tanzania mainland had a total number of 4576 secondary schools out of which 3439 (75%) were established in collaboration between communities and local government. Kagera region had 219 secondary schools out of which 172 (78.5%) were ward secondary schools while Coast region had 164 secondary schools out of which 99 (60%) were ward secondary schools.

Kagera and Coast regions contributed 4.8% and 3.6% respectively of the secondary schools in the country (URT, 2014). Furthermore the two regions were selected

because of their differences in geography and history as it was observed by Ternieden (2009) that geography and history influences the level of community participation. Table 3.2 shows distribution of government (central and community) and non-government schools in Coast and Kagera regions.



**Figure 3.3: Map of Kagera**

**Source:** [www.tamisemi.go.tz/menu\\_data/Programmes/SEDP/SEDP.pdf](http://www.tamisemi.go.tz/menu_data/Programmes/SEDP/SEDP.pdf)

**Table 3.2: Distribution of Government and Non-Government Secondary schools by Ownership and Region by June 2013**

Region	Government			Non-Government			Grand Total	% of Total Countrywide
	Central	Community Collaboration with	Total	Private	Seminary	Total		
Kagera	5	172	177	38	4	42	219	4.8
Coast	6	99	105	53	6	59	164	3.6

**Source-** BEST (2014)



Thus, the two regions were selected due to the fact that they represented the situation in other regions of the country. Second, Coast and Kagera regions were preferred because of their difference in historical background of education provision and socio-cultural aspects, which suggested a difference in the way ward schools were established and managed. They were deliberately selected because they had different theoretical and socio-cultural conditions, which offer contrasting results in terms of involvement of school local community members in the management of CSS. However, there were similarities as well which helped to explore community members' involvement in the management of CSS in the regions. They were furthermore assumed to represent manageable coverage within the context of time and material resources. During the study, the researcher noted that in both regions the local school community members had done some effort to establish community secondary schools in each ward.

### **3.6 Study Population**

The general population of this study comprised of 292 school local communities, all DEOs (13) and WEOs (292), school heads (292) of the community secondary schools, councillors (292) and all village/street leaders including school local community members of the two regions. The general population is characteristically crude in the sense that it often contains participants whose inclusion in the study would violate the research goal, assumptions, and/or context (Asiamah, Mensah & Oteng-Abayie, 2017).

Refinement of the general population is necessary in many instances, the part of the general population left after its refinement is termed target population. Burns and

Grove (1997) define target population as “the entire aggregation of participants that meet the designated set of criteria” According to Asiamah et al. (2017), the target population is more refined as compared to the general population on the basis of containing no attribute that controverts a research assumption, context or goal. After specifying the general population, a researcher is required to think of the selection criteria for determining each of the target and accessible populations. Bartlett and co authors (2001) in Asiamah et al. (2017), maintain that *accessible population* is reached after taking out all individuals of the target population who will or may not participate or who cannot be accessed at the study period. It is the final group of participants from which data is collected by surveying either all its members or a sample drawn from it.

### **3.7 Sample Size and Sampling Procedures**

Patton (2002) maintains that sampling is the process of obtaining information about the entire population by examining only part of it. A sample is therefore a small part of anything, intended as representative of the whole.

#### **3.7.1 Sample Size**

Sample size of a study most typically refers to the number of units that were chosen from which data were gathered. Charles and Mertler (2002) consider three factors when selecting a sample size. These include the availability of the population, methods of sampling to be used and financial resources. Mertens (1998) maintains that another factor to be considered as equally important is time available for the study. On the other hand, Mason (2010) stresses that the principle determinant for sample size in qualitative research is to reach saturation of data.

This study employed a qualitative research approach which implies that a small sample is enough for gathering rich information. During a proposal stage, it was planned to use a sample of four schools' local communities. The assumption that four school local communities could supply the researcher with enough information proved wrong. And therefore the number of school communities had to be increased so as to collect richer information. Thus in order to reach saturation of data as suggested by Mason (2010), it was necessary extending the sample to 10 schools' local communities.

### **3.7.2 Sampling Procedures**

Purposeful sampling, a non-probability sampling technique was used to select case school local communities. According to Patton (2002), purposive sampling in qualitative research is a technique for identifying and selecting information rich cases in order to make the most effective use of limited resources. Six and four school local communities from Coast and Kagera regions respectively were purposefully selected. By the help of education administrators at regional and district levels, the researcher selected ten school local communities on the basis of perceived performance (better or poor) in terms of community members' involvement in school affairs. Besides, they were selected on the basis of their different features in view of representing the various types of community secondary schools in Tanzania. They also represented urban/semi urban and rural school local communities and they were accessible during the entire period of data collection.

**Preliminary Study and Selection of Case School Local Communities:** An approval to carry out research in community secondary school was sought from the

regional commissioners' offices of Coast and Kagera regions. Region education officers of the two regions were consulted and asked to assist the researcher in identifying school local communities perceived as performing better and poor in terms of their involvement in school affairs. Thereafter, one school local community in each region was visited as a pre-case school local community. These pilot school local communities were used to set up areas for closer observation and to identify documents, which were applicable to this study. Also the pilot assisted in refining basic interview questions and getting a list of documents to be probed in detail.

**Participants of the Study:** There were three groups of participants in this study: The first group of participants was administrators which included district and ward education officers, and school heads; these were purposefully selected, that is, a sample that has the characteristics relevant to the research question(s). School board members were also included in this group of administrators because they were involved in the leadership and administration of the secondary schools. District and ward education officers were the overalls in charge of education matters in the district and ward respectively and they were government representatives.

Therefore, they had adequate information on how school local communities ought to be involved in the management of CSS within their area of jurisdiction. School heads were the ones who could explain how community members were involved in the management of schools because they are the ones who were in control of the schools. School board members were purposefully selected because they oversee all aspects of the school, including promotion of better education and accountability systems and approve the expenditure and budgets.

Palinkas, Horwitz, Green, Wisdom, Duan and Hoagwood (2013) observe that there are strategies that can be used for purposeful data sampling in qualitative research. These strategies may involve theoretical sampling; criterion based sampling, maximum variation sampling, snowball sampling and sampling contrasting cases. Patton (2001) asserts that criterion sampling involves selecting, reviewing and studying “all cases that meet some predetermined criterion of importance” (p.238), previously set by the researcher. Criterion-sampling technique was employed in selecting education administrators at district, ward and school levels including school board members because of the administrative and leadership roles this group of participants had to schools. An experience in leadership position for this group of participants was another criterion that was taken into consideration.

The second group of participants included councillors and village/street leaders; these were also criterion-based selected because of their influence and leadership roles they had to school local communities. Only those with an experience and who were leaders during the establishment of the community secondary schools in their area were selected. In that matter, an experience of leadership when a community secondary school was established in her/his area was set to be the criterion for their selection. An individual with a long service in leadership position was preferred since he/she was expected to be well informed about school local community members' involvement in school affairs since when the school was established.

Community members on their generality constituted the third group of participants. It included general school local community members and students who were studying in community secondary schools. These were selected based on experience,

commitments and knowledge about their involvement in planning, decision-making and monitoring of community secondary school affairs. Snowballing sampling technique was used to enhance sample selection of the participants in third group. Having identified the initial participants I was referred to other participants that met the criteria of the research under study. The details of the nature and types of participants are given under each data collection method. Table 3.3 gives the summary of members who participated in the study.

**Table 3.3: Research Participants**

Region	District Educ. Officers	Name of School Local Community (Ward)	Ward Education officer	Name of Community secondary School	Secondary Schools Heads	School Board Member	Councillor	Village/ Street Leaders	General Community members (interview)	General Community members (Focused Group Discussion)
Coast	3	W1	-	S1	1	1	1	1	2	6
		W2	-	S2	1	1		-	1	-
		W3	1	S3	1	1	1	1	2	5
		W4	1	S4	1	-		1	2	6
		W5	1	S5	1	1	1	2	2	5
		W6	-	S6	1	-	1	1	1	-
Kagera	2	W7	1	S7	1	-	1	1	2	6
		W8	1	S8	1	1	-	2	2	5
		W9	1	S9	1	1	-	2	2	7
		W10	1	S10	1	1	1	1	2	6
	5		7		10	7	6	12	18	46
<b>Sub-total</b>				<b>29</b>			<b>18</b>		<b>64</b>	
<b>Grand Total</b>							<b>111</b>			

Source: Field data (2017)

### 3.8 Data Collection Methods

The study utilized both primary and secondary sources of information and data. Secondary data were used in the analysis of the origin and evolution of community schools. And also was used to review the legal framework, the administrative and

supervision procedures of these schools; and to analyse factors that will influence their future transformation, in view of enhancing the provision of secondary education in Tanzania. Collecting primary verbal data through intensive case studies developed knowledge.

**Primary Data:** Primary data, based on interviews of key stakeholders such as school heads, community members, village leaders, school board members, ward and district education officers were used to describe the present status of community involvement in the management process of community secondary schools. Primary data were also used in the analysis of the processes and strategies used in the establishment and sustainable development of community secondary schools in the country. This case study employed semi-structured interviews and focused group discussion as its prime data collection methods. This study also employed field observation and documentary as secondary triangulation methods. Some minutes written during village meetings and other documents from the various offices were contacted. Field observation included physical things like school buildings and location of the school in which community members were involved in planning and implementation of those plans.

Therefore, data collection methods in this study were semi structured interviews, focused group discussion (FGD), observations and documentary reviews. The researcher was able to gather rich data through triangulation of these methods. Jick (1979) observes that triangulation provides researchers with several important opportunities. First it allows researchers to be more confident of their results. This is the overall strength of the multi-method design. Triangulation can play many other

constructive roles as well. It can stimulate the creation of inventive methods, new ways of capturing a problem to balance with conventional data-collection methods. Multiple viewpoints allow for greater accuracy. In short, "within-method" Triangulation essentially involves crosschecking for internal consistency or reliability while "between-method" triangulation tests the degree of external validity.

### **3.8.1 Interview**

According to Bryman (2008), qualitative interview refers to a process in which “the interviewer has a series of mostly general questions that are in the general form of an interview guide but in which the interviewer is able to vary the sequence as well as ask further questions in response to what are seen as significant replies”. The method can be used through personal interviews and, if possible, through telephone interviews. Interview is one of the most important sources of case study information and throughout the interview process, the researcher has two jobs: a) to follow own line of inquiry, as reflected by his/her case study protocol, and b) to ask his/her actual (conversational) questions in an unbiased manner and also serves the needs of his/her line of inquiry (Yin, 2009).

The purpose of the research interview is to explore the views, experiences, beliefs and/or motivations of individuals on specific matters. Through interviews the researcher was able to build rapport with the interviewees hence gain some understanding of the lives of the research participants. Interviews were used in this study because little was already known about the study and therefore detailed insights were required from individual participants. The researcher conducted interviews with key informants who could provide extensive and detailed



information about the manner in which school local community members were involved in school management.

First group of interviewees comprised district and ward education officers, and school heads. They were interviewed to explore how school local community members were involved in management of secondary schools from their own perspective. The primary questions for district and ward education officers were about the strategies and processes used to involve school local community members in planning and decision making of the ward secondary school affairs. These interviews gave information to the researcher about the strategies in place and the kinds of activities in which community members were involved in from their own perspectives; this assisted to know the limitations by which school local community members could be involved. Also it helped to identify other educational stakeholders; then the researcher sought interviews with different stakeholders for balance and to gather a diversity of opinions.

Interviews with councillors, street/village leaders, community members and school board members were conducted afterwards. The questions in the interviews with councillors and street/village leaders were focused on their roles in getting community people involved in school affairs including nature of managerial activities in which school local community members were engaged in. Subsequently the interviews were conducted with school local community members. The questions in the interviews with school local community members were focused on their perception about reasons, representativeness, and challenges about their involvement in school management.

The researcher started every interview session by introducing the research topic and the purpose of the study. Face to face interviews were conducted individually in private locations aided by the tape recorder and participants were asked for their consent with an explanation that their responses would be anonymous and used in this study only. Each interview was semi-structured in that it follows a standard format of questions with opportunity to ask further questions for elaboration or clarification of interviewees' responses. Participants' accounts emerged from structured interviews lasting for 45 to 90 minutes.

Table 3.4 shows the number and types of participants involved in the interview. Semi-structured interviews were conducted to district education officers (5), ward education officers (7), school heads (10), councillors (6), village/street leaders (12) and school board members (7). Moreover, 18 general local community people (with information) were purposively selected and interviewed. In order to avoid biasness and other inconveniences, the researcher used interview guides (*Appendix C.1 -6*). This helped in maintaining consistency and freedom of expression by participants.

**Table 3.4: Number and Types of Interviewed Participants**

Region	District	District Educ. Officers	Ward/ Local secondary school community	Ward Education Officers	School Heads	Councillors	Village/Street Leaders	School Board Members	School Local Community Members
Coast	D1	Do1	S1	-	1	1	1	1	2
			S2	-	1	-	-	1	1
	D2	Do2	S3	1	1	1	1	1	2
			S4	1	1	-	1	-	2
	D3	Do3	S5	1	1	1	2	1	2
			S6	-	1	1	1	-	1
Kagera	D4	Do4	S7	1	1	1	1	-	2
			S8	1	1	-	2	1	2
	D5	Do5	S9	1	1	-	2	1	2
			S10	1	1	1	1	1	2
	<b>Sub Total</b>		<b>5</b>		<b>7</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>7</b>

**Source:** Field data (2017)

### **3.8.2 Focus Group Discussion**

Denscombe (2007) describes focus group discussion (FGD) as a small group of people, usually between six and nine in number, who are brought together by a trained moderator (the researcher) to explore attitudes and perceptions, feelings and ideas about a topic. A focus group discussion provides a setting for the relatively homogeneous group to reflect on the questions asked by the interviewer. In this study, focus group discussion method was chosen because of its advantages. Gorman and Clayton (2005) identify several strengths of the focus group discussion interviews. Rich qualitative data can be collected with reasonable speed since focus group sessions require only moderate time commitment from both participants and moderator.

Depending on the number of questions and the complexity of the issues, between two to three hours are sufficient for most discussions. They enable researcher to take into account not only what is said but also gestures, facial expressions and other forms of non-verbal communication. Focus groups can allow a researcher to explore the unanticipated aspects of the problem under study. The importance of a focus group discussion according to Flick and Steinke (2004) is that it is capable of generating rich and insightful data through interaction.

Despite its advantages, there are a number of limitations associated with the focus group interview. Gibbs (1997) in Gorman and Clayton (2005) proclaims that it is considerably difficult to get the people together on time for the group session. A few vocal participants may dominate other members in the course of group discussion.

Because of the nature of group conversation, some participants may conform to the responses of other participants, even though they may not agree. Sometimes it is very difficult for the researcher to find out the group with the required characteristics.

Before organizing the actual FGDs the researcher went through various literatures and consultations with experienced researchers in order to gain knowledge and skills in managing the group interactions. Moreover, the researcher conducted a pilot Focus Group Discussion so as to eyewitness the limitations and find ways to overcome them. In this study FGDs enabled the researcher to do extensive probing and raise follow-up questions. Other advantage of FGD in this study was that group dynamics resulted into disagreements which alerted the researcher to hidden complexities which otherwise could not be revealed by individual interviewees.

With the help of village/street leaders 10 to 12 school local community members were criterion-based selected. Selection of the participants was based on the ability to speak Swahili and spirit to volunteer for school activities (good and poor participation) including experience of not less than 10 years of stay in that particular community. Despite the fact that the researcher planned to conduct focus group sessions in all sampled 10 communities it was only possible to organise 8 groups with 5-7 school local community members due to the difficulty in getting the people together on time for the group session.. Thus, out of the 60 participants who were selected, contacted and consented to participate only 46 turned up for the sessions. In each group, the discussion was conducted for a period not exceeding two hours.

Table 3.5 indicates the number of participants who participated in FGD sessions. FGD addressed all the four themes of the research. Thus, it addressed school local community members' perceptions, representativeness, school managerial activities in which they were involved including the strategies used to empower them for their involvement in school management. The data gathered from the focused groups' discussions were summarized presented and analysed.

Anderson (1990) observes that there are two major types of reporting focus group data: First, conducting analysis and reporting summary of the main ideas; second, giving the subject's words verbatim. Which approach is to be used depends on the researcher's purpose and intended readers. Anderson prefers combining narrative summaries with actual quotes that explain the participant's opinions in his or her own words. This study adopted Anderson's (1990) approach in presenting FGD responses. Thus, a combination of narrative summaries and subject's words verbatim was used in presenting the data.

**Table 3.5: Research Participants for Focussed Group Discussions (FGD)**

Region	District	District Education Officers	Ward (School local Community)	Ward (Community Secondary School)	School Local Community Members
Coast	D1	1	W1	S1	6
			W2	S2	-
	D2	1	W3	S3	5
			W4	S4	6
	D3	1	W5	S5	5
			W6	S6	-
Kagera	D4	1	W7	S7	6
			W8	S8	5
	D5	1	W9	S9	7
			W10	S10	6
	<b>Sub Total</b>	<b>5</b>			<b>46</b>

**Source:** Field data (2017)

### 3.8.3 Documentary Reviews

Documentary research involves the use of texts and documents as source materials. These include government publications, newspapers, certificates, census publications, novels, film and video, paintings, personal photographs, diaries and innumerable other written, visual and pictorial sources in paper, electronic, or other 'hard copy' form (Scott, 2006). Yin (2009) adds that documents can be in the form of letters, memoranda, e-mail correspondence, and other personal documents such as diaries, calendars, and notes. Other forms of document are agendas, announcements and minutes of meetings, and other written reports of events. Yin (2009) asserts that:

*For case studies, the most important use of documents is to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources. First, documents are helpful in verifying the correct spellings and titles or names of organizations that might have been mentioned in an interview. Second, documents can provide other specific details to corroborate information from other sources. If the documentary evidence is contradictory rather than corroboratory, you need to pursue the problem by inquiring further into the topic. Third, you can make inferences from documents—for example, by observing the distribution list for a specific document; you may find new questions about communications and networking within an organization. However, you should treat inferences only as clues worthy of further investigation rather than as definitive findings because the inferences could later turn out to be false leads (p.103).*

McEwan and McEwan (2003) observe that documentary review can fill in some missing data pieces or can raise a host of new questions regarding the accuracy of observations and interpretations.

In this study the documents were collected from schools, ward and district education offices and village government offices. The documents that were looked for in this study were school reports, village/street and ward meeting minutes and school board meeting minutes. Documents needed were those connected with contributions and

activities assigned to school local members from the time of establishment of the school until the date of data collection. The method of documentary review guided the researcher in restructuring the questions and provided other specific details to corroborate information from other sources. Documentary review addressed the questions of; “what guidelines are there to ensure various groups and interests of the school local community members are involved in decision making process of the school affairs? How are different groups and interests of the community members represented in the decision making bodies of the school e.g. in the school board and construction committee? Other questions were; in what decisions and managerial activities are local community members involved?

#### **3.8.4 Participant Observation**

Direct field observation was another data collection instrument in this study. Kumar (2011) asserts that participant observation is another strategy for gathering information about a social interaction or a phenomenon in qualitative studies. Participant observation is usually done by developing a close interaction with members of a group or ‘living’ in the situation which is being studied. On the other hand, Yin (2003) reveals that field observation involves making a field visit of a study site, observing whether the phenomenon of interest is actually there. It is argued that there are limits to the situations that can be observed in their 'natural' settings and that the presence of the researcher may lead to problems with validity.

Despite its limitations field observation served as a technique for verifying or nullifying information provided in face-to-face encounters. The importance of using observation method during data collection is that it gave an opportunity to gather live

data in natural setting. Besides, observation method complements other previously discussed methods and therefore enhanced the richness of the information collected. Participant observations were conducted in and around schools as part of interview conducted with education officers, headmasters, councillors, local leaders, and school local community members including focused discussion groups (FGDs) to see tangible things. Observations of eight community-built schools were made during the fieldwork. Thus, the general school plant, location, classrooms and laboratories were checked. Field notes and photographs where appropriate were taken and used to complement data from other sources.

### **3.9 Validations and Reliability of Instruments**

Survey instruments (interviews, FGD guide, documentary reviews and observation) were developed by the researcher and tested in two school local communities. It is assumed that the two school local communities have similar characteristics with the sampled wards and schools. Before conducting a study, the researcher tried out the research instrument at Kisarawe district in Coast region. A pilot study was conducted to test the research instruments' reliability from district to community level. Two school local communities with similar characteristics of each category of the research sample were interviewed. Following the pilot study, ambiguous questions were rephrased or discarded to give greater clarity and time for interviewing each subject and conducting Focussed Group discussions (FGD) was approximated.

In observing the principles of pilot study in research, Kisarawe district was not part of the sampled districts for this study. Reliability and validity were ensured through triangulation of methods and instruments. According to Krathwohl (1993),



triangulation is the process of using more than one source to confirm information and data from different sources and methods of data collections, and confirm observations from different observers. Borg and Gall (1989) stress that triangulation has the advantage of giving the study higher validity, accuracy and reliability. In this study triangulation was effected through use of a combination of interviews, FGDs, documentary reviews and field observations.

The interviewer had the opportunity to observe the participant and the total environment while he/she was responding. While conducting interviews and focus group discussions, some participants were giving answers with influence of political parties and other orientations thinking that it is what the interviewer wanted to hear. The researcher attempted to control for this bias by firstly assuring participants that he did not belong to any of the political parties, as there were some cryptogram of political parties' influences. Secondly, the researcher requested the participants to give sincere and straightforward answers, and that only genuine answers are required to assist in advising the government to make improvement in management of community secondary schools in the country. Finally the interviewer assured participants that the information given was confidential and that they will be reported anonymously.

### **3.10 Data Analysis Procedure**

Data analysis is a systematic procedure for identifying the categories and relationships evident in the description. Polit and Hungler (1995) maintain that data analysis is the systematic organisation and synthesis of the research data and the testing of research hypotheses, using those data. It also entails "categorizing,

ordering, manipulating and summarizing the data and describing them in meaningful terms” (Brink, 1996:178). Gathering, analysing and interpreting data are intertwined processes in qualitative study. The analysis for this study was guided by the research questions and the related concepts in the literature.

Rossmann and Rallis (2003) call ‘analyst constructed’ categories identified through experience and the related literature, as a preliminary guide for data analysis. Information derived from interviews with districts and wards education officers, school heads, school board members, councillors, village/street leaders as well as school local community members were subjected to content review. Content review is a procedure for the categorisation of verbal or behavioural data, for purposes of classification, summarisation and tabulation. Mayring (2000) contends that the object of (qualitative) content review is all sort of recorded communication (transcripts of interviews, discourses, protocols of observations, video tapes and documents). Thus, even the information, which was derived from FGDs, documentary reviews and observation, were subjected to content review.

Strauss and Corbin (1998) in Stein (2009) maintain that in qualitative research we compare incident-to-incident looking for similarities and differences, and we use theoretical comparisons to help us think about the properties and dimensions of categories we identify in the data. It is important for the researcher to continually identify data to follow up on and, “The analyst should keep a list of emergent codes available for references. To make elaboration on what it means by the term “codes”, Coffey and Atkinson (1996) assert that codes represent the decisive link between the original ‘raw data’, that is, the textual material, such as interview transcripts or field

notes, on the one hand and the researcher's theoretical concepts on the other". Although we do not think of qualitative analysis as numbers or counting, we are looking for themes or patterns that occurs a number of times or in specific ways.

Best and Kahn (2006) identify three basic steps that are involved when analysing qualitative data. These steps are, grouping answers together across participants; stating pertinent aspect of the data; and explaining findings by attaching significance to particular ideas or results and putting patterns of framework in order to answer the research questions. On the other hand Mayring (1983) and Flick (2006) in Marion, Klaus, and Geoff (2012) distinguish three steps in the analysis process. These are summarizing content analysis, explicating content analysis and structuring content analysis.

The researcher was aware of the software packages in the market when analysing qualitative data but did not make use of them because the size of the data was small to be handled manually. Moreover, the researcher was aware of the limitations of the use of computer software in the analysis of qualitative data. For example Wietzman and Miles (1995) in Babyegeya (2000) reiterate that computer software may limit the researcher in immersing himself in the data to gain the deep meanings embedded.

The stage of data analysis began right away when the data were collected and therefore data analysis was not separated from data recording and management. This strategy provided an opportunity to categorize and relate one category with the other. The study made use of Turner's (1984) procedure of analysing qualitative data in which transcripts are read several times to get familiar with the content and to give

meanings to the concepts used. Manual analysis of data was possible because of the reasonable size of the sample.

According to Flick, Von Kardorff, and Steinke (2004) data analysis and interpretation begin with a through repeated reading of and listening to research data. This entails studying inter scripts, observation notes or documents and interviewed tapes, and then compiling notes of what can be seen and heard to develop tentative ideas about categories and relationships. Data collected from various categories of participants were coded, summarized and analysed using formulated framework of analysis (see appendix D). Data were gathered through in-depth interviews, which were conducted using a common interview schedule for all participants. All the interviews were recorded, transcribed and coded and responses were grouped according to the questions asked and the responses were reported verbatim.

Data gathered through FGDs, documentary reviews and observations were also recorded, transcribed, coded and reported as summaries and or in verbatim. Before the research findings are presented, it must be pointed out that it was not the purpose of this research to generalize the findings, but to provide an in-depth view of the processes used by role players in involving school local community in school management. The data for each of the school local communities were initially considered separately, followed by the summary of the findings.

### **3.11 Ethical and Legal Consideration**

The study was conducted with care and all necessary precautionary measures to minimise risk and ensure the wellbeing of participants were taken. Benefits and

associated risks including any discomfort that may arise due to interviews and the presence of the researcher were explained. Ethical considerations were genuinely taken from the commencement of fieldwork. The cover letter from the Open University of Tanzania was sought then presented to the Coast and Kagera regional administrative offices for permission at district, ward, village, and school level.

At all levels of the fieldwork, participants were asked to participate in the interview and focus group discussions for which they could agree or disagree to participate. During the conduct of the research, informed consent was obtained orally. Then, the researcher explained what the research is about, the research objectives and what were expected from their participation. Besides, informants were assured of the confidentiality of their ideas and documents and anonymity of participants when analysing the data and report the result.

In order to be able maintain confidentiality of the participants and institutions where the data were collected from, names of participants and places involved in this study are not used in this report. The words 'respondent', 'informant' and 'participant' are used instead of real names. Subsequently, the interviews and focused group discussions were conducted and recorded with a tape recorder including notes taking. Next find chapter four in which analysis, interpretation, presentation and discussion of the findings are given.

**CHAPTER FOUR**  
**ANALYSIS, INTERPRETATION, PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF**  
**THE FINDINGS**

**4.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents findings of the study. The chapter is organised according to the themes derived from the four research objectives that were developed in chapter one. It consists of data presentation and discussion of study findings. It should be recalled that this study investigated community members' perceptions and strategies used by leaders, education officers and school heads to involve communities in management of community secondary schools in their areas. Four main research questions that were derived from the four research objectives lead the investigation, research questions for this study were:

- i. What are community members' perceptions about their involvement in school management decisions?
- ii. How are different groups and interests of the community members represented in the decision making bodies of the school e.g. in the school board and construction committee?
- iii. In what decisions and managerial activities of the school are local community members involved?
- iv. What are the strengths and weaknesses of strategies used to empower community members for effective involvement in the management of school affairs?
- v. In this chapter therefore, the findings from the study are presented and discussed according to the themes derived from the four research objectives.

Thus the presentation is based on the research objectives and their subsequent questions advanced in chapter one. Consistent to the research objectives and research questions, data were collected and organised under themes.

Presentation of findings is predominantly based on school local communities. The presentation provides views and observations from the school local communities, education officers at district and ward levels; school heads, school board members, village/street leaders and councillors. Data presentation was selective as it was not possible to present all stories that were collected through interviews and focussed group discussion. Stake (1995) in Denscombe (1998) maintains that, although many researchers would like to tell the whole stuffs, choice is an inevitable option. Depending on the objectives and subsequent research questions the researcher had to make decision on what and how much to tell others. Next, find data presentation and discussion of objective one.

#### **4.2 Perceptions of the Community Members about Their Involvement In School Management Matters**

Objective One assessed the perceptions of the community members about their involvement in decision making in school management matters. Under this objective the main research question inquired was: what are community members' perceptions about their involvement in school management decisions? In order to be able to address this main research question, three sub research questions were formulated. These were:

- a) What are the perceived reasons by the school local community members for them to get involved in school management decisions?

- b) Is there anybody who is representing school local community members in the decision-making organs of the school? If yes, who is that and in what ways are the representatives accessible to school local community members?
- c) What are the community members' perceived challenges hindering them from adequately getting involved directly or being represented in the decision making of the school affairs in the studied area?

Thus, presentation and discussion of the findings under the theme of perceptions of community members about their involvement in performing schools' management functions were centred on three research sub themes namely:

- i. Rationale for their involvement in decision making of the community secondary school affairs
- ii. Perceptions of the school local community members about their representation in the decision making organs of the school
- iii. Community members' perceived challenges that hindered them from getting involved in the management of the community secondary school

#### **4.2.1 Community Perceptions on the Rationale for their Involvement**

The first sub research question asked under this sub theme was “what reasons are given by the local community members for their involvement in school management decision?” The researcher felt that an investigation on perception of the school local communities about rationale for their involvement in schools' management decisions was a good starting point for uncovering peoples' willingness to participate in school management affairs. Common understanding by the community members was considered to be one of the basic factors towards successful involvement in the



management of schools. In order to understand a problem in the process one needs to know the root cause. Sarkar, Mukhopadhyay and Ghosh (2013) noted that the root causes of problems are normally processes or input factors that define the reason for a problem.

Findings have revealed that local community members perceived that there were good reasons for them to get involved in the management of school affairs. School local community members who participated in the FGDs and interviews saw the importance of being involved in school management and went further to give reasons for their involvement. Reasons for their involvement included: Monitoring of their material and money contributions, proper implementation of the school plans, forestalling of complaints about the school management, students' discipline and academic improvement and more importantly to have a say on a school which is claimed to be theirs. They added that failure to rationally involve them in decision-making about school affairs was considered as a source of corruption, theft and all forms of undesirable behaviours done by students, teachers and leaders.

One school local community member, who also represented views of others, had an inquiring mind to the extent of asking the following questions:

*“...Why don't they invite us to discuss and reach consensus about plans which will later involve our labour and money contributions? Why do they speak and plan on our behalf instead of getting views and plans directly from us who are the implementers?” (W8).*

This assertion indicates that school local community members felt that they should in one way or another be involved in planning activities where their labour, material and money contributions are required since they are part and parcel when implement

those plans. With regard to students' discipline improvement, coordination and monitoring of material and labour contributions, one member who also represented others' opinions had the following to say:

*".....Students' discipline can be improved if the ideas of the local people are sufficiently welcomed and worked on. ...usually our ideas are not accepted and forwarded to the school management. I think it would have been better for leaders and school management to make decisions by themselves if our energy and money are not required. But it is funny to compel us pay money and implement plans of which we were originally not consulted" (W9).*

Findings reveal that community members were unsatisfactorily involved in the process of decision-making. Study results suggest that ideas and opinions about students' discipline improvement that were raised during village meetings were either not forwarded or forwarded but not worked on by the school management. Thus, there is communication gap and lack of proper coordination between school local community members and school management. Moreover, study results suggest that so long as their contributions of money and labour were needed then it is important for them to be involved in planning and decision-making of the school affairs. As this motivate them and keep the spirit of volunteering to assist school.

Following are research results obtained through FGDs which supported information which were collected through interviews. They gave more clarifications on the perceived reasons by the school local communities about their involvement in school management decisions:

*"....there are good reasons for involving us because we will know what, why, when and how to provide assistance to our community secondary school. As most of the time the plans that are brought to us by our leaders for implementation are not realistic. For example, of recent we were told to simultaneously complete the construction of the three laboratory buildings in a short period of time.....had it been we were involved*

*from the beginning no one could accept this poor plan. Given the meagre resource we have we could have decided to concentrate on only one building at a time and complete it for student use. But we have been forced to simultaneously build three laboratory rooms of which until now are yet to be completed. As a result of these poor plans, our children are at a very big loss with regard to science subjects. I think the school is ours and we are shareholders, being shareholders we are the right people to discuss school plans and how to implement them” (W10).*

The above statement indicates that school local community members are of the opinion that they are unsatisfactorily involved in school management decisions, particularly decisions relating to their materials, money and labour contributions. School decisions pertaining to activities, which are intended to be implemented by school local communities, are brought from the top. However, it was also noted that school local community members had sound reasons for their involvement in the decisions of school affairs. Findings suggest that the impetus for the local school members to demand for involvement in school management decisions was mainly attached to monitoring and evaluation of their labour, money and material contributions to school. For relevant plans and effective implementation of decisions in which their labour and material contributions are needed they wanted to be part of the planning and decisions making process right away from the beginning. It was also found out that school community members perceived that they should have a say (influence) on a school which was established by themselves.

Moreover, there was a perception that involvement of community members would improve financial transparency and accountability. Furthermore failure to adequately involve school local community was pointed to be a source of corruption and theft of school properties. One school local participant who also seems to represent others' views had the following to say:

*“...the issue of involving us in development projects such as schools is not something to question. It is our right and therefore we should demand for it, the problem is that most people in this area are cowards and do not know their rights this is why they do not fight for them. Some school administrators do take this advantage to make all of us fools. There is mismanagement of the money and material things we contribute and therefore leaders and school heads would like us to stay blind about school’s revenues and expenditure. They want to involve a small group of ignorant people whom it is easier to bribe with a kilogram of sugar” (W 9).*

This statement furthermore confirmed that school local community members associated their material contributions as a major factor for their involvement in school management. The following is the observation by one school local community member who seemed to represent the views of other participants:

*“...the school has been built on our land, children who join the school are ours and we stay with them at our homes. Teachers are our tenants, and we meet them in streets every now and then. We are the ones who cleared the land, collected and crushed stones and made bricks for construction of the school buildings. Moreover, we were also required to contribute some money so as to meet costs like purchasing of materials such as timber, window glasses, nails, iron bars and paying some local technicians. One day we were told by the district commissioner that the school is ours and therefore it is for our own benefits and our generations; if this is true why not the government involve us in running these secondary schools in the same manner as we do for primary schools? ... I don’t mean that all of us should be directly involved, but at least some people whom we trust should be among the top decision makers” (W 10).*

Above observation suggest that the issue of school ownership was not clear to community members right away from the time when the school was established. They only knew it was theirs after being told by the district commissioner. And therefore they were not aware of any clear guidelines or strategies for their involvement in school management when these schools were established. Furthermore the modality for their involvement in management of primary schools seems to be favoured over that of secondary school and therefore the modality for their involvement in management of primary school was suggested to be adapted.

Despite of the above observations yet there was some inconsistency among participants from some other communities. For example when asked about whether there were reasons for involving school local community members in decision-making of the school affairs, one participants who, in my view seem to represent the views of some other members in that particular community, had the following to say:

*“.....I think there are no reasons to involve local people in the management of secondary schools because they are not trained to manage schools. I think there are some educated people who are representing us in the school, have they failed to represent us? After all when required to volunteer labour or pay money most people refused, the school you saw yesterday was built by the district council. Why involve such people in school management?” (W 5)*

Despite the fact that this statement seems to contradict with the previous responses, ideally it confirms observations given by the previous participants. That monitoring of their contributions of materials, money and labour made school local community members to feel the necessity for them to be involved in school management of ward secondary schools.

However, further investigation during focused group sessions revealed that poverty was another factor, which was felt to be an obstacle that stopped school local community members from getting involved in school management affairs. But when asked about their contributions in terms of labour they declined by saying that it is up to the local government. This state of affairs suggests that apart from poverty, there could be other influencing factors that stopped them from getting involved in school management decisions. Moreover, it is also revealed that the understanding of school local community members about their involvement in school management decisions is reduced to material contributions.

Though misconceived, school local community members were in consensus that there were reasons for them to get involved in decision-making process of the community secondary school affairs. Major reasons given by the community members for their involvement included setting up realistic and relevant school plans according to their situations and monitoring and evaluation of their material and money contributions. It was also perceived that community members were partially involved and this could be one of the source of corruption, theft and students' indiscipline in schools. By pointing out material and labour contributions as major reasons for them to be involved in school management decisions furthermore suggest feeble involvement of school local community members in school management decisions. It also suggests a kind of distrust by the school local community members over the school management.

Community understanding of rationale for their involvement was expected to be a catalyst for willing participation in school management activities. Shaeffer (1994) suggests that full involvement and commitment of the community in school programmes only comes with willing action based on understanding. Research results from this study are in many ways similar with other researchers' findings for example Sharma (2008) found out that the involvement of the community in the school makes good sense for several reasons: to gain access to knowledge that parents have of their children; to make better decision; to enhance learning opportunities; and to build support for schools. On their side Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder (2002) noted that school personnel become accountable to communities when communities manage schools.

Furthermore the findings revealed that failure to involve school local community members in decision making of the school affairs was perceived as source of corruption, theft and students' indiscipline. This observation is consistent with a report by UNESCO (2014), which highlights that community presence and participation in school boards, local transparency committees, appeal mechanisms, social audits, and informal whistle blowing, are among key actions taken in the battle against corruption in education. DeStefano, Moore, Balwanz, and Hartwell (2007), UNESCO (1990) and Ishumi (1981) emphasize that a community school is a community-based learning institution, involving an active participation of the local community in their areas of operation in terms of management and organization of the school.

Moreover, findings revealed that school heads were partially taking blames of which they were innocent. The management structure of secondary schools is not set by the school heads but the ministry of education through Acts and circulars. This signifies lack of information on the part of school local communities as some assumed that school heads were stopping them from getting involved in the management of school affairs. This study has revealed that monitoring and controlling of material, labour and money contributions by the school local community members was perceived as one of the major reason for community involvement in management of community secondary schools in their areas. Understanding of the school local community members about management of schools was capitalised on control of money and material things. School local community members seemed to lack enough information about how community secondary schools in the country are

operating.

Most of the school local community people who were interviewed did not seem to care much about management of academic issues of the children and seemed to be inadequately informed about legal issues surrounding management of schools. Lareau (1987) observes that parents views educational opportunity for their children differently depending on their social class position and class culture. Those from the upper class tend to value academic issues while those from low and middle classes are much more concerned with non-academic issues such as school buses and other things of similar nature. The results suggest that there were some supportive cultural and economic interaction between schools and community though not elaborate.

The findings are in line with views of Ishumi (1981), who commented that if there is no supportive cultural and economic interaction between the school and community then the school cannot be claimed to be owned by the community. Findings revealed how the term school management was equated to money and materials contributions. Study findings also have shown that school local community members paid less attention on their involvement in enhancement of student learning in community secondary schools. There was misconception about involvement of school local community members in management of schools. Material things, labour and money contributions were taken as the impetus for community members to get involved in school management.

Despite covering the school running costs, the government of Tanzania has recently abolished school fees and decided to immensely incur the costs of construction of



community schools' buildings. This move in one hand is a blessing to school local communities but on the other hand it may weaken the bond between school local communities and the community secondary schools. Data from this study show that school local community members associated school ownership with their material and labour contributions, the feeling that may lessen their bond with the school if their material or labour contributions are lacking.

In view of the above findings it can therefore be concluded that school local communities in Tanzania did consider their involvement in school management positively, that involving them in various school activities is a necessary step towards school management success. School local community members realised the importance for them to get involved in school management affairs. However, they felt to be unsatisfactorily involved in school management decisions, their focus were on monitoring their materials, money and labour contributions. Research results for this study suggest that involvement of school local community members in management of community secondary schools in Tanzania is yet to be fully accommodated in peoples mind. It is still relatively new to local school communities and therefore a well planned strategy to intervene the processes of involving them in planning, decision-making and monitoring is required.

#### **4.2.2 Perception of Community Members about their Representation**

As a democratic principle, representation is an effective method for involving many people in decision-making. Data for this second sub theme of the first main theme were collected after asking the question: Is there anybody who is representing school local community members in the decision-making organs of the school? If yes, who

is that and in what ways were the representatives accessible to school local community members?

Following are some selected responses from community members when asked if there were some people who were representing them in the decision-making organs of the school and how they were accessible to them. It was revealed that most community members were aware of the existence of the school board but they were not clear of what it is doing. The following is a narration from one of the school local community member, who also seems to represent others' ideas:

*"...we do hear that there are some people who are representing us in school decision organs. Some are very familiar to us we live with them here and they were originally members of the school construction committee and we had good communication. But after joining that council they do not tell us anything about school issues, we fail to ask them because we do not know how they were selected and whom they are representing. The only people we think are representing us in the management of our community secondary school are members of the construction committee" (W 3).*

This statement indicates that community members had the feeling that they are represented in the management of community secondary schools through construction committee. To support the above view and to show how construction committee members were accessible to school local community members, one school local community member who also seemed to represent views of others said:

*"...what we know is school construction committee (Kamati ya Ujenzi) of which its members are elected from our villages and they tell us what is going on in the school during village meetings. However, this committee is very weak because few months ago it failed to sue a thief who was caught stealing our bags of cement and iron bars bought for school buildings construction. We wanted to take the thief in court of law but we were stopped by the ward executive officer that the matter is with the school board. Had it been we had strong representatives in the school management we could have held the thief responsible, you see, in my opinion we are not*

*truly represented. We could have assumed that those parents with children in the school are representing us, but I think it's not. We had them in the village and when the fracas happened they were there, but no follow up or action was taken by the school management, members of construction committee or parents. Also I can say that the school construction committee is not well connected and coordinated with what they call board. Mr. Researcher we are committed to build the school for our children and grandchildren but some people are letting us down" (W 9).*

Other community members were aware of school construction committees but had contradicting views with regard to their involvement in school affairs. Some participants perceived that it is up to the parents with children in the school who should get involved in school management affairs. One community member who also seems to represent views of some other members reflected this view in the following response:

*"Nobody is representing me and I do not see any reason for being represented. If you do not have kids at school why waste time in attending school meetings and other school issues? It is up to the parents with children in schools who should know their representatives in school issues; in fact leaders are disturbing us for no reason when they come to me to demand money or labour for school improvement" (W 4).*

Thus the notion of the local school community might be limited to parents, students, teachers and school board members. Some school local community members who have no children in school do not see the essence of being part of the school affairs. With regard to the strengths and influence of the school construction committee, one local community member who was also a member of the construction committee had these to say:

*"I was chosen by the villagers to represent them in the construction of school buildings only, not in any other school businesses... we are the true representatives of the community because the community members elected us. But we are encountering so many problems because we are toothless, for example if well wishers inject some money in the project we may even not get informed at all by the school head. You just see people whom you don't*

*know busy with school buildings construction activities if you ask you may get replied impolitely by the school management that the matter is with the school board. But once donor's money is finished we are called back again. We ask ourselves why not call us when donors' money was brought in? This question and many more others remain unanswered..... and this makes us weak representatives for our people and that is why the original plans of the school buildings will never be implemented as required" (W7).*

The above statement indicates that school construction committee was working alongside the school board. This situation is likely to create a lot of ambiguities if the responsibilities of the two organs are not clearly understood by the players and the two organs seemed not to be coordinated toward the same target.

To furthermore show how parents were dissatisfied with the existed practices of community secondary school management, a parent who also seems to represent others had the following to say:

*"...from what I know a desk may remain in good condition for a period not less than five years, but two years ago each parent was required to pay money for a new desk each year for the same student. You can see how money are forcefully taken from our pockets, if we could have been involved directly or well represented in the planning process such illegal practices could have no chance. Had it been we were involved or really represented how could we accept such wastage? Look here we do not have many problems with primary schools for we have a committee in which our fellow villagers are representing us and bringing us feedback in each and every plan of the school, why the government fail to consider a similar structure at secondary school level?.. yes as parents we were sometimes called to attend parents – teachers meeting but what were presented were teachers' plans. Our ideas were only accepted when discussing about contributing maize and money for cooking porridge and luncheons for our children while at school but not given weight in any other issues and it seems as if we are called to pass their plans" (W 8).*

Findings indicate that despite the fact that a kind of school- parent partnership exists but it is not as strong as to peoples' expectation. Research findings have also shown that parents with children at school were only involved in some management aspects of the school for example budgeting of students' tea and luncheons. Poor decisions

made by the school management and government were associated with lack of true representations of the school local community members in the management organs of the school.

Despite the fact that some school board members were originally members of the school construction committee and were picked from the catchment area, yet they were not considered by school local community members as representatives. This suggests a kind of incompatibility between what school local community members thought to be the right procedure and the one in practice. While education administrators assumed that community members are represented in the school boards, community members were of the opinion that they were only represented in the school construction committees. Furthermore, research findings have revealed that a kind of school-parents partnership existed but formal Parents-Teachers Associations (PTAs) did not exist. This state of affairs indicates that school local community members were willing to take part in school management but lacked appropriate platform hence they were not clearly coordinated with school management organs.

Though limited in dealing with management functions, school construction committee was perceived to be a representative organ. This perception was due to the fact that its members were democratically elected and accessible to community members. They associated irrelevant decisions made by the school management and government with lack of their true representations. Thus, the impetus to demand for getting involved in the management of school was associated with material, money and labour contributions. That by getting involved they would properly get an

opportunity to plan, monitor and evaluate their material contributions, money and labour.

The findings suggest that in attempt to involve the local school community, we should have correct representatives in the school committees and boards. And that involvement of parents and community should be well scrutinized. The findings are similar to that of Stein (2009) who found that, among other things, school councils were generally not viewed as an effective vehicle for school improvement due to lack of parent and community involvement. Likewise in this study school local community members generally did not view school board as effective vehicle since it lacked their true representation.

The research result suggests that the existed school boards were shaped by the government and therefore could not set the expected gateway for community involvement in the management of community secondary school affairs. An observation that is supported by Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder (2002), that developing local democratic organizations such as school management committees and boards is one of the prerequisites for community involvement. Any intervention aimed at strengthening involvement of community members in management of school affairs should begin with formulation of democratic school management committees or boards.

#### **4.2.3 Perceived Challenges for Community Involvement in School Management**

The third sub theme of the first main theme emanated from the question that asked: what are the community members' perceived challenges hindering them from

adequately getting involved directly or being represented in the decision making of the school affairs in the studied area? The following were data collected about challenges faced by school local community people to get involved directly or being represented in the decision making of school affairs in the studied areas. It should be recalled that focus groups discussion (FGDs) and interview method were used to collect data for answering this question. A mix of narrative summaries with actual quotes that explain the participant's opinions in his or her own words as suggested by Anderson (1990) was employed to present the data obtained from FGDs.

Findings have revealed a number of perceived challenges these included lack of confidence due to low level of education and the social economic status of the families' history. Other perceived challenges were political clashes and negative attitudes among some parents whose children have failed to join secondary schools or colleges after completing secondary schools including lack of openness in reporting finances. Desire and motivation of the school heads, and leaders to involve school local community members in planning and reporting school issues was also pointed as one of the challenges.

Lack of awareness and ignorance about human rights has also been mentioned as one of the challenges that hinder local people to demand their rights including their rights to question how the school is managed. When asked the question: Are there any challenges for you or your representatives to get involved in decision making of the affairs of the community secondary schools? What are they? One school local community member who seemed to represent views of others had the following to say:

*“.....most of us are standard seven leavers; given the little education we have it is not possible for the government to involve us in the management of secondary schools of which we had never reached, there are some families and clans whom are educated, they look us down and they are the ones who are respected by the school management and government. They are the ones who speak on our behalf and therefore they represent us” (W 2).*

The above statement shows that low level of formal education attained by school local community members made them to feel that they cannot take part in the management of school. It also suggests that clans’ prejudices, traditions and customs have made certain groups of local people to look down upon others and make them lack confidence as there are some people or clans who are believed to be true representatives of others. This leaves some internal conflicts between disadvantaged and advantaged clans.

Openness in finance reporting including lack of information was also perceived as a challenge for school local communities to get sufficiently involved in school management as it was disclosed during FGDs sessions as follows:

*“....generally there is lack of openness especially in finance and other information about management of secondary schools, some information are not known to people who have no children in school and therefore you cannot participate well in any project of which you do not have full information or welcomed by the authority” (W7).*

This statement suggest that generally there is lack of openness in reporting school finances and that information about school issues are not clearly accessible especially to school local community members who have no children at school. Research findings revealed that there are some political clashes between the two opposing camps of ruling party and the opposition parties. This was identified as another challenge that hinders school local community members to join their efforts



in getting involved in school issues. That while one camp was campaigning in favour of volunteering for school activities the other camp was campaigning against, this brought a lot of confusions among community members. Following is a statement by one community member who also seemed to represent perceptions of others:

*“...we have a very big challenge emanating from antagonism between CCM and UKAWA. For example people from other camp are not willing to support whatever efforts initiated by our councillor for school improvement, they are not willing to volunteer or contribute anything because most leaders in this ward are from the camp of which they take as enemies. They want to let us down so that next election we do not win again” (W8).*

This statement suggests that there are some unresolved conflicts in communities, which emanate from supporting politicians who are struggling for power. This situation affects unity and spirit of volunteering among school local community members.

Other identified challenges were failure to realise benefits of having secondary schools by some school local community members due to failure of their children to secure employments and or admissions in higher learning institutions. Following is selected researcher’s interview responses from a school local community member:

*“I wasted my money in paying school fees for my two children.... they have also wasted their time and energy for four years at the school. Despite the fact that they have passed at division four, they have not joined any college or secured employment anywhere. It could have been wise if I could have spent the money in strengthening my business. Personally I don’t see any benefits of having such schools in our area and even I am not motivated to volunteer my time and energy in doing any school activities” (W9).*

The above statement shows that those parents whose children have joined community secondary school but failed to secure employment or continue with further studies have negative attitude toward volunteering for school activities. Such

members have lost hope with regard to the benefits of having secondary schools in their area and therefore do hesitate to participate willingly in school activities.

Lack of awareness, cowardice and ignorance about human rights have been mentioned some of the challenges that hinder local people from demanding their rights including their rights to question how the school is managed. One school local community member who also seems to represent others' views said:

*"...most people in this area are cowards and do not know their rights that is why they do not fight for them. Some school administrators do take this advantage to make all of us fools. There is mismanagement of the money and material things we contribute and therefore leaders and school heads would like us to stay blind about school's revenues and expenditure. They are not ready to clearly communicate to us how our contributions have been spent" (W10).*

This statement indicates lack of openness as regards the finances and that failure to adequately involve school local community members in school management is a source of corruption in schools.

With regard to age, occupations and morals one respondent who also represented views of others was quoted saying:

*".....we are too old to catch up with modern world; we have to work very hard so as to feed ourselves and our grandchildren...no time and energy to deal with secondary school issues while our grandchildren are still in primary school. In our area there are many challenges these include moral decay especially among youngsters. People do no longer live as we used to live in the past, these days everybody is for himself or herself. Volunteering for the community activities has now remained a story, my child; I don't know where we are heading. The government and community should do something to revive people's morale to volunteer for public activities" (W4).*

The above assertion shows that age, occupations, poverty, morals and attitude are among the perceived challenges which hinder community involvement in the management of schools. The findings furthermore suggest lack of information,

awareness and coordination. Other perceived challenges are lack of clarity on school ownership, urgent and irrelevant top down directives from the government.

One school local community member who seemed to be knowledgeable in school management issues and who also represented others' views had these to say:

*“...it is somehow wrong to say that these community schools belong to the community and that community members have to be represented in the school management organs. I think these schools belong to government which is paying most of the costs but one interesting thing am not clear is whether the school board is representing local community members or the government? Because most of what is discussed and implemented by the board is simply directives from District executive director, District commissioner and circulars from the Ministries involved in education. In most cases these directives are matters of urgency and therefore a limited room to compromise with the community members exist. For example last year it was directed from above that every school should complete the construction of three science laboratories on or before December 2015. Given the limited resources and time, community members were of the opinion that it could have been better to concentrate on only one Laboratory at a time but my friend! Right now laboratories cannot be used for teaching and learning purpose except to provide shade to students or used as temporary stores. ....despite the changes which have taken place in the ownership and running of these schools but the management structure has not significantly changed, for example the structure of a school board for the community school is the same as that of the centrally owned government school”(W8).*

These views indicate that the issue of school ownership is not clear to school local community members. The schools are owned by the government and it is the one which gives directives on what to do and how to run the school, and in most cases the directives are matters of urgency and therefore no room for the school local community members to sufficiently get involved. That what was implemented was planned by the government and brought down to the community for implementation. Failure to involve the community in planning is associated with irrelevant plans. Though there are some elements of community involvement but these ward

secondary schools are not genuine community schools. Photographs in figures 4.1 and 4.2 show the situations in which the projects of school laboratory rooms construction were in at two different communities one year after the planned date of completion. These situations support the above perceptions from the community members, suggesting that something went wrong with involvement of community members either at planning or implementation stage of the project.



**Figure 4.1: Building with Three Laboratory Rooms in Community W9**



**Figure 4.2: Building with three Laboratory Rooms in Community W7**

Furthermore these observations (Figure 4.1 and 4.2) show how different communities are differently resourced, managed and motivated in volunteering to get involved in secondary schools' projects. Among other factors the differences are due to the different approaches by leaders at different levels in translating directives from the government all the way to the community level. Moreover, it is also argued that different communities are not blessed equally in terms of availability of human and non-human resources.

Findings reveal that the way community schools are run is more of a centralised kind of management, which leaves little room for community involvement in school decision-making. It should be remembered that community involvement in public projects or programmes is a way of decentralization and democratization. Thus, in Tanzania the level of decentralization and democratization is still a challenge on education system. School local community members perceived that top down or centralised system of school management did not consider local circumstances, which could have been well identified by the local people if involved at planning stage. It was argued that failure to sufficiently involve school local community members lead to the implementation of impracticable and irrelevant plans.

Findings have revealed a number of things which hindered community members from properly getting involved in the management of community secondary schools. These include lack of confidence due to their low level of education (capacity), lack of coordination and information, clarity on school ownership, political clashes among members of the ruling and opposition parties, failure of parents and school leavers to meet their expectations and clans prejudices and parents jealousies. Other

identified obstacles were poor desire and motivation among school heads and leaders including moral decays in which people are not willing to pioneer for unpaid public activities. Poverty and level of centralization practices by the government was also pointed out as factors which limit community involvement in management of schools.

The findings suggest that general community members are limited in terms of school managerial capacity. Motivation of school administrators, urgent top-down directives from government and community norms, failure to meet expected benefits from school were furthermore identified as hindrances to community involvement in school management. Such limitations have been also observed by ANTRIEF (2003) that emphasizes that there are constraints as well as experiences such as cultural practices and poverty that might limit involvement of community members in schools. Govinder (1997) observes that community's occupation is another factor that influences involvement of community in school activities.

The Education Act No. 25 of 1978 (as amended by Act No.10 of 1995) sets perimeters on which secondary schools are to be operated. The Act provides a legal base for the process of school management organs formation and general management of the schools. It provides a guide on which the running of community secondary schools is to be based. To a certain extent this set limits to which school administrators and community leaders are willing to involve school local communities in the management of schools. The findings suggest that establishment of community schools need to be accompanied with new operation structures which takes care of school true local community representatives.

Most of the raised challenges are those reflected in the four dimensions given by Wilson and Wilde (2003) when analysing community involvement in management of school affairs. The results are also consistent with that of Sharma (2008) who suggested that access to information, awareness, and involvement in the day to day affairs are the initial steps for enhancing the capacity of community members to take part in decision making related to school affairs.

Political clashes between supporters of the ruling party and opposition parties including family prejudices were pointed out as barriers to democratic involvement of school local community members. These challenges are in line with what Crewe and Harrison (1998) warned that while involving school local communities in the management of education or any other programmes there is a tendency of overlooking complexities and questions of power and conflict within communities. There is a need to study the complexities within the communities if we are to make a successful intervention of involving school local community members in school management. With regard to political clashes, Nishimura (2017) cautioned that political aspects of school management and socio-cultural difference among the population require attention, as they are likely to affect involvement of the community in the management of schools.

Implicitly, the research findings have indicated that if there are political conflicts which have been previously developed for whatever reasons they are to be identified and kept under control. If not kept under control they are likely to affect the unity of the community and hence affect the spirit of volunteering for public activities. It is therefore suggested that when planning for intervention aiming at community

involvement in management of community secondary schools the issue of political clashes should not be undermined.

Community expectations from schools was also perceived as one challenge that hinder school local community members get motivated to participate in school affairs. Thus, school benefits as expected by the community members should not be overlooked, if left unchecked effective involvement of school local communities won't be realised. Thus a new way of making community people to strongly feel commitment to Tanzania community secondary schools should be devised. This is based on the understanding that better decisions are made when the affected stakeholders are committed and get involved. There is a need to revitalize our country's education system taking into consideration of the challenges identified by the school local communities. A step-by-step intervention process should be devised; community members should be engaged in the day-to-day affairs of the school if we are to strategically initiate serious involvement of community members in secondary school management.

#### **4.3 Representation of Stakeholders in Decision Making**

This theme was drawn from the second research objective that intended to assess the representativeness (inclusivity) of all groups and interests of the community members in the decision-making bodies of the school. It had a main research question asking, how are different groups and interests of the community members represented in the decision making bodies of the school? In order to be able to address this main research question, two sub research questions were formulated. These were: what guidelines are there to ensure various groups and interests of the



school local communities are involved in decision making process of the school affairs? Likewise, what actions are taken by education officers and leaders to ensure that representation by the various groups and interests of the school local community reflect gender balance and other groups' diversity of the geographical area?

Consistent with these two sub research questions presentation of the findings, analysis and discussion under the main theme "representativeness of all groups and interest of community members in school decision making organs" were further subdivide into two research sub themes namely:

- i. Guidelines to ensure local communities are involved in decision making process of the school affairs
- ii. Actions to ensure that representation by school local community reflect the gender balance and other groups diversity of the geographical area
- iii. The following were data, as they were presented, analysed, discussed and their implications.

#### **4.3.1 Guidelines to Ensure Involvement of Various Groups of the Local Communities**

The following are findings, interpretation and discussion for the first sub research question which asked: what guidelines are there to ensure various groups and interests of the school local community members are involved in decision making process of the school affairs?

When asked to describe guidelines used to ensure all groups and interests of the school local community are involved in the decision making process of the school affairs' one district education officer who seems to represent other education

officers' views had the following to say:

*"...we adhere to education Acts and circulars received from the Ministries and forward them to ward education officers including heads of schools for reference and to remind them on some of these considerations when formulating school management organs for example members of school boards .....and we also remind them through organized seminars on how community members should be represented in administrative organs of the school" (Do2)*

This statement shows that the guidelines which were followed by the district education officers and school heads to ensure inclusivity were on the basis of government Acts and circulars issued by the responsible ministries. To support the views of the district education officers, one ward education officer who also seem to represent others had this to say,

*".....the guidelines we use are those issued by the government for example board members should be appointed from variety of occupations and from the catchment area. When picking school construction committees apart from government directives we formulate more guidelines depending on our situation. We make sure every corner of the ward is involved, we have six villages and therefore every village should be represented. To ensure participation of general local community people we throw the ball to the village executive officers and their village chairpersons who know their people very well; they call meetings and allow their people to elect their representatives" (Do5).*

This statement furthermore confirms that apart from government directives yet, at the community level, there are certain guidelines which are to be initiated. This depends on the local situation so that involvement of school local community members in the process of decision making of the school affairs becomes a success.

Following are selected researcher's interview replies from school heads when asked about guidelines to be followed so that various groups in the community are involved in the school management decisions:

*"...are those provided by the government for example I am empowered to only propose two members of school board, while proposing I have to check*

*government directives that among other things a board member should possess at least form IV certificate. Also they should be of different gender and occupations. And they should not be holding any known political positions like councillors or political party secretary. We are advised to propose school board members from the school catchment area but it is not obligatory. ....with regard to the selection of members of other organs like school construction committee it is up to the Ward DC directives, of course these committees are short lived. They are very important when establishing the school but less important once a school board is formulated. Some members of the school construction committee crossed over to become members of the school board” (DoI).*

This statement shows that there are certain limitations which are set for one to be appointed a member of the school board. It also indicates that the school head is allowed to propose two members.

Education Act No. 25 of 1978 (as amended by Act No.10 of 1995) gives the provision that every school shall have the following school board members who shall be approved by the Regional Commissioner:

- i. One member representing the voluntary organization if that school was originally established by that voluntary organization
- ii. One member representative who shall be a senior education officer in the region
- iii. The head of the school
- iv. One member representing the academic staff
- v. Not more than five members appointed by the Regional commissioner upon recommendation of the Regional Education officer
- vi. Two members appointed by the Regional commissioner upon recommendation of the Head of school; and
- vii. Two members co-opted by the Board during its first sitting

Findings show that despite the fact that representation of the community is not stipulated in the legal documents but education officers and school heads had the feeling that communities are represented in the management organs of the schools. Such feeling was due to the fact that some board members are appointed from within the community and that some of them were originally members of school construction committees. This is also to comply with the Education Act No. 25 of 1978 (as amended by Act No.10 of 1995) which give provisions that two members of the school board are those members who were co-opted during its first sitting. Undoubtedly the government consider school construction committee to be a representative organ for school local community when establishing these schools. And those two members who are co-opted by the board during its first meeting are incorporated in the board.

Furthermore research findings reveal that when formulating construction committee at ward level, there were no elaborate guidelines to be followed, consideration were on the integrity and personality of an individual in the community. For example one councillor who also seems to represent others' views had these to say:

*“Guidelines given by the local government are general ones; the guidelines we use are just formulated and discussed during ward DC..... I belong to one of the villages where I attended meeting to appoint members of the school construction committee.... when appointing representatives, we did not consider gender or anything else but we look at integrity, personality and the spirit to volunteer for community activities. Of course all selected members were men. This also goes to other positions like village chairpersons, out of the 6 chairpersons we have, only one is a female” (W7).*

School board members supported the above observation for example one school board member who also seems to represent ideas of others had these to say:

*“Without considering any criteria except village membership during a village*

*meeting two members from each village were selected to form a school construction committee. Some of the committee members like me were reappointed to become school board member. It is like you just change the name of committee but the people almost remain the same. Wonderful enough I don't know what criteria were used to appoint me a member of the school board. Much as I know in the first place the headmaster contacted me, after a couple of months I received a letter of appointment" (W8).*

The above statement shows that the process used to select construction committee members did not emphasize issues of representativeness by various groups and interests of the school local community members.

There was no clear document or guiding policy to be followed especially by the ward and village/street leaders to ensure inclusivity of the various groups and interests of the school local communities in construction committee an organ which was assumed to represent community members in decision making of the school. It was also made known that due to lack or unclear guiding document to be followed; good plans of the community members were interfered by some influential politician. Following are selected responses from one of the village leaders:

*"We are trying our level best to involve all groups of our people in most of the things we do, including school issues. For example when planning to establish the school I called a village meeting where every adult person in the village was required to attend. In fact there were no guidelines to follow apart from majority decisions say by voting or proposing their representatives. During that meeting one village member surrendered land which was located at the centre of our ward. But to our surprise one politician changed the proposed school location and therefore the school was built far from most of the homes of community members in the ward. It is now costing us and our children, because there is no "daladala" (commuter buses) here, students are forced to travel a long distance on foot. Our children arrive at school late while tired and this to a great extent contributes to the poor performance of our children in form IV examinations. Most people in this area are still furious about it and this situation makes us get difficulties when ask people to volunteer labour, material or money contributions for the school. If there could be a well known guiding document such unacceptable event could not be allowed, most of the directives were verbally communicated" (W1).*

The above data furthermore confirms that the issues of inclusivity were not given priority; such a situation shows how fragile was the partnership between school and school local community. Even for those activities where communities are involved, decisions made by the school local community could not be respected and brought some misunderstanding between community members and leaders. And therefore, community influence on school management decisions was insignificant. The data furthermore confirms that political influence was one of the challenges faced by community members towards their involvement in school management.

As it was previously found, findings under this sub theme have also revealed school local community people did not consider members of the school board as their representatives in school management decisions. It was school construction committee members who were known and conceived by the village/street leaders and community people as their representatives in the management of community secondary school affairs. Research results revealed that there was no clear policy or guidelines used to ensure various groups and interests of the school local community are included in the construction committee.

#### **4.3.2 Actions Taken to Ensure Inclusivity**

The following are findings, interpretation and discussion for the second sub research question which asked:

*“What actions are taken by education officers and leaders to ensure that representation by school local community reflect gender balance and various groups of the geographical area?”*

The findings reveal a number of things, at district level the actions taken to ensure what was considered to be inclusivity was to advise on a good mix of males and

females including occupations. Following is a selected researcher's Interview responses from district education officers:

*“.....regarding other school organs which are formulated at school or ward level we advice the village leaders through our ward education and executive officers to observe the same actions we go through. Though it is extremely difficult to balance these things, Tanzanian communities are complex and not clearly organised and located for example women who used to be well organised under one umbrella of “Ummoja wa Wanawake Tanzania” (Tanzania Women Union) these days are not coordinated under one umbrella but in fragmented sub groups. Thus there are no platforms where various groups are coordinated and can air out views as one group, in such situation gender and minority groups cannot be clearly located and be fairly considered for representation. But I am hoping leaders are trying their level best to make a balance of gender and geographic locations” (Wo9).*

Findings show that at ward level consideration of representation by various groups of the school local community seems to be of little significance and therefore not given weight. The following is selected researcher's interview response from ward education officers:

*“.....the action I am taking is to remind school heads, village executive officers and village leaders to consider gender and age balance and all kinds of people in their area whenever representation of the community members is needed” (Wo3).*

Selected researcher's interview responses from councillors:

*“.....When I call a meeting and find out that there are no women, disabled and very people. I have to say something; I remind the village leaders to bring representatives from all these groups in the next meeting then I make a follow up” (W8).*

The above statements suggest that at ward level there were no firm actions taken to ensure gender balance and representation of the various groups and interests of the community in the school management organs.

On the other hand it was found that the actions taken by the school heads to ensure inclusivity were limited to the directives given by the government as per following selected researcher's interview responses from school heads:

*“My friend if you are talking about school board at individual level there is no action I can take because the board is in conformity with government directives, school boards are supposed to be gender and occupations sensitive. If we have an activity with partner agencies, no way I can take any action regarding representations of the various groups in the community. It all depends on whom they bring or appoint and these also goes to school construction committees. But all in all a school board is an organ which is balanced and it represents the community, most of the board members are appointed from within.....it is not possible for all villages to have representatives in the school board because of limited chances and moreover, not all villages have people with required qualifications” (So5).*

This statement furthermore confirms that school heads had the assumption that the school boards are balanced and represent the generality of the school local community members in the management of community secondary schools. It also shows that not all geographical areas were represented in the school board due to limitation in number of board members and academic qualifications set by the government.

Findings revealed that at village/street level action taken was to ensure geographical representation where community members were allowed to elect their representatives. Village and street leaders believed that the procedures followed to appoint members of the school construction committee, which was assumed to be a representative organ for community was democratic and acceptable. One village leader who also seems to represent views of others had the following to say:

*“ .... apart from allowing people to exercise their democracy there is no other action I take to ensure gender and all other various groups of the community are represented... people who are representing us in the management of school are members of the school construction committees, we were instructed*



*to allow people pick anybody they want to be their representatives. Each village is represented by two members, those who are selected are people with influence, integrity and are ready to volunteer, we don't mind about gender, age, or religion...all villages in our ward follow that procedure" (W 8).*

This statement supports previous findings that people at community level felt that school construction committee was the organ where school local community people were represented in the management of community secondary schools.

Findings have furthermore shown that the decisive factors for one to be elected a member of construction committee were influence, integrity and spirit of volunteering for public activities. The assumption was that all people in each village/street were homogeneous and therefore emphasis was on geographical locations. Also show that it was difficult to get fair representatives on the basis of group diversities, as there were no formally organized gender and ethnic groups that were all encompassing. Furthermore it was found out that there were no uniform and clearly known criteria to ensure inclusivity at the grassroots (village/street level). With exception of geographical representation the other issues of inclusivity were indistinct at lower levels. Thus there were no conscious actions taken to ensure inclusivity (gender, age, partner agencies etc).

At village/street level there was no emphasis on representativeness by various groups of people that existed in the school local community. Findings from this study have shown that at village/street level there were no elaborate guidelines or actions to be followed to ensure various local groups in the community are represented in the decision making organs of the school. There was no clear guiding policy to be followed especially by the village/street leaders to ensure inclusivity of the various

groups of the school local communities in decision-making organs of the school. The local school community members refuted the assumption by the district education officers, school heads and government that the school board members implicitly represented them in the management of ward secondary schools. The school construction committee members were largely believed to be their representatives in the management of school affairs.

With regard to representativeness of the school local community members, three technical flaws were evident; the first was about contradicting belief between the education officers and school heads about who were representing school local community members in the management of community secondary school. The second technical flaw was on the part of the school local community members including their leaders to assume that the construction committee was representing them in the management of the school. The third technical flaw was lack of clear guidelines and actions that could ensure various local groups in the community are represented in decision-making organs of the school affairs.

Despite the fact that there are some elements of representation of school local community in the school management organs but it is not explicit in the legal framework, that is why there is a mismatch of opinions between education officers and community members. The observed process contradicts with the one that was suggested by Wilde and Wilson (2003), that diversity of school local communities and interests should be reflected at all levels of the involvement process. And that there were no specific guiding policies or practices to facilitate inclusion of various

local groups in the decision organs of the community secondary schools this would have jeopardised the dimension of inclusivity.

Findings revealed that even at higher levels (ward, district, region and central government) inclusivity was not satisfactorily considered as the planned strategy was limited to gender and occupations. And therefore right away from the planning stage by the government there were no emphasis placed on ethnicity, age, and minorities. Leaders at district and ward level felt that directives given to village/street executives and village/street chairpersons would ensure inclusivity in terms of gender, occupations and geographical locations at school local community level. But in practice at village/street level where representative members for school construction committees were to be elected. Emphasis was placed on diversities in geographical locations, influence, integrity and spirit of volunteering for public activities. Irrespective of other deficiencies, school local communities were assumed to be homogeneous.

The findings revealed that it was difficult to get fair representatives on the basis of group diversities, as there were no formally organized gender and ethnic groups which were all encompassing. Also it was found out that with exception of geographical locations community members had no complaints about representation on the basis of gender and other considerations for inclusivity. It seems gender and ethnic diversities are not seen as a major problem to the school local communities in developing countries like Tanzania. What matters was democratic election of their representatives. Influence, integrity and spirit of volunteering for public activities were the factors to be considered. Group diversities in the community was not an

issue of concern, communities seemed to be homogenous. Bray (2000) noted that communities are rarely homogenous and that communities are not at all times formally organized. For example, not all geographic communities have formal bodies through which voices are heard and collective decisions reached.

Exclusivity is about valuing diversity and addressing inequality in order to ensure inclusive and equal involvement. But in this study, diversity was felt in terms of geographical locations. Findings have shown that community members either did not care or were not aware about diversities as it was not pointed out as a problem which hinders them to get involved in school affairs. It should be remembered that this and other previous findings have shown that school boards were not considered by the community as their representative organ in the management of community schools.

Irrespective of the contradictions between government and school local communities about organs that represent communities in the management of community secondary schools, consensus about the importance of having school local community representation in the management of community secondary schools exists. This was revealed when construction committee was perceived to be superior over school board of which its members were not elected by school local community members.

The tendencies of valuing inclusivity seem to grow with the extent of involvement. Findings have also made it clear that there were no clear guiding policies on procedures to obtain the representatives at local level. Adelman and Taylor (2008) observe that in some places there are no policies governing school-linked services.

This would definitely hamper proper integration of communities and other agencies in the management of schools in their area. Research results have shown that steps used by school-community partnership were insufficient to ensure inclusivity of the various local groups in the community.

#### **4.4 Decision Making on Matters Where Local Communities were Involved**

This theme was drawn from the third research objective that was set to analyse decisions and managerial activities of the school in which local community members were involved. It had a research question asking, *in what decisions and managerial activities of the school are local community members involved?* This question was directed to district education officers, ward education officers, school heads, village leaders, councillors, parents and general community members. Instruments used were interview, documentary review, observation and focused group discussion. Next find the summary of research findings, interpretation and allied discussion.

When asked what decisions and managerial activities of the school in which local community members were involved in, one district education officer who also seems to represent views of others had these to say:

*“When establishing ward secondary school local community members were involved through village and ward meetings to discuss where the school was to be built. When the construction of school buildings started they participated in electing school construction committee members. They were also required to contribute materials, labour and some money. It was up to ward and village/ street leaders to see the modalities of coming up with bylaws and strategies to assist in the attainment of the set mission. We were from time to time issuing circulars and directives which were guiding them.....but we were not the ones who directed them to forcefully take chickens and goats of the community members as you might have heard, it was their own strategies depending on their circumstances” (D.1).*

The above views show that school local community members were involved in deciding the location where the school had to be built, contributions of money and material things including volunteering for labour. To a large extent these views were also supported by school local community members. For example, one school local community member who also seems to represent views of others had this to say:

*“...together with school construction committee and teachers we were involved in the construction of school buildings. When the school was established we were responsible to decide the area where the school was to be built, an activity that had a lot of quarrels among members of different villages. We also contributed money, we collected stones and sand, and we provided labour for school buildings construction” (W9).*

This statement supports the previous one that school local community members were involved in planning and deciding where the school was to be located. Moreover, school local community members were required to contribute materials, money and labour for construction of school buildings.

Findings indicate that in spite of their spirit to volunteer to get involved in planning and making decisions yet in some areas community views were not taken on board as one informed street chairperson noted:

*“...when planning to establish the school we were involved in deciding where the school had to be located. Community members agreed and spared land that was located at the centre of the ward for school construction. But to our surprise one politician came later and disregarded our decision and the school was built very far from most of the families in the ward. Some parents are now forced to transfer their children to government boarding schools or private schools elsewhere; others are hiring rooms for their children near the school. You can see how we were at first cheated that we were involved in making decision on where the school was to be located, but at the end our suggestions were disregarded” (W1).*

This statement shows how some communities were not sufficiently involved in making decision about the location of the school. And that reluctance to consider

their ideas has brought some inconveniences. The location of the school was eye witnessed by the researcher, as the school was located at the outskirts of the ward. With regard to the location of the school, the school head of that particular school had these to say:

*“.....this school is located at the outskirts of the ward where it is administratively sited. Ideally the school is supposed to serve the families of this ward but because of the distance it is serving a good number of students from the neighbouring wards. Some parents have even decided to transfer their children to private schools or government boarding schools on the ground that the school is located far from their residents” (So1).*

This statement furthermore indicates unpromising involvement of school local community members due to disrespect for their decisions. This had contributed to the failure for community to realise benefits of their involvement in planning location of the school plant. It had contributed to the loss of opportunities and increased costs of their children’s secondary education. Research has shown that decisions and activities where community members were involved were limited to decision making about location of the school but not in other school management decisions. Involvement of the community members in schools was limited to contributions of material, money and labour including decision on the location of the school. One parent who also represented others’ said:

*“I am a parent of 7 children and a citizen of this ward.....four of my children got their secondary education in this school. If you hear or see an announcement of a meeting about school you quickly think about contributions of some material things, money or volunteering for labour. Thanks to the current president, these days such meetings are not called anymore, I don’t know why? But I think it’s because the government has banned such contributions. In short I can say we were less involved in things like promotions of students’ disciplines but strongly involved in cases where materials and money contributions are required.....to me and probably even to others community involvement in management of community schools means to involve community members in contributing materials, labour or money for school buildings construction and rehabilitation, paying teachers for remedial*

*classes, buying gifts for best students and teachers' motivation including purchase of school's furniture.... but not in making decisions about all affairs of the school. Also as parents we were engaged in planning what and how much to contribute for the feeding programmes of our students' while at school. Furthermore we were involved to punish our children when there was an indiscipline event. But we were not involved to discuss plans to stop students' indiscipline, pregnancies, dropouts, absenteeism and academic failures" (W7).*

The above data was also supported by data gathered through focus group discussions where it was made known that those parents with children at school were involved in more activities as they attended meetings and paid school fees. They also contributed money for the purchase of school furniture, stationeries, rehabilitation of school buildings and books. Moreover, they had to contribute money for purchasing gifts for the best students and teachers' motivation, and other contributions like funding of feeding programmes for their children while at school. Parents also got involved when there were students indiscipline events at the school. Findings also shows that parents and community members at large were not involved in discussing plans to stop students' indiscipline, pregnancies, drop outs, absenteeism and poor academic performances. Parents were seen to be involved in more activities when compared to other school local community members, but like other community members their activities were mainly limited to labour, money and material contributions.

Some school heads, village leaders, street leaders, village executive officers and ward education officers gave the researcher copies of minutes for some meetings with school construction committee, ward education officer, village executive officers and ward executive officer. The minutes indicated date, attendance, agenda, strategies, budgets and contributions from various villages. All were about material contributions and directives from the government, improvements to the school



buildings; financial requests to some well wishers and politicians. For example among other things one school head had this to say:

*“These are some of the records I was able to keep... I think they may be of help to you. These records do not contain each and every aspect of the issues discussed for all meetings. Some issues were not documented for example political crashes between “CCM” and “UKAWA” were less important to me and therefore not documented. Emphasis was on records of materials and money contributions received from representatives from community members. I am hoping every participant of the meeting took his/her own records as they were supposed to report in other meetings say village meeting where I am not a member, .....you may get more records from Ward Education Officer or Ward and Village Executive Officers” (So 6).*

Generally records reflected information shared and discussed during Ward Development Council (Ward DC) and village/street committees. Most records had strategies for material and money including amounts contributed by school local community members, government, well-wishers and politicians.

Findings have shown that when establishing the school local community, members participated in deciding where schools were to be located and they participated in forming school construction committee. Moreover they contributed money and labour for school buildings constructions. Results also indicate that parents with children in the ward secondary schools were involved in more activities when compared to other school local community members. They attended various meetings at the school, paid school fees, and contributed money for the purchase of school furniture, stationeries, rehabilitation of school buildings, books and rewards for best students.

Also they got involved in planning what and how much to contribute for the feeding programmes of their students’ while at school. Moreover they were involved to

enforce penalties during students' indiscipline events at the school. And that that parents and community members at large were not involved in discussing plans to stop students' indiscipline, pregnancies, dropouts, absenteeism and poor failures.

Data have also revealed a remarkable difference between different communities, for example some communities were involved in planning where to build the school while others were just sidestepped. Study results show that good plans and suggestions by the school local community members in some communities' were valued and taken on board but in others they were just sidestepped by some influential people. In places where community members were sidestepped for example in deciding school location, disadvantages were obvious. The school was located very far from most of the community homesteads to the extent of forcing some parents to transfer students to other schools or incur extra costs to hire rooms in the school neighbourhood for their students' accommodation. Sidestepping communities' good suggestions and plans without clear explanation undoubtedly is one of the irritants and therefore an obstacle to community involvement in management of community secondary schools in Tanzania.

Deciding where to build the school seemed to be an accepted activity to community members as it is coupled with some advantages including fair location of school plant to most of the beneficiaries, which could reduce the costs covered by parents. Cost reduction is one of the major advantages for establishment of community schools. Miller-Grandvaux and Yoder (2002) observe that one of the rationales for the establishment of community schools in Africa is the issue of cost-reduction when compared to other types of school establishments. Involving school local community

members in deciding the location of the school during its establishment is a recommendable contribution and activity which worthy to be done by the community members. Uemura (1999) reiterate that making decisions about school locations and schedules is one of the ways through which community can contribute to the education delivery.

The researcher had a feeling that government policies, acts, and circulars put limits on which activities are to be performed by the school local communities without considering specific situation of a particular community. Research findings made it clear that school local communities were partially involved in planning and implementation of very few strategies. For example they were not involved in planning the strategies to reduce pregnancies, drop outs, truants and students' discipline due to bureaucratic model of governances.

Though, strategies for implementation at the shop floor seem to differ from one community to another depending on background, understanding and other prevailing factors of a particular community including school head's motivation. As Goodlad (2002) observes that community involvement can be informal, in 'social support mechanisms based on family, friendship and neighbourliness'. In order to sufficiently involve school local community members in school management a certain degree of flexibility is needed.

Furthermore research findings have revealed that the nature of activities in which local school communities are engaged in, seems to be of material resource provision rather than participation in school management. The reduction of community

involvement in school management to material contributions was not only thought by school local community members but it was also a practice by school management. Such thinking and practice would definitely have an effect on the way people could participate in performing school managerial functions. To stress the importance of engaging local school communities in management activities, Sharma (2008) reiterates that quality education requires the collective efforts of teachers, students, parents and community. Adds that the shift to increase community control of schools can be seen as a move to enhance and reframe democratic right and participation.

School activities in which school local community members were engaged in provided an indication that school local community members and education managers had a limited outlook about community involvement in school management. The nature of school activities in which parents and other school local community members were engaged in suggests weak influence and insignificant participation of school local communities in the school management decisions.

#### **4.5 Strategies to Empower Communities for Effective Participation**

This theme was derived from the fourth research objective that was set to analyse the strategies used to empower community to participate effectively in management of school affairs. It had a research question asking, *what are the strengths and weaknesses of strategies used to empower community members for effective involvement in the management of school affairs?* This question was answered by district education officers, ward education officers, school heads, village/street leaders, councillors and local school community members.

Findings show that the strategy used by the government was to allow community members participate in making decision about the location of the school and involve general community members in the construction of the school buildings. Another strategy used by government to empower community was to train leaders who were assumed to be close to the community people with a view that the knowledge will be transferred to the village/street leaders and general community.

When asked the question: *what strategies are used to empower community so as to participate effectively in the management of school affairs?* One district education officer who seemed to represent others' opinions had the following to say:

*"...in collaboration with a government agency and central government we have managed to conduct seminars to some ward education officers, ward executive officers and school heads on how to involve community people in school self-help schemes. The seminars were aimed at imparting transferable skills and knowledge to leaders who are close to school local communities. It is our expectation that this strategy has assisted in resolving some conflicts between education leaders and local communities, the mission to train all other role players like school board members is underway. But again community members are given some power when establishing the schools, they make decision about the location of the school and they are involved in construction of the school buildings and this makes them to feel ownership of the school" (D.2).*

The above statement suggests how the planned strategy of capacity building is not directly aimed at school local community members but the leaders and managers. Moreover, it is aimed at strengthening self-help schemes rather management of schools.

When interviewed about the seminar attended one ward education officer had these to say:

*"I attended a seminar on how to mobilize funds and labour from local people for construction of secondary school buildings but I can say the seminar was not directly aimed at empowering community people to get involved in the*

*management of schools. It was about mobilization of funds, labour and materials for school buildings construction. After all most of the seminar participants were education officers and school heads that are not directly communicating with the local community members. I think the seminars could also be organised for village leaders, village executive officers and councillors who are very close to community members. The aspect of soliciting community members to contribute money or materials things willingly is yet to succeed... I think you have heard about the strategy of forcefully taking peoples' goats and chicken when failed to contribute money for school buildings construction. Most of our people are not willing to contribute for public projects probably due to poverty or the strategies we are using. In my view the strategies we are using to involve local people in school issues are just for making them contribute material things and at the same time we are developing negative attitudes among the community members towards participation in school activities" (C.3).*

The above research results add to what district education officers observed about training but again show that the expected outcome could be difficult to realise, since people who attended the seminar are not close to community people. Furthermore, the research results show that the strategies used emphasized material and labour contributions from the community rather than general management of the school. Moreover, it has been revealed that there are no well-planned strategies in place which are shared with the community for their empowerment. Strategies used were not aimed at empowerment instead they were of more top down approach; people were forced to contribute money and if failed their properties were forcefully taken. When asked about the strategies used to involve school local community members in school management one school head had these to say:

*"...I do not have any personal strategy but I direct myself to the government Acts and directives, if it's about school boards I participate as a secretary and if it's about teacher-parents meetings or school construction committee I have to make sure they are conducted according to the acceptable norms and guidelines.... I know very little about what is going on at village level, as there is no clear platform where we are required to meet" (C.5).*

This statement reveals that there were no clear platforms where school heads could officially and directly communicate with school local community members. This

also show how less effective was the planned strategy by the government of including school heads in the planned training for empowering community in the management of school affairs.

Selected researcher's interview response with a councillor

*“On my part the strategies I am using is to order meeting with village leaders and tell them to organise meeting with community people, listen them and forward their views to my office for consideration and forward the same to the district office. Also I tell village leaders to make their people understand the benefits of the school and be willing to contribute something. Furthermore I directly discuss these things with my people in informal places say in a market place, funeral functions and in local bars, to make them feel that they are part of the decisions we make. Through these strategies we have managed to empower community and solicit funds from community people, I once organised an auction during Christmas and managed to get about three millions, which was a big boost for it took us some further steps in the construction of three classrooms” (C.3).*

The above statement indicates mixed responses from leaders who were close to the school local communities. Ideally they were supposed to be clear about the planned strategies by the government, but it seems every leader try to use his/her own initiatives, as there are no clear strategies in place to be used by leaders to empower school local community people. When asked about the strategies used to empower community in management of school, one village chairperson who seems to represent views of others had these to say:

*“... the information about school affairs are brought to me through village executive officer, school construction committee members or directly when attending ward DC. Usually the information brought to me is about contributions of materials, labour or money. If it's about electing construction committee members I call a general village meeting where villagers have to make their choice, but if it's about money or labour contributions we do not call meeting with all general village members. I call a meeting with village secretariat and hamlet leaders to set plans. We determine and agree on amount of money to be contributed or activities to be done by each family and set deadlines depending on what have been decided at Ward Development Council (Ward DC). Then, it is up to hamlet leaders to inform their people*

*about the activities or amount and deadline for contributions..... of course a kind of village bylaws are set and used to make people get involved in school activities, these help us a lot. For those who fail to contribute money or volunteer for labour we make uninformed visits to their homesteads with the aid of auxiliary police (mgambo). This is a strategy for our village but every village has its own strategies, some villages do simply get money from well wishers who are working or doing businesses in different places. We do not get much troubles if labour is required the trouble is when cash money is needed. Dear researcher that is how we became successful in building the school you saw yesterday” (C.2)*

This statement confirms how involvement of school local community members is reduced to labour, money and materials contributions. And that the strategies used were not discussed and accepted by all community members but were set by the village government, community members were just required to comply. Selected researcher’s interview responses from a school local community member:

*“ The strategies used by our leaders to make us contribute money or labour for school were not decided by ourselves, leaders used auxiliary police to nab those who fail to pay the money on the prescribed date, they did not care whatever family problems you were in. If they found anything to carry from our homestead they went with it and sell it, to avoid this chaos and shame we could hide ourselves for more than a month without doing any productive activity” (C.1).*

The above statement furthermore supports what has been said by the village chairpersons that school local community members were not involved in formulating strategies or deciding the kind of school activities they could get involved in.

Above statements from participants confirm how school local community members including their leaders were reducing involvement in school management to contribution of material things, money and labour. Because when asked about strategies used for community empowerment all responses were linked to material things, labour and money contributions. Furthermore, findings have revealed that



the strategies used to solicit contributions from community members were undemocratic and humiliating.

Some leaders had contrasting views, below is the response from one of the village leaders when asked about the strategies used to involve community in school management affairs:

*“As you can see we are very poor and most of us are not educated and therefore it is difficult to get involved in management of school affairs, it is up to the local government to build the schools for our children..... I can say we do not have any strategies for involving community people in the management of school. With exception of big businessmen, people in this area are reluctant to get involved in school issues. It is only those parents with children in the school who receive student academic reports and meet with the school management. We have some few people who were selected by the government and they are the ones who are attending meetings with school heads, I think they are the ones who know the strategies you may ask them” (C.8).*

The above statement show that in some places school local community members were not involved in any of the strategies for their empowerment in the management of community secondary schools.

Results obtained through focus group discussion (FGDs) also have indicated that despite the fact that the strategies used were not deliberately planned to satisfactorily empower communities in the management of community secondary schools, they were limited to material things, money and labour contributions. It was also made known that most of the strategies used were set at the top and therefore people at the grassroots were not aware of them hence community empowerment could neither be felt nor understood among community members. They spontaneously went far to pointed out the problems which stopped them from sufficiently get empowered in the participation of decision making of the community secondary schools. Problems

pointed out were,

- i.* Government restrictions and Acts for example formulation of school boards which seemed to limit to extent to which communities could participate in school management.
- ii.* Ignoring or failure to consider local people views hence improper representation and influence of the local people
- iii.* poor communication and coordination between school management, various actors and school local community members which has resulted into delays and poor reporting of school finances
- iv.* Lack of proper information or guidance in advance about what, how and when local people are supposed to do certain activities.
- v.* Urgent and irrelevant directives from top leaders, which are sometimes not well thought out or worked out in relation to the local circumstances
- vi.* Political crashes, it was pointed out that since the introduction of multi-partism in the country there has been always antagonism among followers of different political parties. This has caused disunity among community members.

Despite the fact that there were no clear deliberately planned strategies for empowering school local community members to participate in school management, but findings show that there were some noted strengths that resulted from the activities they were engaged in. For example during establishment of the community secondary schools, school local community people were involved in deciding where the school had to be located. The practice of surrendering villages' land for construction of the school buildings including contributions of materials, labour and

money made people feel ownership of the school hence existence of a kind of partnership between community and school.

However, these might have occurred inadvertently since government's major aim was to reduce the burden of costs for school buildings construction. Other strengths of the strategies used was training to education officers and school heads which was aimed at transferring the knowledge and skills to school local community leaders and members, though it had yet to bring the desired results. It was also revealed that some political leaders could strategically influence and mobilise funds from well wishers and made people to volunteer for school activities. Thus, political influence had some positive effect on school–community partnership and therefore may be used as a gateway to strengthen the partnership.

Moreover, findings had come out with some shortfalls which emanated from the seemingly strategies used; that they were all aimed at money, labour and material contributions from the school local community members. This has made leaders and school local community members to perceive empowerment in terms of money, labour and material contributions. The study has revealed that the seemingly strategies which were practised to empower school local communities for getting involved in the school management were undemocratic, humiliating and not consciously planned or strategized.

Study results show that in the beginning of the project there were no planned strategies for sustainability of community involvement in school affairs. The result seems to be contrary to other researchers' views for example Munt (2002) maintains

that if a school project is to be successful, right away from the beginning of the project some processes to include community members have to be established. This includes asking questions such as; who will be affected by the project? What is the way to open up a dialogue? What is the nature of their current involvement? Are they supportive? In what capacity can they be involved?

Empowering school local community members for effective involvement in the management of school affairs need to be purposive and strategically planned. These weaknesses undoubtedly could slow down the process of community involvement in school management decisions. The results were contrary to what Arnstein's (1969); Shaeffer's (1994); Burns et al. (1994) and Wilcox (1999) suggested. That if we want to get a desired level of outcomes, community empowerment is a necessary condition for the involvement of the community in the management and improvement of community schools.

To put emphasis on the role of community empowerment in school participation, Burns et al. (1994), maintain that people are expected to be responsible for themselves and should, therefore, be active in public service decision-making. That empowerment of citizen is a slow and sequential process that begins with the stage where there is no participation of the citizen until the highest stage where citizen take full control of school decision-making. In terms of community empowerment research findings have shown that in Tanzania the process of empowerment is at initial stages.

Sharma (2008) suggests a process that involves four stages namely access, awareness, involvement and decision-making. That these stages of involvement in

management of schools are sequential and communities are expected to practice step by step so as to take responsibility of school management. Findings in this study show that there was no any consciously planned strategy that could at least engage community members at the first stage (access) of involvement in the management of school. The strategies used were not clearly coordinated and at some points were not democratic.

Research findings have also shown that another area where elements of community empowerment were observed was on contribution of materials and labour for school buildings construction. In so doing there is an increased sense of school ownership as it was point out by UNESCO (2000) that when people work together on a task, they are more likely to feel a sense of ownership than if someone else performs the task for them.

Findings have shown that most of the strategies used were set at the top and therefore people at the grassroots were not aware of them hence community empowerment could neither be felt nor understood among community members. This suggests that the strategies used were not based on community empowerment. Furthermore schools were not clearly linked with school local community members so as to tap their efforts for the improvement of management of community secondary schools in Tanzania.

## **CHAPTER FIVE**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **5.1 Introduction**

This chapter presents the summary of the major findings, conclusions and recommendations. It should be remembered that this study sought to assess the perceptions of the school local community members about their involvement in school management decisions. It also sought to examine the strategies used by various role players to involve school local community members in the management of community secondary schools in Tanzania. Four research tasks were formulated to guide the study.

The first task aimed at investigating the perceptions of the community members about their involvement in school management decisions. The second task was assessing the representativeness of all groups and interests of the community members in the decision-making bodies of the school. And the third task of this study was to analyse decisions and managerial activities of the school in which local community members were involved. The fourth task, which was the last, dealt with the analysis of the strengths and weaknesses of the strategies used by education officers and leaders in an attempt to empower community in school management participation.

The evaluation model as documented by Wilson and Wilde (2003) was adapted as an appropriate model for directing the investigation. It is a framework that is based on four important dimensions namely; influences, inclusivity, communication and capacity. The model helped to focus attention on what is already in place and what

still needs to be achieved to maximize community involvement in management of community secondary schools. Next find the summary, conclusions and recommendations.

## **5.2 Summary of Findings**

The summary is presented along with the research objectives, starting with findings on perceptions of local community members on their involvement in the school management decisions, followed by assessment of representativeness of the community members in the school board and construction committee. Then, analysis of the decisions and managerial activities of the school in which local community members were involved in is presented. An assessment on the strengths and weaknesses of strategies used to empower community members for effective involvement in the management of school affairs concludes presentation of the summary of findings.

### **5.2.1 School Local Community Perceptions on its Involvement in School Management**

Task one aimed at investigating the perceptions of the school local community members about their involvement in school management decisions. Under this theme the presentation was organised around three subthemes. These were on rationales and representativeness in school management organs including challenges that hindered them from adequately getting involved in school management decisions.

#### **i) Community perception on the rationale for their involvement**

Community understanding of reasons for their involvement was expected to be a catalyst for making school local community members participate willingly in school

management decisions. In order to be able to draw conclusion about the perception of the community members therefore, it was imperative to find out what was the understanding of the community members about reasons for their involvement in school management decisions.

School local community members were in consensus that there were reasons for them to get involved in decision-making process of the community secondary school affairs. Reasons advanced by the school local community members included setting up realistic and relevant school plans, monitoring and evaluation of their materials and money contributions. Material and money contributions were associated with their right to school ownership hence influence. Thus, the impetus to demand for getting involved in the management of school was mainly associated with their material, money and labour contributions.

Failure to adequately involve school local community members in the management of school affairs was pointed to be a source of corruption, indiscipline among students and theft of their material and money contributions. Reasons advanced by the school local community members suggest that they were not involved in things, which are academic or managerial in nature. The results also suggest that involving school local community members in various school management activities is a necessary step towards management success of the community secondary schools.

## **ii) Perception on their representation**

Before getting into the actual practices of how school local communities were represented in the management of community secondary schools it was important to



research on the perception of community members about their representation in the school board and school construction committee.

Though, limited in dealing with school management decisions, school construction committee was perceived as representative organ for the school local community members, on the ground that its members were democratically elected and accessible. As such, school board was not seen as an organ that represented school local community instead it represented the one who formed it, the government. A kind of school-parents partnerships existed where school local community members perceived they were somehow involved but formal Parents- Teachers Associations (PTAs) were not found.

**ii) Community members' perceived challenges that hindered their involvement.**

The third sub task of the first main theme was aimed at assessing the perceived challenges hindering community members to get involved directly or being represented in the decision making organs of school. Findings have revealed a number of things that hindered community members from properly getting involved in the management of community secondary schools. These included lack of confidence due to their low level of education (capacity), lack of information and awareness including coordination.

Moreover, clarity on school ownership and political clashes among members of the ruling and opposition parties were pointed out as challenges. Other identified obstacles were: failure of parents and school leavers to realise benefits of having community secondary schools in their area; poor desire and motivation among

school heads and leaders; poverty and moral decays among people hindered community members to pioneer for unpaid school activities. Furthermore, level of centralization practices by the government was pointed out as one of the factors, which limited community members' involvement in management of schools. Limitations set by government Acts and urgent directives were perceived as hindrances for the community people to sufficiently get involved in management of school affairs.

### **5.2.2 Inclusivity of Community Members in School Decision Making Organs**

The second task emanated from objective number two that intended to assess the inclusivity of the community members in the decision-making bodies of the school. Findings indicated contradicting views between education officers, school heads and the school local community members. From the findings three things were evident; the first was about a contradicting belief between the education officers, school heads and community members about the organ and people who represented school local community members in the school management decisions. The second was on the part of the school local community members including their leaders to assume that their representation in the management of the community secondary school was limited to money, labour and material contributions. The third one was lack of clear guidelines and actions that could ensure various local groups in the community were represented in whatever decision-making organs of the school they could think.

Irrespective of the contradiction over the organ in which school local community members were represented but school local community members were satisfied to be represented on the basis of locality or villages. Regardless of the contradictions

among stakeholders about the school organ where community members are represented but consensus about the importance of having school local community representation in the management organs of the community secondary schools existed.

### **5.2.3 Decisions and Managerial Activities in Which Local Communities Were Involved**

This theme was drawn from the third research objective that was set to analyse decisions and managerial activities of the school in which local community members were involved. Findings have revealed that the decisions and managerial activities in which school local community members were involved in were planning and deciding where the school had to be located. They also got involved in electing members of the construction committee to represent them in monitoring and supervising the work of school buildings construction.

Moreover, general school local community members including parents were required to contribute materials, money and labour for construction of school buildings. Involving community members in deciding where to build the school seemed to be an acceptable activity to community members as it is coupled with some advantages including fair location of the school, something which could reduce the costs covered by parents. The nature of activities in which school local community members were engaged in furthermore confirms that school construction committee was the organ where community members were represented in school management affairs.

Data have also disclosed a remarkable difference between different communities, when establishing schools some communities were more rationally involved in school management decisions than others. The nature of activities in which local school communities were engaged in, largely seemed to be of material resource provision rather than participation in school management decisions.

School activities in which school local community members were engaged in provided an indication that school local community members and education managers had a limited outlook about community involvement in school management. Thus, community involvement in school management decisions was reduced to labour, material and money contributions. This suggests a low level of involvement in school management decisions hence lack of influence, inclusivity and capacity of the school local community members.

#### **5.2.4 Strengths and Weaknesses of Strategies used to Empower Community Members**

This theme was derived from the fourth research objective that was set to analyse strengths and weaknesses of strategies used to empower community members for effective involvement in the management of school affairs. Despite the fact that there were no clear deliberately planned strategies for empowering school local community members to participate in school management, but findings show that there were some noted strengths as well as weaknesses of the seemingly used strategies. Three evident strategies that were used to empower school local community members in the management of CSS were as follows:

The first strategy was that during establishment of CSS, community people were required to make decision about the location of the school and then surrender their land for school buildings construction. The second strategy was through school local community members' contributions of materials, labour and money for construction of the school buildings. The third strategy used for community empowerment was through training conducted to education officers with a view of transferring the knowledge and skills to school local community leaders and members.

The act of community people to surrender their land and get involved in deciding where the school had to be located including their contributions of materials, labour and money made them to feel ownership of the school and democratic right of participation. This was the beginning of a kind of partnership between community, government and school. Other strengths of the seemingly strategies used was training of education officers and school heads which was aimed at transferring the knowledge and skills to school local community leaders and members, though at the time of data collection it had yet to bring the desired results. It was also revealed that some political leaders could strategically influence and mobilise funds from well wishers and made people to volunteer for school activities. Thus, political influence had some positive effect on school–community partnership and therefore seemed to be a gateway for strengthening the partnership. These strategies promote sustainability for it made school local community members to feel ownership of the project and enjoy their democratic right of participation.

Findings have also revealed some shortfalls which emanated from the seemingly used strategies; that they were all aimed at money, labour and material contributions

from the school local community members. Since the aim of the government was to pass on an increasing share of the cost of education to the parents and to the local community. This has made leaders and school local community members right away from the beginning to perceive empowerment in terms of money, labour and material contributions.

The study has also revealed that the seemingly used strategies to empower school local communities to a large extent were undemocratic, humiliating and were not meant for school management. Moreover, they were not consciously planned and specifically meant for involving school local communities in school management. These weaknesses undoubtedly affected the process of community empowerment hence their involvement in school management decisions.

Community empowerment is a necessary condition for the involvement of the community in the management and improvement of community schools. The process of community empowerment should be strategic and sequential. That empowerment of citizen is a slow and sequential process that begins with the stage where there is no participation of the citizen until the highest stage where citizen take full control of school decision-making.

### **5.3 Conclusions**

Conclusions arising from the research results are presented in this section according to their particular themes and sub-themes. The conclusions furnish answers to research tasks and questions presented in chapter one.

**i) School local Community Perceptions on Involvement**

Findings have shown that the reasons given by the school local community members for their involvement in school management decisions were mainly associated with monitoring and evaluation of their material, money and labour contributions. The focus of the school local community members including their leaders was on areas and activities in which they were involved in, right away from when the schools were established. It was also found out that there was a kind of distrust by the community members over the school management with regard to the safety of their material and money contributions.

This has had a profound effect since their thought seemed to concentrate on funds, labour and material contributions and almost forgetting other aspects like students' absenteeism, academic achievement and drop outs. This would obviously prompt them to take members of the construction committee as their representatives in the school management decisions. But furthermore even at this thinking yet a number of factors were perceived to impede their involvement. As far as factors such as lack of confidence, clear information and awareness, genuine/effective involvement of local community in the management of community schools will remain on papers nothing significant will be realized.

Furthermore, it has been revealed that local communities are aware of the importance for them to be involved in school management and it seems they were aware of how they could be represented by distinguishing the board and the construction committee. As such representation is seen when members of the decision-making organs of the school are elected and not nominated by the

government authority. Study results suggest lack of community's influence, capacity, coordination and communication hence unpromising involvement of school local community members in the management of secondary schools in their areas.

### **ii) Inclusivity of Community Members in School Decision-Making Organs**

Findings have shown that the assumption by the government that a school board is an organ where community people are represented in the decision making organs of the community secondary school was contrary to what school local community members believed. School construction committee was taken to be a representative organ on the grounds that its members were democratically elected and accessible to community members. Findings revealed that given the nature of the school board, interests of the community members could not effectively be represent.

The study has revealed that inclusivity as it is defined by literature seems not to be conceived in the same manner by the school local community members. Representation was considered in terms of geographical locations instead of other considerations. The result suggests that different communities at different levels of social economic development perceive their representation differently. The result calls for use of different approaches of interventions to ensure inclusivity of different school local communities. Thus, consideration of inclusivity seems to be a socio cultural defined dimension and therefore needs to be contextualised.

### **iii) Decisions and Managerial Activities in Which Local Communities Were Involved**

Findings reveals that the decisions in which school local community members were involved in was to decide where the school had to be located. They were required to



contribute materials, money and labour for construction of school buildings. Moreover, they were involved in appointing members of the school construction committee to represent them in monitoring and supervising the work of school buildings construction. However, the school construction committee was not an organ where decisions for running the community secondary school were made. The mandated organ for the management of the school was the school board. The nature of activities in which local school community members were engaged in, largely seemed to be of material resource provision rather than participation in school management. This made school local communities to have little influence in the management of community secondary schools in Tanzania.

#### **iv) Strengths and Weaknesses of Strategies used to Empower Community Members**

Findings have revealed that despite the fact that there were no consciously planned strategies for community empowerment in the management of community secondary school affairs but there were some identified strategies with their respective strengths and weaknesses. The act of community people to surrender their land and get involved in deciding where the school had to be located including their contributions of materials, labour and money made them to feel ownership of the school and democratic right of participation. Involvement of the school local community members in the day to day affairs are the initial steps for enhancing the capacity of community members to take part in decision making related to school affairs. This could also build the spirit of developing the positive attitude toward the school and sense of independent in future and therefore these strategies needs to be strengthened.

On the other hand the seemingly used strategies were limited to money, labour and material contributions almost forgetting other roles where school local community members could equally be involved. The study has also revealed that the used strategies were undemocratic, humiliating and not strategized. Irrespective of the fact that there were no consciously planned strategies for community empowerment but there were some observed strategies with their respective strengths and weaknesses. The observed strengths should be consciously strategized and maintained for effective and efficient involvement of school local community members in school decision-making.

#### **5.4 Implications for Policy, Practices and Research**

Studies of Community Involvement in the Management of Community Secondary schools focused on school-community partnerships in ten communities from two regions of Tanzania. These ten communities employed different strategies to involve community members in school management. The lessons learned in each school community, and the themes found across all school communities, can inform both policymakers and practitioners about effective and promising practices of school-community partnerships in the management of secondary schools.

**Implications for Policy:** From the findings, several implications for policy concerning involvement of school local communities were evident:

**Community awareness, influence and empowerment should be integrated in education policy:** Study results suggest lack of community's influence, capacity, coordination and communication hence unpromising involvement of school local

community members in the management of secondary schools in their areas. Policymakers must keep in mind that community members are aware of their democratic right of getting involved in development programmes in their areas of jurisdiction. As such, policies should be directed at linking schools and the communities that were partners right away from the time of establishment of the schools. When planning strategies to involve community members, policy makers should look at other strategies beyond money, labour and material contributions.

**Policies, at all levels, must support school-community partnerships:** Results have shown that inclusivity is a socio cultural defined dimension and therefore needs to be contextualised. Policies should be written with an understanding of the contexts in which they are to be implemented to allow for flexibility at the local level. Moreover, policies should provide clear definitions, regulations, guidance, and communication; support for activities at the school level; provision of information and resources; and dissemination of existing and promising practices in the area of school-community partnerships.

**Implications for Practice:** Study has revealed that there were no consciously planned strategies for community empowerment but there were some observed strategies with their respective strengths and weaknesses. Pre-service and in-service training for practitioners (education officers, school heads, ward executive officers, street/village leaders) can promote strategies to involve community members in school management. This can be a powerful strategy to build capacity and overcome challenges.

**Implications for Researchers:** First, understanding outcomes of community members' involvement in management of ward secondary schools implies comparisons between partnerships and other conditions; for example, similar schools and communities without partnerships. Second, exploring outcomes over time, or longitudinally, are also implied. Third, results from this study suggest carrying out a comparative study between the structure and effectiveness of the primary school committees and school boards of community secondary schools.

### **5.5 Recommendations**

From the research findings, discussions and conclusions, the following are suggested in order to genuinely and effectively involve local school communities in the management of community secondary schools; It was learnt that the formation of the school board did not take into consideration members' interests from different factions of the school local communities. It is therefore recommended that the structure of management of community (ward) secondary schools be reviewed. This will enhance and reframe democratic right and participation of the school local community members in the management of community secondary schools. Thus, there is a need for the government of Tanzania to review the structure of community secondary management organs so as to enhance and reframe democratic right and participation of the school local community members in the management of community secondary schools.

Study results have revealed a number of perceived obstacles by the school local community members, which are jeopardising potency of their participation in school management decisions. These include lack of confidence due to their low level of

education (capacity), lack of information and awareness (communication), clarity on school ownership, political clashes among members of the ruling and opposition parties, failure of parents and school leavers to realise benefits of having community schools, domination and prejudices of some clans. Other identified obstacles were poor desire and motivation among school heads and leaders; moreover poverty and moral decays among people hindered community to pioneer for unpaid school activities. It is therefore recommended that so as to enhance community involvement in management of community secondary schools, the government should work collaboratively with local communities to look ways for minimizing if not to eliminate these perceived roadblocks.

Study results showed that different school local communities depending on their level of socio-economic development conceived the term inclusivity differently. Results from this study have shown that school local community members seemed to be satisfied with their representation on the basis of locality or villages. Despite of the process used to be contrary with the documented principles of inclusivity yet there were no complaints from the school local community members. It is therefore recommended that while looking for desired representation of the school local communities in the school management organs the issue of inclusivity should be contextualised depending on the social economic structures of the community in question.

Study findings have revealed that there were no consciously planned strategies for community empowerment in place, though some strategies with their respective strengths and weaknesses have been identified. It is therefore recommended that

observed strengths of the seemingly used strategies to empower communities in the school management should be maintained including initiation of the new ones.

Training of school heads and education officers was identified as one of the strategies used for the empowerment of school local community members in school management decisions. And that the strategy was aimed at transferring the knowledge and skills to school local community leaders and members. These officers are not close to school local community members as it is for street and village leaders. It is therefore recommended that the training programmes should be well planned and be provided to all stakeholders.

Training to education officers, managers and community representatives should be conducted simultaneously so as exchange experiences and easily be translated into local situations. Training programme should be a progressive and its content should be revised from time to time. This will help the participants to get the required knowledge and skills to approach the community members depending on their situations rather than relying on the one universal training manual. It is furthermore recommended that preparation of teachers and education administrators should include the study on how school local communities relate to school improvement efforts.

### **5.6 Recommendations for Further Research**

From the research findings and conclusions, the following further researches are suggested. It is recommended that a study be conducted to uncover more ways and means of enhancing involvement of school local community members in the

management of community secondary schools. Further research and practice should explore the relationship of the school local communities to the school management organs and their interactions and impact on community secondary school improvement.

School boards operate in secondary schools while school committees operate in primary schools. School committees in primary schools have been operating in close relationship with the local school communities for a quite long time when compared to school boards of community secondary schools. It is therefore recommended that a comparative research study be conducted on the structure and effectiveness of the community secondary schools boards.

## REFERENCES

- Adelman, H. & Taylor, L. (2008). *Fostering School, Family, and Community Involvement*. Hamilton Fish Institute on School and Community Violence and Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory. Washington
- Ahuja, R. (2005). *Research Methods*. New Delhi: Nice Printing Press.
- Amin, M. E. (2005). *Social Science Research: Conception, Methodology and Analysis*. Kampala: Makerere University
- Anderson, G. (1990). *Fundamentals of educational research*. London: The Falmer Press.
- ANTRIEP (Asian Network of Training and Research Institutions in Educational Planning) (2003). "Improving School Efficiency, The Asian Experience" A report for International in Education Planning, Colombo 15-17<sup>th</sup> December, 1998.
- Asiamah, N., Mensah, H., & Oteng-Abayie, E. (2017). General, Target, and Accessible Population: Demystifying the Concepts for Effective Sampling. *The Qualitative Report*, 22(6), 1607-1621.
- Babyegeya, E. (2000). *Participation in Decentralized Public Schools. Cases From Tanzania and Victoria*. Unpublished PhD Dissertation, Melbourne University, Australia.
- Babyegeya, E. (2001). Perspectives of Participation in Decentralized Public Schools. *Post-Script*, 2(1). 127-147.
- Baxter, P., & Jack, S. (2008). Qualitative Case Study Methodology: Study Design and Implementation for Novice Researchers. *The Qualitative Report*, 13(4), 544-556.



- Becker, J., & Niehaves, B. (2007). Epistemological perspectives on IS research: A framework for analysing and systematizing epistemological assumptions. *Information Systems Journal*, 17(2), 197-214.
- Berger, E. (1991). *Parents as Partners in Education: The School and Home Working Together*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company
- Best, J. W. & Kahn, J. V. (2006). *Research in Education*. Boston: PEARSON.
- Bickman, L. & Rog, D. J. (1998). *Handbook of Applied Social Research Methods*. Paperback: Sage.
- Borg, W. R. & Gall, M. D. (1989). *Educational Research: An Introduction*. 5<sup>th</sup> Ed., New York: Longman.
- Bouma, G. D. & Atkinson, G. B. J. (1995). *A Handbook of Social Science Research*. 2<sup>nd</sup> Ed., London: Oxford University Press.
- Bray, M. (2000). *Community Partnership in Education: Dimensions, Variations, and Implications*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Briggs, A. & Coleman, M. (2007). *Research Methods in Educational Leadership and Management*. London: SAGE Publications.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1979). *The ecology of human development: Experiments by nature and design*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Bronfenbrenner, U. (1986). Ecology of the family as a context for human development: Research perspectives. *Developmental Psychology*, 22(6), 723-742.
- Bryman, A. (2008). *Social research methods*, (3rd ed.). New York: Oxford University Press.
- Burns D., Hambleton R., Hogget P. (1994). *The Politics of Decentralisation:*

*Revitalising Local Democracy*. Basingstoke: Macmillan.

Burns, N. & Grove S. (1997). *The Practice of Nursing Research: Conduct, Critique and Utilization*, 3<sup>rd</sup> Ed., Philadelphia, W. B. Saunders Company.

Bush, T. & Bell, L. (2003). *The Principles and Practice of Educational Management*. London: Paul Chapman Publishing.

Cahill, M. (1996). *Schools and Community partnerships: Reforming schools, revitalizing communities*. Chicago, IL: Cross City Campaign for Urban School Reform.

Charles, C. M., & Mertler, C. A. (2002). *Introduction to Educational Research*, (4<sup>th</sup> ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Chinn, P. L. & Kramer, M. K. (1999). *Theory and Nursing: Integrated Knowledge Development*. 5<sup>th</sup> Ed. St. Louis: C.V Mosby.

Chung, C. (2002). *Using public schools as community development tools: Strategies for community*. Retrieved from <http://community-wealth.org/content/using-public-schools-community-development-tools-strategies-community-based-developers>

Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education*. 6th ed. London: Routledge Taylor and Francis Group.

Colleen, A. C. (1993). Rural Community Influences on Effective School Practices. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 3(3), 20-38.

Cornell Empowerment Group, (1989). Empowerment and family support. *Networking Bulletin*, 1, 1–23.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research Design: Qualitative, Quantitative, and Mixed Methods Approaches*. (3<sup>rd</sup> Ed.), Los Angeles: Sage Publications, Inc.

- Creswell, J. W. (2013). *Qualitative Inquiry & Research Design: Choosing among Five Approaches* (3rd Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.
- Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*, (4th ed.). California: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Crewe, E. & Harrison, E. (1998). *Whose Development? An Ethnography of Aid*. London and New York: Zed Books.
- CRU, (2003). *Building Civil Renewal*. London: Civil Renewal Unit
- Denscombe, M. (1998). *The Good Research Guide*, Open University Press, Buckingham: Philadelphia.
- Denscombe, M. (2007). *The good research guide for small-scale social research projects*. (3rd ed.), New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2000). *Introduction: The discipline and practice of qualitative research*. California: Sage Publications.
- Deslandes, R. (2001). "A Bridge to the Future - Collaboration between Parents, Schools and Communities" Presented at the ERNAPE Conference 2001 and published in the proceedings (2001).
- DeStefano, J, Moore, A. S, Balwanz, D, & Hartwell, A. (2007). *Reaching the Underserved: Complementary Models of Effective Schooling*. Washington, DC: USAID.
- Dyer, C. (1999). Researching the Implementation of Educational Policy: a Backward mapping approach. *Comparative Education* 35(1), 45-61.
- E. K., & McEwan, P. J. (2003). *Making Sense of Research: what is good, what is not, and how to tell the Difference*. Thousand Oaks: Corwin Press
- Eisenhardt, K. M., & Graebner, M. E. (2007). Theory building from cases:

- Opportunities and challenges. *The Academy of Management Journal*, 50(1), 25-32.
- Epstein J. L., Coates, L., Salinas K. C., Sanders M.G., & Simon, B. (1997). School, family, community partnerships: *International Handbook of Educational Change*, 482-502. New York: DeGruyter.
- Epstein, J. (2000). Johns Hopkins University A monthly newsletter by the National Clearinghouse for Comprehensive School Reform (NCCSR), 1(2).
- Epstein, J. L. (1995). School/family/community partnerships: Caring for the children we share. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 76(9), 701-12.
- Flick, U., von Kardorff, E., & Steinke, I. (2004). *A Companion to Qualitative Research*. London: Sage.
- Galabawa, J. C. J. (1997). Issues and Strategies for Primary and Secondary Education Decentralization in Tanzania. Papers in Education and development, Number 18, University of Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.
- Gall, M. D. Gall, P. & Borg, W. (1995). *Educational Research: An Introduction* (6<sup>th</sup> ed.). New York: Allyn & Bacon.
- Gilbert, N. (2008). *Researching Social Life*, (3rd ed.). London: SAGE publications.
- Goodlad, R. (2002) 'Neighborhood Regeneration Policy: Rebuilding Community?' in Nash, V. (Ed.). Institute for Public Policy Research, London, 65-84. Retrieved from National archives. gov.uk/2011021
- Gorman, G. E. & Clayton, P. (2005). *Qualitative research for the information professionals: A Practical handbook*. London: Facet Publishing.
- Govinder, R. (1997). *Decentralization of Educational Management: Experience from South Asia*. Paris, UNESCO.

- Gunnarsson, V., Orazem, P. F., Sanchez, M. & Verdisco, A. (2004). "Does School Decentralization Raise Student Outcomes? Theory and Evidence on the Roles of School Autonomy and Community Participation. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 31(3), 1-32..
- Gupta, C. B. (2003). *Management Theory and Practice*. New Delhi: Education Publishers.
- Hanushek, E. A., Link, S., & Woessman, L. (2013). Does school autonomy make sense everywhere? Panel estimates from PISA. *Journal of Development Economics*, 104, 212–232.
- Hape, C. (2005). Determinants of community Involvement in Primary School Management: The Case of Singida Rural District. Unpublished M.A (Education) Dissertation, University of Dar es Salaam. Tanzania.
- Henderson, A. T., Mapp, K. L., Johnson, V. R., & Davies, D. (2007). *Beyond the bake sale: The essential guide to family school partnerships*. New York: The New Press.
- Heneveld, W. & Craig, H. (1996). *Schools count: World Bank project designs and the quality of primary education in Sub-Saharan Africa*. Washington, DC: The World Bank.
- Horn, L., & West, J. (1992). A profile of parents of eighth graders: National education longitudinal study of 1988, statistical analysis report. Retrieved on 30<sup>th</sup> February, 2019 from; [https://archive.org/stream/ERIC\\_ED529869/ERIC\\_ED529869\\_djvu.txt](https://archive.org/stream/ERIC_ED529869/ERIC_ED529869_djvu.txt).
- Hoy, W. K. & Miskel, C. (1991). *Educational Administration Theory, Research and Practice*. Chicago: McGraw-Hill.

- Ishumi, A. (1981). *Community Education and Development: A study in Problems of Harnessing Community Education and Development Efforts Among Rural and Peri-Urban Communities in Tanzania*. Nairobi: Kenya Limited Bureau.
- Ishumi, A. G. M. (1992). "Challenges and Dilemmas in Social Service Provision: The Story of the State and Non-governmental Organizations (NGOs) in the Development of Education in Tanzania, 1860s-1990s". Research Paper for a workshop on State Vs NGOs in the Provision of Services in Eastern Africa. Rungwe Oceanic Hotel, Dar es salaam, July 22-24.
- Ishumi, A. G. M. (1993). *Equity and Quality Issues in Private and Community Self-Help secondary schooling in Tanzania: Perspectives and Directions in Recent Research*. Paper prepared for the TADREG Workshop on Equality and Quality Issues in Tanzanian Education Policy and Practice: Insights from Recent Research. Dar es Salaam, December 15-16, 1993. Tanzania Development Research Group.
- John, D. F. (2008). *Stakeholders' Contribution to Teaching-Learning Resources in Community Secondary Schools: The Case of Singida Rural District, Tanzania*. Unpublished M.A (Ed) Dissertation, University of Dar es salaam. Tanzania.
- Kalembe, B. (2013). *Community Participation in Education Delivery: A study of How Community Schools Target OVCs in Chipulukutu, Zambia*. Master's Thesis, Norwegian University of Science and Technology.
- Kamando, A. N. (2014). *Government-community partnership in the provision of education in Rural Tanzania*. PhD Thesis. University of Glasgow.
- Kassim, H. (2004). *Effectiveness of Community Involvement in Management of*

- Rural Water Supply and Sanitation Systems in Tanzania*. Unpublished MA Dissertation, University of Dar es salaam. Dar es Salaam. Tanzania.
- Katunzi, N. B. (1988). Implementing Education for Self-Reliance through the Community School. A PhD thesis submitted to the University of Calgary, Alberta.
- Kimboy, F. (2011). Massive plan to boost education quality. *The Citizen*, p. A2.
- Koross, P., Moses, W. & Kiplangat, A. (2009). Principals' and students' perceptions on parental contribution to financial management in secondary schools. *Kenya Quality Assurance in Education*, 17(1), 61-78.
- Kothari C. R. (1990). *Research Methodology: Methods and Techniques*, (2nd ed.). New Delhi; Wachira Prakashan.
- Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research Methodology—Methods and Techniques*, (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.). New Delhi; New Age.
- Krathwohl, D. R. (1993). *Methods of Educational Research and Social Science Research: An Integrated Approach*. New York: Longman.
- Kumar, R. (2011). *Research Methodology a step-by-step guide for beginners*, (3<sup>rd</sup> ed). California: Sage Publications Inc.
- Kvale, S. & Brinkman, S. (2009). *Interviews: Learning the Craft of Qualitative Research Interviewing*, (2<sup>nd</sup> Ed.), Los Angeles: Sage Publications.
- Lareau, A. (1987). Social class differences in family-school relationships: The importance of cultural capital. *Sociology of Education*, 60(2), 73-85.
- Lazaridou, A. & Kassida, A. G. (2015) "Involving parents in secondary schools: Principals' perspectives in Greece" *International Journal of Educational Management*, 29(1), 98-114,

- Limerick, I. B. (1989). Community Involvement in Schools: A Study of Three Queensland Schools. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 31(3), 32-38.
- Marion, F. Klaus, N. & Geoff, W. (2012). *Research Methods in Management*, (2nd ed.). London EC1Y 1SP: SAGE Publication Ltd.
- Marshall, C. & Rossman, G. B. (2006). *Designing qualitative research*, (4th ed.), Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Martinez, Y. & Velazquez, J. (2000). Involving Families in Education, *Eric Clearing House on Rural Education and Development 21*. 96-110.
- Marying, P. (2000). Qualitative Content Analysis. *Qualitative Social Research*, 1 (2), 20.
- Marying, P. (2007). On Generalization in Qualitatively Oriented Research. *Forum Qualitative Sozialforschung / Forum: Qualitative Social Research*, 8(3), 26.
- Mason, M. (2010). Sample Size and Saturation in PhD Studies Using Qualitative Interviews. *Qualitative Social Research*. 11(3), 8.
- Matekere, Y. M. (2003). The effectiveness of community secondary schools in Tanzania; a case of Mvomero district. Unpublished M.A (Education) Dissertation, University of Dar es salaam. Tanzania
- Menno,P., Suryadarma, D., Beatty, A., Wong, M., Gaduh, A., Alisjahbana, A., & Artha, R. P. (2014). "Improving Educational Quality through Enhancing Community Participation: Results from a Randomized Field Experiment in Indonesia." *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics* 6(2), 105–26.
- Merriam S. B. (2002). *Qualitative research in practice: examples for discussion and analysis*. California: Jossey-Bass.
- Mertens, D. M. (1998). *Research methods in education and psychology: Integrating*



*diversity with quantitative and qualitative approaches.* London: Sage.

- Mfum-Mensah, O. (2004). Empowerment or Impairment? Involving traditional communities in school management. *International Review of Education* 50(2), 141- 155.
- Michele F & Browne M (2000). The progressive outlook: Empowerment through partnership in education. *Progressive Politics, 1*, 86-89.
- Millanzi, J. E. (2005). *Patterns and Causes of Dropout in Community Secondary Schools in Lindi Rural Districts, Tanzania.* Unpublished M.A (Education) Dissertation, University of Dar es salaam. Tanzania
- Miller-Grandvaux, Y. & Yoder, K. (2002). *A literature Review of Community Schools.* Washington, DC: USAID, Bureau for Africa.
- Mogalakwe, M. (2006). The Use of Documentary Research Methods in Social Research. *African Sociological Review*, 10(1), 221-230. Retrieved from [.net/publication/267994948](http://www.africaworld.com/publication/267994948)
- Mokoena, S. (2011). Participative Decision-making: Perceptions of School Stakeholders in South Africa. *J Soc Sci*, 29(2),119-131.
- Mosha, H. J & Dachi, H, A. (2004). Decentralization of Education Delivery Provision as a Strategy for Poverty Alleviation. *Education Poverty and Inequality*, 169 –167.
- Msabila, D. T., & Nalaila, S. G. (2013). *Research proposal and Dissertation Writing: Principles and Practice*; Dar es Salaam: Nyambari Nyangwine Publishers.
- Mullins, L. J. (2002), *Management and Organizational Behavior*, (6th ed.). Amsterdam: Printice–Hall.

- Munt, R. (2002). Stronger Families Learning Exchange Bulletin No.2. Spring/Summer 2002, 3-5. Retrieved from <http://www.aifs.gov.au/sf/pubs/bull2/rm.html>.
- Mwananchi Newspaper dated 12/01/2011 issue No. 03853 Published by Mwananchi Communications, Dar es salaam, Tanzania
- Mwananchi Newspaper dated 7/01/2011 issue No. 03848 Published by Mwananchi Communications, Dar es salaam, Tanzania
- Narayan, D. (1995). "The Contribution of People's Participation: Evidence from 121 Rural Water Supply Projects." ESD Occasional Paper Series 1. World Bank.
- Nasir, M. Farooq, R. A and Tabassum, R. (2017). Effectiveness of Community Participation in Public Sector Schools of Khyber Pakhtunkhwa. *The Dialogue*, XII(4), 33-440.
- NBS, (National Bureau of Statistics) (2013). Population and Housing Census of 2012. Dar es Salaam: Tanzania, KIUTA
- NEA, (2008). NEA Policy Center for Great Public Schools, Washington, Retrieved from [www.nea.org/assets/.../PB11](http://www.nea.org/assets/.../PB11).
- NECTA, (2018). National Examination Council of Tanzania, Dar es Salaam. Tanzania.
- Nishimura, M. (2017). Education, Change, and Development, Education and Society. *Educational Administration and Leadership*, 31(2), 224–243.
- Obondoh, A., Nandago, M., & Otiende, E. (2005). *Managing Our Schools Today: A Practical Guide to Participatory School Governance. Manual for Training and Advocacy*, Kampala: PAMOJA.

- Onsomu, E., Mungai, J., Oulai, D., Sankale, J. & Mujidi, J. (2004). *Community Schools in Kenya Case study on community participation in Funding and Managing Schools*. Paris: UNESCO.
- Palinkas L. A., S. M., Horwitz, C. A., Green, J. Wisdom, P., Duan, N. & Hoagwood, K. (2013). Purposeful sampling for qualitative data collection and analysis in mixed method implementation research. *Administration and Policy in Mental Health and Metal Health Services Research*.
- Patton, M. Q. (2001). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*, (3rd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.
- Patton, M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Polit, D. F., & Beck, C. T. (2006). *Essentials of Nursing Research: Methods, Appraisal, and Utilization* (6<sup>th</sup> ed.). Philadelphia: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.
- Prew, M. (2008). School and District Accountability: A Dream too Far? Paper Presented at the CCEAM Conference, Durban, South Africa Retrieved from [http:// www.emasa.co. za/ files/full/M%20Prew.pdf](http://www.emasa.co.za/files/full/M%20Prew.pdf).
- Rao, V. S. P. (2009). *Organisational Behaviour*, (1st ed.). New Delhi: Excel Books.
- Raphael, C. (2008). Community Involvement in Secondary Education Management in Selected Community Schools in Singida Rural District. Unpublished M.A (Education) Dissertation, University of Dar es Salaam. Tanzania
- Rappaport, J. (1987). Terms of empowerment/exemplars of prevention: Toward a theory for community psychology. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 15, 121–148.

- Reeds, D. W. (1988). *The Skills of Management*. (6th ed.), London: Rutledge.
- Rehfield, A. (2005). *The Concept of Constituency: Political Representation, Democratic Legitimacy, and Institutional Design*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Robbins, S. P. (2001). *Organizational Behaviour*, (9<sup>th</sup> Ed.). New Dheli: Prentice Hall.
- Rubin, A. & Babbie, E . (2007). *Essential Research Methods for Social Work*. (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.), California: Brooks/Cole.
- Runeson, P., & Höst, M. (2009). Guidelines for conducting and reporting case study research in software engineering. *Empirical Software Engineering*, 14(2), 131-164.
- Sale, J. E. M., Lohfed, L. H. & Brazil, K. (2002) Revisiting the Qualitative-Quantitative Debate: Implications for Mixed-Methods Research. *Quality & Quantity*, 36, 43-53.
- Sarantakos, S. (1997). *Social Research*. New York: Palgrave Publishers Ltd.
- Sarkar S. A., Mukhopadhyay, A. R. & Ghosh, S. K. (2013). Root cause analysis, Lean Six Sigma and test of hypothesis", *The TQM Journal*, 25(2), 170-185.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. (2009). *Research methods for business students*. (5th ed.), Harlow, Pearson Education.
- Schermuly, C.C., Meyer, B. & Dämmer, L. (2013), "Leader-member exchange and innovative behavior", *Journal of Personnel Psychology*, 12(3), 132-142.
- Scott, J. (2006). *Documentary Research*. California: Sage Publications
- Seni, A. J. (2008). *Community Support to Community Secondary Schools in Shinyanga*. Unpublished M.A (Education), Dissertation, University of Dar es

salaam. Tanzania

- Shaeffer, S. (1992). *Collaborating for Educational Change: the Role of Teachers, Parents and the Community in School Improvement*. Paris: UNESCO, International Institute for Educational Planning.
- Shaeffer, S. (1994). *Participation for Educational Change, a Synthesis of Experience*. Paris: IIEP.
- Sharma, T. N. (2008). Structures and Mechanisms of Community Participation in School Management. *Education Research* 1(1), *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 31(2), 224–243.
- Sheedy, A., MacKinnon, M. P., Pitre, S., & Watling, J. (2008). *Handbook on Citizen Engagement: Beyond Consultation*. Ottawa, ON: Canadian Policy Research Networks.
- Sheldon, S. B., & Epstein, J. L. (2002). Improving Student Behavior and School Discipline with Family and Community Involvement. *Educational Management and Leadership*, 35(1), 4–26.
- Singleton, A. C. (2005). Think Globally, Act Locally: An Analysis of Community Participation Discourse in Education for All National Action Plans. Retrieved on 21<sup>st</sup> March, 2019, from; <http://www.stanford.edu/dpt/SUSE/ICE/monographs/Corrine>.
- Slife, B. D., & Williams, R. N. (1995). What's behind the research? *Discovering hidden assumptions in the behavioral sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Smyth, R. (2004). Exploring the usefulness of a conceptual framework as a research tool: A researcher's reflections, *Educational Research*, 14. University of

England retrieved from <http://www.iier.org.au>.

Spreitzer, G. M. (2008). Taking stock: A review of more than twenty years of research on empowerment at work. In J. Barling & C. L. Cooper (Eds.), *Handbook of organizational behaviour* (pp. 54–72). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Stein, L. B. (2009). *The Influence of Parent and Community Involvement on Local School Councils in Massachusetts*. Unpublished PhD Dissertation Submitted to School of Education, University of Massachusetts

Steven , D. & Jennifer, T. (2008). *Challenges and Barriers to Community Participation in Policy Development Rural Communities Impacting Policy Project, 2002*. Retrieved from [documents/policy/challenges%20and%20barriers.pdf](#).

Stringfield, S. & Land, D. (Eds.) (2002). *Educating At-Risk Students*. Distributed for the National Society for the Study of Education. 400 p.6 x 9, 2002 Series: (NSSE) National Society for the Study of Education Yearbooks.

Sumra, S. (1993). *Democratising School Management: Making Community Participation a Reality in Primary Schooling in Tanzania*. Paper presented to the Tanzania Development Research Group Workshop on Equity and Quality in Tanzanian Education Policy and Practice: Insights from Recent Research (Dar es Salaam 15<sup>th</sup> -16<sup>th</sup> December, 1993

Swift-Morgan, J. (2006). What Community Participation in Schooling Means: Insights from Southern Ethiopia. *Harvard Educational Review*. Vol. 76. No. 3, 339-368.

Ternieden, M. D. (2009). *Case Study of Community Participation in Primary*

- Education in Three Rural Village Schools in Ethiopia*. Unpublished PhD Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of The Graduate School of Education and Human Development, George Washington University *retrieved from* <https://pqdtopen.proquest.com/doc/304880005.html?FMT=AI>
- Uemura, M. (1999). Community Participation in Education: What do we know? A report to World Bank, retrieved from <https://www.academia.edu/10186117> on 4/12/2017.
- UN, (2000). United Nations-Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Retrieved from [www.opics/millennium\\_development\\_goals/about/en/](http://www.opics/millennium_development_goals/about/en/)
- UN, (2015). Transforming our world: the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development, Resolution adopted by the General Assembly on 25 September 2015 Retrieved from [http://www.un.org/ga/search/view\\_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/70/1&Lang=E](http://www.un.org/ga/search/view_doc.asp?symbol=A/RES/70/1&Lang=E) pp35
- UNESCO (2000). *Themantic Studies: Community Partnerships in Education: Dimensions, Variations and Implications*, World Education For All 2000 Assessment, Dakar Senegal
- UNESCO (2003). *Gender and Education for All: The Leap to Equality: EFA Global Monitoring Report*. Paris: UNESCO. Retrieved from [http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Documents/efa\\_gmr\\_2003-4.pdf](http://www.uis.unesco.org/Education/Documents/efa_gmr_2003-4.pdf).
- UNESCO (2008). *Overcoming Inequalities: Why Governance Matters*, Paris, oxford University Press.
- UNESCO (2014). *Achieving Transparency in Pro-poor Education Incentives*. International Institute for Educational Planning: Paris, France. [http://etico.iiep.unesco.org/fileadmin/user\\_upload/ETICO/Publications](http://etico.iiep.unesco.org/fileadmin/user_upload/ETICO/Publications)

/PDF/ Pro-poor-incentives.pdf.

UNESCO, (2016). 263 Million Children and Youth Are Out of School, Retrieved from Uis.unesco.org

UNESCO, (1990). World Declaration on Education for All (WD-EFA) Retrieved from [http:// www.unesco.kz/education/efa/wdefa.pdf](http://www.unesco.kz/education/efa/wdefa.pdf) 25.06.2013

UNESCO, (2017). Global Education Monitoring Report, Accountability in education: Meeting our Commitments. retrieved from [www.unesco.org/germreport](http://www.unesco.org/germreport)

UNICEF, (2004). The State of World's Children 2004: Girls Education and Development. New York,US retrieved from [https://www.unicef.org/sowc04/files/SOWC\\_O4\\_eng.pdf](https://www.unicef.org/sowc04/files/SOWC_O4_eng.pdf)

United Republic of Tanzania Ministry of Education and Culture

*URT – United Republic of Tanzania (1978). The National Education Act, No.25*

URT -United Republic of Tanzania (1995). Education Policy and Training. Dar es Salaam.

URT -United Republic of Tanzania (2002). Education Act Number 10 of 1995 revised in 2002

URT -United Republic of Tanzania (2012). Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania. Dar es Salaam: Ministry of Education and Vocational Training

URT -United Republic of Tanzania (2013). Prime Minister's Office, Regional Administration and Local Government: Kagera Regional Investment Profile. Retrieved from [http://www.lakezoneinvestmentforum.go.tz/sites/default/files/Kagera%20Investment%20Profile%20Consolidated\\_0.pdf](http://www.lakezoneinvestmentforum.go.tz/sites/default/files/Kagera%20Investment%20Profile%20Consolidated_0.pdf) on 14/11/2017 at 11:49 HRS.



- URT -United Republic of Tanzania (2014). Basic Education Statistics in Tanzania.  
Dar es Salaam: Ministry of Education and Vocational Training
- URT -United Republic of Tanzania (2015). Prime Minister’s Office, Regional Administration and Local Government: Coast Region Investment Profile.  
Retrieved from <http://www.pwani.go.tz/storage/app/uploads/public/58d/7c3/486/58d7c3486de.\>
- URT--United Republic of Tanzania (2004). Education Sector Development Programme: Secondary Development Plan (SEDP) 2004-2009 by Ministry of Education and Vocational Training: Dar es salaam, Tanzania
- URT--United Republic of Tanzania (2008).Local government reform programmeme implementation report. Dodoma PMO-RALG
- URT--United Republic of Tanzania (2010). Education Sector Development Programme: Education Sector Performance Report 2009/2010 by Ministry of Education and Vocational Training: Dar es salaam, Tanzania
- Valli, L, Stefanski, A. & Jacobson, R. (2014). Leadership in School-Community Partnerships, *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 141, 110–114.
- Watt, Patrick.(2001). Community Support for Basic Education in Sub-Saharan Africa. Africa Region Human Development Working Paper Series, the World Bank.URL:<http://www.worldbank.org/afr/hd/wps/precommunity final.pd>.
- Williams, J. H. (1994). “The Role of the Community in Education.” *In The Forum For Advancing Basic Education and Literacy*. Vol. 3. Issue 4, Cambridge: Harvard Institute for International Development.
- Wilson, E. (2009). *School –Based Research: A guide for Education Students*. California: Thousand Oaks. Sage Publication INC.

- Wilson, M. & Wilde, P. (2003) *Benchmarking Community Participation: Developing and Implementing the Active Partners Benchmarks*, New York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation.
- Wodajo, D.; Kwame, C. S. & Asfaw, M. (2014). *Improving People's Participation In Local Development Project: A Case of Urban Local Government in Oromia-Ethiopia*. *Developing Country Studies* Vol.4, No.8 Retrieved from World Bank (1996). *The World Bank Participation Sourcebook*. Retrieved on 12<sup>th</sup> July, 2018 from; [http://dx .doi.org/10.1596/0-8213-3558-8](http://dx.doi.org/10.1596/0-8213-3558-8).
- World Bank (1997). Staff Appraisal Report, "Tanzania Human Resources Pilot Project. Dar es Salaam, Tanzania.
- World Bank (1999). Community Participation in Education: What do we know?
- Yasuyuki, S. (1999). Community Participation, Teacher Effort, and Educational Outcome: The Case of El Salvador's EDUCO Programme. Retrieved on 12<sup>th</sup> July, 2018 from; [http://www.wdi.umich.edu/files/Publications/Working Papers/wp307.pdf](http://www.wdi.umich.edu/files/Publications/WorkingPapers/wp307.pdf).
- Yin, R. K. (1994). *Case Study Research Design and Methods* (4th ed). Los Angeles: Sage Publications.
- Yin, R. K. (2003). *Case Study Research Designs and Methods* (3rd ed.) .Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Yin, R. K. (2009). *Case Study Research Design and Methods* (4th ed). Los Angeles: Sage Publications.
- Yin, R. K. (2012). *Applications of Case Study Research* (3rd ed.). Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.

## APPENDICES

### INTERVIEW GUIDE: 2016

My name is Rweyendera Ngonge I am a PhD student of The Open University of Tanzania conducting a research into the topic of “**Community Involvement in the Management of Community Secondary School in Coast and Kagera regions**”. I would be very glad if you could spare some time to answer the following questions. Please note that this exercise is purely academic and confidentiality would be maintained.

#### SECTION A

##### PERSONAL DATA

1. Community.....
2. Gender: Male [ ] Female [ ]
3. Occupation.....
4. Experience in the position you are holding in the school or community .....

#### SECTION B

##### MAIN RESEARCH QUESTIONS

- i) What are community perceptions about their involvement in performing schools’ management functions?
- ii) How community-school partnerships ensure all groups and interests in the community are represented in the decision making bodies of the school e.g. in the school board and PTAs?
- iii) What decisions and managerial activities of the school in which local community members are involved?

- iv) What strategies are used to empower community so as to participate effectively in the management of school affairs?

## **SECTION C**

### **C.1: INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR SCHOOL LOCAL COMMUNITY MEMBERS & FOCUSED GROUPS**

1. Do you think it is important for you to get involved in decision making of the affairs of your local community secondary school?
2. Is there anybody who is representing you in the decision making organs of the school? If yes, who is that and in what ways are the representatives accessible to you?
3. Are there any challenges for you or your representatives to get involved in decision making of the affairs of the local community secondary schools? What are they?
4. Have you taken part in school gathering or meetings which have influenced decisions for the schools? What kind of meetings? Which decisions were made? How the meeting did influenced what was decided?
5. Are you involved in making decision or any managerial activities of your local community secondary school? If yes what are these activities?
6. Do you think you are empowered to participate effectively in the management of school affairs? If yes what strategies were used to empower you?
7. What should be done to promote community involvement in management of community secondary school?
8. Do you have anything you want to add to things we have talked so far?

*Thank you for your participation*

### **C.2: QUESTIONS TO EDUCATION OFFICERS/ COUNCILLORS/ VILLAGE/ STREET LEADERS**

1. What is the role of your office in the management of community secondary schools?
2. How were the community members involved in planning the establishment of community secondary schools and how their agendas were reflected from day one and the process throughout?
3. What decisions and managerial activities of the community secondary school in which local community members are involved?
4. How are communities represented on decision-making groups when establishing and running the school?

5. What actions are taken to ensure that representation by all partner agencies and staff composition reflect the gender balance and ethnic diversity of the geographical area?
6. What channels do you use to communicate decisions, create awareness, motivate and convince the community for its involvement in community secondary school affairs?
7. What advantages have been or would be achieved as a result of community involvement in management of community secondary schools?
8. What strategies are used to empower local community so as to effectively get involved in the management affairs of the school?
9. Is there any differences between different villages or community in their level of involvement in managerial activities of the community secondary schools?
10. What support and training is offered to the development of equal opportunities policies and anti-discriminatory practice?
11. What factors do you think hinders community involvement in management of secondary education?
12. What should be done to promote community involvement in management of community secondary school?
13. Do you have anything you want to add to things we talked so far?

### **C.3 : QUESTIONS TO HEADS OF SCHOOL**

1. Are there certain kinds of community members who get involved in management of school affairs? Who are they and in what activities are they engaged in?
2. Are there any other community- school organs apart from school board in your school? If yes, what are they?
3. Who appoints or elects the community members to be involved in school managing organs? What criteria should be fulfilled to be elected/appointed?
5. Do you think community members or their representatives do influence decision-making at your school? How?
6. What channels do you/ your schools use to communicate decisions, create awareness, motivate and convince the community for its involvement in school affairs?
7. What strategies are used to empower local community so as to effectively get involved in the management affairs of the school?
8. What successes are so far achieved as a result of community involvement in the school?
9. Are there challenges that you have encountered when attempting to involve community members in the governance of the school?
10. What is your view of the capacity of the community in getting involved in management of schools affairs?

13. What has been done to solve problems related to community involvement in education?
14. Do you have any suggestions/ recommendations?

*Thank you for your participation.*

#### **C.4: QUESTIONS TO DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER**

1. What decisions and managerial activities of the school in which local community members are involved in this district?
2. How were the community members involved in planning the establishment of community secondary schools and how their agendas were reflected from day one and the process throughout?
3. What is the role of your office in the management of community secondary schools?
4. How were communities represented on decision-making groups when establishing the school?
5. What actions are taken to ensure that representation by all partner agencies and staff composition reflect the gender balance and ethnic diversity of the geographical area?
6. In what ways do community representatives and decision makers make themselves accessible to community members?
7. How do they ensure that information is clear and accessible and reaches all communities in time for it to be acted upon?
8. What channels do you use to communicate decisions, create awareness, motivate and convince the community for its involvement in community secondary school affairs?
9. Are there any problems that have happened as a result of community involvement in management of secondary schools?
10. How does the ward/district education office notice these consequences?
11. What advantages have been or would be achieved as a result of community involvement in management of community secondary schools?
12. What strategies are used to empower local community so as to effectively get involved in the management affairs of the school?
13. Are there differences between different wards or community in their level of involvement in managerial activities of the community secondary schools?
14. What support and training is offered to the development of equal opportunities policies and anti-discriminatory practice?
15. What factors do you think enhances community involvement in management of secondary schools?

16. What factors do you think hinders community involvement in management of secondary education?
17. What should be done to promote community involvement in management of community secondary school?
18. Do you have anything you want to add to things we talked so far?

*Thank you for your participation.*

### **C.5: QUESTIONS TO SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS**

1. What managerial functions are you engaged in as a school board or PTA member?
2. In what ways do you make yourselves accessible to community members?
3. Is there any form of resistance from the community which stops you from getting involved in the school management decisions?
4. Do you think your participation do significantly influence decision- making of the school affairs? How?
5. What successes do you think may be achieved as a result of community involvement in the decision making of the school affairs?
6. Are there certain kinds of community who get involved in management of some school affairs? Who are they and in what activities are they engaged in?
7. What is your view of the capacity of the general community members in getting involved in management of schools affairs?
8. Do you have any suggestions/ recommendations?

*Thank you for your participation*

#### D. QUALITATIVE DATA ENTRY FRAMEWORK AND BASIS FOR ANALYSIS

CATEGORIES	THEMES	W.1	W.2	W.3	W.4	W.5	W.6	W.7	W.8	W.9	W.10	DCs	FN
Influence	Nature of communication and school activities in which local people are involved												
	Influences on decision making												
	Range of opportunities through which community can influence decision												
Inclusivity	Diversity of local communities and interests are represented at all levels of the process												
	Equal opportunities policies are in place and implemented												
Empowerment	Communities are resourced to participate – strategies used for empowerment												
	Understanding, knowledge and skills are developed to support partnership working												
Community Perceptions	Understanding rationales for their involvement in school management												
	Perception on their representation in the management organs of the school												
	perceived challenges for them to adequately get involved in the decision making of the school affairs												

**KEY:** W =Participants in Community X( W.10, W.9, W.8, W.7, W.6, W.5, W.4, W.3, W.2 & W.1) , Dcs= Documents, FN= Field Notes. D1, D2, D3.... Represents Districts visited



THE OPEN UNIVERSITY OF TANZANIA  
 DIRECTORATE OF RESEARCH, PUBLICATIONS, AND POSTGRADUATE STUDIES

Kawawa Road, Kinondoni Municipality,  
 P.O. Box 23409  
 Dar es Salaam, Tanzania  
<http://www.out.ac.tz>



Tel: 255-22-2666752/2668445  
 Ext.2101  
 Fax: 255-22-2668759,  
 E-mail: [drps@out.ac.tz](mailto:drps@out.ac.tz)

Date: July 8<sup>th</sup>, 2016.

Regional Administrative Secretary  
 Kagera Region  
 P.O.Box  
 Kagera

**RE: RESEARCH CLEARANCE**

The Open University of Tanzania was established by an act of Parliament No. 17 of 1992, which became operational on the 1<sup>st</sup> March 1993 by public notice No. 55 in the official Gazette. The act was however replaced by the Open University of Tanzania charter of 2005, which became operational on 1<sup>st</sup> January 2007. In line with the later, the Open University mission is to generate and apply knowledge through research. To facilitate and to simplify research process therefore, the act empowers the Vice Chancellor of the Open University of Tanzania to issue research clearance, on behalf of the Government of Tanzania and Tanzania Commission for Science and Technology, to both its staff and students who are doing research in Tanzania. With this brief background, the purpose of this letter is to introduce to you Mr. Rweyendera, Gosbert Ngonge HD/E/785/T.11 pursuing Doctor of Philosophy (PhD). We hereby grant this clearance to conduct a research titled "Community Involvement in the Management of Community Secondary Schools. The case of Coast and Kagera Regions (Tanzania)". He/She will conduct his/her research at Kagera Region from July 11<sup>th</sup>, 2016 to August 11<sup>th</sup>, 2016.

In case you need any further information, kindly do not hesitate to contact the Deputy Vice Chancellor (Academic) of the Open University of Tanzania, P.O. Box 23409, Dar es Salaam. Tel: 022-2-2668820. We lastly thank you in advance for your assumed cooperation and facilitation of this research academic activity.

Yours sincerely,

  
 Prof Hossea Rwegoshora  
**For: VICE CHANCELLOR**  
**THE OPEN UNIVERSITY OF TANZANIA**

**THE OPEN UNIVERSITY OF TANZANIA**  
**DIRECTORATE OF RESEARCH, PUBLICATIONS, AND POSTGRADUATE STUDIES**

Kawawa Road, Kinondoni Municipality,  
P.O. Box 23409  
Dar es Salaam, Tanzania  
<http://www.out.ac.tz>



Tel: 255-22-2666752/2668445  
Ext.2101  
Fax: 255-22-2668759,  
E-mail: [drps@out.ac.tz](mailto:drps@out.ac.tz)

Date: July 8<sup>th</sup>, 2016.

Regional Administrative Secretary  
Coast Region  
P.O.Box  
Kibaha

**RE: RESEARCH CLEARANCE**

The Open University of Tanzania was established by an act of Parliament No. 17 of 1992, which became operational on the 1<sup>st</sup> March 1993 by public notice No. 55 in the official Gazette. The act was however replaced by the Open University of Tanzania charter of 2005, which became operational on 1<sup>st</sup> January 2007. In line with the later, the Open University mission is to generate and apply knowledge through research. To facilitate and to simplify research process therefore, the act empowers the Vice Chancellor of the Open University of Tanzania to issue research clearance, on behalf of the Government of Tanzania and Tanzania Commission for Science and Technology, to both its staff and students who are doing research in Tanzania. With this brief background, the purpose of this letter is to introduce to you Mr. Rweyendera, Gosbert Ngonge HD/E/785/T.11 pursuing Doctor of Philosophy (PhD). We hereby grant this clearance to conduct a research titled "Community Involvement in the Management of Community Secondary Schools. The case of Coast and Kagera Regions (Tanzania)". He/She will conduct his/her research at Kagera Region from July 11<sup>th</sup>, 2016 to August 11<sup>th</sup>, 2016.

In case you need any further information, kindly do not hesitate to contact the Deputy Vice Chancellor (Academic) of the Open University of Tanzania, P.O. Box 23409, Dar es Salaam. Tel: 022-2-2668820. We lastly thank you in advance for your assumed cooperation and facilitation of this research academic activity.

Yours sincerely,

Prof Hossea Rwegoshora  
**For: VICE CHANCELLOR**  
**THE OPEN UNIVERSITY OF TANZANIA**

THE UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA  
PRESIDENT'S OFFICE  
REGIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT

Telagrams: "REGCOM COAST"  
Tel. No. 023-2402287/2402066  
Fax No. 023-2402358/2402151  
E- Mail: [ras@pwani.go.tz](mailto:ras@pwani.go.tz)  
[ras.pwani@tamisemi.go.tz](mailto:ras.pwani@tamisemi.go.tz)



Regional Commissioner's Office,  
Coast Region,  
P.O. Box 30080,  
**KIBAHA.**

In reply please quote:  
Ref . No. FA.221/265/01A/104

22<sup>th</sup> August, 2016

District Administrative Secretary,  
**KIBAHA AND MKURANGA  
COAST REGION.**

RE: **RESEARCH CLEARANCE**

Please kindly refer to the above subject Matter.

I would like to introduce to you **Mr. Rweyendera, Gosbert Ngonge** who is a bonafide Phd Student of the Open University of Tanzania.

At the moment he has been given a permission to conduct a research titled "**Community Involvement in the Management of Community Secondary School**" The period to which this permission has been granted is from **August 23<sup>th</sup>, 2016 to October 29<sup>th</sup>, 2016**

You are requested to provide necessary assistance which will enable him to complete the research study successfully.

S. Mulibo

For: **REGIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE SECRETARY  
COAST REGION**

KATIBU TAMBA Mkoa  
P.O. Box 30080  
KIBAHA - PWANI

**Copy to** Vice Chancellor,  
The Open University of Tanzania,  
Directorate of Research, Publications and Postgraduate Studies,  
Kawawa Road, Kinondoni Municipality,  
P. O. Box 23409,  
**DAR ES SALAAM.**

**Mr. Rweyendera, Gosbert Ngonge.**

## KIBAHA TOWN COUNCIL

ALL CORRESPONDENCES SHOULD BE ADDRESSED TO TOWN DIRECTOR

P.O.BOX 30112  
TEL NO: 023 - 2402886  
FAX No: 023 - 240 2007

OFFICE OF THE TOWN DIRECTOR

KIBAHA TOWN COUNCIL



REF.No. KTC/E.40/ VOL IV/3/

02 / 09 / 2016

HEADS OF COMMUNITY SECONDARY SCHOOLS,  
TUMBI & PANGANI SECONDARY SCHOOLS,  
KIBAHA TOWN COUNCIL

### RE: RESEARCH PERMIT

Kindly refer to the above heading.

I would like to introduce to you **Mr. Rweyendera, Gosbert Ngone**; a bona fide student from the **Open University of Tanzania** who will conduct a research in your schools.

The title of the research is "**Community involvement in the management of community Secondary School**"

The period to which this permission has been granted is from 23<sup>th</sup> August to 29<sup>th</sup> October, 2016.

Please provide necessary assistance to facilitate the completion of his research.

  
 Joyce J. Kapesa  
 For: TOWN DIRECTOR  
 KIBAHA TOWN COUNCIL

AFISA ELIMU SEKONDARI  
 HALMASHAURI YA MJI KIBAHA  
 P. O. Box 30112  
 KIBAHA

THE UNITED REPUBLIC OF TANZANIA  
PRESIDENT OFFICE  
REGIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT

KIBAHA DISTRICT  
Tel. No: 023 - 2402012  
Fax No: 023 - 2402012  
email: das.kibaha@pwani.go.tz

District Commissioner's Office  
P.O. Box 30175  
KIBAHA



In reply please quotes

Ref. No. AB.120/255/01/197

23<sup>rd</sup> August, 2016

Town Director,  
**KIBAHA TOWN COUNCIL,**  
**KIBAHA.**

District Executive Director,  
**KIBAHA DISTRICT COUNCIL,**  
**KIBAHA.**

**RE: RESEARCH PERMIT**

Kindly refer to the mentioned topic.

2. I am writing to introduce to you **MR. RWEYENDERA, GOSBERT NGONGE** who is a bonafide PhD student of the Open University of Tanzania. He has been approved to conduct a research titled "**Community involvement in the Management of Community Secondary School**".

The period to which this permission has been granted is from August 23<sup>th</sup>, 2016 to October 29<sup>th</sup>, 2016 and will be conducted at Kibaha District.

You are requested to provide necessary assistance which will enable him to complete the research study successfully.

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to be 'H. A. Masoud'.

H. A. Masoud,

For: **DISTRICT ADMINISTRATIVE SECRETARY**  
**KIBAHA**

✓ CC: Rweyendera Gosbert Ngonge

**HALMASHAURI YA WILAYA KIBAHA**

Simu No.023-2402240  
 Fax. No.023-2402240  
 E-Mail:[kibahadc@gmail.com](mailto:kibahadc@gmail.com)

S. L. P. 30153,  
**KIBAHA.**

**Kumb Na KDC /C.60/2/163**

**26/08/2016**

Wakuu wa Shule,  
 Shule za Sekondari Rafsanjan Soga na Dosa Azizi,  
 Halmashauri ya Wilaya Kibaha.

**YAH: KIBALI CHA KUFANYA UTAFITI**

Tafadhali jihusishe na kichwa cha habari hapo juu,

Ofisi imepokea barua ya tarehe 23<sup>rd</sup> August, 2016 yenye Kumb Na AB.120/255/01/197 kutoka Chuo kikuu Huria cha Tanzania ikimtambulisha Ndg. **Mr. Rweyendera Gosbert Ngonge** ambaye anakuja kufanya utafiti katika Halmashauri ya Wilaya ya Kibaha.

Kwa barua hii namtambulisha kwako. Tafadhali apewe ushirikiano ili aweze kufanya utafiti.

Nakutakia kazi njema.

Siza O. Mwakajinga  
 Kny. MKURUGENZI MTENDAJI  
 HALMASHAURI YA WILAYA  
**KIBAHA.**

**Kny. MKURUGENZI MTENDAJI  
 KIBAHA**

**Nakala:**

1. Mkurugenzi Mtendaji (H/W - Kibaha)
2. Ndg. Msaki, Alosia
3. Chuo Kikuu Huria cha Tanzania.

